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R. Freeman Butts and His Concept of International Education: Selected Aspects

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R. FREEMAN BUTTS AND HIS CONCEPT OF INTERNATIONAL
EDUCATION: SELECTED ASPECTS

by

Yolande Marie Wersching

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

January

1985

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I wish to express my appreciation and thanks to the members of my committee. To Dr. John M. Wozniak, for his constant encouragement, words of wisdom, humor and friendship displayed in so much abundance. To Dr. Gerald L. Gutek, who first suggested this topic to me, for his support and advice, for suggesting editorial and content changes, I am most grateful. To Dr. Steven I. Miller for being a part of my doctoral work and for serving on my committee. To Dr. Marcel Fredericks for having served on my committee and for my initial introduction to the doctoral program, for words of encouragement and criticism and for being a friend.

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Dr. Robert Ennen who started me on the road to another degree;
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To my family whose encouragement and spirit of International
Education will always be remembered. And to my husband, Edward
Wersching, who stood by me in good times and bad, and whose
love, patience and encouragement made this study possible.

PREFACE

After my first meeting with R. Freeman Butts in Milwaukee (November 1983), I was reminded of the saying -- a man for all seasons. He is indeed such a man. I was immediately struck by the fact that at an age when most men would be content with "quiet retirement" Dr. Butts was very active attending national conferences and giving lectures not only in the United States, but abroad. It is an honor for me to have met and talked to such a man who has been part of the makings of educational history and policy making in the United States.

This study will focus on the man and his ideas on international education. The study originally was to be based on published material only. However, at my first meeting with Dr. Butts in Milwaukee on 4 November 1983, he suggested that I look into the large amount of unpublished materials which are deposited in the Hoover Institution Archives as part of the Hanna Collection.¹ At the Hoover Institution Archives I discovered an enormous amount of material which was not

¹ Fakhreddin Moussavi, ed. Guide to the Hanna Collection and Related Archival Materials at the Hoover Institution on War, Revolution, and Peace on the Role of Education on Twentieth Century Society. (Stanford, California: Hoover Institution Press, 1982.)

completely cataloged. Dr. Butts also had in his office at the Hoover Institution several boxes of material which would eventually go into the archival collection.

It soon became obvious that the study would be incomplete if I did not use unpublished material as well as published material. In the course of my readings I found that I had to change the scope and limitations of my study. It had been expanded to include published and unpublished sources, and it had been limited to Dr. Butts' activities in two countries only, namely, Australia and Africa. His return to Teachers College, Columbia University from Australia marked the beginning of his involvement in international education; and, of all the programs and projects that he was involved in, Dr. Butts takes particular pride in the Teachers for East Africa Project at Teachers College. He worked in close cooperation with Professor Karl W. Bigelow of Teachers College in planning and resolving problems related to this very successful project.

I was fortunate to have met Dr. Butts twice. The first meeting and interview was at the Park East hotel in Milwaukee, Wisconsin (4 November 1983), and the second meeting and interview (9-12 January 1984). At both meetings Dr. Butts allowed me to tape our conversations.

A word now about the Hanna Collection. Housed in the Hoover Institution Archives at Stanford University, California, it is a resource for exploring how education influences war, revolution, peace and nation-building in the twentieth century. Founded with a gift of

more than \$1,000,000 by Paul and Jean Hanna, it is a working part of the Hoover Institutions research and publications program. Dr. Paul Hanna was for many years the Lee L. Jacks Professor of Child Education at Stanford University and is now Senior Research Fellow at the Hoover Institution. The Hoover Institution itself is recognized as one of the world's largest centers for documentation and research on political, economic, and social change in the twentieth century. The papers of R. Freeman Butts are part of the Hanna Collection.

VITA

The author, Yolande Marie Wersching, is the daughter of Basil M. Pinto and Aileen (Saldanha) Pinto. She was born in Mangalore, India.

Her elementary and secondary education was completed at Nazareth Convent High School, Ootacamund, India, in 1959.

In June 1960, she entered Mount Carmel College, Bangalore, India and received the degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1963. In June, 1963, she entered Central College, Bangalore, India, and received the degree of Master of Arts in 1965. She received the degree of Master of Arts in Library Science in 1971 from Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois.

She came to the United States in 1966. She is currently employed as Bibliographer at the Loyola University Library.

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CHAPTER I

EDUCATIONAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

OF R. FREEMAN BUTTS

Since the end of World War II, the United States had been living in a world far different from the one following World War I when men were brought up to be "national men." The post-World War II world needed "international men" in all countries. According to Tewksbury:

The position of the United States has dramatically changed from the days when neutrality and isolationism were the accepted ideals of the American people. Our nation is now deeply involved in international affairs, and our very survival is at stake; yet our schools, by and large, continue to educate national men and women of limited vision and understanding in world affairs.

As we face the profound changes that have taken place all about us, we are forced to ask ourselves why it is that our educational system has remained, for the most part, geared to producing young men and women with the same outlook on the world that we possessed in our youth, why is it that our schools have failed to prepare the next generation for the world that has become so different? Must we assume that schools tend to follow rather than to lead in times of social change? If so, then why do they follow so slowly the trend of the times?¹

The United States had remained in virtual isolation until World War II. After the war, the United States became a world leader and the American people became more internationally minded than they had ever been. Butts himself says that "War

¹ Donald G. Tewksbury. "American Education and the International Scene." Teachers College Record 60 (April 1959) : 357.

accelerates social and educational change, and postwar periods usually see disruptions of old patterns."² Butts was part of this change facing American education after the war. He became active in the international programs of Teachers College, Columbia University, and also an active voice in the field of teacher education in the United States.

R. Freeman Butts, who began his efforts in international education in 1954, has exercised an important role in internationalizing American education. He was born on May 14, 1910, in Springfield, Illinois, to Robert Freeman and Cornelia A. (Paddock) Butts. The Butts family hailed from the small town of Pana, Illinois. A former resident of Pana remembers a drugstore run by a member of the Butts family in the 1920's and 1930's. The family of R. Freeman Butts had moved to Springfield shortly before his birth.

Butts attended the local public schools in Springfield, Illinois, and remembers being a good student. A recently located 10th grade report card shows him getting grades in the upper 90's in subjects such as Latin, Algebra and Mathematics.

² R. Freeman Butts, A Cultural History of Western Education: Its Social and Intellectual Foundations. 2d ed. (New York : McGraw Hill, 1955), p. vii.

Butts describes his father as a "...small business man. In the small town of Pana, Illinois, he worked in the Post Office and knew everyone. He had a phenomenal memory for persons and events. I am not too clear about all of his enterprises after the family moved to Springfield where I was born. I know that he was circulation manager for one of the major newspapers. He went into business for himself and ran the "Freeman Jewel Company" (a mail order business) for many years. I believe that this folded up in the depression of the 1920's. Whereupon he turned to insurance selling and became a general agent for the Pan-American Life Insurance Co. of New Orleans. Finding that he was a successful insurance man, he established his own general insurance business, the R.F. Butts Insurance Agency, ranging over life, health, accident, fire, casualty, and automobile insurance. He was never wealthy, but managed to be self-supporting until his death at 92."³ He was able to send Butts and his two brothers R. Freeman and Porter, to college at the University of Wisconsin. The oldest, R. Freeman attended the University of Wisconsin for one year; the second, Porter, graduated from the University of Wisconsin and is

² Excerpt from personal letter from R. Freeman Butts to author, April 3, 1984.

still there (Madison) after 50 years.⁴

After graduating from Springfield High School in Springfield, Illinois, Butts went to join the "first class to enter the Experimental College of the University of Wisconsin under the magnetic leadership of Alexander Meiklejohn."⁵ Above all else, Alexander Meiklejohn was an educator. Born in Rochdale, England on February 3, 1872, he moved with his family to Pawtucket, Rhode Island, when he was 8 years old. He attended the local public school and later went to Brown University in Providence, Rhode Island, where he received his B.A. and M.A. degrees. He received his Ph.D. at Cornell University in 1897. He began his teaching career at Brown University and at the age of 40, in 1912, he was inaugurated as president of

⁴ The oldest son was named R(ober) Freeman Butts and known to his family and friends as "R". The second son, Porter, is known as "P" to his family and friends. The youngest R. Freeman (not to be confused with the oldest Robert Freeman), is known to his family and friends as "J" for Junior. Although the Library of Congree cards say Robert (a mistake made in the 1930's and which apparently cannot be changed, even though Dr. Butts has written to Dr. Daniel Boorstin, Librarian of Congress, about it), Butts's legal name is R. Freeman Butts.

⁵ R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day: Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday April 11, 1975).

Amherst College. Amherst was noted as a quiet, staid campus, and Meiklejohn brought much life and excitement to that college. He believed

...that in college men should learn to think and that thinking means applying knowledge to the problems of living.⁶

He therefore shifted the emphasis from training all-rounded men to developing men of intelligence. He believed that intelligent, thinking men, were needed for the continuation of a democratic society. He modified and changed the curriculum at Amherst; he invited outstanding people from outside the college to stay on campus and join in student discussions. In short, he transformed Amherst into an institution of academic excellence. Because of conflict with some of the older faculty and alumni, Meiklejohn was asked to resign in 1923. At the invitation of Glenn Franks, President of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Meiklejohn went to Madison to form an Experimental College within the university.

The Experimental College opened as a two-year college in the fall of 1927 with a class of 119 students. As Brown explains:

Its goals were to get students to think about human

⁶ Alexander Meiklejohn: Teacher of Freedom. Edited by Cynthia Stokes Brown. (Berkeley, California : Meiklejohn Civil Liberties Union, 1981), p. 12.

problems, without being restricted by academic disciplines, and to get them to construct a scheme of reference, which they could use to make some sense of specialized knowledge as they acquired it later in their last two years in the regular university classrooms.⁷

The college taught one course for each of the first two years. The first year was devoted to studying Athenian civilization and the second year consisted of a study of modern America (the nineteenth and twentieth centuries). As Brown explains:

The contrast between these two civilizations was intended to bring into focus the underlying problems of human living in Western societies.⁸

The Experimental College did well for a few years. In the late 1920's enrollment declined due to the Depression and also parental fears that their sons were not acquiring enough of the sort of knowledge to prepare them for jobs. After much controversy and discussion on the part of the University of Wisconsin faculty, the Experimental College closed its doors in June 1932. However, the effect it had on its 327 students lived on. Brown says:

The solidarity of the "guinea-pigs" and their sense that something special had happened to them were expressed repeatedly at reunions in 1942, 1962 and 1977.⁹

⁷ Ibid. , p. 22.

⁸ Ibid. , p. 23.

⁹ Ibid. , p. 35.

Meiklejohn retired in 1938 to Berkeley, California, where he organized the School of Social Studies which dealt with adult education. This school closed in 1942. Meiklejohn continued to lecture and write up until his death in 1964. He was well known in his later years as an expert on the First Amendment and for his lectures and writings on free speech of which he was an ardent admirer and defender. Butts reminisces about his days with the Experimental College and Meiklejohn:

For two years I revelled in the comparative study of the civilization of fifth century Athens and nineteenth century America. The attempt to understand a civilization whole and to bring to bear the several humanistic studies and social sciences upon that understanding was the most exciting intellectual experience imaginable under the tutelage of such men as Meiklejohn (philosopher), John Gaus (political scientist), Walter Agard (Literary classicist), John Walker Powell (philosopher), Carl Russell Fish (historian), Clarence Ayers (economist), and their colleagues. This was an exercise in interdisciplinary studies that made me permanently sceptical of the single disciplinary approach to liberal education and to professional education. The combination of a prescribed program of studies (meaning every student ought to grapple in common with the most important problems facing all students and societies alike) with a flexible freedom of teaching methods seemed to me to be the ideal combination if we were to take seriously the essential meaning of a college. And, above all, was the model of the university teacher exemplified by Meiklejohn himself, tenacious in getting his students to think about the present as well as the past and fearless in taking on his dean and the university professoriate and the reactionary politicians and newspaper editors of the time. Devotion to intellectual freedom was his magnificent obsession -- an absolutist when it

came to the First Amendment, the supreme commitment to which a teacher should be loyal.¹⁰

Butts was greatly influenced by Meiklejohn. Meiklejohn's nontraditional program at the Experimental College was aimed at improving the qualities of teaching and learning. Butts emerged from his Experimental College years firm in his belief that the "single disciplinary approach" to any type of education was inadequate. In his later years at Teachers College, and while he was involved in its international programs, Butts assisted in promoting total education for the children of the developing nations. He stressed that they should be taught not only the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic, but also history and geography and above all the history of their own country and people. With this background, they should be able to emerge as leaders of their newly independent nations. Freedom of speech and civil liberties were ideals that Butts tried to foster and teach his students. These were learned from Meiklejohn who emerged in his later years, as an expert on the First Amendment. Meiklejohn eventually became one of the five members of Butts's doctoral dissertation committee.

Butts attended the Experimental College of the University of

¹⁰ R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day: Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday, April 11, 1975).

Wisconsin (Madison) from 1927-1929. He graduated with a B.A. in Humanities (Honors) with a major in Philosophy (Thesis Honors) in 1931. Urged by a mentor, John Guy Fowlkes,¹¹ he decided to go into educational administration and graduated with an M.A. in 1932. While attending college Butts had been working as an assistant and also waiting on tables. John Guy Fowlkes, a teacher of school administration and soon to be Dean of the University of Wisconsin School of Education, decided that Butts was not cut out to be an administrator. So it was decided that the next best thing was the history and philosophy of education. Unable to get an assistantship at Teachers College which he wanted to attend, Butts decided to stay at Madison.¹² He graduated in 1935 with a Ph.D. in the History of Education, with a minor in Philosophy. His dissertation on the rise of the elective system¹³ was later published as a book.¹⁴

¹¹ John Guy Fowlkes (1898-) was a professor in the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison from 1922-1946. He was appointed Dean of the School in 1947 and remained in that position until 1954.

¹² R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day, Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday, April 11, 1975).

¹³ R. Freeman Butts, "The Development of the Principle of Election of Studies in American Colleges and Universities." Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1935.

¹⁴ R. Freeman Butts, The College Charts Its Course: Historical Conceptions and Current Proposals. (New York : McGraw Hill, 1939).

While at the University of Wisconsin, Butts acted as advisor in the Experimental College in the Spring Session, 1932. While working toward his Ph.D. degree, he worked as an assistant in the School of Education, 1932-1935. Later in his career he returned to the University of Wisconsin as Lecturer in the School of Education, Summer Session, 1945; and as Visiting Professor of Education, Spring Session, 1949.

At Teachers College, Columbia University

After graduating from the University of Wisconsin, Butts went to Columbia University for what was to be the beginning of a long and distinguished career covering over forty years. According to Butts's reflections:

...my parents drove me to New York in early September, 1935, and left me on the steps at 12th Street with my shiny diploma and the prospect of \$100 a month for the next 10 months. As I walked nervously into the main entrance and looked vaguely around, an extremely cordial young man walked up and asked if he could be of help. It turned out to be Willard Elsbree¹⁵ who immediately took me under his wing, waltzed me over to John Jay Hall, got me a room, and under those circumstances had to be a friend ever since.

I mention this because, upon my arrival the cordiality of welcome was one of the notable impressions made upon

¹⁵ Willard Sligerland Elsbree (1897-), Professor of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, which he joined in 1927.

the newcomer from the Middle West. For example, when I caught up with Professor Reisner, it was at the registration tables in Russell Hall. Few can now remember the time when consulting advisers in two big rooms was a time for general and genial renewal after the summer vacation. When I identified myself to Professor Reisner¹⁶ he greeted me warmly and then asked me what courses I would like to take for my degree. I gulped and stammered out "Well, you see, Professor Reisner, I already have my Ph.D." That I am sure jarred him, but he immediately recovered and said, "Why, that's fine, Freeman, I'll be proud to have a Ph.D. as my assistant."¹⁷

From 1935 to 1936 Butts was a member of the Graduate Faculties of Political Science and Philosophy at Teachers College; he also did post-doctoral studies in history, philosophy and education. He was appointed an Assistant in History of Education from 1935-1936. Following this there was a quick rise to Instructor in Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education (1938-1941); Associate Professor of Education (1941-48); and Professor of Education (1948-1958). Butts was appointed William F. Russell Professor in the

¹⁶ Edward Hartman Reisner (1885-1958), received his Ph.D. at Columbia University in 1914. He joined the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University in 1917. He authored several books and taught the history and philosophical foundations of education.

¹⁷ R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day; Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday April 11, 1975).

Foundations of Education in 1958, and this was changed in 1975 to William F. Russell Professor Emeritus, a position he holds today at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Butts divides his years at Teachers College into three periods: the formative (1935-1946), when he was a junior member of the faculty; the florescent (1946-1959), when he assumed some administrative responsibility for the department; and the dispersive, as he has seen the department develop since 1960.

The men who most affected his professional and personal life within the department include Jesse Newlon,¹⁸ John Childs,¹⁹ George Counts,²⁰ and Bruce Raup.²¹ Newlon succeeded William H. Kilpatrick²²

¹⁸ Jesse Homer Newlon (1882-1941), was professor of education and director of the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University. Previous to that he was Superintendent of Schools in Denver, Colorado.

¹⁹ John Lawrence Childs (1889-), taught philosophy of education at Teachers College, Columbia University.

²⁰ George Sylvester Counts (1889-1974), was professor of education at several institutions but spent the major part of his professional career at Teachers College, Columbia University, from 1927-1956. Active in politics, he helped found the Liberal Party in New York. He was a prolific writer, authoring hundreds of articles and twenty-nine books.

²¹ Robert Bruce Raup (1888-1976), Professor of education at Teachers College. He joined the Philosophy and History of Education department in 1924.

²² William Heard Kilpatrick (1871-1965), an eminent philosopher of education, joined Teachers College in 1909. He taught at one time with John Dewey and has become known as the founder of the progressive movement in the United States.

as director of the Division (of Foundations of Education) and became the first head of the Department. At Teachers College, the other divisions were Administration, Guidance, Instruction, and Measurement and Research. Departments, at Teachers College, began in 1938-1939. Therefore, the Division of Foundations, in 1938, had three departments, Social and Philosophical Foundations, Educational Psychology, and Techniques of Measurement.²³ According to Butts:

Jack Childs became my model of what a professor of education ought to be in relation to the administration of the College...Childs was not only fearless in his criticism, but usually right.²⁴

George Counts is warmly remembered by Butts.

I always felt at ease with George Counts, admiring his global sweep and cosmic view of education, and civilization...When he wrote his brilliant counter-attack to James Wechsler's 1938 article in The Nation on "Twilight at Teachers College,"²⁵ charging decline of liberalism and academic freedom at Teachers College, George generously mentioned me along with Merle Curti as one of the "new faces" lending support to the liberal position at Teachers College.²⁶

²³ R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day: Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday April 11, 1975).

