

**DEMOGRAPHY AS A DETERMINANT OF AN EDUCATION
SYSTEM FOR JAPAN, NIGERIA AND SOUTH AFRICA**

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father, Isaac Lesita-la'Malienyane Moletsane, my mother Louisa, my late brother Buti Andries and my late sister Mamokhele Moipone Christinah. A special word of dedication goes to my aunt Elizabeth Stoffel, my brothers and sisters and all the teachers whose work is always influenced by the demographic conditions. This work is finally and most especially dedicated to my wife Mamarumo Elizabeth, my two daughters, Seapehi and Mosa and my son Thato.

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ABSTRACT

This research is aimed at looking into demography as a determinant of the education system of Japan, Nigeria and South Africa. The various manifestations of this phenomenon as it affects the afore-said countries are looked into in order to derive lessons South Africa could learn from Japan and Nigeria. The main purpose of an education system is to meet the needs of the target group for which it has been designed. Demographic needs are but one of the few needs of the target group that have to be addressed.

The literature study has been used in order to gain a better understanding of the demographic issues with regard to the countries in question.

Chapter 2 presents some theoretical guidelines with regard to demography as a determinant of the education system.

Chapter 3 presents demographic issues pertaining to Japan and how the Japanese system of education takes cognisance of such issues. Subsequently, lessons which could be learnt by the South African education system are highlighted.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the presentation of the demographic issues as determinant of the education system of Nigeria and how the Nigerian education system takes cognisance of such issues. Subsequently, lessons which could be of value to South Africa are mentioned.

Chapter 5 concentrates on the description of the demographic conditions in South Africa and how these conditions are taken cognisance of by the education system.

Chapter 6 presents the summary of the preceding chapters. Findings are presented and recommendations are made with a view to improving the South African situation.

OPSOMMING

Die doelstelling van hierdie navorsing is om die invloed van demografie as determinant van die onderwysstelsels van Japan, Nigerië en Suid-Afrika na te gaan en te vergelyk. Die wyse waarop demografie die onderwysstelsels van Japan en Nigerië beïnvloed het, word ondersoek sodat rigtinggewende tendense vir die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysstelsel geïdentifiseer kan word. Terselfdertyd moet onthou word dat die onderwysstelsel bedoel is om die onderwysbehoefte van sy teikengroep te bevredig. Demografiese behoeftes is maar een van die behoeftes van die teikengroep wat in berekening gebring moet word.

Daar is van literatuurstudie as navorsingsmetode gebruik gemaak om die invloed van die demografiese aspekte op die bogenoemde lande se onderwysstelsels te bepaal.

Hoofstuk 2 stel enkele teoretiese riglyne met betrekking tot die demografiese faktore as determinant van die onderwysstelsel.

Hoofstuk 3 verduidelik die demografiese kenmerke van Japan en hoe die Japanese onderwysstelsel deur hierdie kenmerke beïnvloed word. Tersaaklike riglyne vir die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysstelsel word beklemtoon.

In hoofstuk 4 word aandag gegee aan demografiese kenmerke as determinant van die Nigeriese onderwysstelsel en hoe die Nigeriese onderwysstelsel hierdie sake verdiskonteer. Riglyne wat vir Suid-Afrika waardevol is, word hieruit afgelei.

Hoofstuk 5 konsentreer op die beskrywing van die demografiese toestande in Suid-Afrika en hoe hierdie toestande deur die onderwysstelsel in berekening gebring word.

In hoofstuk 6 word die voorgaande hoofstukke saamgevat. Bevindinge en aanbevelings word gemaak ten opsigte van die wyse waarop die demografiese probleemsituasie in Suid-Afrika hanteer kan word.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

In this research the demographic conditions as the determinants of the Nigerian, Japanese and South African (Black sub-system) education systems are looked into as they influence educational provision in the afore-stated countries.

These demographic conditions in their various manifestations, have direct influence on the way in which education is provided. For example, great numbers of pupils to be served by an education system and small habitable areas will automatically dictate to the education authority the need for high pupil-classroom ratios. This is one of the mechanisms by which education systems address their demographic conditions.

It appears that all mechanisms which are to address the educational ills are inherent within each education system. After all, education systems are specifically designed to meet the educational goals of the target group (Steyn, 1991:3,4). Failure by any educational system to attend to the needs of its target group is always viewed in a serious light. That is why countries experiencing nearly the same demographic conditions will go all out to learn from other countries how those countries address their problems without doing away with their unique conditions.

It is against this background that the demographic conditions of the afore-stated countries will be investigated.

1.2 MOTIVATION

The countries under discussion have a common feature of high population growth rates as well as continual movements of people to the urban centres or even vice versa. Due to these common demographic features, Japan and Nigeria were chosen so as to derive lessons that South Africa can use in addressing its demographic problems. These features cannot be overlooked by any system of education which has the interest of its people at heart.

1.3 PROBLEM ISSUES OF THE RESEARCH

The problems pertaining to the research can be phrased as follows:

- * What is the theory on demography as a determinant of an education system?
- * How does the Japanese education system take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * How does the Nigerian education system take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * How does the South African education system (Black-subsystem) take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * Are there any lessons that the South African education system can learn from the Nigerian and the Japanese education systems?

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

This study intends to investigate the effects of demography as a determinant of the education system of Nigeria, Japan and South Africa (Black sub-system) on educational provisioning and to identify possible solutions which are aimed at addressing such demographic ills.

The objectives of this study are therefore:

- * To investigate the theory on demography as a determinant of the education system;
- * To investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the Japanese system of education;
- * To investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the Nigerian system education;
- * To investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the South African education system; and

- * To investigate the lessons that the South African education system could learn from the Nigerian and the Japanese education systems.

1.5 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.5.1 Literature study

The literature study was conducted in order to gain a better understanding with regard to demography as a determinant of the education system as well as the demographic conditions and problems in the afore-stated countries and how those countries handle such problems. Primary and secondary sources such as departmental journals, manuals and journals on education were studied.

The literature study was undertaken by obtaining sources from the Ferdinand Postma Library of the PU for CHE, VISTA, UNISA as well as provincial public libraries in Vereeniging, Sharpeville and Vanderbijlpark.

It was difficult to obtain data pertaining to numbers with regard to the countries under discussion because the recent data was not readily available.

1.5.2 Interpretation of the data

The data obtained from both the primary and secondary sources was carefully arranged and interpreted holistically to present a logical structure.

1.5.3 Evaluation of data

Objective evaluation was arrived at and the arrangement and evaluation of data was completed. This objective evaluation led the researcher to making recommendations.

1.5.4 Scientific writing

Objective evaluation of the interpreted data led to the writing of the research report.

1.6 PROPOSED CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter, preparing the reader towards a clearer understanding of the chapters that are to follow.

Chapter 2 is devoted to some theoretical guidelines pertaining to demography as a determinant of the education system as well as its justification to any system of education on equal par with all other determinants.

Chapter 3 focusses on the demographic issues of the Japanese system of education. The techniques which were implemented to address demographic problems in the Japanese education system are discussed and lessons which could be of value to the South African situation are discussed.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the Nigerian education system. Demographic problems as well as the solutions thereof are highlighted to attend to such ills. Subsequently lessons which could be of value to the South African education system are also discussed.

Chapter 5 focusses on the education system of South Africa (Black subsystem). The demographic problems in their various manifestations are made mention of as well as the techniques which are implemented to address such problems.

Chapter 6 is devoted to the summary, findings and recommendations. All matters raised in the previous 5 chapters are summarized. Recommendations that are made are aimed at the improvement of the South Africa education system.

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In chapter 1 the following issues have been addressed: the motivation behind the research, the problem of research, the aims of the research, the method of research, interpretation of research data, evaluation of the data, scientific writing of the research data and the proposed chapters of this research work.

The following chapter will be devoted to some of the theoretical guidelines pertaining to demography as a determinant of the education system.

CHAPTER 2

DEMOGRAPHY AS A DETERMINANT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM: SOME THEORETICAL GUIDELINES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the system of education is to meet the educational needs of people who live in a particular territory (Steyn, 1991:3,4). All education systems of the world whether modern or primitive, comply with the universal structural principles which characterise a particular structure as an education system and not a trade union, farmers' organisation or municipality (Vos & Brits, 1987:42).

There are as many education systems as there are different countries in the world. Comparative educationists have attributed the differences of the various systems of education to the different determinants which are operative in individual education systems. Vos and Brits (1987:42) assert that for one to be able to understand the similarities that exist between the various education systems, one should have the knowledge of the way in which universal characteristics of the education system with regard to the local situations are particularised through the influence of the determinants.

The aim of this chapter is to describe demography as determinant of the education system and how it affects the various components of the education system such as the education policy, education administration, the structure for teaching and support services.

2.2 EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

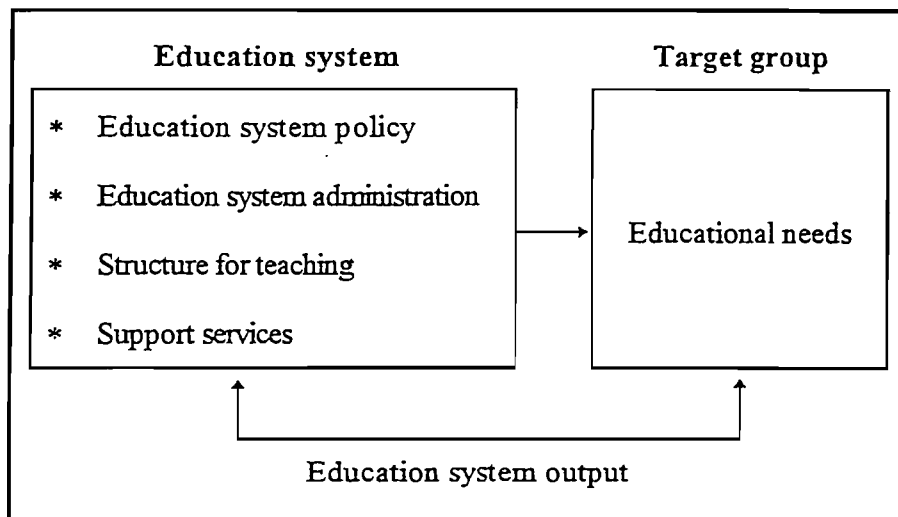
2.2.1 Education system

Because of the interest it has generated among the various Comparative educationists, the term "education system" has nuances of meanings. Van Schalkwyk (1982:80-113) asserts that an education system is an interrelated structure in nature whose aim is to provide effective teaching. He further states that the education system is constituted by the pedagogically qualified structures, structures concerned with education and the modal structures. Vos and Brits

(1987:37) view the education system as an interwoven structure comprising e.g. the state, family, school, church, political party and trade unions. Each of these structures fulfils a particular role in public education. Stone (1981:128-129) regards an education system as an interwoven structure comprising e.g. the state, families, teachers organisations, educative structures and nodal points and maintains that each of these structures maintains its own sovereignty within the territory in which it has to function. Steyn (1991:3-4) regards a national education system as a logistical structure or framework for effective teaching to meet the education needs of a group of people. According to him an education system comprise of interrelated components such as the education system policy, educational administration, structure for teaching and support services.

To elucidate this point of view the following diagram is provided.

Figure 2.1: Representation of an education system
(Steyn, 1994:7)



2.2.2 Components of the education system

2.2.2.1 Educational system policy

Educational policy can be described as sets of ideals, desires or expectations which arise from the deepest convictions of the human "heart" and are aimed at the education of their non-adult members (Van Schalkwyk, 1986:64). Education policy should originate from the target group, therefore, it should serve the community's target group educational desires. In democratic countries such as South Africa, United States and the others education policy has to be arrived at through consensus, while in authoritarian countries only the wishes of the dominant elite are expressed in a form of a policy. An educational policy leads to the formulation of educational legislation (Van Schalkwyk, 1986:44). The educational legislation is therefore a very important document which finally has to be enforced by law. Steyn (1991:19) has stated that an educational policy provides the guidelines along which a particular education system's aims are to be realized. Man's needs are not static and keep on changing, depending on the circumstances in which he finds himself, and as such an education policy should be revised as the needs change. Ruperti (1979:12-20) sees the education policy as the product of the interrelated processes of research, consultation, decision making, formulation of policy and legislation. The educational policy can appear in various formats such as legislation, governmental notices and departmental regulations (Steyn, 1991:23-24).

The component education system policy also refers to the education system goals and objectives that are to be met in practice. The education system policy is therefore an instrument through which it is ensured that the set goals and objectives of a specific education system are sought to be realized in practise. Steyn (1991:20) and Van der Westhuizen (1991a:150) regard education policy as a resource by means of which goals are interpreted and through which broad guidelines are laid down to serve as a basis for decision-making.

2.2.3 Education system administration

There is not yet consensus among the various comparative educationists as to what education system administration really means. This according to Van der Westhuizen (1991b:33) is brought about by the fact that all the definitions presently in use reflect their authors' viewpoints. Van Schalkwyk (1982:144) views education system administration as consisting of the variety of administrative processes which are instrumental in creating that situation which makes effective teaching possible. Behr and MacMillan (1971:5) declare that through the administration of the system

of education the pattern of government of the particular land is reflected. Comparative educationists could, therefore, say without any hesitation after making a thorough study of the way in which education is administered whether a country under discussion is socialist, capitalist or communist. Van der Westhuizen (1991b:34-35) makes a clear distinction between the structural and functional view of administration, and explains the former as a total structure within which education functions, the latter as having to do with investigating the functioning of the education system on the macro, meso and micro-levels. Steyn (1991:26) views educational administration as indicating the structure organisation (authority) according to which the functionaries and personnel in the education system are organised as well as the work of the functionaries through which the educational system functions (management).

Van Schalkwyk (1989:12) regards administration and control of education as facets of educational management, which involves matters such as policy making, planning, organization co-ordination, decision-making, financing, control and administration. According to Van Schalkwyk (1982:146) it is the responsibility of education administration to ensure that the education act is optimally and correctly executed by educational institutions and support services.

2.2.4 Structure for teaching

Van Schalkwyk (1986:138-139) and Steyn (1991:34) assert that the concept "structure for teaching" indicates the combination of all the educational institutions at all four educational levels namely preprimary, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

According to Steyn (1991:33-43) the structure for teaching consists of the following elements: the educators, the structure for learning opportunities, the learners, the physical facilities as well as the medium of instruction. For the structure for teaching to be effective enough teachers should be made available, learners in their various stages of becoming and according to their aptitudes should be looked after and the medium of instruction should be decided upon.

The school as a component of the structure for teaching fulfills an important task. Van der Stoep and Van der Stoep (1973:9) point out that this task is the presentation of the cultural heritage which has to be adequately assimilated by the child. Since this task has a bearing on the whole community, the school has therefore to be supported by the same community.

Steyn (1991:43) asserts that for **teaching** to take place physical structures such as lecture halls, classrooms or **gymnasiums** should be established for learning to be promoted, yet do not rule out the **possibility** that teaching could take place outside for instance in a sport ground. **Pedagogic** considerations should influence the selection of areas that are to be **established** for the promotion of learning and teaching.

In most countries in the world where an equal educational opportunities principle is persuaded, equality of educational **opportunities**, in this sense meaning the right of every individual to receive equal **treatment** in allocation of collective benefits in the social structure, students are **expected** to attend school by law (HSRC, 1981:205-207). One of their expectations, Van Schalkwyk (1986:302) asserts, is that they should be provided with all the **necessary** physical protection during school hours, which should inter alia include **adequate** and purposeful rooms and sports grounds. All these require space which **has to** be carefully chosen for education to be effective. The education policy of a **country** should indicate clearly which areas in a particular territory have been **earmarked** for the establishment of schools and all other establishments related to **teaching** and learning such as the offices of the education departments after **having considered** issues such as among others the following:

- concentration of learners
- settlement pattern of the **community**
- the rate of increase or **decrease** of the whole population.