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ James Wechsler, "Twilight at Teachers College," Nation 147 (December 17 1938) : 661-663.

²⁶ R. Freeman Butts. "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day: Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday April 11 1975).

A man who practiced what he preached and "the one with whom I worked the closest and longest and from I learned the most in my formative years was Bruce Raup."²⁷ Raup and Butts jointly taught Education 200F, the "basic course in Educational Foundations," for seventeen years. Raup had co-taught the same course with other faculty members for many years before Butts joined him. Butts felt that Raup was a man who practiced what he preached. Although they disagreed on many things, they always agreed on the "...principles of justice, freedom, and democracy as they applied to education."²⁸ Raup and Butts spent as many as three hours a week discussing "the substance of the coming class session, not just allocating responsibilities for conducting the class."²⁹ Besides these discussions they spent a considerable amount of time "...taking long walks in the woods at Kent Cliffs, or long walks all the way down Broadway to the Roxy Theater to see "Alexander's Rag Time Band" one more time."³⁰

The florescent years from 1946-1959 included Butts's appointment as executive officer of the division from 1946 to 1956,

27 Ibid.

28 Ibid.

29 Ibid.

30 Ibid.

head of the department from 1948 to 1958, and director of the division from 1956 to 1959. This period saw the retirement from the division of Ed Reisner, Ernest Johnson, Harold Rugg, Bruce Raup, Lyman Bryson, John Childs, Ed Brunner, George Counts and Clarence Linton. Butts felt he was "...presiding over the liquidation of the original Department of Social and Philosophical Foundations."³¹

With new faces and ideas, the Department had to re-examine the foundations idea and prepare guidelines for future policy, programs and personnel. Butts commented on the impact of the 1930's and 1940's:

The Depression and World War II and their aftermaths convinced us that a new conception of the public good needed to be formulated, that we should develop a vision of the role of education in shaping the future. We did not shrink from trying to arouse commitments among our students...The ideology was predominantly reformist rather than neutral, value-laden rather than value-free, and a humanitarianism committed to improve or alleviate the human condition through educational means...We stressed the importance of public education and common schools as the prime agencies of education. We were policy-oriented rather more than we were devoted to the empirical stance of behavioralism. And we were definitely internationally minded rather than exclusively concerned with the domestic scene.³²

During the dispersive years from 1959-1960 to 1975 (when he retired from Teachers College), Butts became more and more

31 Ibid.

32 Ibid.

interested in international education.

Butts has held various other appointments at several universities over the years. Included among them are Visiting Professor at the University of Wisconsin (Madison) in 1949; Visiting Lecturer at the Southern Connecticut State College, 1975-76; Visiting Distinguished Professor of Education at San Jose State University, 1975-78; School of Education, Visiting Scholar, Stanford University, 1976-78; School of Education and Hoover Institution Visiting Scholar, Stanford University, 1980-81; Adjunct Professor in the Foundations of Education, Memphis State University, 1980-81; and Visiting Scholar, Hoover Institution, Stanford University, 1981-1984.

Introduction to International Education

Although Butts started out as a historian of education, his career made rapid strides from that area into the area of international education. He made many trips overseas in the course of his academic career, but his first trip overseas was intended to be one of relaxation, leisure and sightseeing.

On a blind date to a football game in Madison on October 7, 1934, Butts met the girl who later became his wife, Florence

Randolph Butts. In the summer of 1937 they went with friends³³ on what they would like to call their grand tour of Europe. " We rather grimly, said we better get to Europe in the summer of '37 while we still can and it turned out to be fortunately the case."³⁴ They covered all of Northern Europe in ten weeks including France, Holland, Finland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway and then went to Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Butts was interested in education and his good friend was interested in city management. As they visited various cities Butts went to the universities and his friend went to see the city managers and in the evening they would compare notes. In the first eighteen years of his professional life, by his own statement, it was the only trip he made overseas and his first such contact with "international education."

Throughout its history America has been greatly affected by the influx of ideas and scholar from Europe. Many Americans studies for advanced degrees at German universities and returned

³³ Mr. and Mrs. Lyman Moore. Lyman Sweet Moore (1910-1952), was a city manager. He was born in Attleboro, Massachusetts, and attended the Experimental College of the University of Wisconsin with Butts. They became best friends and were both "best man" at their respective weddings.

³⁴ Personal interview, Park East Hotel, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, November 4, 1983.

to America impressed by German scholarship and research. Scholars from America such as Calvin Stowe, had visited Europe and were inspired by schools in Prussia. Besides Stowe, Horace Mann, Charles Brooks, and Henry Barnard all held that the publicly controlled normal school was the most promising educational establishment in 19th century America. William James, the American philosopher and psychologist, studied in Germany. He formulated the theory of method known as Pragmatism, and his ideas and philosophy influenced educators in Europe. Schools, it was thought, for the first time, might be regarded as agents of social change. During the 19th century influences from Germany, Switzerland, and the Scandinavian countries helped shape the American educational system. During the 20th century the situation has been reversed, with many European countries borrowing ideas and practices from the United States. In the 1950's things began to change on the American scene in relation to international education.

In 1954 Butts took a sabbatical leave from Columbia University where he was head of the Department of Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education, and took part in a new cultural program sponsored by the government. He went to Melbourne, Australia, having received a Fulbright award for research in the philosophy of education at the Australian Council for Educational

Research. Butts's actual observation of teacher training programs in Australia and the recommendations he proposed for changing those programs³⁵ shaped his thinking and views on the teacher training programs that he later advocated for the Teachers for East Africa Program at Teachers College, and also for teachers in the developing nations of Africa and Asia.

Attitudes towards internationalism had changed since the end of World War II and in the 1940's and early 1950's the effort to change attitudes in the schools toward internationalism gained considerable headway in the United States, especially among progressive educators. However, the advent of the cold war and McCarthyism resulted in a new patriotism and distrust of anything and anyone who favored internationalism. The attacks on the progressive educators severely stymied the introduction of an international dimension into curriculums of schools, colleges and universities. Progressive educators of the 1800's wanted to reform the traditional teaching methods that were being used to teach children at the time. They believed that children should not all be treated alike

³⁵ R. Freeman Butts, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).

but that teachers should treat each child as an individual. They believed that children learned best when they were interested not when they were forced to memorize material from books. Schools, they thought, should have laboratories, gymnasiums, and kitchens, so that children could learn through experience and direct contact rather than from reading a book alone. During the 1940's and 1950's many educators began to criticize education. They felt that children were not learning fundamental subjects like reading, writing and arithmetic, well enough. Among the critics of progressive education was Arthur Bestor.³⁶

In the mid-1950's farseeing educators and scholars realised that Americans should know more about the cultures and peoples of countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Private foundations like the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation, funded work in the field of international studies. When the Soviet Union launched the Sputnik I Spaceship in 1957, American schools were criticised for their curriculum and methods of teaching. There was much controversy and demands for change in curriculums, methods, and more training in science and mathematics were made. A direct result of this

³⁶ Arthur Bestor, The Restoration of Learning. (New York : Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955).

controversy was the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, which provided funds to major universities to "promote instruction and research in the languages, institutions, cultures and societies of the vast majority of the peoples of the world about whom the American people and its leaders knew far too little."³⁷

The Fulbright Act of 1946 added another dimension to international education. As originally drawn up, the Fulbright program utilized funds derived from the sale of surplus United States properties left in certain foreign countries at the end of World War II. It had the dual purpose of American student and faculty study or research abroad, and foreign student and faculty research or study in the United States. The Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961 broadened and strengthened the program and elevated it to the jurisdiction of an assistant secretary of state. (For a more complete discussion of the Mutual Educational and Cultural Act of 1961, see note).³⁸

³⁷ Encyclopedia of Education. 1871 ed. , s.v. "International education: an overview," by R. Freeman Butts.

³⁸ Frank Goldman Bailen, "Mutual Educational and Cultural Act of 1961: an Historical Analysis and Chronological Review, 1938-1964." Ph.D. Dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1980.

Butts was one among the early recipients of a Fulbright Research Fellowship and he spent six months in Melbourne, Australia. The ship he travelled on touched African and Asian ports, but his experience was still with the European culture. He studied and learned about the education and culture of Australia and wrote about it in his book, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education.³⁹ Butts was now "deeply involved in the first phase of America's new role in education - the role of direct overseas study and actual exchange of academic persons."⁴⁰

It was his Australian experience that moved him into the international arena at Teachers College, and it came at a time of administrative change at Teachers College. The President, William F. Russell⁴¹ had resigned, and Dean Hollis Caswell⁴² became the new president. Caswell, hearing that Butts had a Fulbright Fellowship

³⁹ R. Freeman Butts, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).

⁴⁰ R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. xv.

⁴¹ William Fletcher Russell (1890-1956), succeeded his father James Earl Russell as dean of Teachers College. He taught at several institutions before joining Teachers College in 1923. He was a leader in the field of comparative and international education and was the author of several books.

⁴² Hollis Leland Caswell (1901-), joined the faculty of Teachers College in 1938 where he rose to the position of Dean in 1949 and President in 1954. He was active in the curriculum field and wrote several books and articles in this area.

came over to his apartment and asked if, when he returned from Australia, Butts would act as a consultant to him in regard to the international programs at Teachers College. Butts agreed. At this point, requests were coming in from newly independent countries for assistance in organizing their school systems and educational programs. Caswell asked Butts to be involved in respect to what Teachers could and should do in response to these requests. In commenting on this phase of his career, Butts wrote:

My life became even busier as I took on the administrative responsibilities for the overseas programs that were bursting all over : Afghanistan, India, Peru, and above all, the Teachers for East Africa Project, Peace Corps training programs galore, and participation in the Carnegie-funded programs of teacher education with African universities.⁴³

In 1959 Butts was involved in America's second phase of its role in international education, namely the government's new program of technical assistance to non-western countries of the world. Butts journeyed to India to see how Teachers College could assist in the development of that country's National Institute of Education. The debate at the time was whether the contract from Teachers College should be located at the University of Delhi or

⁴³ R. Freeman Butts, "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day : Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday April 11, 1975).

with the Ministry of Education. Butts favored its being located at the University, but the contract was given to the Ministry. On his way to India, Butts visited educational institutions in Japan, Hong Kong, Thailand and Burma. Air travel had narrowed distances between countries and international education had come to the forefront.

In 1964, much to Butts's regret, the name of the Department to which he belonged at Teachers College, was changed from Social and Philosophical Foundations to Philosophy and the Social Sciences. Butts states that current Department members felt that their predecessors had put too much emphasis on ideology rather than the social science disciplines; that they were more interested in social and educational actions than in empirical research; that they preferred to have generalists rather than specialists. The Department also dropped international relations and comparative education from the list of disciplines. (Butts, "Reflections..."). This action necessitated the establishment of a new program in International Educational Development within the Institute of International Studies.

In 1961 Butts was appointed by President Caswell to the position of Director and Associate Dean for International Studies at Teachers College. He held this position until his retirement in 1975; he found himself involved in the third phase of America's

international role in education, that of training and sending Americans for overseas service. Just two months before the Peace Corps was launched, the Teachers for East Africa Project was underway at Teachers College. The two programs sent thousands of Americans to many parts of the world to teach at schools and universities in other nations.

The Teachers for East Africa Project⁴⁴ was one of the most successful programs undertaken by Teachers College. Its success was in large measure due to the dedication and determination of several people at Teachers College and at Makerere College. Butts was one of those instrumental in organizing the program at Teachers College.

In 1961 the newly independent East African countries of Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar, faced a critical shortage of secondary school teachers. When these countries asked for help, Teachers College seemed to be the most logical institution to approach. In 1960, the Afro-Anglo-American Program⁴⁵ in teacher education had been launched to " further the exchange of information, faculty, and students among Teachers College, the University of

⁴⁴ The Teachers for East Africa Project will henceforth be referred to as TEA.

⁴⁵ The Afro-Anglo-American Program will henceforth be referred to as AAA.

London's Institute of Education, and twelve cooperating teacher training institutions throughout English-speaking Africa."⁴⁶ This project was funded by the Carnegie Corporation which saw "...the possibility of mobilizing additional resources in both Africa and Britain, while at the same time contributing directly to the development of African universities and their capacity for community service."⁴⁷ Professor Karl A. Bigelow of Teachers College, John Lewis and John Wilson of the University of London's Institute of Education, and Andrew Taylor of the Institute of Education, University College of Ghana, were jointly responsible for the ideas that resulted in the AAA Program. Professor Bigelow had been interested in the development of African education for many years and was well acquainted with leading African educators of the time. When the East African countries needed help in their secondary schools, they therefore came to Teachers College.

The AAA provided for the exchange of faculty among member institutions, and for fellowships for Africans to study at Teachers College; fellowships were also available for American secondary school

⁴⁶ Letter from Ken Toepfer to R.F. Butts concerning brochure on international studies at Teachers College, June 29, 1964. (Kenneth Harold Toepfer (1929-), is Provost of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York).

⁴⁷ E. Jefferson Murphy, Creative Philanthropy: Carnegie Corporation and Africa, 1953-1973. (New York : Teachers College Press, c1976), p. 123.

teachers to take advanced studies at Teachers College and the Institute of Education in London; and for small conferences attended by key personnel from member institutions. Cooperation between the three educational institutions was the prime reason for the success of the AAA program.

Several months after the AAA became a reality, it was strengthened by the formation of the TEA program which was technically separate, but functioned in close cooperation with the AAA.

The TEA was sponsored by the Agency for International Development (AID) and was administered by Teachers College. Teachers College already had very close links with Makerere College in Kampala, Uganda, through the AAA program. The plan was to recruit and send 150 American college graduates to Makerere where they would be given a special course by its Institute of Education to prepare them to teach in East African schools. Teachers College would provide additional staff to assist in the sudden increase in students at Makerere.

The TEA Program had two related aspects: "assistance to the nations of East Africa in their efforts to increase the supply of qualified African teachers, and emergency provision of qualified secondary school teachers from the United States."

In the course of four years, from 1961-1964, Teachers

College recruited, screened, selected, trained and assigned 463 American college graduates to the secondary schools of East Africa. These teachers served for two or more years as fully qualified teachers, paid and supervised by professional officials of the newly independent African governments. Butts wrote:

The program had several major characteristics: it was based on a genuine and demonstrable need in the receiving countries; it was based upon detailed cooperative planning and careful preparation among the British who were giving up authority, the Africans who were assuming authority, and the Americans who were being asked to assist in the transition (in fact, many new British teachers also became involved in the project); the teachers were carefully interviewed and selected to assure high professional qualifications as defined in the educational codes of the East African countries; and the teachers were given specialized training to meet the particular conditions of teaching and pay required of the educational services of the several countries.⁴⁸

Teachers College had been involved for many years with the problems of education in Africa chiefly through its two programs, AAA and TEA. With the establishment of the Peace Corps, there were two programs directing teachers to African countries. Talks were underway in Washington between State Department, AID and Peace Corps officials to consider switching over the task of supplying teachers from the TEA program to the Peace Corps. Teachers College

⁴⁸ R. Freeman Butts, "Teachers for East Africa," (Unpublished paper, December 3, 1981), p. 2.

officials including Butts, were disturbed to find an agreement had already been reached and signed about the switch without their knowledge or advice.⁴⁹ In 1964, the Peace Corps assumed the responsibility of sending teachers to African countries. However, many of the East African governments and their Ministries of Education raised serious objections since the existing cooperative program was already providing well qualified teachers. TEA was a very successful program and East African educators felt that Peace Corps teachers would be of lesser quality. The East Africans also liked the TEA program because it involved Americans, the British, and Africans. Teachers College was also very reluctant to give it up. However, Teachers College had been training Peace Corps volunteers from 1961 and so they continued to do so after they gave up the TEA program.

The TEA Program accomplished its objective by preparing teachers for East Africa when they were urgently needed and also by training new African teachers to take over these functions once the Americans left. As Butts observed:

⁴⁹ During a personal interview with the author, Butts mentioned the bitterness this had caused between TEA and Peace Corps administrators. He remarked that someday he would like to write a book on this subject.

...the immediate shortage of teachers was relieved, schools were open and even expanded. Africanization was speeded up in the staffing of schools and government positions, and in many instances the nature of the curriculum and teaching procedures were modified as well.⁵⁰

Butts made many trips to Africa, attended numerous conferences (including one where he was on the same podium as Idi Amin of Uganda), delivered many keynote speeches, held many talks with noted African educators such as Senteza Kajubi of Makerere College. W. Senteza Kajubi has been affiliated with the National Institute of Education, Makerere University, Uganda, since 1964 when he was selected to direct the Institute. The Institute is a leading force in the improvement of education in Uganda. The Carnegie Corporation, which had confidence in Kajubi's abilities and enthusiasm, funded many of the Institute's programs and activities. After African members strongly argued for more representation in the AAA program, Kajubi was one of four African's who were made members of the AAA's executive committee in 1965 at the sixth conference meeting held at the Isle of Thorns, England. In 1969, the Association for Teacher Education in Africa was formed. This Association was a culmination of the AAA and it now reflected and symbolized the new African character of the Association.

⁵⁰ R. Freeman Butts, "Teachers for East Africa," (Unpublished paper, December 3, 1981), p. 2.

Senteza Kajubi of Makerere University was elected as the first chairman of the Association. Two years later he was replaced by A. Babatunde Fafunwa of Ife (Nigeria), thus ensuring four continuous years of widely accepted leadership. Senteza Kajubi is still associated with the National Institute of Education at Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.

Butts looks back on those years, justifiably, with much pride in his accomplishments and takes great pride in his role in the TEA Program. It should be noted that the TEA was only one of Teachers College's many overseas programs. Butts was also greatly involved in teacher education programs in Afghanistan, India and Peru.

In 1961-62 Butts was awarded a Carnegie travel fellowship to Africa and Asia. He studied teacher training programs in East Africa, West Africa, Singapore, Malaya, India and Afghanistan. In 1962 he visited Latin America, which, until then, had been neglected as an area of study by American educators. In the course of his involvement with International Studies at Teachers College, Butts made many trips overseas as an official representative of Teachers College. He looks back on those years and the people he met with great pride in his accomplishments.

Butts has been the recipient of many awards and honors

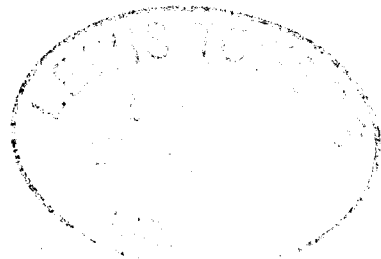
as a tribute to his academic distinction. He was Senior specialist, East-West Center, University of Hawaii, 1965; Special Scholar in residence, Aspen Institute for Humanistic Studies, Aspen, Colorado, 1973; he received the William Heard Kilpatrick Award from the Trustees of Teachers College, Columbia University for distinguished service in the philosophy of education, April, 1975; he was awarded the Rockefeller Foundation Humanities Fellowship for Research on the role of public education in American society, 1975-76; and the Charles F. Kettering Foundation Senior Fellowship, 1981-1984.