2.2.5 Support services

The support services as one of **the** components of an education system have a unique task to perform. Steyn (1991:43-44) asserts that the aim of these services is to attain effective teaching. Van Schalkwyk (1982:194) believes that whenever a school comes into being a system of support service comes into existence. One could, therefore, infer from Van Schalkwyk's statement that he too views these services as supporting educative **teaching**.

Support services have specialists **to** carry out the task for which they have been assigned and they work in an **organized** fashion. Van Schalkwyk (1982:195) has it that the following support **services** are encountered: the pedagogical ancillary service, the curriculum service, **the** external examination service, subject advisers and professional-didactic ancillary **services** for teachers. Steyn (1991:44) classifies

these into two categories namely: support services to the learners and support services to the educators/teachers.

2.3 CONCLUSION

Though the various structures of the education system have each its unique task to perform, the components, however, are interrelated. Van Schalkwyk (1988:43) asserts that the policy provides the guidelines, but its implementation depends on practice. The policy of education is implemented in the other structures of the education system as it is the basis around which all other issues revolve. Various education systems are in existence because the needs which are to be met by education, differ from area to area.

2.4 DETERMINANT

The word *determinant* has been defined by several people, each giving it his own meaning. The ideas as exposed by some of these people are given hereunder. According to Webster (1986:616) a determinant is a fact, circumstance or situation which identifies aids, diagnoses or determines the nature of something. Malao (1985:204) adds that the word *determinant* means fundamental, semantic and formative. In analyzing these definitions, a very close relationship between the characteristics of the education system and its determinants becomes apparent.

Steyn (1991:42) supports this view and further adds another dimension, namely that the characteristics of an education system and its determinant cannot be separated but could only be distinguished. The universal structural principles of the education systems Steyn (1991:80) asserts, are embodied differently in particular systems, thus giving the various education systems their unique individual character. Two broad categories of determinants are distinguished, namely internal and external determinants (Steyn, 1994:78).

2.4.1 Internal determinants

The exposition below indicates different points of accentuation with regard to the determinants of the education system. According to Malao (1985:205) the internal determinants take their origin within the education system of a particular country. The internal determinants may be educative, historic or interactive in character.

2.4.1.1 Internal determinants of an educative nature

For effective education to take place factors such as pupil's weaknesses and strengths, availability of teaching facilitates as well as enough teachers to impart knowledge to the learners need to be taken cognisance of. In addressing issues such as the learning of pupils emphasis may, for example, shift from the learners to the teachers or vice versa depending on the nature of the problem to be tackled.

Steyn (1994:79) states that when the focus is placed upon the learners as well as sound education basics, the character of the determinant is educative in nature. In this case the character and contents of the education system are, for example, determined by inter alia the age of the pupils, the level of development of learners as well as the selection of appropriate learning content and method suited the learners' particular level of development. Focusing on the learners and the sound education basics is aimed at assisting them educationally to actualize themselves and to derive maximum benefit from their own schooling.

2.4.1.2 Internal determinants of an interactive nature

Concentration here is on those components of the education system as they may affect one another positively or negatively. Steyn (1994:79) states that the internal determinants have the character of interaction when the character or content of one component stimulates or limits the character or content of another component. An example of such an occurrence is, for example, the normal duration period for teaching and learning (structure for teaching) is interrupted by outside agencies such as school nurses in order to perform medical check ups on pupils (support services) or when the composition of the society and the settlement pattern of the people (administrative structure) necessitates that pupils be instructed in their mother tongue (education system policy).

2.4.1.3 Internal determinants of a historic nature

The internal determinants of a historic nature occur when the existing content or condition of the education system components stimulate or restrict the provision for educational needs of the target group (Steyn, 1994:79). The following examples will highlight this occurrence. The inappropriate location of the educational institutions with regard to the target groups place of abode will restrict the provision of educational needs for the target group in terms of the institutions' accessibility as learners will be compelled to travel long distances to and from these institutions. Too many pupils exceeding the stipulated number of learners in a classroom will

also restrict the proper utilization thus making it difficult for the attainment of the target groups' educational goals.

2.4.2 External determinants

External determinants point to the external forces and factors influencing the generality of the education system to the unique specialness of its characteristics (Steyn 1994:80). Considering the fact that all education systems are aimed at the fulfilment of the education goals of the target group as members of a particular community, the mutual relationship between the target group and the local community to be served by education should be well recognized by the education system. These external forces one may infer could also consist of useful strategies adopted by an education system in order to answer to the education needs of its own community. For example, foreign techniques which are used to handle increasing pupil numbers from outside countries may be implemented fully or in an adapted form in order to solve such similar problems. These techniques may be implemented successfully so that they become part and parcel of such a system. The process of cultural borrowing which is implemented internationally by comparative educationist is based on this concept (Vos & Brits, 1987:18).

The external determinants do not relate only to the adoption of techniques which have found their way within an education system but among others, also with factors pertaining to a particular society or societies living within a particular territory. For example, the geographic position of a country will have a determining influence upon the curriculum to be followed by such a country. The following factors according to Steyn (1994:80) constitute some of the external determinants - the culture or cultures of the target group, the construction of educationally interested structures and the demographic situation and geographic surroundings of the target group (Steyn 1994:80). For the sake of this dissertation the first two determinants mentioned here will not be discussed here because they have very little bearing upon this study. The following discussion will focus on one of the external determinants namely demography because it forms the gist around which this study revolves.

2.5 DEMOGRAPHY

Murray (1933:184) regard demography as that branch of anthropology which deals with the life conditions of communities of people as shown by statistics of births,

deaths and deceases. Pressat (1972:1) gives a much broader description of the term by declaring that demography is the discipline that seeks a statistical description of human populations with respect to the demographic structure (the number of the population at a given date and the demographic events (births, deaths and termination of marriages. Stone (1981:65) and Barnard (1991:503) agree with each other that demography in short refers to space, numbers and movement.

Demography as one of the determinants of an education system has a very great role to play with regard to the way in which an education system functions. For example, the greater the community to be served by an education system, the greater would be the demand for the teaching structures and vice-versa. The information pertaining to demography as an external determinant of the education system should be worked out in minute details so as to facilitate educational planning. The interconnectedness of demography as an external determinant of an education system and its characteristics is once more revealed. In discussing demography as an external determinant of the education system the link between its various aspects and the various components of the education system will also be briefly attended to.

2.5.1 Numbers as an aspect of demography

The total number of the population to be served by a particular system of education serves as a basis around which thorough planning hinges. Numbers as an aspect of demography therefore refer to the number of the target group from which the learners of the education system emanate. (A particular number of learners alone will not constitute a school. Teachers should be there, for example, to guide the course of learning. Physical structures should also be there to accommodate the learners. Numbers influence the structure for teaching in various ways. For example, the greater the numbers of the pupils to be served by an education system the greater will be the demand for the physical educational structures, and the greater the numbers of the learners to be taught by a single teacher, the lesser the chances for individualized instructions in the classroom. Examples are abundant. The education policy of a country should clearly state by means of various formats it has at its disposal after considering the number of the total population which is to benefit from education how an education system should be organized in order for it to ensure that all learners are optimally catered for. Everything pertaining to an education system and which appears in a numerical form should be reflected in the education system policy of a country. When unexpected issues arise from the

education system with respect to numbers, the education policy has to be adjusted accordingly (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:43).

The demographic position of the target group will to a certain extent influence the type of education system administration. The demographic position will also determine, for example, the number of the functionaries necessary to ensure effectiveness within such a structure. It would further be uneconomical, for example, to establish a lot of libraries in a territory where a population size will warrant only one library. A task such as this will fall within the sphere of competence of the support service. This indicates the importance and the interconnectedness of the components of the education system with the demographic factors (Steyn, 1994:71).

2.5.2 Space as an aspect of demography

The concept "space" viewed broadly refers to the settlement of communities which are to benefit from their own education system, as well as the creation of educational facilities which are aimed at pupils as target groups. Space therefore has a bearing on the community as a whole as well as to the education system which, inter alia, projects the spatial aspect as one of its structural moments (Raikane, 1987:20-22).

The spatial aspect of an education system is very important and should be taken seriously by all those who wish for an effective system of education because of the determining role it has to fulfil in the education sphere (Steyn, 1994:87). Spatial requirements pertaining to education must therefore never be sacrificed for ulterior educational goals. The golden rule would be to make use of space economically especially with regard to areas where it is at a premium.

Educational institutions as a rule should be reached with ease by those for which they have been established. Most people prefer to live in urban areas where there are better facilities in general. The education system which has to cater for urban as well as rural populations should have its own mechanisms of absorbing unexpected numbers of learners from rural areas which are always disadvantaged. Above all it should also have the capacity to absorb learners from informal settlements which can be brought about by urbanisation.

Institutions of learning should be brought closer to the communities they are to serve. Vista University in South Africa should be complimented in doing justice to this noble idea. When the need of upgrading the qualifications of Black teachers

arose, the said institution built a lot of campuses in the Black residential areas. Today it has grown in magnitude and is boasting various campuses which cater for different academic fields. This implies that the target population numbers in a particular settlement area, for example, rural or urban will determine the number of learning institutions to be established in those areas.

In cases where schools have been established at "wrong" places, transport to and from these institutions should be organized. Hostel accommodation may also compensate for high fees which are to be paid for transportation.

2.5.3 Movement as an aspect of demography

Together with considerations of number and space, the education system also displays an aspect of movement (Stone, 1981:68). Settlement patterns of the communities and the areas they are attracted to in order to receive education and to be employed should receive priority if an aspect of movement as a determinant of the education system has to be taken very seriously.

The movement of the people from one area to the other could be attributed to a lot of factors such as urbanization, immigration and migration. Wiechers (1987:74) who conducted research pertaining to the mobility aspect concludes that a very clear distinction between immigration and migration exists as causative factors of movement. The latter he explains as having to do with movement of people around from one town or province to another always within the same country, while the former he associate with the movement between two different countries. These movements have an effect on the education system. Palen (1987:341) after doing his research with respect to cities of developing areas hypothesized that there is abundance of youthful population in such areas. These are the people who are likely to move in pursuance of brighter prospects to areas of better economies. The system of education where such possibilities are likely to occur must take note of this.

The four components of the education system as discussed earlier on have to ensure that the aspect of movement is tackled accordingly so that education proceeds as it ought to (cf. Steyn, 1994:72). It is incumbent upon the educational policy to state for instance the following with regard to movement:

- mechanisms by which the inflow of people from one area to the other as a result of mobility aspect with all its manifestations are addressed;

- accreditation of learners from different institutions within a country or from outside.

In short the education policy should reflect clearly the means by which it expects the educational issues in the territory of its jurisdiction to be addressed (Steyn, 1994:23). Seeing that the education system sometimes caters for variety of people who are settled at different places within a particular territory, the ideal situation would be the implementation of core curricula so as to facilitate the transfers of learners. Situations in which students from other areas within the same country are refused admission in schools because of among others, lack of accommodation or not recognizing their certificates from their former areas reflects indeed a very poor planning and should not be left unchecked as this leads to frustration by the students.

2.6 CONCLUSION

On closer scrutiny one realizes that the demographic factors, i.e., number, space and movement are interrelated with each other as well as with other aspects of reality. In support of this Stone (1981:65) puts it aptly "So closely is the education system in every country related to the various aspects of its environment that it exhibits these aspects in itself". The interrelationship of the demographic factors as well as the characteristics of the education system have thus been displayed throughout this discussion. Without elevating the demographic aspects above all the others, these aspects should not be overlooked by any education system which has the interest of its people at heart.

In this chapter the following terms *education system*, *determinant* and *demography* as the gist upon which this research is directed were discussed.

The relationship between the demographic aspects, the components of the education system and its characteristics manifested themselves. This chapter reveals among others the fact that the demographic aspects of an education system as a determinant cannot be wished away by educational authorities if they want their system to adhere to those universal structural principles which make an education system an education system and nothing else. All other determinants of the education system which are not mentioned in this dissertation are also of equal importance as they determine the type of education to be offered. Failure to adhere to the determining factors can have a very serious effect on the education

system. Van Schalkwyk (1982:236) remarks: "An education system is the single most powerful instrument which man can use to "make or break" humanity and the world in which he lives. With its help the inborn human potential is reserated and freed and man can, in his turn as the master in and of creation, either destroy the world or make it a true home for all on earth".

CHAPTER 3

JAPANESE EDUCATION SYSTEM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The Japanese educational system, like all the others throughout the world, has been shaped by determinants, some which date many centuries ago. OERI (1987:1) says that contemporary Japanese education has been widely praised, especially because of outstanding results demonstrated in international comparative studies of school achievement of science and mathematics, and it is well known that Japan's record of distinction in education has roots that go back over hundreds of years. Bowman, Hideo and Yasumasa (1981:3), Smith (1983:10) and Duke (1986:21), have expressed such very sentiments in different words.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the demographic conditions of Japan and the determining influence these have upon the provision of education in that territory.

3.2 MAIN STAGES OF JAPANESE EDUCATION

3.2.1 Orientation

The main stages of the Japanese system of education are discussed with the sole purpose of highlighting the fact that the present demographic influences especially with regard to movement and space originated far back in the past. It will also be indicated briefly that these demographic conditions were not considered seriously. Secondly the main stages of the Japanese system are looked into in order to understand the present Japanese system of education which will not be easy to grasp without comprehending the roots from which this system has emanated. For example, during the Tokugawa period which will be discussed briefly the society was rigidly divided into classes thus having an adverse influence on the movement and settlement of communities. Conditions however improved during the later periods. The Tokugawa, the Meiji and the period of Occupation by the Allied forces will be looked into as distinct stages of the development of the Japanese education system.

3.2.1.1 Tokugawa education (1600-1687)

There are two different schools of thought among comparative educationists with regard to this period in Japan. According to Hall (1968:55) Tokugawa Japan has appeared to embody for most writers all that was undesirable in Japan's past. Though in recent years however, this negative view has begun to change. Kobayashi (1990:201-202) views this period as having formed the basis of international exchanging of educational ideas by inviting foreign advisers and teachers to Japan.

Society was rigidly stratified into classes and education was therefore aimed at fitting the people into the social and political order that existed then (Kobayashi, 1976:11). The political order was therefore then reflected into the educational institutions regardless of its adverse effects. According to Pretorius (1989:89) there were two main types of schools, one for the Samurai and one for the ordinary people. The Samurai wanted schools for their children, and wished to give them an education that would set them apart from ordinary men (Simmons, 1990:8). The period under discussion indicated how the barriers to demographic conditions were gradually done away with. The stratified society ensured that people who did not belong to the same class were not learning together. People mobility was therefore terribly curtailed.

3.2.2 Education during the Meiji period (1867-1912)

Great social and educational changes took place during this period (Roden, 1980:3, Tokiomi, 1968:49 and Lockwood, 1954:13). The hereditary class distinction that characterised the period proceeding the Meiji era were abolished. There was also an attempt by the Japanese to "borrow" ideas from other countries with an aim of improving their society in general. The breaking down of the hereditary class distinction prompted a free movement among the Japanese as they were no longer required to stick to a particular area as dictated to by their class in society. Reischauer (1958:122) puts it aptly "The forty-five years of Meiji period were essentially a time when the Japanese studied, borrowed and gradually assimilated those elements of western civilisation which they chose to adopt". Because of the efforts by the government to address amongst others, the social ills as well as to improve the educational, socio and political order in Japan Cramer and Browne (1965:493) amply refer to this period as "the period of enlightened government".

3.2.3 Education in occupied Japan (1945-1952)

After World War II, Japan, a defeated nation, surrendered unconditionally and as such the Japanese had to do what they were told (Nishi, 1982:1). The Allied forces under the leadership of America prepared themselves thoroughly to transform the then existing Japanese system of education, which according to Rohlen (1983:64) was viewed by the Americans as undemocratic and unprogressive. This also meant that all forms of confining people to a particular area because of their class in society were eradicated as America by then had already espoused democratic ideas.

A new constitution based on the policy of demilitarisation and democratisation was embarked upon (Vroman, 1966:19). The defeated Japanese, instead of rejecting the assistance of the Americans, supported the changes that were brought about by the occupation (Reischauer, 1958:206).