Undoubtedly, Butts views international education as an important part of America's educational process. He has travelled and lectured widely and served as president of four educational organizations. His commitment to public education has inspired scholars to devote themselves to the study and improvement of public schools and education. He would like to be remembered as an "advocate of the best possibilities of public education and the preparation of young people for promoting and preserving the democratic constitution."⁵¹

Although he considers himself, relatively, a latecomer in some respects to the field of international education, Butts

⁵¹ Personal interview, Park East Hotel, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, November 4, 1983.

has most definitely left his mark on the study of educational foundations and international education in America and abroad. Currently Dr. Butts lives in Palo Alto, California, and keeps himself busy writing on civic education. As he said in a recent letter, "I am busier than ever."



CHAPTER II

APPRAISAL AND ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The United States plays a major role in today's interdependent world, and the rest of the world expects much from the United States in trying to solve the problems of, among many, hunger, poverty, communication, nuclear weapons, and the quest for peace. While the United States had remained isolated in the early part of the twentieth century, the latter half demanded that Americans learn more about the rest of the world, its peoples and cultures. With an educated, informed people, it was believed that the United States could better deal with the rest of the world. The United States has had to alter its thinking in many areas including international education. This chapter attempts to give a brief outline of international education and its development in the United States.

International education has no clearly defined boundaries. It describes, rather, a wide range of educational and cultural activities among the nations of the world.

Butts cites two definitions of the term "International education" made in 1950 and in 1968, to show how the focus of the term has grown.

The term "international education" may be applied to the various educational and cultural relations

among nations...; it refers to international efforts at cooperation and harmony in the exchange of teachers and students, rehabilitation of backward areas, mutual understanding through school instruction, and the like.¹

International education...is seen as the field concerned with cross-national relations and cooperation and exchanges of educational information and personnel. The three major areas of interest associated with international education are international relations and cooperation in education; cross-national movements of educational materials, students, teachers, consultants, and aid; and education for international and cross-cultural understanding.²

Butts feels that the usage of the term "international education" should be limited so that it becomes as manageable as possible.

International education should not try to cover what is known as "cultural relations", "cultural affairs", or "cultural exchange." Although these are educational in a loose sense, their influence is only temporary. Education should not be used as a political tool by the government says Butts. The term

¹Encyclopedia of Educational Research. Revised edition., s.v. "International Education," by William W. Brickman.

²S. Spaulding, J. Singleton, and P. Watson. "The context of international development education." Review of Educational Research, June 1968, p. 210-212.

international education "should not try to include the whole range of cultural or intellectual relations among nations....the term should be limited primarily to "formal education" rather than used to embrace all of "non-formal" or "informal" education."³ Formal education, as he sees it, is the carrying on of regularized or organized programs of teaching and learning at identifiable times and places. Informal education, as he sees it, is that education conducted by one's parents, priests, advertiser's radio, television, etc.

Butts in his essay on America's role in international education⁴ points out that the National Society for the Study of Education, over a period of 67 years and a total of more than 130 yearbooks, had devoted only 2 yearbooks to the subject of International Education. This, says Butts, notes that the American educational profession had been more concerned with domestic affairs than with international educational concerns.

³ R. Freeman Butts. "America's role in international education: a perspective on thirty years." The United States and International Education. Sixty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. (Chicago : University of Chicago Press, 1969), p. 11.

⁴ Ibid.

The two yearbooks on international education (36th, 1937; 58th, 1959) elaborated on what the term "international education" meant to Americans. 1. "The effort of the American schools to impart knowledge about the other peoples of the world and to create favorable attitudes towards them and 2. the effort to aid other peoples to improve themselves by educational means."⁵

The third yearbook (68th, 1969) highlights these two ideas and adds a third - that of travel of students and teachers from one country to another to learn firsthand what the other has to teach.

Historically, the term international education was used to mean formal educational programs including the exchange of teachers and students among countries. Since World War II however, the term has included aid to schools and libraries of developing nations; it also includes a variety of governmental and private programs that promote communication among students and scholars all over the world. Such activities as educating citizens in

⁵
Ibid. , p. 6.

international education are essential to their being able to function in the modern world.

Prior to World War II there were very few scholars interested in international education in the United States. World War II showed the inadequacy of the American soldier's understanding of international cultures and languages. The federal government therefore funded courses in area and language studies at sixty-five universities. These courses were aimed primarily for military personnel and are now viewed as the beginnings of area studies in higher education.

The end of World War II renewed educators' interest in establishing an organization for world educational cooperation. During the war the Allied Ministers of Education in Exile had met in London to discuss the rebuilding of education in Europe after the war. In April 1944, the United States and the Allied Ministers led the movement that eventually formed the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

The establishment of the United Nations resulted in the formation of several new federal agencies and programs in the United States. Among them, the International Cooperation

Administration established in 1955, and which, in 1961, became the Agency for International Development; the Central Intelligence Agency; the United States Information Agency which became the International Communication Agency in the late 1970's. These and many other agencies were established in response to the challenges facing the United States after World War II. The Marshall Plan, for example, designed originally to assist in European reconstruction, later included technical and financial assistance in the developing world. The Fulbright Act of 1946 utilized funds derived from the sale of surplus United States properties left in certain foreign countries at the end of World War II. The National Defense Education Act of 1957 provided funds to upgrade programs in foreign languages, science, mathematics and for language and area studies at American universities. Funds were also provided to develop new graduate programs in international studies. Many philanthropic foundations such as the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, provided grants to universities and colleges to "stimulate the internationalization of the curriculum and to encourage various kinds of international activities on campus."⁶ The Peace Corps is probably the best known technical assistance

⁶ Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 5th ed. , s.v. "International education," by Seth Spaulding, Judith Colucci, Jonathan Flint.

program advanced by the United States. The main field of Peace corps activity, since it was formed in 1961, has been in education, including elementary, secondary, university, vocational, and agricultural. There is also evidence that returning Peace Corps volunteers frequently sought more university study in the area of their service and thus encouraged the expansion of area programs in colleges and universities. As Barbara Burn says,

Yet further study is needed, if international education programs are to be effective in the future, they should aim beyond the priorities of the 1950's and 1960's.⁷

Some of those priorities, such as the international Education Act of 1966 proposed by President Lyndon Johnson was never funded. Its goal was to promote research and training in international studies in American schools, colleges and universities. As Butts explains:

If the Act had been funded it might have brought the full abilities of the United States education to the development of soundly based knowledge about the peoples of the world with whom the welfare of the United States is so intimately woven.⁸

The 1970's saw a diminishing interest in international

⁶ Barbara B. Burn, Expanding the International Dimension of Higher Education. (San Francisco, CA. : Jossy-Bass, 1980), p. 15.

⁷ Encyclopedia of Education. 1971 ed. , s.v. "International education: an overview," by R. Freeman Butts.

studies among the large foundations who had so generously funded activities in the 1950's and 1960's. There were many critics in the United States who raised questions about the way foundations were distributing money, about their decision-making process, and about their accountability to the public. Critics felt that there was a greater need for the foundations to be concerned with social responsibility and social change within the United States. This may have contributed to the foundations' diminishing interest in funding international programs. The Vietnam War was, perhaps, also responsible for less enthusiasm and interest in international education. The President, Lyndon Johnson, was trying to pursue the problem of the Vietnamese conflict along with the domestic war against poverty and federal aid to education. The American people were not as enthusiastic about overseas conflict and problems as they had once been. They were tired of war and the toll it had taken on their lives and country. The economy had deteriorated and the dollar was weak on the world's currency market. The American people were more concerned with the domestic issues of poverty, the economy, and race relations. The Peace Corps itself directed its attention to technical assistance and found less enthusiasm among Americans for such work.

This could have been the result of a changing international environment. A feeling of nationalism had arisen significantly in

many nations especially those that had been under colonial rulers. Many of these countries were reluctant to accept foreigners in positions of relative authority - such as school teachers for example. A number of countries where Peace Corps volunteers worked were undergoing political upheavals, and Peace Corps volunteers found themselves in line of gun fire. Americans wandering through some countries were looked upon suspiciously as agents of American intelligence activity. Although no Peace Corps volunteer had been identified as one, it was hard to dispel this suspicion. Also, worldwide demand for Peace Corps volunteers had declined. As Balzano Says,

The world is sixteen years on from the time the Corps was launched in a burst of idealism and enthusiasm, and we simply cannot ignore these new realities or turn back the clock⁹ arbitrarily to 1961 to recapture the original bloom.

The 1970's also saw a change on the political and economic scene. The United States was no longer the unchallenged political and economic leader of the world. On the domestic scene, the emergence of the many ethnic minorities created the need for curriculums that focused on these minority groups. In 1978

⁹ Michael P. Balzano. The Peace Corps: Myths and Prospects. (Washington D.C. : American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1978), p. 11.

President Carter with his administration's emphasis on human rights and international dialogue, appointed the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. The Commission consisted of twenty-five leaders in the fields of education, business, journalism and government. The Commission found that the 1970's showed a dramatic decline in "both funding of and institutional committment to foreign languages and international studies" and recommended a "broad program of federal support for foreign language and international studies in schools and universities; support for college and university training and research programs; increased funding of international educational exchange programs and for citizens' education programs in international affairs; cooperative programs with business and industry; the strengthening of coordination and administration within the federal government for such programs, plus a continuing private National Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies to monitor and report progress in the area."¹⁰ Federal funding for this was never legislated and the Reagan administration

¹⁰ Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 5th ed. , s.v. "International education," by Seth Spaulding, Judith Colucci, Jonathan Flint.

has responded by proposing budget cuts in regard to educational programs.

Technical assistance programs (and funding for them) sponsored by the United States government have steadily declined. The United States, it seems, is withdrawing from collaborative social development and economic activities around the world.

In addition to these changes the concept of international education has changed over the years. As Spaulding (et al) explains,

Historically, the field has consisted of perhaps, two major strands of interest: the idealistic, which has stressed education and exchange experiences for the purpose of encouraging international understanding and peace, and the pragmatic, which has stressed the need for this nation to prepare internationally sophisticated manpower who can more effectively serve the political, economic, and social needs of the country and the world.

The early eighties find little federal legislative support for the idealistic strand of international education. Programs such as the Peace Corps have been slashed to about fifty-five hundred volunteers in 1981 compared to over fifteen thousand in 1968. Economic and social aid under the Reagan administration will be earmarked for use primarily in cases where the recipient country is clearly significant from a strategic viewpoint.

The pragmatic strand of international education, however, may receive increased support in the early and mid-eighties. While there appears to be less federal government interest in international understanding, there is an increased awareness of the need for greater sophistication in dealing with international and transitional problems and issues...Funds increasingly will be earmarked for programs that deal with transnational economic, social, and political issues, as well as problems that transcend national and even regional interests...Priority will be

given to those programs that attempt to educate a citizenry in the social, economic, and political interdependence among nations and among cultural groups in the United States.¹¹

International Studies at Teachers College

Every institution has its own history of the development of certain programs within its confines. Teachers College, Columbia University, has been a leader in attracting and educating students from other lands and its programs in international education are world renowned.

Since the latter part of the nineteenth century, Teachers College, Columbia University, has had the study of comparative educational systems as a part of its curriculum. " In 1911, Professor F.E. Farrington was appointed to the faculty with full time responsibility for work in comparative education. When Dean Russell established Farrington's position he conceived of it as primarily a research professorship. Although attached to the Department

¹¹ Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 5th ed. (1982), s.v. "International education," by Seth Spaulding, Judith Colucci, and Jonathan Flint.

of Educational Administration, Farrington was expected to spend from three to six months abroad every year doing research and investigating educational topics of concern to the College."¹²

These "travelling professorships" continued until the outbreak of World War I in Europe. The faculty of Teachers College, however, kept in touch with European educational systems through a system of "paid foreign correspondents."¹³ Teachers College contacted distinguished European educators who supervised research being done in Europe by Teachers College students and thus provided Teachers College with a continuous flow of educational information. Dean James E. Russell also financed key faculty members' travels abroad so they might familiarize themselves with European educational systems. Faculty members were also sent on specific assignments overseas. For example, Professor William H. Kilpatrick was sent to Italy to study and evaluate the instructional methods of Maria Montessori.¹⁴

¹² Ken Toepfer. "A brief sketch of the international activities of Teachers College from 1898-1964." (New York : Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964?) Unpublished paper, p. 1.

¹³ Ibid. , p. 2.

¹⁴ William Heard Kilpatrick. The Montessori System Examined. (New York : Arno Press, 1971, c1914).

This travel by faculty also resulted in a rapid growth of students from other lands at Teachers College. After World War I the number rose sharply. According to Toepfer:

Partly as a result of this increase and partly because of a conviction on the part of Dean Russell, the Trustees and many faculty members, that Teachers College as well as the country as a whole, must help build a more stable world, Teachers College embarked on a new phase of international education in January of 1923 with the establishment of the International Institute...

Based on the one hand on the assumption that American education has much to learn from the educational experiences of other lands, and on the other hand the belief that American education had much to contribute to the development of educational systems in other countries, the Institute provided a center at Teachers College for the training of foreign students and for the conduct of organized research and field studies in international education.¹⁵

The International Institute was staffed by several distinguished men. Headed by Dr. Paul Monroe¹⁶ it also included Dr. William F. Russell, Dr. I.L. Kandel¹⁷ and Dr. Lester M. Wilson.¹⁸

¹⁵ Ibid. , p. 4-5.

¹⁶ Paul Monroe (1869-1947) joined Teachers College, Columbia University in 1897 as an instructor in education. Monroe was instrumental in establishing the discipline of the history of education in the United States in the early 1900's. He was also a leader in the field of international education and in 1921 assisted the Chinese government in reorganizing its school system.

¹⁷ Isaac Leon Kandel (1881-1965) was born in Rumania and educated in England and the United States. He taught the history of education and comparative education at Teachers College from 1913-1947. As a professor at Teachers College he became a national and international figure in the field of comparative education. He often criticized the progressive educators for their extreme tendencies. He was in great demand as a visiting professor in many parts of the world.

¹⁸ Lester MacLean Wilson (1885-1937) was professor of education at Teachers College from 1923 until his death in 1937. He was also director general of instruction for the Republic of Peru from 1922-1923.

Others who staffed it included George S. Counts and Thomas Alexander.¹⁹ The Institute not only versed men about education in other lands, it conducted many other activities. As Toepfer explains:

Although the services of the Institute in training leaders in foreign education were great, this by no means represented the only contribution of the International Institute to international education. The research and field service activities and publications of the Institute were of far reaching importance abroad and at home. Staff members conducted surveys and provided advisory services to a number of countries around the world ranging from Bulgaria and Czechoslovakia to Iraq; from Puerto Rico to the Philippines.²⁰

After World War II individuals like Donald G. Tewksbury,²¹ Clarence Linton²² and George S. Counts continued with the international

¹⁹ Richard Thomas Alexander (1887-), Professor of education, joined Teachers College in 1924. He was interested in teacher training.

²⁰ Ken Toepfer. "A brief sketch of the international activities of Teachers College from 1898-1964." (New York : Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964?), p. 6.

²¹ Donald George Tewksbury (1894-1958) was born in China where he received his early education. He continued his later education in the United States. He taught psychology and education at Yenching University in Peking and joined Teachers College in 1928. He was very active in international education and directed a program in international and comparative education at Teachers College.

²² Clarence Linton (1890-), was professor in the foundations of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, which he joined in 1925.

work and activities of the College. In the late 1950's and early 1960's Teachers College's international activities expanded rapidly.

According to the International Studies Annual Report:

In the belief that educational improvement lies at the very heart of the development of nations as well as of individuals, Teachers College has markedly accelerated its international tempo during the past decade and especially so during the past year. In order that the College might co-ordinate its increasing number of activities and plan more carefully for its total obligations in the international field, the office of Director of International Studies was created in February 1961.²³

R. Freeman Butts was appointed by President John Fischer in 1961 as the first director of the Institute for International Studies at Teachers College, Columbia University. As indicated in the foregoing, Teachers College had long been active in the area of international education. In the 1950's, Teachers College became involved, with the Agency for International Development, with a project in Afghanistan. The Teachers College team had "contributed substantially to the development and improvement of teacher education and the teaching of English in Afghan schools, training colleges, and the University of Kabul."²⁴ A Teachers College team, under AID auspices, had been in India since 1958.

²³ International Studies Annual Report, 1961-62. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. Unpublished document.

²⁴ Ibid.

The Institute for International Studies is the principal research arm of Teachers College in the field of international study and research and study in the fields of related social science disciplines. It works in close cooperation with the School of International Affairs and the Regional Institutes of Columbia University. Under its jurisdiction are the following: the Center for Education in Africa, the Center for Education in Asia, the Center for Education in Latin America, and the Center for Education in Industrial Nations. Butts was Director of the Institute from 1961 to 1975.

Teachers College had a team in Afghanistan since 1954. This and subsequent teams contributed substantially to the development of teacher training programs, and also to the teaching of English in Afghan schools, training colleges and the University of Kabul. Butts said that all the work done by the Teachers College teams in Afghanistan is now in ruins (due to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan on December 27th, 1979).

In India the Teachers College team helped make the National Institute of Education a reality. Butts helped draw up the initial plans for the Institute. The team also helped in the "reorganization

and reconstruction of the 350 secondary teacher training colleges of India."²⁵ By far the largest programs undertaken by Teachers College at the time were those concerning its involvement in African education. The Afro=Anglos-American program in teacher education was established in 1960 and the Teachers for East Africa program soon after in 1962. Both of these were very successful in sending secondary school teachers to teach in Africa and eventually to train Africans to teach in their own schools.

Teachers College was and is, undoubtedly, a leader in graduate education in international studies in the United States, and Butts was greatly involved in Teachers College's international activities from the early 1950's.

Teachers College, Columbia University has been involved in international education from the early 1900's. Three distinctive periods emerge in its development. The first was in 1898 when a graduate level course was offered on foreign school systems. James Earl Russell was Dean and Teachers College became a part of

²⁵ International Studies at Teachers College, Annual Report, 1963-64. (New York : Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 12. Unpublished.