One of the most drastic educational changes was embarked upon during 1946, in which Japan's educational system was reformed, and a single track of 6 - 3 - 3 - 4 school system was introduced, comprising six years of elementary, three years of lower secondary, three years of upper secondary and four years of university (Vroman, 1966:19).

The influence exerted by the US occupation has had far reaching implications. According to Cummings (1986:121), because of this extensive American influence, many of the formal elements of the Japanese educational system have an American imprint.

3.2.4 Conclusion

The Tokugawa, Meiji and the period of Occupation under the Allied forces were looked into. It has become evident that during these three phases there was an attempt generally to improve educational conditions in Japan, though there were some disadvantages educationally, associated with these periods.

The fact that some educational practices, whether pedagogically or unpedagogically implemented, permeated the three periods under discussion, is a clear indication that no educational system whether modern or not, could break off completely from its past, and that the various determinants of the education system as well as its perspectives are interwoven.

3.3 NUMBERS AS DETERMINANT OF EDUCATION SYSTEM OF JAPAN

3.3.1 Orientation

Number, as an aspect of the demographic factors pertaining to Japan, will be looked into with all those factors that are directly or indirectly affecting this aspect of demography.

Methods by which the problems pertaining to numbers were attended to in the past, as well as those which are being utilised presently, will not be lost sight of. This is done in order to show that the solutions which have been sought to attend to demographic conditions, were indeed related to other determinants pertaining to this system's educational provision.

Contemporary statistics have it that the population of Japan in 1990 stood at 124 million (Kanaya, 1994:3078), and the Britannica Book of the Year (1994:638) asserts that the population of Japan in 1993 stood at 124 670 000. Provision of education to the magnitude of this nature will, among others, require careful utilisation of financial resources as well as the involvement of all stake holders in education regardless of the importance of the part such organisations are to play.

The following aspects, inter alia, as having a bearing upon numbers as a determinant of the Japanese system of education will be focussed upon.

3.3.2 Underage children

The Japanese system of education does not experience problems with regard to those pupils who are underage in elementary schools. The Japanese do not, as a rule, compromise on age because of a belief that a person at a particular age is in a position of mastering any task suited to his age. Above all, age is one of the criterion by which pupils are promoted from one grade to the next (White, 1987:68). Because of factors such as the ones state above, no compromises are ever entertained with regard to admissions in Japanese schools.

3.3.3 Overage children

The Japanese system of education does not experience any problems with regard to the numbers of overage children who are attending schools instead of being employed or attending tertiary institutions, because it has very effective mechanisms that are used to address such problems. The following section will discuss these mechanisms.

3.3.4 Repeaters

High failure rates which have characterised a lot of educational systems throughout the world, is not a problem with regard to Japanese educational systems. According to Vogel (1979:175) and Reischauer (1977:172) no student is ever failed, and all the students of the same age progress together up through grade nine. Though this procedure may be a debatable issue, it has one great advantage - that of estimating with greater certainty the number of students expected in the following year. Without proper estimation of the number of pupils to be absorbed into the educational stream all other educational plannings seem to be in vain. This is because planning for, inter alia, provisioning educational resources revolves around the availability of proper estimates of expected numbers of pupils.

3.3.5 Dropout rate

Dropping out in the Japanese schools is a rare phenomenon, if ever it does exist. This is an advantage to educational planners in the sense that these people are in a position of among others, estimating with greater certainty the expected enrolments in Japanese schools for the following year, planning for the provision of textbooks, planning for the sitting accommodation of learners, etc.. This phenomenon and attendance rates are interrelated.

The attendance rate within the Japanese system of education is very high. Lynn (1988:20) asserts that 99,5 percent of the primary school age children attend the state schools, whilst Thurston (1973:117) asserts that the attendance rate at the compulsory level that is elementary and lower secondary is more than 99 percent. Prais (1987:43) concentrating on the lower secondary level states that 95 percent of all the Japanese pupils take the lower secondary examinations. A very significant observation is made by Vogel (1979:175) that Japan leads the world in percentage of young people who complete high school and approximated the figure to be in the region of 99 percent. If one considers the attendance rate and the final output of the education system in the Japanese high schools, then it could be concluded that the dropout rate is indeed very low.

3.3.6 Compulsory school attendance

Compulsory school attendance in Japan is a very old tradition. According to Ichikawa (1984:100) in 1872, only a few years after the Meiji Restoration, the government launched a system of six years free and compulsory education.

The promulgation of this education law was initially based on the French education model and was abolished in 1879, to be replaced by another law based on the American model (Cramer & Browne, 1965:496). The promulgation of the educational law obviously led to increases in pupils' numbers because of the fact that education would be free, and also compulsory. The educational system was therefore compelled to adjust accordingly in order to be in a position to cater for the increase of pupils' numbers.

3.3.7 Lowering of educational standards

The Japanese are not happy generally with the educational standards maintained at their educational institutions. Thut and Adams (1964:327) has it that the most valid, and most frequent complaint of Japanese citizens and educators was that academic standards had been lowered at both the secondary and university levels, when an attempt to increase and equalise education was embarked upon during the post war period. Concerning this issue Cummings (1976:59) has stated that in comparison with the success of the school, Japanese universities are ineffective in furthering the intellectual development of students, enriching character or even fulfilling the traditional ivory tower mission of fostering significant scholarship.

Goya (1993:128) echoes the very same sentiments by declaring that the Juku (supplementary institutions) survive because the quality of education is poor. The testimony that a lot of students in Japan attend these supplementary institutions supports his view. He argues that if the quality of education was not poor, there would be no need for the students to attend these supplementary institutions and, as a result, these institutions would not flourish as is the case.

Students once admitted at the university, according to Cogan (1984:467) are almost certain to graduate. It therefore appears that there is a deliberate attempt by the Japanese educators not to create any bottleneck situation in any level of their education.

3.3.8 School days

The Japanese have more school days per year than countries such as the United States, Britain and West Germany, to cite but a few. Karweit (1985:10) and Ravitch (1986:6) assert that the Japanese have 240 school days per year. This is because of the fact that the Japanese are a very dedicated people, especially with regard to the education of their children (Pretorius, 1989:243).

This seemingly lengthy school period per year will increase the chances of slower pupils' achievement especially with regard to grade nine where automatic promotion is not the rule (Reischauer, 1977:172). The number of school days as experienced in Japan compared to other economic giants of her magnitude ensure that a very smooth transition from one grade to the next, that is vertical mobility is maintained throughout her education system.

3.3.9 Educational facilities

Outsiders from countries with enough habitable areas, viewing the Japanese system of education may erroneously conclude that this educational system is presently suffering from acute educational facilities. This is however, not the case, as space in Japan is at a premium, generally with an adverse effect on numbers (Reischauer, 1977:29). However, there are few if any scenes of violence and vandalism with regard to the school buildings in Japan (Simmons & Wade, 1988:152). This must be an advantage to education in the sense that the capital which should have been used for the reparation of buildings could be diverted to provide for the required educational facilities.

The school is used as an agent of conscientising the populace of the limited spatial area the country experiences. In this regard Duke (1986:31), asserts that the overcrowding which the Japanese experiences wherever he goes, remind him of the limited space the country experiences and the school merely reinforces it.

3.3.10 Employment opportunities

High rates of unemployment due to a large number of students who do not make grades in their respective educational institutions, is not a very serious problem in Japan. Japanese students know, as a rule, in order for them to be readily employed upon the completion of their studies, they have to attend reputable universities.

In support of this Tsukada (1988:286) asserts "Japan is a credentialling society, not only because educational credentials differentiate the economic returns of individuals, but also because the hierarchy of higher educational institutions make an important difference in prestige and employment opportunities for graduates".

However, employment opportunities are limited with regard to the minorities in Japan such as the Koreans, in spite of their academic achievements (Kobayashi, 1976:141). Because of this discrimination, one expects the dropouts to be higher with regard to this group which is discriminated against. The Japanese system,

according to McCormick (1988:45,46), has got a share in keeping down the rate of unemployment as it produces personal qualities which are valued by the employers.

3.3.11 Provision of teachers

In spite of a very large population of the learners the Japanese system of education has to cater for, it appears all problems pertaining to the shortage of teachers with regard to this educational system have been addressed, as according to Simmons (1990:66), the Japanese system of education does not experience any shortages of teachers presently. This must be an advantage to the education system as pupils are not disadvantaged whatsoever by an education system that is not in a position to answer to the demands of the population growth and to the number of learners as a target group.

3.3.12 Textbooks

Shortages of textbooks, a common feature of several education systems is not experienced in Japan. Japan is also advanced in this regard that it is even shaming industrial giants such as Britain. Pertaining to this Howarth (1991:123) has stated that sharing a single set of books on a lesson-by-lesson basis by several classes is the common experience in British schools. Textbooks in Japan are issued free of charge to all pupils and students (Simmons, 1990:62; King, 1979:470; Schiller & Walberg, 1982:412).

3.4 GENERAL STATISTICS TO SHOW INCREASES IN PUPIL NUMBERS

The following statistics show increases in various levels of education within the Japanese educational system. These statistics are meant to indicate the problems which this system of education had to deal with in the past.

3.4.1 Elementary schools

The number of births and mortality rate has had an influence on the provision of education. According to Ichikawa (1984:103) the number of births increased from about 1 576 000 in 1945 to about 2 718 000 in 1947. The so-called "baby-boom" generation was to enter primary schools in 1954, lower secondary schools in 1960 upper secondary schools in 1963 and universities in 1966. The Ministry of Education of Japan stated that the teacher/pupil ratio was 1:41,3 in 1945 (Japan's Ministry of Education, 1963:98).

The statistics below pertain to the elementary school enrolment in various years in Japan.

Table 3.1: Historical trends in elementary school enrolment in Japan: 1950-1982

Year	Elementary school enrolment
1950	16 523 916
1955	12 855 344
1960	18 490 653
1965	15 722 162
1970	14 210 318
1975	15 127 288
1980	15 920 975
1981	17 223 935
1982	17 525 495

(Nihonkyoiku Nenkan Kankoiinkai (1983 appendix) as quoted by Tsukada, 1986:97).

In analysing the figures reflected above, one realises that an increase of 11,9 per cent was experienced from 1950 to 1960 alone with regard to the pupil enrolment. The increases forced the educational authorities to embark on changes aimed at meeting the educational goals of its pupils. A decrease in pupil numbers was experienced from 1965 to 1975, forcing the educational system to implement some changes as well. Kobayashi (1976:130) has it that the teacher/pupil ratio during the said period was 1:33. The fact that in 1983, the average class size in Japan, according to OERI (1987:27) was 34 and the legal maximum limit 45, is a clear indication that shortages of educational facilities in Japan during the specified period was never experienced.

Later figures show that in 1987 the elementary school population was over 10 million and in 1991 there were approximately 25 000 elementary schools with an enrolment of slightly more than 9 million children of which 99 percent were in public elementary schools (Kanaya, 1994:3079). Closer scrutiny of the figures as reflected above from 1987 to 1991 show a decrease of numbers pertaining to

elementary school enrolments. These decreasing numbers determined staffing and pupils' accommodation within the Japanese educational system.

3.4.2 The Junior Secondary Schools/Middle schools

The following statistics have been selected to show pupil enrolments with regard to the Junior Secondary Schools in Japan.

TMG Municipal Library No 14 (1979:70) states there were 7 330 000 students in the Japanese junior secondary schools during the 1962 academic school year. Later figures show that there were 11 000 lower secondary schools with an enrolment of over 5 million pupils in Japan in 1991 and that there was a decrease of one million in pupil numbers from 1986 to 1991 in this category. (Kanaya, 1994:3080). These decreasing and increasing numbers of this magnitude obviously required some considerations with regard to the physical facilities as well as the school staffing.

3.4.3 Senior Secondary Schools

Enrolment increases with regard to the Senior Secondary phase in Japan are reflected in the figures below.

The statistics as indicated, show that an increase of 162,2 percent was experienced from 1950-1965, thus forcing some adjustments within the Japanese institutions of Senior Secondary level. A decline was experienced from 1965-1970 but increases were again experienced from 1975 to 1982.

Later figures show that in 1991 there were 5 600 upper secondary schools in Japan with more than 5,5 million students enrolled in them, and that this level too is also experiencing decreasing numbers (Kanaya, 1994:3080).

Table 3.2: Historical trends in senior secondary school enrolment - Japan: 1950 to 1982

YEAR	SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT
1950	1 935 118
1955	2 592 001
1960	3 239 416
1965	5 073 882
1970	4 231 542
1975	4 333 079
1980	4 621 930
1981	4 682 827
1982	4 600 551

(Nihonkyoiku Nenkan Kankoiinkai (Appendix) as quoted by Tsukada, 1986:97).

3.4.4 University education

The number of universities in Japan increased from 1918 - the second period in the development of Japanese higher education. According to Michio (1971:36), the Japanese higher education was inaugurated by the promulgation of the University Ordinance of 1918, which elevated a number of national public and private schools to university status and gave legal recognition to the formation of single faculty universities (*tanka - daigaku*). It is in this connection that the expansion and numbers with regard to the Japanese universities have to be understood. The granting of new charters in turn has contributed to a major expansion of enrolment that has taken place in spite of the fact that the universities did not measure up to the minimal standards (Pempel, 1973:71). Kobayashi (1976:116-117) attributes the rapid increase of university enrolment between 1950-1970 to the "zeal for education".

Enrolment increases with regard to the university education are reflected in the figures below, as well as increases with regard to the number of university

establishments. Kobayashi (1976:126), has it that there were altogether 225 universities in Japan in 1950. Pempel (1973:68) asserts that in 1971 there were about 1,5 million university students attending 389 universities. *Japan* (1980:116), asserts that in 1978, the number of university establishments stood at 431. Cox (1983:508) in comparing Japan and Britain asserts that Japan boasted 450 universities or so as compared to 46 in Britain in 1983. In summary Forbis (1975:3) states that Japan has more universities than western Europe. In 1990, there were altogether 507 universities - 135 publicly run and 372 private catering for 1,99 million undergraduate students (Kanaya, 1994:3087). Increases occur in spite of the fact that competition to enter universities remains severe.

3.5 TECHNIQUES WHICH WERE AND ARE IMPLEMENTED TO ADDRESS THE PROBLEMS OF NUMBERS AS DETERMINANTS OF THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

The importance of numbers as determinants of any education system can never be overemphasised. This necessitates the institution of techniques to attend to problems related to these determinants. The following techniques among others have been used directly or indirectly by the Japanese system of education to answer to the problems of numbers. These techniques would be divided into two categories.

3.5.1 Techniques having a bearing on advancement/progress of students - orientation

These techniques are some of those by which the problems of numbers as one of the determinants of the Japanese system of education are addressed.

3.5.1.1 Labour

In Japan, there is an insistence on university qualifications as prerequisite for employment opportunities. Therefore it seems that the labour market works as a mechanism that ensures and encourages students regardless of the hardships they are experiencing to be compelled to complete their university education, hence low dropout rates. The economic and industrial expansion since the middle of the 1950's has greatly changed the occupational structure of the society and has increased the demand for qualified personnel in many fields (Kobayashi, 1976:115). This has led to university education being considered as a prerequisite for employment in Japan. The very same sentiments are expressed by Schoppa (1991:26) who has asserted that students could not expect to enter higher levels of

business or government without university qualifications. Students in Japan know as a rule that they do not only have to have university credentials but that they have to attend the right universities. According to Beauchamp (1978:544), universities scornfully referred to as diploma mills, lunch box universities or community colleges are of poor standing and do not render their products readily employable upon completion of their studies.

3.5.1.2 Compulsory and free education

Due to compulsory and free education from grade 1 through to grade 9, that is at the Junior or Lower Secondary phase pupils are forced to complete their schooling (Kobayashi, 1976:62; King, 1979:470; Prais, 1987:43; Thurston, 1973:3). One of the factors which could be attributed to inequalities of educational possibilities, that is school funding, is therefore eliminated.