Columbia University at this time. Russell advanced the comparative education programs by encouraging faculty to travel overseas and by increasing the foreign student enrollment at Teachers College. The second period came in 1923 when the International Institute was established. During the years that followed, Teachers College gained international renown as a leader in professional education. Educational leaders such as Paul Monroe, Isaac Kandell, George S. Counts and William H. Kilpatrick were part of the Institute during this time and comparative education became a respected field of study. The third period began after World War II. By this time several major American universities had expanded their programs to include international education as a field of study. During the 1950's and after, and aided by grants and fellowships from private foundations and the Agency for International Development, foreign students became a part of Teachers College. For those faculty who wanted to be a part of this change, there could have been no better time to participate in this phase of international education in the United States. Teachers College has, over the years, been involved in educational efforts in many parts of the world. Its most extended effort has been its involvement in Africa. After his return from Australia in 1954, Butts became more and more involved in the international activities at Teachers College. He took over administrative responsibilities for Teachers College's overseas programs in Afghanistan, India and Africa. Butts

commented on this phase saying he found "...in it the kind of exhilaration and feeling of useful service and engagement that I had felt in the 200F enterprise of the prior 25 years. Especially was this true of the TEA enterprise."²⁶

Butts contends that these were exciting years and he was glad to have been a part of this phase of the development of international education in the United States. Butts strongly believes in the value of international studies. Speaking at the Founders Day celebrations at Teachers College, Butts said:

International studies should not only prepare students and faculty to understand the peoples of the world and to help reduce the fateful gaps between the modern and the traditional societies, but they should also enhance the university's role in improving American education itself by infusing the curriculum with more relevant materials in world affairs. The overseas projects of American universities should not only help to develop the educational potential of other countries but should be more closely tied to the long-range scholarly and academic interests of their own faculty and students.²⁷

²⁶ R. Freeman Butts, "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College." (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Alumni Day: Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Friday, April 11, 1975).

²⁷ R. Freeman Butts, "Founders Day: the 'Invisible College' Convenes." (Speech delivered at Founders Day Celebrations, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970).

Development of International Education in the United States

In his book on the development of international education on the American scene²⁸ Butts outlines, as he sees it, the three stages of America's involvement in international education. The First stage has been that of informing Americans about other people and their cultures. Americans needed to learn more about other countries and similarly, people of other nations need to know more about American education, culture and technology. Butts discusses two aspects of American education - the study of other peoples of the world in American colleges and universities and exchange programs whereby Americans go overseas to study or teach.

Butts is convinced that the "...study of world affairs should begin in the schools below the college level, and, therefore, professional schools of education have a particular obligation to promote a more vital education in world affairs for all their students and staff members."²⁹ Butts suggests that another

²⁸ R. Freeman Butts. American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963).

²⁹ Ibid. , p. 6.

way of expanding international awareness would be to have visiting scholars from abroad, who would give Americans a better understanding of the peoples of other countries.

The Second stage of American participation in international education, in Butts's view, was that of technical assistance overseas with the adoption of the Marshall Plan, the ICA (International Cooperation Administration) program of the 1950's and the AID (Agency for International Development) program of the 1960's. Technical assistance was seen as the means whereby other nations could strengthen themselves and establish political and economic independence and withstand communist pressure from within and without their borders. Education was seen as a major part of this assistance, and as part of a long range resolution of national and international problems. The importance of education as part of technical assistance to developing nations was undeniably of great importance to the American government. As David Bell, administrator of the Agency for International Development, said in 1963:

How do we help (other nations help themselves)? Let me discuss briefly the two major contributions one can make: money, that is, capital assistance, and skilled people, that is, technical assistance...Money is essential as I have said; but we should never deceive ourselves into thinking that capital is the primary cause of development....The heart of the matter is not the availability of capital, but the availability of skills, of competence, of know-how with which to put capital to work...a school building without teachers would be

of no value - it would be an example of idle or wasted capital. But with teachers, and an administrative staff - as part of an educational institution - the capital represented by a school building becomes alive and useful.

This is a lesson we are putting to work every day in the foreign aid program. This is why we place so much emphasis on helping underdeveloped countries acquire skills and competence....to help establish institutions in the countries which can provide skilled, competent leadership for those countries, without outside help, as soon as possible.

Let me mention finally a last group of institutions for development: those that have to do with education. These in my opinion are the most important of all, because education pervades every nook and cranny of the development process.³⁰

Colonized peoples have often felt that the departure of the colonists would ensure them the better life they had so long been denied. Unfortunately it was not always so. The newly independent nations found themselves left with educational institutions they were not prepared to take care of. Americans and Westerners sent to such countries on international assistance programs were often not sensitive enough to the feelings of these people. In all fairness, Butts says, it has to be noted that major

³⁰ David E. Bell, a speech delivered at the Arkansas Economic Education Workshop on July 11, 1963, AID Information Staff Press Release, AID-63-148, Washington D.C., cited by R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 26.

failures have coincided with major successes. Many of the books written about American technical assistance³¹ recommended sending university professors overseas. They said nothing about sending elementary or secondary school teachers overseas. Butts believes that training of secondary and elementary school teachers to be of great importance for these developing countries. Butts reaffirms, once again, that all those involved in technical assistance must be educators, for the essence of technical assistance is educational assistance.³²

The Third stage of involvement, as Butts saw it, was that of sending teachers from America to the developing nations, for example, the Peace Corps, the Afro-Anglo-American Program, and the Teachers for East Africa Program in which Butts was involved to a great extent. The following chapters will outline and discuss Butts's first involvement on the international educational scene, namely his Fulbright Research trip to Australia, and what he describes as an exhilarating and exciting part of his academic career, namely his involvement in the Teachers for East Africa Program at Teachers College.

³¹ Butts cites, among others, Harlan Cleveland (et al), The Overseas Americans; Edward W. Weidner, The World Role of Universities; Lucien W. Pye, Politics, Personality, and Nation Building; Max F. Milliken and Donald L.M. Blackmer (editors), The Emerging Nations, Their Growth and United States Policy.

³² R. Freeman Butts. American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 39.

CHAPTER III

THE AUSTRALIAN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Chapter III examines Butts's initial introduction to international education, namely, his trip to Australia in 1954, and the book he wrote on his findings.¹ It was this trip that launched his career in the field of international education at Teachers College.

In 1954 Butts went to Australia on a Fulbright Research fellowship. A distinguished historian of education, Butts was to lecture on American education and learn what he could about Australian education. It was his first extended professional visit to a country outside the United States of America. His family accompanied him on his six month sojourn in Australia and his children attended school in Melbourne. According to Andersen and Cleverley, who commented on Butts's project in Australia, Butts "...was expected to dig about and to uncover assumptions underlying Australian education and this he did with skill and candour, penetrating to the educational conscience of many."²

¹ R. Freeman Butts, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).

² W.E. Andersen and John Cleverley, Exploring Education. (Carlton, Victoria : Pitman Australia, 1975), p. 12-13.

In order to analyze Butts's commentary on Australian education, a brief discussion of that country is needed. The continent of Australia is approximately the size of the United States, but very sparsely populated (approximately four persons per square mile) because of the scarcity of water which has always been Australia's major problem. Because of its size, Australia has extremes of climate, including a temperate climate along the southern coastal areas, and snow in the Australian Alps. Australia's population of 12.7 million people lives mainly along the coastal areas. Australia today is an independent nation, a British dominion and a member of the British Commonwealth. Australia has six states (New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania) each of which has its own government. The Central government of the Commonwealth is located in Canberra.

Australia is a relatively new land by discovery. In the 1600's ships of the Dutch East Indies fleet touched Australia; Abel Tasman discovered part of Tasmania and an Englishman, William Dampier, also visited the Western coast of Australia. None of these people were impressed with their explorations or their meetings with the aborigines, nor did they think there would be any prospects for trade. Captain James Cook, almost a hundred years later in 1770, landed on the East coast, claimed it

for the British Crown and called it New South Wales. The loss of its American colonies, which had accepted felons, had put a great pressure on Britain's prisons. Convicts were now sent to Australia. Historians have argued that this scheme to send convicts to Australia was just a cover for providing a bastion for British trade in the Eastern seas. Whatever the reason, about 58,000 convicts had been sent to Australia by 1830. Most of them made good and started a new life. Many of them were either employed by the government or "assigned" to private employers. The convicts were a heterogeneous group including Englishmen, Irishmen (a third of the total), and included both men and women. There were even a few political prisoners. Thus they came from all walks of life. These people laid the foundations of a new society. According to Jones:

The Irish brought Catholicism with them and a strong association grew between Catholic priests and lower classes in the original colony. This, and subsequent Protestant alarm, laid the bases for early sectarian clashes, particularly on the education question.³

For the first 150 years after the founding of the colony of New South Wales in 1788, Australia remained, for the most part, an isolated offshoot of Britain. The bonds with Britain

³ Phillip E. Jones. Education in Australia. (Newton Abbot : David and Charles; Hamden, CT. : Archon Books, 1974), p. 14.

were great especially in regard to political and social institutions. Asians were not allowed to immigrate to Australia. Therefore Australia was not a land of diversified political, social, and cultural life as was, for example, the United States. Australian society had a great and unusual degree of centralization in its organization and administration. The capital cities were the seats of power. Populations were concentrated in the big cities and everyone relied on the government's initiative in all areas including education.

Throughout the nineteenth century Australian colonists argued about education. They wanted a system whereby every child could get an elementary education. There were many debates regarding education.

...one argument did recur with great frequency: ignorance is a source of crime, education can dispel ignorance, therefore education can reduce (in their more optimistic moments some colonists would have said abolish) crime.⁴

They believed that education would help them build a moral and law abiding society. The people wanted security; they wanted an orderly society to emerge from the diversified people

⁴ A.G. Austin and R.J.W. Selleck. The Australian Government School, 1830-1914. (Carlton, Victoria : New York, N.Y. : Pitman Publishing Company, c1975), p. 2.

that inhabited Australia. And this they hoped to achieve through education. Although the England they had left behind had been a less than perfect society, it was an orderly, organized, established one. As Austin and Selleck explain:

It had a Parliament gradually extending its franchise, wealthy and ancient schools for the rich and less ancient, but often wealthy, schools for the middle classes, a relatively well developed transport system, an expanding civil service, domestic servants, books, factories, hospitals. Whatever its weaknesses, and they were numerous, it was a society accustomed to ways of doing things and with institutions formed over the centuries for getting things done. It could, especially if one were middle or upper class, guarantee stability and order.⁵

Schools, it was believed, could unify and help form a homogeneous society. From the beginning, therefore, elementary schools were not only in the business of educating people in the rudimentaries, but also in social and moral conduct. The importance of education in a penal colony was of great importance.

The first established schools were opened by the Church. It was assumed by respectable people that education was a part of moral training and since morality is a part of religious training, education was the responsibility of the Church. Problems arose however, because the government financially supported the Church of England schools (the Church of England being the official Church).

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Ibid. , p. 6.

This angered the Scotch Presbyterians and Irish Catholics. These disputes between church and state over the control of education prevented the establishment of a uniform educational system in Australia. Free settlers were coming to Australia by this time and there were large numbers of children who needed to be educated. Times were changing and in 1848 Governor Fitzroy of Australia established a "dual" educational system of church and state schools. According to Jones:

Under this arrangement, government aid for schools was given to various denominations through a Board of Denominational Education, while a Board of National Education was responsible, and given financial backing, for the commencement of a system of state-controlled, non-denominational, or "National" schools. Agents travelled throughout the colony encouraging and organizing the establishment of National schools and by 1851 twenty-two such schools were in operation, with a further⁶ nineteen awaiting approval and finance.

The discovery of gold and the development of rural industry (sheep farming and mining) made many new rich people. These people now sought a higher social status than they had enjoyed in England and a means of achieving this was through education. They felt that schooling had to be available for all children, in cities and rural areas, however remote.

⁶ Phillip E. Jones. Education in Australia. (Newton Abbot: David and Charles; Hamden, CT. : Archon Books, 1974), p. 16-17.

Between 1872 and 1893 all six of the Australian colonies passed legislation establishing government-controlled school systems under a Minister of the Crown. They also withdrew aid to church schools. This did not ensure free education in the state schools nor was attendance compulsory until such legislation was passed in 1916.

Without federal aid, most of the Protestant and Anglican Church schools closed. The Roman Catholic authorities,

...who believing that government schools were "seed beds of vice," refused to let the withdrawal of aid stop their educational efforts. They resolved to hold onto - and, indeed, expand, - their own religious school system, unaided by the state.⁷

Instead they raised money from their congregations, got religious teaching orders to teach in Australia and kept their schools open, undoubtedly with much sacrifice on the part of both congregation and officials. As Jones explains, "...Thus was a pattern of a dual system of government and non-government schools established which has persisted to the present day."⁸

Butts, who went to Australia in 1954 as a Fulbright research scholar, had serious doubts about the dual system of governmental and

⁷ Ibid. , p. 21.

⁸ Ibid. , p. 21.

non-governmental schools. He explains that, ,

...in so far as a dual system of schools helps to create and perpetrate class, religious or economic division in society, in so far as the separation of children serves mainly to establish and maintain feelings of superiority and inferiority, and in so far as the competition among schools is primarily directed toward the passing of external examinations and gaining of academic awards, I believe the dual system carries signs of danger. Australians are proud of their tradition of egalitarianism and lack of social snobbishness and class stratification. When I see how strong a place the private schools hold in the educational scene, I wonder how strong the tradition really is and how long the tradition can be maintained.⁹

This system of dual education is still valid today in Australia.

In 1900 the six colonies of Australia federated and formed the Commonwealth of Australia. Under a new constitution, education remained within the jurisdiction of the states. The country now has six separate independent systems of public education, each of which is administered by the state government, and responsible to the Minister of the Crown. All six of the systems are highly centralized. All control is located in the capital cities. Local authorities have never been given the type of responsibility enjoyed by countries like Britain or the United States. Education has

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R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 21-22.

not fared any better. There have been many criticisms of the high degree of centralization carried on by Australian state governments. Butts, for example, was severely critical of the administration and control of Australian education. Australian's, he found, accepted a uniform policy for all schools within a state, and assumed that the best policy decisions were made by a few people at the center. Butts said that the administration of Australian schools was based on two assumptions:

...that a uniform policy for all schools in a state is a good thing, and a uniform policy can be achieved only when the basic decisions are made by relatively few people. The basic questions, then, are these: "Are decisions made by a relatively few people in a centralized system more likely to be democratic or undemocratic? Is centralization necessarily democratic or undemocratic? Will an exclusively centralized system of decision-making ultimately serve the cause of democracy in a society at large?" The heart of the problem in a centralized system is whether the channels of communication with the public are kept open and whether the decision-makers are actually responsive to the people to whom they are responsible.¹⁰

Butts argued for more democratic methods of decision-making involving a "...wide base of discussion, active consent, and uncoerced participation" by those "...who are concerned and affected by the decisions."¹¹ This he did not find to be true in the Australian educational system. Butts found that only a

¹⁰ Ibid. , p. 16.

¹¹ Ibid. , p. 17.

few people " among the professional staff are qualified to make real educational decisions,"¹² thus excluding a great majority of teachers and headmasters. As an example, Butts related the incident of expulsion from school of a particular boy. The decision-making process made its way "...upward from the headmaster through the inspector and Assistant Superintendent of Primary Education, to the Superintendent of Primary Education, and finally to the Minister."¹³

Thus, Butts found, that day-to-day decision-making takes up alot of time of these administrators and they do not spend more time on matters of educational policy and long range planning for the schools.

Decision-making should be the result of opinions of all people in a democracy. In Australia, Butts found that decision-making rests at the top and asked if Australians

...miss something of the vitality, initiative, creativeness and variety that would come if the doors and windows of discussion and decision were kept more open all the way up and down the educational edifice. The two-way flow of educational ideas might lead to more broadly based decisions, and therefore more democratic ones.¹⁴

¹² Ibid. , p. 15.

¹³ Ibid. , p. 15.

¹⁴ Ibid. , p. 17.

Australians, however, might argue that, in the case of education, a democratic decision might mean that all children should receive a satisfactory education up to the age of 14 or 15 and the chance to further educate themselves if they so choose. In the Australian context, educational governance and organization is a matter for the professionals, that is, the administrators at the Center.

Butts suggested to the Australians that they examine carefully the future of education in their country. He recommended "...genuine decentralization in educational policy-making and financial support."¹⁵ He recommended a division of labor to ease the burden of administration at the top and thus bring schools closer to the people and let communities have a say in the administration of their schools. He conceded that overall authority should rest with State Departments of Education, but suggested that day-to-day decisions be delegated to local authorities. According to Butts, "Education might lead the way to a general awakening of local community life and thus become a genuinely creative social agency."¹⁶

¹⁵ Ibid. , p. 18.

¹⁶ Ibid. , p. 19.

To serve the best interests of a democratic society, Butts argued for a decision-making process that would include the government, the profession and the public.

The government is charged with responsibility for the common welfare...The profession has the responsibility for seeing that the educative process rests upon the best professional knowledge available in the interests of the well-rounded development of teachers and learners...But the people themselves also have a responsibility to keep the government and the profession alerted to the wide-ranging interests and the variety of organized and informal activities that mark a healthy and vital community life.¹⁷

Butts firmly believes that democracy be preserved and that a balance be achieved between government, the profession and the people, and he warns of the dangers involved when any one of them dominates the process and the decision-making.

In his analysis of Australian education, Butts also discussed the " over-importance of private schools at the possible expense of the state system."¹⁸

Australians should be on guard and take warning from what has happened in such countries as Holland, Belgium, France and certain provinces of Canada when dual systems of schools have become embedded in the national life and tend to perpetuate differences that

¹⁷ Ibid. , p. 20.

¹⁸ W.F. Connell. The Australian Council for Educational Research, 1930-1980. (Hawthorn, Victoria : Australian Council for Educational Research, 1980), p. 190.

lead to political, economic, class and religious conflicts.¹⁹

Butts warned Australians about the role of religion in educational programs and educational control. On his visits to religious (especially Roman Catholic) institutions, he was treated "with the utmost cordiality, friendliness and hospitality."²⁰ Butts pointed out that the influx of new immigrants to Australia from European countries, where the Catholic tradition is strong, could result in strong support for private religious-operated schools. As he said before, he did not promote this type of school because it could cause conflict in society, religion and politics. "Religion, Butts felt, was likely to plague Australian education for years to come."²¹ This is consistent with his views on American education. Butts affirmed the fact that Australia was no longer an isolated outpost of Britain and therefore should look to the future and educate its citizens to be world-minded, international people.

In regard to the educational program, Butts found that the traditional assumption that "...a little education is good

¹⁹ R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 22.

²⁰ Ibid. , p. 24.

²¹ Phillip E. Jones. Education in Australia. (Newton Abbot: David and Charles; Hamden, CT. : Archon Books, 1974), p. 116.

for all children, but much education is good for only a few,"²²

had changed somewhat though it was still the prevalent belief.

Education for all meant six years of primary school followed

by two or three more years. This was followed by a selective

"weeding out" process and only the best continued their education.

The assumption was that traditional academic subjects were more

valuable than non-traditional ones. Private schools were considered

to be better than public or state schools. However, the state

and public schools had among them some very good institutions that

claimed to be even better than the private schools. Butts found

that Australian's generally believed that separation of boys and

girls seems to be more desirable than coeducation.