3.5.1.3 Conducting educational researches pertaining to drop out

The number of pupils dropping out of school is a very great concern in Japan, though this number appears to be small. According to Young (1993:131) in 1991, Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education conducted a survey of 4 800 students to determine the reasons behind dropping out. It is on the basis of such information that solutions pertaining to dropouts are worked out in order to improve such conditions.

3.5.1.4 Automatic promotions

Promotion from grade to grade up to the Lower Secondary level in Japan is automatic (Vogel, 1979:175). Whether these devices are pedagogically justified or not, will not be discussed here. Pupils who could have become discouraged and decide to leave school because of their having to repeat certain grades are assisted that way.

3.5.1.5 The contribution of the juku

"Juku" has been termed differently by various educationists. Anderson (1981:233) refers to these as special schools which provide practical vocational and cultural instructions. Goya (1993:128) refers to them as "tutoring schools; "cram schools", "college prep schools" or "after schools". Juku, in their various manifestations have contributed greatly to the issue pertaining to drop out and the improvements of educational standards generally.

In answering the question as to why the juku flourish, Goya (1993:129) puts it aptly "Students attend the juku because of a profound dissatisfaction with public school education, combined with unrelenting pressure to succeed academically in order to secure a decent future. Some parents according to OERI (1987:13) want their children to be exposed to the most vigorous standards of discipline as a small number feature programmes that are almost Spartan in their demands. One of the reasons why juku are so famous according to Simmons (1990:73) is the fact that state schools provide little in the way of remedial education and so those who cannot keep up with the ever advancing school curriculum or fear that the teaching they receive is not sufficient for their needs, turn to juku for extra tuition or examination preparation.

Estimations differ widely as to the exact number of juku in Japan. The latest figures puts the totals at 35 000 (OERI (1987:11). This great number of juku signifies the great importance attached to these institutions and their contributions within the Japanese system of education. In spite of the significant work performed at these institutions, critics say that the juku undermines the egalitarian and meritocratic qualities of Japanese education by offering extra tuition to those who can best afford it (Simmons, 1990:93).

3.5.1.6 Motivation

The high level of motivation with regard to education in Japan is paying great dividends in controlling the progress of learners. According to Schiller and Walberg (1982:411), analysis carried out in the International Study of Educational Achievements, amongst others reflects a high level of motivation for further learning. Prais (1987:44) in support of this, but with particular reference to Upper Secondary schools declares "Since over 95 percent of pupils move on to these upper secondary schools, virtually all Japanese pupils have an incentive to do that "little bit" better which might make all the difference."

3.5.1.7 Parental involvement

Factors which may easily delay the progress of learners, if not detected by parents, are remedied timeously in Japan. Japanese parents are highly involved in the education of their children. According to Pretorius (1989:226) there is one hour observation every month in the Japanese schools during which pupils' mothers can visit the schools and even sit in classes. Coupled with this is an annual event in which fathers are excused from employment and are expected by employers to visit the schools where their children are enrolled. In addition Duke (1986:66) has it that

parents are strongly urged to work with their children at home on the lessons under study at school. They are also advised on how to assist their children with learning at home.

3.5.1.8 Proper time management

OERI (1987:V11) asserts that the Japanese have succeeded in using time productively for educational purposes in and out of school. The proper time management as implemented in Japan does contribute positively to curb dropping out, as well as failure rates. Time for learning is fully utilized for that purpose and there are very few disturbances if any to disturb such a schedule.

3.5.1.9 Emphasis on hard work

The Japanese children are urged to work hard at school. According to Sako and Dore (1988:74) teachers have been responsible for inculcating in primary and middle school children the view that there are no great difference in academic ability that hard work and effort cannot overcome. In support of this Forbis (1975:5) has asserted that even school age children work hard, sometimes to the point of suicide.

3.5.2 Techniques which are used by the Japanese system of education, generally, to address the issue of numbers as a determinant of the education system in question

3.5.2.1 Contribution of the private sector with regard to education

The private sector, as one of the stake holders is highly involved with education in Japan. With regard to higher education in Japan, Pempel (1973:74) has stated that the vast bulk of increases in opportunities to attend universities is made possible through increases of learning opportunities in the private sphere, not through universities under national and local government control. That is why Japan boasts of many institutions of higher learning, some of which have already obtained international status.

3.5.2.2 Censuses

Censuses in order to determine the population numbers have been in use in Japan from long ago. This has been of advantage to education and other related fields. Dore (1959:103) asserts that Japan has had reliable census coverage for nearly forty years, while some useful statistical series stretch back beyond that point. These

statistics of yester-years did contribute to the analysis of the situation then and were also in a position to supply vital information concerning future educational plannings.

3.5.2.3 Equal educational opportunities

According to Vroman (1966:39) the law regarding equality of educational opportunities was passed on 3 November 1946, whereby discrimination on account of race, sex, social status, creed, economic position or family origin, was done away with. The right of all people to receive education suited to their ability was guaranteed (Sako & Dore, 1988:74). In this way, numbers of those who could have become despondent and drop out of schools because of being discriminated against, was reduced.

3.5.2.4 Entrance examination

The entrance examinations in Japan, have been employed, amongst others, to control and guide the numbers of learners in the different education institutions, bearing in mind that promotion from one grade to the next in the elementary schools, through to the end of the lower secondary phase is automatic. According to Vroman (1966:70) entrance examinations are the major factor in determining access to higher education, and are influential in the selection of students to attend the upper secondary schools. So serious are these controlling devices that at all high schools teaching methods and curricula are designed largely to meet the requirements of the Compulsory Entrance Examinations (Shimahara, 1979:44). These examinations are made so difficult that the students came to refer to the experience or facing them as "examination hell".

Students begin to experience this "examination hell" towards the end of the elementary school years (Anderson, 1981:268). The entrance examinations to high schools and universities, according to Vogel (1979:162) can be so competitive as to cause students to restrict their intellectual breath, eliminate extra curricula activities, neglect their social development and in case of failure, become psychologically depressed.

"Examination hell" contributes to juvenile suicides in Japan. According to Greenlees (1987:20) suicide rates are greatest in April at the beginning of a school year. This is when pupils, who have failed entrance examinations are most likely to become despondent. Concerning this issue Reischauer (1977:135) has asserted "The

relatively high suicide rates for youth may be in part attributable to the "examination hell".

3.5.2.5 The contribution of the Yobiko

According to Duke (1986:50), yobiko is the armorphous system of commercially operated institutions, which attract hundred of thousands of youths eager to improve their chances of passing the entrance examinations either to high schools or universities. Simmons (1990:93) asserts that the yobiko is a specialised form of the shingaku-juku, which exist to prepare students for the last major hurdle - university entrance. According to King (1979:484) these students are in the "lost world" between school and universities and they are called "ronin", like the masterless samurai who became a menace in feudal times.

The normal tendency is for students who fail the entrance examinations to get off the education track for a year to attend one of the many cram schools and try again the next year and possibly the next and the next (Reischauer, 1977:174). In this way a bottleneck situation, which should have been created by the students who have failed, or are making unsatisfactory progress with regard to the entrance examination is averted.

3.5.2.6 Family planning devices

Family planning devices have been employed positively in Japan to address the problem of increasing numbers. As a result of family planning practices, average rates of population growth have been held to 1,4 percent for 1950-1955, 1 percent for 1955-60, 0,9 percent for 1960-65, 1,1 for 1965-1970, nearly 1,3 for 1970-75 (Kida, Ohno, Kanaya, Kato & Watanube, 1983:53).

3.5.2.7 Home test workbooks

Another aid that is used in Japan to keep down the numbers of dropping out, is the commercially produced home test workbooks. The home test textbooks are so designed such that each night the student can work lessons at home. The lessons corresponds to the exact number of the page to which it conforms with the text in the students school textbook (Duke, 1986:97). These home test workbooks are based on the officially approved textbook by the Ministry of Education.

3.5.2.8 Conclusion

Some of the factors which are having a bearing upon numbers as one of the determinants of the Japanese educational system as well as the techniques which are implemented to attend to such problems, have been discussed. The close inter-relationship which has been mentioned earlier on between the demographic aspects have indirectly demonstrated themselves.