...apparently on the ground that intellectual work will proceed with less interruption and less distraction, to say nothing of the moral temptations involved in coeducation.²³

The hierarchical system pervades Australian education: private

schools over public schools; able students over dull students, boys

over girls. The predominance of boys reflected Australian society which,

at that time, was a man's society, and education was "...designed

to meet the needs of boys more fully than those of girls."²⁴

²² R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 31.

²³ Ibid. , p. 33.

²⁴ Ibid. , p. 34.

Butts warned Australian's that they should seriously re-examine those stands it took toward hierarchy in its educational system since it caused resentment in students and could possibly become a block to learning. Butts warned against "...the widespread subordination of the social sciences."²⁵ The assumption being that they were easier to study than the intellectual disciplines such as languages, mathematics and science, and,

...presumably on the grounds that they were inferior as intellectual disciplines and therefore more suitable for less able students, or that they might lead undesirably to the study of controversial issues, or that schools cannot really do much directly about citizenship education.²⁶

Butts thought that these assumptions should be seriously re-examined. He also found that students who took mathematics and science in secondary school were most often those who failed at the university level. In fact, Australian universities were not producing enough graduates to fill the shortages in the scientific fields. Butts, in discussing the system of external examination, found this system had the advantage that factual knowledge could be easily

²⁵ Ibid. , p. 37.

²⁶ W.F. Connell. Australian Council for Educational Research, 1930-1980. (Hawthorn, Victoria : Australian Council for Educational Research, 1980), p. 191.

examined.²⁷ Nevertheless, it left a gap in the growth of attitudes, behavior and creative expression of the individual which could not be examined by this method. Butts advises that,

If the system of rigid selection, early and continuing specialization in mathematics and science for the few best students, and uniform standards set by state syllabi and external examinations do not produce the qualified people that Australia so desperately needs, perhaps a new approach should be tried.²⁸

Butts was severe in his criticism of the teaching methods in Australian schools. Primary education, from what he saw, seemed to be "...the effecient expression of information."²⁹ He saw,

...great evidence of rigid, uniform treatment of little children that must rest upon the assumption that orderliness, discipline and development of skills are the prime goals of primary education.....I saw kindergartens well-equipped with blocks, puzzles, Montessori sticks, beads, coloured paper, crayons, and paints. But so often the children were all sitting formally at tables, or in neat circles quietly "working" away at their material. No smiling, no giggling, no laughing, no running or crawling about...."play" materials were really designed to teach word or number concepts. The teachers seemed to assume that this "play" was all a waste of time if it did not speed up the process of reading, writing and arithmetic.³⁰

²⁷ Examination set or administered by an examining body outside the educational institution attended by the student taking the examination.

²⁸ R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 45.

²⁹ Ibid. , p. 50.

³⁰ Ibid. , p. 47-48.

He did see some creative involvement on the part of the children but came away with the distinct impression that such creativity was definitely in the minority. Children sat quietly in the classroom. Education was seen as the attempt to acquire knowledge from reading about it, not by questioning or discussion. The lack of enthusiasm and zest for learning was based on the assumptions that "...the heart of the educative process is the acquisition of information and the development of mental skills having to do with numbers and words."³¹ Freedom of expression was not considered good for a sound base in education. Teachers would be considered inefficient if they allowed any noise in their classrooms. As Butts says:

Noise, talkativeness, movement, free expression, and informal discussion are assumed to reflect a lack of control by the teacher and therefore a lack of efficiency.³²

Butts felt that there was a small but growing minority of school teachers who felt a need for change in primary education. Butts stated that these few teachers would have to hold their ground if they wanted to see change happen and withstand pressure from within their own ranks as well as from above.

In secondary education, Butts felt that the traditional

³¹ Ibid. , p. 49-50.

³² Ibid. , p. 50.

was preferable to the experimental. Written notes, clear and legible, were the measure of a students achievement even if he did not understand what he had written. Butts gave an example:

One day when the children in a fifth grade were holding up their notebooks for me to see --the subject was writing--I noticed beautiful curves on such words as Illinois, Iberia and Florida. Thinking I might establish friendly rapport with a boy, I said, "Do you know where Illinois is? I was born there." He seemed utterly flabberghasted, as did his teacher and the inspector. I was sorry for what I had done. I had hoped to create interest and a bond between us. I had only succeeded in discomforting him. I wondered if writing should be related to what he knew, or if he would be interested to learn more about what he was writing. Exercise and drill seemed to be the goal rather than understanding and appreciation.³³

Butts, as stated before, did see "some excellent examples of stimulating teaching, especially in English literature and poetry and in social studies."³⁴ But these were the exception rather than the norm. Teachers seemed "cold and impersonal toward students, with little feeling of friendliness, affection, or warmth for their students."³⁵ Teachers had a job to do, namely, teach the children as many facts as they could and then have the children repeat them at examinations.

Butts found that a great many of the private schools exercised freedom in curriculum and methods of teaching. They displayed more enthusiasm for art, music and the social studies than

³³ Ibid. , p. 53.

³⁴ Ibid. , p. 55.

³⁵ Ibid. , p. 55.

the public schools did.

The atmosphere in the schools was one of uniformity -- in teaching, curriculum and behavior. The "...basic assumption is that schools should be concerned with the intellectual development of children and certain aspects of morals and manners, but the emotional and personality development are not so much a concern of schools."³⁶

Extra-curricular activities were secondary in relation to classroom activities. The only exception being sports where there was a great emphasis on competitive sports. Libraries and research were not considered as being of great importance to the educative process, though Butts said that local communities were trying to improve school libraries by matching grants given by Education Departments.

Butts was "devastating in his criticism of the teaching profession."³⁷ Teachers were given the security of tenure, but were

³⁶ Ibid. , p. 59.

³⁷ Phillip E. Jones. Education in Australia. (Newton Abbot: David and Charles; Hamden, CT. : Archon Books, 1974), p. 116.

"not to be trusted to carry on their tasks independently as full-fledged professional workers."³⁸ Teachers tended to look to the central administration for the authority on which to base their teaching. Since there was no promotion (or, rather, slow promotions), teachers lacked any motivation. To ensure efficiency, the teachers work was controlled by inspectors and external examinations. Butts did not look kindly upon the inspectorial system pointing out that it hampered experimentation on the part of the teachers. The printed syllabus had to be followed in all schools to ensure uniformity of education. This, however, showed a lack of trust in the teachers, who, above all, should know what was to be taught. Butts suggested that they abolish the practice of external examinations and use standardized tests to ensure uniformity in the education process. Properly trained teachers could then make their own conclusions and evaluate the achievement of each student. The idea of external examinations however, was so deeply embedded in students' and teachers' minds that any change in this system would be slow to come. As Butts stated:

I heard many complaints about the tyranny of the

³⁸ R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian

Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 63.

examination system, but deep down in most teachers' hearts I think they fear what would happen if external examinations were abolished. Three headmistresses of private schools in one city complained bitterly to me about the "system" and how it hampered what they would like to be doing in their schools. Yet they really did not think the girls would work as hard if there were no external examinations -- and from talking with the girls themselves I discovered that they said they would not work as hard for their teachers as they do for the external examinations.³⁹

Butts criticised teachers for their lack of initiative. He perceived staying within the prescribed syllabus as an excuse for not working hard to develop new ideas and methods (on the part of the teachers). As one teacher said, "If there were no syllabus and no external examinations, I would not know what was the right thing to teach."⁴⁰

Butts referred to the fact that I.L. Kandel had pointed out seventeen years before,⁴¹ that efficiency should be the goal of Australian teachers. The assumption, says Butts, was that if Australian teachers were left to their own devices, they would be inefficient. Since promotion was a matter of seniority, each teacher would eventually get one in spite of their efficiency or inefficiency.

³⁹ Ibid. , p. 67.

⁴⁰ Ibid. , p. 67.

⁴¹ Isaac Leon Kandel. Types of Administration, with Particular Reference to the Educational Systems of New Zealand and Australia. (Melbourne, Melbourne University Press in association with Oxford University Press, 1938).

Teachers seldom moved from one state system to another. Any movement was done between schools within one state system. Teachers from state schools could move to a private school, but not vice versa. The chances for different ideas and methods of teaching were severely restricted particularly since teachers attended teachers colleges within their own systems.

Teacher training was short and unadventurous, says Butts. The training was short because it was expensive, and also because the assumption was that teachers did not need as much preparation as, for example, doctors, lawyers, or engineers. Primary teachers had only 1-2 years of training beyond the high school. Butts pointed out that the teacher training system itself promoted the fact that primary teachers did not need a university degree and that secondary teachers needed some university training. Therefore the "abler ones are sent to a secondary course: the duller ones are sent to a primary course."⁴² Some teachers colleges, Butts found, were trying to teach new teaching methods. But when students went to the schools for their practice teaching, they had to do so within routine patterns and were unable to try any new teaching techniques. Butts remarked that "...so often the student was

⁴² R. Freeman Butts. Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (New York, N.Y. : Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 71.

treated not as a junior colleague, but as a high school student on trial."⁴³

Butts found "considerable dissatisfaction" with the practice of appointing teachers to teach at the teacher training institutions. The Department chose them from the ranks of teachers and the Teachers Colleges' administration and staff had little to say about new appointments.

Once again Butts deplored the lack of training that prospective teachers received in regard to the social sciences, especially since the social sciences were a neglected area of study in high schools. Butts was struck by the relative neglect in teaching of the social and philosophical foundations of education.

By this I mean the study of education as a social institution, the study of the culture in which education is destined to operate, the inter-relations of education and the culture, and the study of the fundamental purposes and theory of the total educational enterprise in society.⁴⁴

Such an area of study was essential for every teacher no matter what he was going to teach. Butts felt that "...without such study teaching cannot be a profession."⁴⁵ Until some basic changes

⁴³ Ibid. , p. 72.

⁴⁴ Ibid. , p. 75.

⁴⁵ Ibid. , p. 75.

were made in relation to teacher education, Butts said that the hierarchies and differences would continue to exist in Australian education.

Teaching in general, in Australia, was strictly informational and detailed rather than the sort that stimulated inquiry. Intellectualism, rather than social responsibility was the philosophy followed in the universities. This idea was gaining more criticism. In fact, as Butts said:

...one Vice-Chancellor sounded the warning in forceful terms that universities must beware of turning out narrow-minded specialists who knew nothing of the facts of social and political life or the philosophy behind them..."The university must be a beacon rather than a mirror; it can do no service to society by merely reflecting its tendencies...I maintain that if our universities fail to turn out leaders of men, people who can help mould public opinion, people who readily rise to executive positions either in industry or in government service, then they have failed in their chief objective."⁴⁶

Butts said that Australians should find the answers themselves in regard to the aims of the universities --should they be purely centers of intellectual learning or should they combine that with social responsibility.

⁴⁶ Ibid. , p. 78.

Butts saw Australia as a country needing a "...revival and awakening of interest in education...I miss a widespread feeling of ferment or dissatisfaction or criticism. I do not sense that strong professional organizations are constantly at work promoting discussions and exchange of ideas, criticizing practices and theories, and stimulating new procedures and new probings."⁴⁷

Australian teachers, therefore, seemed to be well situated in regard to security, salary and tenure, but not as organized as they might have been in regard to professional stimulation, mutual criticism and exchange of ideas.

Butts suggested that there be more workshops, seminars, panel discussions and research done at every level of the educational system. He believed that research was already in progress and urged Australians to unite to change their educational system to be a more effective one. Although Butts's criticisms of Australian education

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Ibid. , p. 79.

were not new (Dent⁴⁸ and Kandel⁴⁹ had been critical of Australian education. Both had strongly criticised the centralized system of educational administration in Australia), he believed that the time had come when Australian education and educators would indeed start the necessary steps to make their educational system a more effective one.

Butts's visit to Australia came at a time when secondary school reform was being widely discussed in several states. Butts's book, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education, was used widely during discussions and its conclusions and analyses were used as references for many years after that. It was also used as a text book in teachers colleges and universities for many years and "almost 20,000 copies of it were sold."⁵⁰

Reviewers and critics thought it was too harsh a judgment on a system of education, and that Butts did not understand the

⁴⁸ H.C. Dent, then editor of the Times Educational Supplement, had visited Australia in 1952 and criticised Australian education. Among his recommendations were (1) merit promotion for teachers rather than by seniority, (2) freedom for teachers to experiment and (3) removal of external examinations.

⁴⁹ Isaac Leon Kandel, Types of Administration with Particular Reference to New Zealand and Australia. (Melbourne, University of Melbourne in association with Oxford University Press, 1938).

⁵⁰ W.E. Connell, Australian Council for Educational Research, 1930-1980. (Hawthorn, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Research, 1980), p. 192.

Australian educational system. Catholic Church leaders in Australia thought of it as a dangerous American influence which promoted universal common education.⁵¹ There were some positive reviews. As one reviewer put it: "Since the book was designed to promote self-examination among Australian educationalists, it must be said that Professor Butts has been singularly successful."⁵²

Since Butts's book was published many changes have taken place in Australia's educational system. Each of the six Australian states operates its own educational system. Each system operates under a professional head who had a highly specialized staff and who, in turn, is responsible to the State Minister of Education. All administrators and teachers in the system are public servants and receive permanent tenure. With a few exceptions, each state system trains its own teachers.

Unlike educational systems in other countries, the Australian system is centralized to a high degree. There is no local participation in the control of public schools or in the appointment of teachers. Since all public school expenditure comes from state revenues, even the large cities do not play a part in

⁵¹ Ibid. , p. 192.

⁵² "As Others See Us." Educational Magazine 12 (1955): 329.

controlling schools.

Australia has pioneered in methods of teaching children in remote areas. For example, education by correspondence and the School in the Air were designed to supplement the comprehensive system of education by correspondence for children in remote areas of the country.

Church or non-governmental schools are usually controlled by school councils. The schools run by the Roman Catholic Church are very closely organized and in each state there is a director of education who oversees Catholic education.

Universities in Australia are highly selective and admission is gained through a statewide examination. All universities operate with state aid and exercise autonomy over their affairs. Technical education has basically remained tied to on-the-job training. In the 1960's however, efforts were being made to improve the standards of teaching, accomodation, and equipment at technical-training institutions. Adult education is conducted on a voluntary attendance basis and some states have tried to reach rural populations by offering summer programs and exhibitions. Australian education has a system uniquely its own. This is a result of geographic, economic, and political conditions. The

centralization of educational control, for example, is partly due to a determination to provide a sound primary education for all children; it is also partly due to the need for providing education for children in scattered areas; and partly it is due to a reliance on the State for providing an equal opportunity for a good and sound basic education for all children.

Butts's Australian trip was his first overseas academic experience. It undoubtedly shaped his opinion and conception of international education and teacher training. He saw international education as being an essential part of one's education and teacher training to be equally important. He reiterated that the study of the thought, institutions, techniques, or ways of life of other people was very important. He also said that the transfer of these ideas from one society to another was an important aspect of international education. On his return to Teachers College Butts focussed his attention on teacher training and international education. He felt that the knowledge of other lands and people was an important part of one's educational experience. His interest in international education, (and as a direct result of his trip to Australia), resulted in his appointment to the administrative duties of Teachers College's overseas programs, and in particular, the Teachers for East Africa Program which will be the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

TEACHERS FOR EAST AFRICA

The TEA¹ Project was launched by Teachers College in Spring 1961. It was, according to Butts,

...one of the most interesting and successful examples of American foreign policy stressing technical cooperation to aid in the human resource development of newly independent nations of Africa...²

The TEA program functioned in such close cooperation with the AAA³ that a brief explanation is required in this chapter of the development of education in Africa.

In pre-colonial African society, education was regarded as being very important. The parents and family felt a responsibility not only towards their child, but also to their community. Children occupied (and still do), a central place in the African family. Indeed, childless women are looked down on and the woman made every effort to conceive and bear more children. The mother usually took full responsibility for the child until the age of six or eight. At this age, the father assumed the main responsibility for the boy and the mother for the girl. The child,

¹ As noted in Chapter 1, the Teachers for East Africa Project will be referred to as the TEA Project.

² R. Freeman Butts. "Teachers for East Africa." (Unpublished paper, December 3, 1981), p. 1.

³ As noted in Chapter 1, the Afro-Anglo-American Project will be referred to as the AAA Project.

at this age, worked with the parent. The father taught the boy how to become a man and the mother taught her daughter how to be a woman and a mother. The boy worked the land, watched over the animals, collected wood, gathered food, learned how to hunt, fish, etc. The girl learned how to cook, go shopping, do embroidery and gather food. In this respect, education and social life were combined. Each community followed closely the development - intellectual, physical and emotional - of each child in its circle.

At the age of about fifteen, when puberty sets in, each tribe followed its own rites of initiation. Usually some sort of a permanent scar resulted from the initiation ceremonies and this marked the adult status of a man or woman.⁴ This type of traditional African education

...embraces character-building as well as the development of physical aptitudes, the acquisition of those moral qualities felt to be an integral part of manhood and the acquisition of the knowledge and techniques needed by all men if they are to take an active part in social life in its various forms. In all this, its objectives do not differ from those of education in other societies living in other parts of the world.⁵

While this type of traditional education bears little resemblance to Western education, it provided Africans with the background

⁴ For a detailed account of tribal customs and rites see Jomo Kenyatta. Facing Mount Kenya: the Tribal Life of the Gikuyu. (New York : Vantage Books, 1965).

⁵ Abdou Moumouni. Education in Africa. Translated by Phyllis Nauts Ott. (New York : Praeger, 1968), p. 29.

and basics to become productive adult members of their community.

There were no school buildings, but every African society had its own social practices, customs, symbols, rituals and values which each member had to learn. As Senteza Kajubi explains:

...the children learned that wisdom is more valuable than physical strength; and that humility is more to be prized than ostentatiousness. They also learned that cooperation is strength, and division weakness. Good should be rewarded and evil punished.⁶

As Europeans made inroads into Africa, they brought their own type of ideas, schools and customs. This resulted in a gradual breakdown of the old African tribal customs and rituals. European settlers set up new schools with no regard or consideration for the local people and this contributed in part to the breakdown of the old African customs. But, as Kajubi says,

...there is much that modern formal education can and should draw from the philosophy and practices of traditional education, which is generally lacking from the type of education imparted by formal schooling in Africa today.⁷

During colonial times and between the two world wars, the European-type schools played an important role. They supplied the colonial administrators with interpreters, teachers, clerks and other subordinate staff they needed. From these schools also,

⁶ W. Senteza Kajubi. Higher Education and the Dilemma of Nation-Building in Africa: a Retrospective and Prospective View. (Unpublished paper. Karl W. Bigelow Memorial Lecture at Teachers College, Columbia University, delivered at Milbank Chapel, Teachers College, 1982), p. 5.

⁷ Ibid. , p. 6.

emerged the men who eventually led the struggle for an independent Black Africa. Prior to independence, Africa was experiencing a shortage of high-level and middle-level manpower. This was due to the fact that during colonial times and in between the world wars, Africans were not encouraged to pursue higher education. In fact, as Kajubi says, most African universities were established after 1960. Recognising the fact that education played a vital role in national development, many conferences were held during the 1950's regarding the future of African education.

In 1949 Professor Karl W. Bigelow of Teachers College organized a landmark conference on "Educational Problems of Special Cultural Groups (held at Teachers College, Columbia University). It had participants from Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States and resulted in a new interest in the problems of and prospects for education in Africa. According to Rukare:

The Afro-Anglo-American Programme has been described as the "brainchild" of Karl Bigelow of Teachers College, Columbia University, John Lewis of the London Institute of Education, Andrew Taylor, formerly Director of the Ibadan Institute of Education in Nigeria, and the late John Wilson of the London Institute of Education.⁸

The main purpose of the AAA (formed in 1960) was to

⁸ Enoka H. Rukare, African Institutes of Education. (Kampala, Uganda : Department of Education, Makerere University, Kampala, 1975?), p. 43.

strengthen teacher education in Africa. Funding for this program was provided by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The AAA was a successful program and it provided a chance for Africans to study at Teachers College; for staff from Teachers College to gain experience in Africa; for the exchange of staff between African Institutes of Education and personnel from London and New York; and it held Annual Conferences which opened a way for working together and exchanging ideas. As Rukare explains:

By the end of the 1950's British East African territories were very fast moving towards their political independence. It was generally realised that the responsibility of such independence greatly increased outposts of trained manpower. Top priority was therefore being given to the expansion of secondary school facilities as a first and necessary step towards the expansion of higher and university education.

...this pressing desire for greatly increased secondary school education and the scarcity of facilities for training adequate secondary school teachers that created a dilemma the solution of which led to the development of the Teachers for East Africa (TEA) Project.⁹

As African nations started gaining political independence, the qualified teachers they did have were drawn into governmental and administrative positions thus leaving a vacuum in secondary schools. Many expatriate teachers from Britain returned to their home country thus intensifying the vacuum. Education was recognized

⁹ Ibid. , p. 49.

as being very important in national development. According to Butts, the American government stepped in and asked Teachers College to "...recruit, select, and train candidates for the Teachers for East Africa Program in January 1961."¹⁰

In his book describing the Carnegie Corporation's involvement in this program, Murphy describes the formation of the TEA Project.

This program, technically separate from the AAA but functioning in such close cooperation that the two were practically linked, originated at the Princeton Conference of the Africa Liaison Committee. Bigelow, not originally invited to Princeton, was added when Carnegie Corporation called his central role in the newly formed AAA Program to the attention of the conference planners. Since secondary education and the shortage of teachers were likely to be major items for discussion, Bigelow was a logical participant. At the time although he knew de Kiewiet¹¹ and various people in the American Council on Education, Bigelow was not involved in ALC Development or acquainted with most of the university presidents on the committees.

Also present was Dr. Ralph Ruffner, a senior education administrator in the International Cooperation Administration, who was a graduate of Teachers College. Ruffner had analyzed the information summarizing East Africa's educational needs, and was especially concerned about the critical shortage of secondary school teachers. While studying the situation, he was struck by the fact that Makerere College, already under attack by airlift proponents and other critics for its small student body and rigid admissions standards, would have a surplus of

¹⁰ R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 50.

¹¹ Cornelius W. de Kiewiet was then Acting President of Cornell University and president-designate of the University of Rochester.

150 dormitory spaces from 1961-62. Why, Ruffner wondered, should Makerere not fill its surplus places with 150 American teacher trainees, who could move into the secondary schools after completing their teacher education program?

On the first evening of the conference Ruffner met with Bigelow and Bernard de Bunsen, Makerere's principal, and presented his idea. Both responded enthusiastically, and discussed ways of implementing it. All three men recognized that because of Teachers College's existing AAA link with Makerere, the two institutions had an established basis for immediate cooperative implementation. The plan that emerged was that Teachers College, with ICA funds, would recruit 150 American college graduates, who would be sent to Makerere and given a special course by its Institute of Education to prepare them to teach in East African schools. Additional staff would be provided by Teachers College to ensure that Makerere had sufficient faculty to handle the sudden increase in students.

Convinced that the plan was sound and creative, Bigelow, Ruffner, and de Bunsen assembled a large group the second evening....

Immediately following the close of the conference Ruffner, Bigelow and de Bunsen set to work to secure approval of the project from Teachers College and ICA, and the East African government representatives promised to begin clearing the plan with their governments. Although Ruffner had not had time to discuss the idea thoroughly with his own superiors in ICA before Princeton, he was able to overcome initial resistance and secure agreement in three weeks, aided by strong arguments from de Bunsen and several East African officials who had delayed their return to East Africa in order to help work out details. Freeman Butts, who had recently been named Director of International Studies at Teachers College, officially became responsible for the program there, and worked with Bigelow to obtain an administrative staff to implement it. Butts arranged for Columbia University's prestigious African Studies Institute, headed by L Gray Cowan, to cooperate in the program. The cooperation proved most helpful in later negotiations with East African governments, selecting and orienting the recruits and advising on

how they should adjust to cultural differences in the field.¹²

The Agency for International Development (AID) funded the program and Teachers College administered it. It was launched in February 1961 in response to urgent requests from the governments of Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda, and Zanzibar in relation to a critical shortage of teachers in their secondary schools. According to Butts, it had two related aspects - 1. assistance to the nations of East Africa in their efforts to increase the supply of qualified African teachers, and 2. emergency provision of qualified secondary school teachers from the United States. The TEA was an experimental project and had six general characteristics.

1. It was based upon a genuine and demonstrable need in the receiving country.(Butts)

In 1960 members of the African Liaison Committee of the American Council on Education had toured East African countries and found that secondary school teachers were desperately needed in the schools. A conference was held at Princeton, New Jersey, and was attended by educators interested in African education from the United States and the United Kingdom. The United States agreed to send 150 teachers to teach in the secondary schools for

¹² E. Jefferson Murphy, Creative Philanthropy: Carnegie Corporation and Africa, 1953-1973. (New York : Teachers College Press, 1976), p. 129-130.

two years. Teachers College was asked to assume administrative responsibilities for the American side, and British universities were expected to send their graduates to teach as well.

Butts was elected to be in charge of the administration of the project and in February, 1961, he went to London and East Africa with two colleagues from Columbia University and two representatives of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA). As a result, they selected 150 Americans who were classed into three groups. As Butts explains:

- (a) Group A consisted of about sixty teachers who had at least a bachelor's degree, were professionally trained and certified, and had some experience in secondary school teaching;
- (b) Group B consisted of about forty recent arts and science graduates who had a bachelor's degree but no professional preparation for teaching; and
- (c) Group C consisted of about fifty recent graduates who had at least a bachelor's degree and who had finished their professional preparation for teaching in secondary schools but who had no teaching experience beyond practice teaching.

Group A, the experienced teachers went to Makerere College on July 15 for about two months of training before being assigned to a teaching post in a secondary school beginning in August 1961.

Group B went to Makerere College on July 15 for an academic year's training before being assigned to a teaching post in May 1962. The eight British graduates joined the program for Group B at this point. Their course of training culminated in the award of the Makerere Diploma in Education, and thus they met the full requirements for professionally qualified teachers in East African secondary schools.

Group C remained at Teachers College for the summer session

of 1961 and then received further orientation at the university of London Institute of Education during September. After completing this course, Group C went to Makerere College about the first of October for three months of further training before being assigned to teachign posts in January 1962.¹³

2. The program was based upon cooperative and careful planning and preparation between the British who were giving up their position in East Africa, the Africans who were taking over the responsibility, and the Americans who were being asked to help in the process of transition. As Butts explains:

During our first visit to East Africa my colleagues and I talked with the highest government officials, with territorial and provincial officers, with faculty members and administrators of Makerere College, and with headmasters and teachers in the secondary schools. We spent time in the cities and in the bush. We saw politicians, civil servants, officials of teachers' associations, business and labor organizations, and ordinary people. We conferred with Africans, Asians, Europeans and Americans.

We worked long hours with responsible educational, governmental, and financial authorities in each of the territorial governments and in the United Kingdom. We arrived at carefully worked out and detailed arrangements for the training and the subsequent service of the American teachers in the government schools and government-aided secondary schools of East Africa.

We were struck by the unanimous and genuine enthusiasm for the plan as expressed in every quarter of East African life. Nothing was viewed as more urgent than the

¹³ R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 54-55.

filling of vacancies with qualified teachers. The scheme was welcomed wholeheartedly by all shades of opinions.¹⁴

Before the second and third contingents were sent to East Africa, Butts and his colleagues went to East Africa to prepare for their arrival. As Butts says:

Continuous planning and consultation by the officials of the governments and universities involved is a prime requirement if academic and professional goals are to be achieved along with the broadly developmental goals.¹⁵

3. The teachers were carefully recruited, screened, and selected. (Butts)

Interviewing teams were sent from Teachers College to various parts of the country to accredited four-year, degree-granting institutions. They looked for people with special traits. Butts explains:

We wanted first-rate teachers who were well-trained in the academic subjects regularly taught in the East African secondary schools.

We wanted them to be fully qualified professionals, or capable of becoming so through the training that was provided for them

We wanted teachers who were personally versatile, resourceful, and imaginative in surmounting the unexpected, the difficult, or the merely routine. They should be able to rely upon their own inner resources rather than upon others. They should have a moral integrity to guide them when rules are strangely different or when customary rules are removed.

¹⁴ Ibid. , p. 55-56.

¹⁵ Ibid. , p. 56.

We wanted those who would be capable of relating themselves readily to new situations, new associates, new friends. With no trace of paternalism they should be able to cooperate with Africa in educating itself. They should be animated by a spirit of service that is realistic not sentimental, by a spirit of adventure that is durable not romantic, by a sense of altruism that stems from a fraternal concern for the welfare of others not from the posture of superior "do-goodism" for the unfortunate. Their spirit of public service should carry no hint of proselyting on behalf of partisan politics or sectarian religion.

They should be knowledgeable about American life and education and ready to learn understandingly about the people and cultures of other lands. They should exemplify the free man and his values, not the aggressive preacher of slogans or pat phrases.¹⁶

4. The teachers were given special training before, and while in the host country.

Training was provided at Teachers College and by the ministries of education in the host countries. The training programs stressed the following:

- (a) an overall orientation to Africa, its politics, culture, aspirations and present role in the world; and a fundamental study of the geography, history, social anthropology, economics, and politics of the countries of East Africa;
- (b) an introduction to the British system of education which is the prototype of East African secondary education as it now exists; and a special study of East African education, its history and current trends, and the national policies of governmental and educational administration;
- (c) specific training and practice in teaching the

¹⁶ Ibid. , p. 57.

content of subjects required by East African school conditions, syllabuses, and examination requirements, and aid in facing the problems of teaching in English which is the medium of instruction of the schools but essentially a foreign language for the students;

(d) a re-examination of various aspects of American life and education as they may be useful to the American teacher as he deals with African students and British and African colleagues and as he gains new perspectives on himself and his own cultures and

(e) an opportunity to learn Swahili, the most common spoken language of the region, as a means of enhancing and supplementing the communication achieved by the use of English in the classroom.¹⁷

Most trainees stayed in the program and the attrition rate was very low. As Butts further explains:

...Between June 1961 and June 1963 there were 272 teachers selected who reported to Teachers College for training. Of these a total of 22 (8.1 per cent) left the program: four (1.5 per cent) resigned or were asked to leave while in training in New York; another ten (3.7 per cent) resigned or were asked to withdraw during training in East Africa. This is a total of 5.2 per cent casualties during training. In addition there were eight (2.9 per cent) who resigned after assignment to the schools: one for reasons of health, one wife who became pregnant, and one couple whose husband was asked to join the TEA staff at Makerere. This meant that only four (1.5 per cent) resigned for reasons that could fairly be classified as "not having worked out well in the schools."¹⁸

The Peace Corps had a larger dropout rate than the TEA.

However, as Butts points out, the Peace Corps training programs were not geared specifically toward teacher training, but rather for a variety of non-teaching assignments.

¹⁷ Ibid. , p. 58-59.

¹⁸ Ibid. , p. 60.

5. The teachers were carefully inducted and supervised by professionals in the host country. (Butts)

Since Teachers College was already cooperating with the University of London Institute of Education and Makerere College in the AAA Program, it allowed for much detailed planning during the early stages of the TEA Project.

American faculty were sent to Makerere to assist in teaching the American and British graduate students. Once the training was completed, the American teachers were placed in East African schools and were

...considered to be regular government education officers, responsible to the same officials receiving the same pay, undergoing the same conditions of service, and living in the same way as other expatriate teachers. The East African governments pay the same base salary to the expatriate teachers that they pay their own teachers, and the British and American governments pay a modest overseas addition to their respective nationals. In other words, the salaries and conditions of service of the American teachers are defined by the governments concerned with respect to qualifications, status, training, and salary required for effective accomplishment of the job to be done. Sharing in the cost of salaries by all the governments concerned makes the enterprise a truly cooperative and multicultural affair.¹⁹

If an African could take a job, no expatriate was used to fill it. The ultimate goal was to get enough trained Africans to teach in, and run, their own schools.

¹⁹ Ibid. , p. 64.

6. The quality of the programs was assessed at every stage.

Butts says that AID granted a small amount of money for research in relation to the TEA Project. He wanted to see, for example, if the selection process, screening and training programs were successfully preparing the kind of people that were needed in order for the program to be a success. The American teachers had to be able to fit into a British system of education. At the same time, they had to cope with societies undergoing rapid change. As Butts explains: "Tanganyika achieved independence during the first year after our teachers arrived in East Africa; Uganda during the second year; and Kenya and Zanzibar during the third year."²⁰

Butts had a chance to gain firsthand impressions on one of his trips when he was able to talk to some of the first American teachers in East Africa. He made confidential notes on each TEA teacher he visited. As an example, excerpted below is one on William S.²¹ who taught at Nyakato School in Bukoba, Tanganyika.

²⁰ Ibid. , p. 66.

²¹ To protect the identity of the persons, I have used only the initial of the last names.

We first met S. at the Lake Hotel the night we arrived in Bukoba (October 30, 1962). He was having a drink in the bar with an Italian friend...Swatman (the headmaster) spoke well of S. (possibly a bit hesitant on some points, but really nothing very negative). Swatman is a mild, smiling, tall British type -- soon to go on leave (as many H.M.'s to date seem to be doing). He really didn't know much about S.'s teaching.

Incidentally, the minute S. came, his predecessor, George Sangai, became District Education Officer. So one thing the Americans do is to enable Africans to move from teaching into administrative posts). Thus TEA aids Africanization (far from taking African's jobs).

I watched S. teach a class in geography on economic factors. It was relatively uninspiring, but then his interest is history (he teaches all of it in the school) not geography.

I believe S. is not a very good teacher. His English is poor and his spelling (even when writing on the board) leaves something to be desired.

And on Myrne G., who taught at Tabora Girls Secondary School in Tabora, Tanganyika.

She is an excellent teacher -- serious and fine intellectual exchange between her and students. She obviously understands the very soft spoken questions of the girls. Her ear has become quickly attuned.

I have never seen an African class with as many questions and sustained questioning. She eventually turned them to the class itself at just the right time--virtually every hand was up.

Miss G. seems to be a steady, quiet, but not passive citizen. She has been accepted very well by several British staff members. Her H.M. (headmaster) spoke only moderately about her --"She's doing all right" In contrast Miss G. reported great dissatisfaction with the H.M. as authoritarian and never bringing staff in decisions.

By making regular visits and assessing and evaluating the TEA people, the administrators of the Program were able to keep in close touch with their performance as teachers. Butts says

There were some problems of course, but my over-all impression was that most of the teachers were doing very well indeed and that there were fewer problems of settling-in and of adjustment than sixty well qualified American teachers would have had if they had been appointed to forty new and different schools in the United States at the beginning of a new term.²²

The biggest problem as Butts saw it, was that the teachers were asked to teach subjects for which they were not prepared.

The African students seemed to have reacted well to their American teachers. The American teachers seemed to have integrated themselves into the life of the African schools very well by

...coaching debating teams, directing plays, starting magazines, and sponsoring correspondence between their African students and their former²³ students at the schools they have left back home.

The only common problem that Butts perceived was the attitude of the British teachers towards their American colleagues. The Americans were friendly and outgoing as opposed to the reserved and aloof British. Some African teachers also displayed this aloofness and reserve simply because they had been trained that way by their British teachers.

²² R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 67.

²³ Ibid. , p. 67.

The American's were criticised on many points including their spelling usage and pronunciation. This criticism reflected the fact that African and British secondary school teachers were held in higher regard than their American counterparts. The Africans and Britisher's behaved more in keeping with their social class than did the American teachers.

Butts summarized what he believed were important contributions of the TEA Program to East African education.

1. There was no longer a chronic shortage of teachers since the TEA teachers came in.
2. TEA teachers made it possible to let every secondary school student stay the four years and have a chance at the school certificate examination.
3. African teachers were able to move into administrative positions to replace the British without much discomfort to the schools since the TEA teachers took over the teaching positions.
4. The job of the TEA teachers was

...not to run the schools or even to teach in the schools of East Africa, but to make it possible for the East African countries to train their own teachers and to run their own schools.²⁴

²⁴ Ibid. , p. 72.

5. TEA teachers were the one stable element in the changing staff of a school. Some of the British teachers who went on home leave never returned; many of the African teachers left for more lucrative government jobs. As the TEA teachers became more knowledgeable about the teaching methods, they were asked to prepare new curriculums with their African and British colleagues.

6. The Americans definitely infused a new spirit into the schools. They were enthusiastic, energetic and hard working and passed this spirit on to their colleagues and students. Butts believes that:

...in the long run it may be the most important contribution that can be made to nations that would rule themselves by educating themselves.²⁵

Butts also met some Peace Corps volunteers while he was in Africa in 1962 and states that all he has said about the TEA Project could also be true of the Peace Corps. Perhaps the most significant difference between the two was that TEA

...aimed at discovering the best way to select and train qualified American professionals to work within an existing educational system and on a level of parity with other trained professionals already in the system.²⁶

The Peace Corps provided an opportunity for people to

²⁵ Ibid. , p. 74.

²⁶ Ibid. , p. 75.

volunteer their services overseas. Whereas the TEA teacher was pursuing his career in a different country, the Peace Corps volunteer was involved in a temporary, non-career activity.

Butts feels that the Peace Corps did not originally train their volunteers as teachers. He maintains that all volunteers are "teachers" whether they conduct formal teaching or not and that they should be trained as such. Indeed, says Butts, many of the original volunteers wished they had received more training as teachers before they left on their assignments. Those Peace Corps volunteers who received their training and orientation at Teachers College found a greater emphasis placed on training them as classroom teachers. Although some seemed to resent this, they found it invaluable once they had begun teaching in their assigned countries.

The TEA Program came to a sudden end in 1964 when the United States government decided that the Peace Corps should take over the teaching tasks then being performed by the TEA. Murphy expands on this:

In 1964, when the Peace Corps moved to take over the East African teacher supply effort, there was considerable resistance outside Washington, from Teachers College, from Makerere, from the governments of East Africa, and from the British government. TEA was a successful program, operating within a thoroughly professional educational framework, and East African educators believed that Peace Corps teachers would be of lesser quality* (*East

Africans also valued TEA's international flavor, with its American and British components, and the fact that its teachers served under contract to, and were paid by, African authorities).

Teachers College faculty would have preferred to continue TEA as a separate program, but the pro-Peace Corps pressures in Washington proved irresistible. After the fourth wave was sent in 1964 Teachers College stopped recruiting for TEA and began to train Peace Corps volunteer teachers for Uganda and Kenya.²⁷

Butts had mentioned the "serious battles with the Peace Corps in the early days."²⁸ He also spoke of the decision at Teachers College to train Peace Corps teachers, which was a very difficult decision to make considering all the time and planning that had gone into the TEA Project. Added to this was the fact that the East African Governments and Ministries of Education did not want Peace Corps teachers -- they wanted Teachers College teachers ! As Butts explains,

This was one of the most disheartening episodes in my African experience. I have in my files an eleven page single-spaced typed memorandum signed by Karl (Bigelow) and myself objecting vigorously to the unilateral decision in Washington which we felt would

²⁷

E. Jefferson Murphy, Creative Philanthropy: Carnegie Corporation and Africa, 1953-1973. (New York : Teachers College Press, 1976), p. 132.

²⁸ Personal interview, Park East Hotel, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, November 4 1983.

undercut the genuinely cooperative multilateral project that Africans, British, and Americans had worked out.²⁹

This was further complicated by the fact that the East African governments agreed to receive Peace Corps volunteers on the condition that the volunteers were trained by Teachers College.³⁰ As Murphy concludes:

In the end, none of the original opponents of the Peace Corps "take-over" found that Peace Corps volunteers were substantially less effective than TEA teachers. The latter were considerably more professionally oriented and had a fine program spirit, which helped them fit harmonously into the East African system. The Peace Corps volunteers, however, were generally well grounded educationally, and received good training at Teachers College and Syracuse University; their strong desire to be of service helped compensate for their less professional orientation. The transition after 1964 from TEA to Peace Corps teachers proceeded fairly smoothly and the United States was able to continue making a valuable contribution to a critical need.³¹

²⁹ R. Freeman Butts, "Teacher Education in Africa: Modernization and Traditionalism Reconsidered." (Karl Bigelow Memorial Lecture, University of London Institute of Education, 1st March 1982, Unpublished paper), p. 11.

³⁰ In the interview mentioned before, Butts also stated that this controversy between TEA and the Peace Corps could possibly be the subject for another book since all the correspondence and material on this subject is in the Teachers College Archives at Columbia University.

³¹ E. Jefferson Murphy, Creative Philanthropy: Carnegie Corporation and Africa, 1953-1973. (New York : Teachers College Press, 1976), p. 132-133.

Butts sees his years of involvement in the TEA as

...the most exhilarating and satisfying professional experience in my entire career. For most of the persons involved, including myself, there was a special spirit of commitment and service and dedication to achieving a more humane and decent life for the newly independent peoples of the world -- a spirit that genuinely reflected the best of the Kennedy and early Johnson years...³²

Education as he saw it, was an important part of national development.

In conclusion, it can be said that the TEA Program assisted African nations increase their supply of native African teachers and it also provided qualified American secondary teachers to fill in the gap left by departing British and American teachers. From the above developments a clear picture emerges of how Butts was enormously stimulated by his TEA experience. International education was necessary for the betterment of the lot of the emerging, independent nations and peoples, not only of Africa, but of the world. This, he felt, was also carried over into the succeeding efforts of the Kennedy (Shriver) and the early Johnson administrations, and is something that, no matter whose administration it is, should be carried forward not only for the well being of the developing nations, but also for the advancement of democracy in the world.

³² R. Freeman Butts, "Teacher Education in Africa: Modernization and Traditionalism Reconsidered." (Karl Bigelow Memorial Lecture, University of London Institute of Education, 1st March 1982, Unpublished paper), p. 9.

CHAPTER V

MODERNIZATION IN RELATION TO INTERNATIONAL AND TEACHER EDUCATION

In the twentieth century, it became widely accepted that educational improvement is a crucial factor in the development of nations and of people. Education, today, is a significant enterprise in developing countries; apart from the government, educational agencies, including schools, probably employ more people than any other organization.

Education plays a major role in the national development of all nations. Several of the industrially developed nations of the world have tried to assist poorer nations to develop their resources - technological, human, and natural - to improve their standard of living. Education has been widely relied on to narrow the gap between the developed and developing nations of the world

In colonial times, England and France, for example, transplanted their school systems, cultural and social customs to their colonies, with little or no regard for local culture or customs. Whether this was good or not, the fact is that it helped in the process of modernization of these nations. As Butts explains in his paper on the "Mission of the Educationary in

the Coming Ecumene,"¹ there have been four types of people who transplanted western civilization to other nations. The first was the "Missionary" who's primary aim was to convert the people to a new way of thinking and belief. In the process of spreading the gospel, the missionary undoubtedly served as an advisor in matters of agriculture, health and education. Thus, the missionary stimulated the process of modernization. The second was the "Proprietary" - Butts's word "...to cover all those engaged in the acquisition of property or in its use for the production and distribution of goods."² This type of person acquired land, formed companies and produced goods primarily in his own interest. To achieve and keep a standing in the community, he built churches, schools and health centers. He also, in his own way, helped in the process of modernization. The third type was the "Plenipotentiary" - or government agent, sent from his home country to rule a foreign land. He found it wise to build schools and universities to benefit other colonials and settlers. These schools also served to train the local people who assisted the colonial administrators in running the government. The

¹ R. Freeman Butts, "The Mission of the Educationary in the Coming Ecumene," National Society of College Teachers of Education, Chicago Meeting, February 17, 1966. (Mimeographed).

² Ibid.

plenipotentiary, therefore, was also instrumental in turning the wheels of modernization. The fourth type was the "Military." These people gave protection to the missionary, the proprietary, and the plenipotentiary as needed. These colonists inevitably affected the lives of millions of people in Asia and Africa. As the nations of Asia and Africa started to gain political independence and take charge of their own affairs, they determined that the West would never again have control over their lives as they once did. Therefore the countries of the West were faced with newly independent nations who needed help in order to modernize, yet who did not want to be ruled. In Butts's words, "...they want to achieve what the West has achieved but to do it under their own direction. To put it bluntly, they want to be both modern and free."³ What does it mean to be modern? As Cyril Black says:

"Modernization" may be defined as the process by which historically evolved institutions are adapted to the rapidly changing functions that reflect the unprecedented increase in man's knowledge, permitting control over his environment, that accompanied the scientific revolution. This process of adaptation had its origins and initial influences in the societies of Western Europe, but in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries these changes have been extended to all other societies and have resulted in a world-wide transformation affecting all human relationships.⁴

³ Ibid.

⁴ Cyril E. Black, The Dynamics of Modernization. (New York : Harper and Row, 1966), p. 7.

The word "modern" therefore, describes those countries that have the most advanced technological, political, economic, and social components and "modernization" describes the way in which they achieved this goal. Modern civilization is characterized by speed in travel, in communication, in mobility. In a traditional society this speed is unimaginable and strange. Butts describes the "traditional man" living in Africa or Asia. He lives in a rural, agrarian society. He is totally unfamiliar with new and rapidly changing technology, and of new machines. He only knows his village, his land, his crops; in other words, all he knows is the type of life his people have lived for hundreds of years. But the outside world is pushing in on him. New ways of thinking, of speaking, of dressing, of living, are being introduced by people who come from the cities. He is forced to change, whether he stays on in his village or goes to the city. His way of life, his social position in his village, even his religion, are being challenged by the city with its fast cars, loud music, and style of clothing. He has to learn to adapt to this totally new way of living and thinking. It is very hard for him to adjust. Butts says that education is a means of survival in his rapidly changing world. The people of the newly developing nations are indeed aware of the need of education for development in their countries. As David Bell puts it:

...education is the heart of the matter, the single most important element in the modernization process, and that the process of modernization is fundamentally a process of education.⁵

The essential difference between a traditional and a modern society lies in the notion that modern man has a greater control over his natural and social environment. A traditional man is passive and he does not believe that he can change or control the natural order of his life. Modern man, on the other hand, believes that he can and will change the order of his life. Modern man can achieve this change through the education he has received which enables him to be literate, to travel, to communicate. Modern man expects to live longer because he is able to eat better as a result of modern technological advances. Modern man is able to take an active part in the politics of his country. In his book *Black*⁶ identifies nine characteristics of modernization that most writers agree upon as being part of the process of modernization -- it is revolutionary and complex; it is systematic and global - all societies now are either modern or in the process of becoming modern; it is a lengthy and phased process; it is homogenizing and irreversible and

⁵ David E. Bell, "Education and the Modernization of Nations," in Education and the Modernization of Nations, edited by Elizabeth N. Shiver. (Washington D.C. : American Council on Education, 1965), p. 1.

⁶ Cyril E. Black, Comparative Modernization: A Reader. (New York : Free Press, 1976).

progressive. Modernization has its pains, but it is very desirable. In the long run, it "enhances human well-being, culturally and materially."⁷ Butts, in contrast to Black, discusses in great detail the role that education has played in advancing the world's various societies and cultures into modernity. Butts says that the process of modernization in developing nations would have been easier if the colonists had related education to the needs and cultural heritage of the people.⁸ They both agree that the process of modernization had its role in Western European cultures and was propelled into the twentieth century by rapid progress in industrial and technological proficiency.

The process of modernization was, undoubtedly, accelerated by colonialism. In Africa, for example, populations increased due to the establishment of an economic base, the spread of railways and roads which ensured that food could be rushed to famine areas, and also the campaigns against diseases such as yellow fever and sleeping sickness. The pace of urbanization was greatly accelerated and many new towns came into existence, and the populations of these towns grew by leaps and bounds. The quality

⁷ Ibid. , p. 31.

⁸ R. Freeman Butts, The Education of the West: a Formative Chapter in the History of Civilization. (New York : McGraw Hill, 1973).

of life in these towns improved as a result of the establishment of hospitals, sanitary facilities, pipe-borne water and better housing. The spread of Christianity was another important impact of colonialism. Missionaries usually were in charge of education (in Africa, for example) during the colonial period. These missionaries rather than relate education to the cultures and needs of the people, used it to convert them to Christianity and therefore "Westernize" them. Closely associated with the spread of Christianity was that of Western education. The spread of Western education had far reaching social effects, among which was an increase in the number of the westernized, educated, African elite which now constitutes the ruling parties and the backbone of civil service in Africa. The negative aspect of colonialism was that it brought large numbers of people to urban areas. The rural areas were therefore virtually neglected and a huge gap exists even today between urban and rural areas in Africa and there is no doubt that it was the colonial system that originated and widened this gap. Education, as provided by the colonial rulers, was irrelevant to the needs of Africans. The impact of the inadequate and wrongly oriented education has been profound. It left Africa with a huge illiteracy problem, and it produced an educated elite who proved to be a wealthy, Europeanized people and who, today, wield much power and influence in Africa.

Education is the major social goal in many developing societies. As Frederick Harbison says "...certainly education is the key that unlocks the door to modernization."⁹ However, Harbison notes that the wrong kind of education can deter economic advancement. In India and Egypt, for example, there are large numbers of arts and humanities graduates who are unemployed. Learning for the sake of learning is the objective of a few scholars. Learning for the sake of getting a better job with a higher salary is the objective of the majority of people. So people will always want an education regardless of the outcome. And an increase in the quantity of education is inevitably followed by a demand for quality in education. The appetite and need for education is almost insatiable. So an educational system that does not prepare people for available jobs and careers is, inevitably, a system that is detrimental to the nation and therefore, inefficient.

Educational institutions in the United States have been involved for many years in assisting developing nations. For example, Teachers College, Columbia University, through an AID contract, helped establish the National Institute of Education in

⁹ Frederick Harbison and Charles W. Myers, Education, Manpower, and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development. (New York : McGraw Hill, 1964), p. 181.

Delhi, India. This is a center for research and analysis and provides leadership for India's educational system. American educational institutions have provided people as well as ideas to assist the newly developing nations. But, as Harbison says, it is important to understand their problems, or any help given them could be harmful rather than beneficial. The main purpose of educational institutions is concerned with the shaping of men - of their abilities, their characters and their ideas. As education shapes men, it also shapes the society in which they live. The fact that developing nations use education to achieve modernization or development, is proof that education can also achieve social reconstruction. Education should not only preserve a nation's past heritage, it should assume a role in forming the nation's future. This is formed by changing the character of its citizens and for this the nation pays a price. An educated rural man moves to an urban location and thus destroys the rural character that his country has survived on for generations. Urbanization or modernization or progress, therefore, is a bag of mixed blessings.

Butts, in discussing the problems of education faced by developing nations, states that:

...new nations, if they are to be genuinely free, must determine their own educational goals and develop their own educational systems. Free peoples must educate themselves.¹⁰

¹⁰ R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development. (New York : Harper and Row, 1963), p. 93.

Developing nations want to expand their educational systems as rapidly as possible. They particularly want people to be trained in the sciences and technical areas, rural and agricultural education, adult education, and also in educating disadvantaged groups like women and tribals.

Butts asserted that in Africa the stress towards a curriculum that reflects the needs of the people is important. For example, learning more about African culture and paying less attention to Western European philosophy and art. Most newly independent nations striving for modernization already have an educational system based on some western model - a legacy from the British or French. While each developing nation should strive for an educational system uniquely its own, based on its own cultural and social foundations, it should also take into account the interests of the nations which are giving it assistance.

Many of the developing nations set up three- or five-year plans to aid in long-range planning. They also asked for help from the United Nations. Butts feels that talk about "economic development," "investment in education," and "national planning" are impersonal and tend to forget the lives and destinies of the millions of people they will affect,

Butts feels that the "...essence of modernity is to be inevitably a part of the whole world."¹¹ Education in these new nations should be concerned with the worldwide development of people as well as with the political and economic development of nations. What Butts has said to be the three stages of development on international education (cf. Chapter 2) will apply to most nations. These new nations should take advantage of the foreign teachers in their countries and find out as much as they can about the life and customs of people in their (the foreign teachers') countries.

Butts maintains that nations that want to be modern and free must do so not only by becoming self-governing, by establishing a productive economic system, but also by developing a sound educational system with good teachers. Butts explains the fact that:

A modern and free nation must have within itself the power to generate and regenerate the needed educational development that will serve its people well. A modern and free nation cannot rely indefinitely upon other nations for its teachers. To generate its own education it must produce its own teachers. Teacher education thus becomes one of the most urgent needs of the emergent nations.¹²

The "traditional man" (as mentioned elsewhere in this chapter), is being forced to change his way of life and thinking. The modern

¹¹ Ibid. , p. 112.

¹² Ibid. , p. 116.

world is closing in on him on all sides and where informal education had once been sufficient, he is now being forced to adopt some formal education to keep up with the modern world. What he once knew orally, he now has to write. Fortunately, education can help him make the transition from rural to urban a bit easier. Unfortunately, as Butts says, "...the teachers to whom they seek to turn, are not there, or they are not well enough prepared to offer much help in the difficult passage to a modern style of life."¹³ There was a crisis in teacher supply in many modernizing nations. To explain this crisis Butts coined the word "disjunctivitis," meaning

...the disease resulting from dividing or disjoining the educational enterprise into separate, often mutually exclusive parts. Such educational disjunctions tend to produce a number of professional dead ends which discourage able people from becoming teachers, and to perpetuate group divisions in the larger society which results in duplicated institutions and put further strain on an already short supply of teachers.¹⁴

There are several reasons for this disjunction. There is, for example, a disparity between primary and secondary school teachers.

¹³ R. Freeman Butts, "Teacher Education and Modernization," in Essays on World Education, edited by George Z.F. Bereday. (New York : Oxford University Press, 1969), p. 114.

¹⁴ Ibid. , p. 114.

The former are less educated, have lower salaries, and, in Africa, were local people. The latter had more education, higher salaries, and were mostly expatriate teachers. As a result, those who sought careers, went into professions other than teaching. Primary teacher training colleges were also inferior to secondary schools and a person who attended them had no opportunity to go to the university. A person attending a teacher training college was looked upon as being inferior and academically backward. Secondary school teachers were expected to be university graduates whereas primary school teachers almost always never were. There was an academic as well as social distance between teachers who were university graduates and those who were not university graduates. Butts also states that disjunction was enhanced in a country like Africa where the graduates were European and the non-graduates were usually African. Therefore primary school children received an inferior education from teachers who themselves had received an inferior education.

African university graduates who had the opportunity to go into government service did so rather than teach. Anything was preferable to teaching. Disjunctions even appeared between the various types of teacher training colleges. In primary teacher training colleges, there was a great emphasis on teaching methods and very little on academic work. In secondary teacher training

colleges, the emphasis was on academic study. The universities themselves did not adequately prepare people to teach in teacher training colleges. Disjunctivitis, as Butts explains, became widespread when the government felt that primary teacher education was its responsibility, and the university felt that secondary teacher education was its responsibility. Finally, Butts says, many nations were torn between using education to unify different races, ethnic backgrounds and languages, and using education to satisfy each of these groups by having separate schools for each ethnic group. Therefore the question remained as to what kind of educational system should each nation adopt?

Butts believes that the whole educational system should be modernized. The supply and quality of teachers will be increased if its traditional curriculums and instructional materials are changed to meet the needs of a modernizing nation. Butts proposes three levels of effort to attract and hold people in the teaching profession.

1. Teacher education at the intermediate level.

Butts recommends having "...fewer, larger, stronger and more diversified teachers colleges."¹⁵ Staff should be upgraded

¹⁵ Ibid. , p. 120

in teachers colleges. New staff should be highly qualified and in-service training should enable current staff to upgrade themselves. Butts is adamant in his feeling that university level preparation for teachers is very important. Prospective teachers should have a basic understanding of the role of education in the modernization process, and once the staff is upgraded in a teachers college, the curriculum can also be upgraded and made more relevant to the process of modernization by giving students a better understanding of the political, social, economic and cultural problems of their country. As the quality of the staff increases, the length of study for the students can increase thus enabling students to get a degree and therefore raise their academic and professional status. Teacher training institutions, says Butts, could be organized so as to train both primary and secondary school teachers in the same institution. Although this might seem impractical to some educators, Butts feels that if primary and secondary educators, jointly, see the problems they face, they could work together when they became career teachers. Butts suggests that teacher training colleges work more closely with universities. He charges that in many countries universities have more or less ignored educational problems. They have refused to train primary school teachers and when they have undertaken any teacher training, they have been very selective of their students. Education Ministries therefore, have resented the universities'

attitudes and set up their own teacher training institutions which would train the type of teachers they wanted, i.e., not only academically prepared but teachers who would be prepared in methods of teaching as well. Butts proposes a closer relationship between universities and teacher training colleges and hopes that the universities will accept them as partners.

2. Teacher Education at the University Level.

Butts notes that to be considered a professional, one has to have an education at the university level. Teacher training colleges do not emphasize a university level education. The goal therefore, is to get the universities and teacher training colleges to work together to improve the quality of teachers. A university, Butts says, can be

...an extraordinarily useful agent for modernizing teacher education if it can reorient its own narrowly conceived role as a transmitter of traditional knowledge and determines to serve the developmental needs of its society.¹⁶

A university should have the freedom to teach the sort of subjects that would produce effective leaders who would carry out the modernization process in their countries. University teachers should give more attention to the quality of their teaching says Butts.

¹⁶ Ibid. , p. 124.

There is a need for university teachers who are dedicated to self improvement. Universities should also place a greater importance on the study of the social sciences, such as political science, economics, sociology and history since these fields relate to the process of modernization.

The basic problems of social organizations, personal attitudes, moral behavior and religious belief are the problems which a teacher faces and has to deal with. Butts therefore states that the universities should train competent teachers for the teacher training colleges. He recognizes that many training college teachers have not had enough secondary education to qualify them to enter the university and he suggests that they be admitted to the university on the basis of their experience and not as a result of external examination.

Butts contends that university level research, which has contributed to the process of modernization in the sciences and social sciences, should be applied to teacher education. Research on how to teach children in rural areas and prepare them for life in a modernized world is very important.

Butts asserts that establishing institutes of education would be one way of bringing together the people who are concerned

with teacher education. These institutes usually have direct access to the government and none of the bureaucratic measures that mark daily governmental procedures. Institutes of Education in Afghanistan, India, East and West Africa and Britain, have been particularly successful. Institutes also are well adapted to international cooperation. For example, the Afro-Anglo-American Program in Teacher Education has enabled institutes from three continents to work together for the benefit of their own educational systems.

3. Teacher Education at the International Level.

The modernization process has been stimulated by international cooperation in education. The exchange of scholars and ideas has certainly enhanced teacher education in many parts of the world. Further investigation in certain areas would be worthwhile says Butts. Among them - a twenty-year critical assessment of international assistance in teacher education. Critical and candid comments by "recipients" and "donors" should also be assessed. Butts has several suggestions for international cooperation to aid teacher education. Among them are long-term international cooperative agreements between universities, teachers colleges and school organizations; training of career teachers who could work anywhere in the world; training of career researchers to develop and modernize teacher education throughout the world.

Butts feels he is biased in thinking that teacher education is very important in the modernization process. He feels that the process of modernization is essentially an educational process.

He sums it up by saying that:

...the supreme qualification for a professional teacher in any country of the world today is the ability to lead the way to a modern style of life for his people, in order to enable them to enlarge their perspectives on themselves and the world, to achieve a sense of identity in a world of change, and to acquire the habits of rational and objective thought as the only secure foundation for self-government.¹⁷

Teacher education is undoubtedly very important to Butts. He believes that prospective teachers should have a good grounding in the liberal arts. He emphasizes that as a rural society yields to an urban one, and as the world and life in it grows more complex, education should be expanded to include

...health and physical education and recreation, to vocational and technical education, to personal and social adjustment in an age of tensions, to the appreciative and expressive values of the arts and humanities, and to education for citizenship in a world full of dangers.¹⁸

Education, says Butts, should be devoted to the total development

¹⁷ Ibid. , p. 131.

¹⁸ R. Freeman Butts, "The Liberal Arts and Professional Education in the Preparation of Teachers: an International Perspective," Educational Record 38 (July 1957) : 264.

of the individual. Teaching methods, he stresses, should involve active participation from the learners. A sound education for good citizenship, Butts believes, is the responsibility of the schools and universities. Education should teach children to be active participants in the life of their communities. Most important of all, Butts believes that "...it is the responsibility of education to aid in preserving and extending freedom and equality in our democratic society and in the present world of turmoil and clash of ideologies."¹⁹ Teachers, therefore, should be not only people who keep order in the classroom, but people who are well-prepared to deal with the complexities and needs of an urbanized people. Butts therefore calls attention to the significance of having good teacher education programs.

The minimum length of time required for such preparation is at least four years beyond secondary school, and we should be looking forward to the time when five or six years of pre-service preparation will not be uncommon. I believe that primary school teachers should have as much and as high-quality preparation as secondary school teachers.²⁰

Butts asserts that university-level study should be required for prospective teachers. Teachers, he says, need a basic and good general and professional education. Again he stresses that "...a

¹⁹ Ibid. , p. 264.

²⁰ Ibid. , p. 265.

broad background of knowledge and appreciation ranging across the social sciences, the natural, physical, and mathematical sciences, the humanities, and the arts,..."²¹ is necessary for producing a good teacher. This general education should continue into the years of professional preparation for teachers. Professional education should include four elements, "...the foundations of education, a general understanding of educational institutions and programs, a major field of competence, and a period of induction to teaching experience."²²

People should have a basic understanding of the role of education in society. They should be well-grounded in "...the process of human growth and development and the mental, emotional, and physical behavior of learners as well as the psychology of learning, adjustment, motivation, and personality development."²³ To accomplish this, Butts says that a study of disciplines such as sociology, economics, history, international relations, philosophy and psychology is necessary at the university level.

²¹ Ibid. , p. 265.

²² Ibid. , p. 265.

²³ Ibid. , p. 265.

All teachers, according to Butts, should have an understanding of the administration and operation of a school system. They need to know what each part of this large unit performs. Without this, Butts says that the "...individual teacher cannot adequately conceive his own specialized role in the total enterprise nor take his part as an active and responsible member of the profession."²⁴

Teachers should have a good command of the subject matter in their own field of specialization and it should include an on-going study of that area in order to keep up with the latest developments. Practice teaching or student teaching is also an important part of teacher preparation.

In 1954 Butts visited several countries (England, France, Italy, Ceylon and Australia), to observe teacher training practices. He found that Australian elementary school teachers were trained in state-run teachers colleges. Teacher training centered around such primary school subjects as reading, writing, arithmetic, music and arts, and neglected the social sciences. Training in the teaching of chemistry and physics was left for the brighter students who usually went on for higher education and therefore taught in the

²⁴ Ibid. , p. 266.

secondary schools. As Butts indicates, "...Primary school teaching, and the people who became primary school teachers are generally thought of as inferior to those who pursue the higher branches."²⁵

Australian secondary school teachers were required to have university-level education. After high school, they had a three year course of study which culminated in a bachelor's degree; this was followed by a one-year course in education which qualified them to teach in a secondary school. Butts concluded that in Australian teacher training institutions the stress was on academic subjects rather than on education subjects (such as methods of teaching).

Butts concluded from his observations that in Australia, elementary school teachers generally were from a lower class (academically and socially), than were secondary school teachers. Elementary school teachers had less education than secondary teachers who were expected to be university graduates. Butts also says that elementary school teachers in the United States were required to have more training than those, for example, in Australia; secondary school teacher training, on the other hand, seemed to be on the same footing with the one difference that American teachers who pursued the master's degree were more likely to be compensated monetarily than those who did not.

²⁵ Ibid. , p. 270.

Teacher education in America should be a combination of the basics of a liberal education and a professional education. Butts believes that all teacher training, whether it is at the elementary or secondary level, should include four to five years of preparation beyond high school. He stresses the importance of all prospective teachers receiving a liberal education. He concludes that the best

Preparation for professional leadership must include a liberal education based upon sound scholarship, practical preparation for the job of teaching, a realizing sense of social and personal responsibility, and a critical ability to deal effectively with a wide range of fundamental ideas. The professional teacher must be adept as scholar, practitioner, citizen, and artist.²⁶

The teacher plays an important role in any educational enterprise. An internationally minded teacher will instill in his students a similar feeling. These teachers belong to a special class of people - they must be deeply aware of their own heritage and culture, and also of the heritage and culture of people of other lands; they must be able to teach their students this same feeling in order to produce the global minded people of the future. They should be willing to travel as part of teacher exchange programs. As Butts

²⁶ Ibid. , p. 279.

states, faculty exchanges have proved immensely worthwhile. While bringing back a knowledge of other peoples and lands, these faculty members have also left something behind in the lands they visited - a knowledge and appreciation of their (the faculty members') country. Butts feels that by introducing the study of the field of international education into the curriculum, schools will produce internationally minded people. Teachers play a major role in this area and therefore, training teachers to be internationally minded is very important. For developing nations to attain the level of modernization experienced by highly developed nations, it is necessary they be educated. As stated before, education is the key to modernization and teachers are the key to good students. I firmly support Butts's view on the importance of teacher education and on the role of education in the task of modernization.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have seen that R. Freeman Butts is an outstanding educator interested in international and teacher education. He has achieved considerable success in both fields by participating actively in international education at Teachers College and by lecturing widely on teacher education. His achievement in successfully administering the TEA program and other overseas programs in Afghanistan, India, and Peru for Teachers College, was indeed great. He has also had considerable success as a scholar having published many books on the history of education, and international education, and authored several articles on international education, teacher education and civic education. He was active within the university, teaching classes; and he was equally active outside where he joined, among others, Professor William Kilpatrick's discussion group which met at the Union Theological Seminary, and the Philosophy Club. His years at the Experimental College made him skeptical about the "single disciplinary approach" to education. He supported a more general approach to education rather than a specialized approach. In 1968 when the Soltis Committee reported on Curriculum Flexibility (at Teachers College), Butts supported its recommendations and

...tried to stir up some interest in a requirement that would require all doctoral candidates to grapple with the deepest social and cultural crises of our civilization as they bear on the

educational enterprise. I argued that we should expect all doctoral candidates to achieve competence in the use of disciplined methods of analysis and judgment as they study the role that education has played, can play, and should play, in alleviating and solving the social and cultural problems of modern civilizations.¹

The majority of the faculty felt that the Department of Social and Philosophical Foundations had thus far put too much emphasis on generalists rather than specialists, and had not underscored the importance of "hard empirical research." To change this trend and reflect its new emphasis the name of the Department was changed to Philosophy and the Social Sciences.

Butts looks back on his forty years at Teachers College with pride and affection; pride in his accomplishments as a teachers and administrator, and he remembers with affection the many friends he made at Teachers College and on his travels as a member of Teachers College's overseas programs.

In the post World War II years, when international studies became an increasingly important part of the curriculum on American college campuses, Butts joined in the international activities at Teachers College. He worked in conjunction with Professor Karl Bigelow on the TEA project and was actively involved in Teachers College's

¹ R. Freeman Butts, "Reflections on Forty Years in the Foundations Department at Teachers College," (Unpublished paper presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, Department of Philosophy and the Social Sciences, Alumni Day, April 11, 1975).

other overseas programs in Afghanistan, India and Peru.

Butts's first academically related overseas trip was to Australia.

He arrived at a time when secondary school reform was being widely discussed. His book, (Assumptions Underlying Australian Education), was used widely during these discussions. Butts severely criticised the teaching profession in Australia. Teacher training in Australia has undergone many changes since Butts's visit and teacher training institutions have become part of the Colleges of Advanced Education. Teachers colleges also receive more state and federal funding and are essentially self-governing in relation to program development. However, in 1979, there was an oversupply of teachers (inspite of demographic projections for a large population increase), and some teachers colleges had to close.² Education in Australia today follows many of the trends seen in American education in relation to curriculum development and teacher training.

Meanwhile, in the newly independent nations of Africa, education was seen to be of great importance. As the colonists left their government jobs, local Africans, many of them educators, assumed

² Russell D. Linke, "An Historical Perspective on the Reorganization of Teacher Education in Australia." Journal of Tertiary Educational Administration 5 (October 1983).

these positions. This created a scarcity of secondary school teachers in the schools. Teachers College stepped in and thus was formed the TEA program for which Butts assumed administrative responsibility. In all Teachers College sent 463 teachers to the independent countries of Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar. This program met with great success both in Africa and in the United States. In fact, when the Peace Corps took over the task of supplying teachers, the Africans were skeptical of the abilities of Peace Corps teachers since they had overwhelming confidence and trust in the abilities of the TEA teachers. This was indeed a great measure of the success of the TEA program.

The world today is more interdependent than it ever was, and problems such as nuclear arms, pollution, and hunger, among others, can only be solved by the efforts of all nations. Once there were few people scattered throughout the world in small groups. Today, with giant population increases and modern technology, not only has the world grown smaller, but it is also more interdependent. To remind us of our interdependence are the words of Apollo 8 astronaut, Frank Borman,

The view of the earth fascinated me - a small disk 240,000 miles away...We are one hunk of ground, water, air, clouds floating around in space. From out there it really is "one world."³

³ Cited in J.M. Becker, (ed). Schooling for a Global Age. (New York : McGraw Hill, 1979), p. 237.

All nations being interdependent it stands to reason that the young people of today must be given an education which will enable them to provide a better global environment for themselves and others. One of the purposes of education is to prepare us for the world in which we live, and knowledge of other countries, their peoples and cultures, is part of international education. International awareness should be an important part of a school's curriculum. For example, trends in population growth show that most of the world's population is increasing in poorer parts of the world. By the end of the twentieth century, over 70% of the world's population will be in Third World countries and 60% of the population will be of school age (World Bank, 1982).⁴ The world's economic balance has shifted in recent years making the oil rich Middle East an important area to contend with. Fostering an awareness of such information is essential in schools. American youth show a marked weakness in their knowledge of world affairs.⁵ International studies, it seems, does not have a high priority in school curriculums today; computer literacy, science and mathematics, have assumed greater importance. Is this the fault of the teacher? As Groennings

⁴ World Bank, World Development Report, 1982. (Washington D.C.)

⁵ Cf. Chicago Tribune, Sunday, October 21, 1984. Section 5, p. 1. "The Education Gap: American's 'World Apart' in Learning About Other Lands," by Vincent J. Schodolski.

says, "...not one teacher in twenty takes any international, comparative, or intercultural courses en route to certification..."⁶

Although grants given to schools today are mainly to enhance computer literacy and international education does not have the highest priority, many schools have resumed the study of global education. For example, as Groennings says, "...Oregon has become the first state to adopt a global educational requirement, albeit loosely defined, for high school graduation."⁷ Teacher training in this area should be of importance to schools of education. Many prospective teachers do not have any exposure to international education because it is not integrated into any undergraduate courses of study. Groennings suggests that an international dimension be added to the core curriculum so that it becomes a part of everyone's general education and not as area of specialization for a few students.

International education and teacher education have been a major part of Butts's academic career. He started out as a product of the American Middle West, a product of Alexander Meiklejohn's

⁶ Sven Groennings, "Beachheads in International Education," Educational Record 64 (Summer 1983) : p. 48-52.

⁷ Ibid. , p. 48.

Experimental College, which emphasized an interdisciplinary approach to learning. When he was involved in the international programs of Teachers College, Butts stressed that students, in African schools, for example, were taught not only the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic, but also the history and geography of their country and its cultural heritage. His tenure at Teachers College evolved from teaching the philosophy and foundations of education to being involved in the international activities of Teachers College, chief among them the TEA Project, which he remembers with great pride. He feels fortunate to have been a part of the American educational scene during the years it was making great strides in the area of international education. Butts feels he was fortunate to have been able to get funding from the Carnegie Corporation to assist in his travels through Asia and Africa which gave him a first-hand view of the situation of education in the countries he visited. The critical shortage of secondary school teachers in Africa had resulted in the TEA Project which sent hundreds of Americans to teach in several newly independent African countries. While the TEA provided secondary school teachers, it also assisted the nations of East Africa in their efforts to increase their supply of qualified African teachers. Butts strongly believes that the study of world affairs should have an important place in American education.

In conclusion, Butts views international education as "...the study of the thought, institutions, techniques or ways of life of other peoples..." and that "...it is the transfer of educational institutions, ideas, or materials from one society to another." He believes that international studies should prepare students and faculty to understand the peoples of the world. He feels that informing the American people about other people and their culture and the need for people of other nations to know the American people, their education and culture, is important. Butts feels that this study should begin in schools, below the college level, and therefore, schools of education have an obligation, as he sees it, to promote international studies for their faculty and students.

Teacher training is of paramount importance to Butts. He recommends having good teachers colleges; university-level training for all teachers and teachers having a sound knowledge of the role of education in the modernization process.

My overall impression of Butts, resulting from my meetings with him and from my readings, is that of a quiet, persevering and dedicated man who never compromised his principles in his dealings with various educational systems to help them achieve some degree of modernization (or set them on the road to modernization). He dealt diplomatically with many different languages,

ideas, and directions. He set the tone for a new high standard of education to be established in the newly independent nations of the post-World War II world, especially in Africa. What he brought to them was a high set of principles and standards based upon his knowledge and experience of American educators and their traditions entrenched in pre-World War II America, and the new world attitudes rising out of the events of World War II. He reflected a growing new attitude towards education in the Western world.

His basic belief, as I see it, is that Third World countries have the ability to achieve whatever they choose to without the assistance of their former colonial rulers, if they established a national educational system that had the ability to grow with a changing world. With this as a foundation, they could teach the youth of their nations to adapt to a changing world and in doing so, a greater knowledge of the Western world would be achieved, thus ensuring greater world security and unity. He structured a concept in education in the developing nations and helped create a public awareness towards the importance of education in a growing nation. In all the years of his involvement in international education, he maintained his central convictions that education was the basis of development in all countries, and that teacher education was the first step in achieving that goal - for

without good teachers there can be no good students. I feel that Butts has had a great impact on the study of international education and his involvement and leadership singles him out as a significant figure in the field. For example, his pioneering involvement in the TEA Project was a most significant milestone in his career and in international education, but this was only one of many milestones in his career.

For the future, a detailed study of the TEA Project and its outcomes would be significant. Other areas for further study would be the study of international education in the hands of other leading educators such as Karl Bigelow, Harold Taylor, or Robert Ulich. To compare and contrast their views with those of Butts would be useful. Another area to be studied could be that of the controversy surrounding the Peace Corps takeover of the TEA Project's supplying of teachers to East Africa. (Dr. Butts has indicated that he would like to do this **Someday**.)

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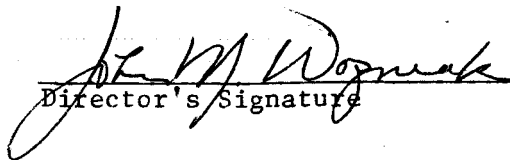
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7 December 1984

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