It is an undeniable fact that Japan's population is increasing. However, according to Kida *et al.* (1983:53) this increase with regard to the Japanese population is doing so at a slow pace as compared to most other nations of Asia. Educational planners, in a lot of instances are therefore not confronted with the insurmountable task of having to address the problems of numbers which are brought about by unexpected sudden increases. Japan should get solace from the fact that some of her number problems will eliminate themselves. This according to Kanaya (1994:3085), implies that by the year 2000, the size of the school population will greatly affect every educational centre and in particular higher education in the early years of the 21st century.

3.6 SPACE AS A DETERMINANT OF THE JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

3.6.1 Orientation

In this section space as one of the determinants of the Japanese educational system will be looked into as well as those aspects of the education system which are directly or indirectly affected by this determinant of education. Above all techniques which have been used in the past and those which are utilised presently to address the problem of space in Japan will also be looked into. In tackling this aspect one is reminded of the great populace of the area, as well as the limited habitable area this country is experiencing. Taking cognisance of these two related factors will lead to the deeper understanding of this educational system as well as those intricate mechanisms that permeate it in order to answer to the spatial issues. The following aspects as having a bearing upon space as a determinant of the Japanese educational system will be focused upon.

3.6.1.1. Japanese geographic area

Many researchers who have made the study of Japan all agree that this country has a very limited habitable area. Cowen and McClean (1984:210) have stated that nearly seventy percent of this country is made up of precipitous mountains while Kida *et al.* (1983:52) have indicated that Japan is comprising of 378 000 square kilometres of which only a third thereof is useable for living. According to Glickman (1976:334), the Japanese population is highly concentrated in a relatively small land area and a number of city regions. In conclusion, Reischauer (1977:28-29) has indicated that in terms of habitable land, Japan is the world's most crowded land. All these sentiments paint a very bleak picture of geographic conditions in Japan. This limited habitable area the country is experiencing has unfortunately served as a gist around which a lot of criticisms concerning the educational system of this country are levelled.

3.6.1.2 Location of schools

Because of a very limited habitable area in Japan, it could be inferred that politics does not play a major part in the selection of school sites. The fact that in Japan people display the same physical features and are bound together by a common language according to Shimahara (1984:340) minimise the possibility of the Japanese misusing the schools for political gains in respect to this item. Above all overcrowding in urban districts has caused the problems of finding locations for new schools and expanding existing buildings (Kida *et al.*, 1983:53).

3.6.1.3 Earthquakes and volcanic eruptions

To add to the woes of limited space, this country is in addition experiencing frequent earthquakes and volcanic eruptions which unfortunately could not be avoided. According to Isida (1961:107) such eruptions are natural phenomena originating in deep underground movements and they are natural and unavoidable for the inhabitants who live on land of such geologic formations. Whenever such eruptions do occur, great damages to buildings, lives and vegetation are experienced with negative results to the daily activities of the Japanese including their educational system. Natural disasters of this nature can obviously not be lost sight of if deeper understanding of the demographic conditions of the Japanese educational system are to be well understood.

3.6.2 Techniques which are implemented in Japan to attend to the problems of space as a determinant of its education system

3.6.2.1 Orientation

Mixed feelings with regard to the mechanisms of addressing the problem of space as a determinant of the Japanese educational system characterises the sentiments of various stake holders in education. The techniques as expounded below have been used by the Japanese directly as well as indirectly to answer to their problems of space in its various manifestations.

3.6.2.2 Large classes as a mechanism of addressing spatial limitations

In order to compensate for limited habitable areas the classes in Japan are used to accommodate many pupils. The Japanese classes have been viewed to be large by international standards. According to Vroman (1966:45) the maximum number of pupils per class as set by the Ministry of Education is fifty. In comparing American and Japanese classes, Doyle (1991:17) has asserted that a typical Japanese classroom would have about forty two children, more than the American classroom. The situation is of course worse in the so called "prestigious high schools". The average class size of the most prestigious high school, found in Tokyo, is fifty five pupils per teacher (Doyle, 1991:17). This is implemented among others in order to compensate for limited habitable areas the country is experiencing. Above all, enrolments especially in high schools are kept very high. Rohlen (1983:145) asserts that most high schools in Japan have about 1 200 students.

Cogan (1984:466) one of the comparative educationists who is against this form of arrangement has complained bitterly that with forty or more students in each class, teachers have no time to provide for individual attention.

3.6.2.3 School district residence regulation

In order to address the spatial imbalances where students would be attracted to a particular area in great numbers because of the standard of education there, school district residence regulation was enforced requiring that students should preferably attend schools in their neighbourhood. This method as implemented in Japan is not as effective as the educational authorities would like it to be. According to Beauchamp (1982:31) parents have their own ways of circumventing it by inter alia renting a room in a desired area, by sending their children to live with relatives, or by simply paying someone for his address.

3.6.2.4 Erection of school buildings

School buildings in Japan are erected in such a way as to utilise a very limited space. Space is at a premium and therefore it has to be used economically (White, 1987:67). Schools are generally three storey concrete structures (Pretorius, 1989:237).

3.6.2.5 Reclamation process

In order to compensate for limited space in Japan and to try to address the needs of her people, land had to be reclaimed regardless of the price. Suma New Town, near Kobe, with a population exceeding 100 000 was built on reclaimed land. To provide land, the top of the hills were literally blasted and bulldozed off and the rock was then carried underground for miles to the sea on huge conveyor belts (Palen, 1987:375).

3.6.2.6 The contribution of the school and the community

In order to motivate their pupils to be actively involved in the Japanese institutions of learning and not to view the limited space the country is experiencing as an obstacle, the teachers and the community at large have their own ways of inculcating this notion. According to Duke (1986:130) one of the teachings every child learns at school and outside the classroom as well, concerns the critical geographic limitations this nation faces.

3.6.2.7 Conclusion

Space as a determinant of the Japanese educational system was looked into as well as those techniques which have been implemented in the past, and those which are presently used to address the spatial problems. Lack of space in Japan is unfortunately affecting educational provision in this area.

In spite of the spatial problems this country is experiencing, much has been done in this regard as the above exposition clearly shows. The Japanese should be highly complimented for their endless efforts, bearing in mind that a lot of the spatial problems they encounter, stem directly from a natural point. Japan suffers acutely from lack of space. However, it would be a very irresponsible insinuation to conclude that perfection has been attained with regard to spatial problems.

3.7 MOVEMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF THE JAPANESE EDUCATION SYSTEM

3.7.1 Orientation

In this section movement, one of the determinants of the Japanese educational system will be looked into, as well as those aspects which are directly or indirectly used to address such problems. Techniques as implemented by the Japanese to address the mobility problems will also be looked into. The uniqueness of Japan with regard to the way in which problems are attended to should be taken note of. Palen (1987:372) has given a stern warning by his declaration that in discussing contemporary Japanese urbanisation, it is important to remember that while Japan is an Asian country, its levels of urbanisation and industrialisation are far closer to those of Europe and North America than to those of the rest of Asia. It is in this breath that the Japanese educational system should be understood in order to understand it properly. The following aspects as having a bearing upon this aspect will be looked into:

3.7.1.1 Japanese urban systems

Urbanisation with regard to Japan was embarked upon many years ago. These sentiments are expressed aptly by Palen (1987:369) who has stated that Japan is not an urban newcomer, it has an urban tradition even longer than that of India as regards the role of the city in regional and national life. The fact that urbanisation has been steady has been of great educational value (Vogel, 1967:104).

3.7.1.2 The rate of urbanisation

At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 80 percent of Japan's population worked and lived on the farms (White, 1987:12). The educational system was therefore designed to meet the educational needs of a largely rural populace. In 1985, 76,7 percent of Japan's population were living in cities (Pretorius, 1989:238). This therefore could imply that the present educational system in Japan is designed largely to meet the educational needs of city dwellers.

3.7.1.3 Patterns of migration

There are areas which are more affected than the others with regard to migration rates. A lot of interrelated factors contribute to this state of affairs. According to Hall (1966:223-224) the migration trend was still largely towards the Tokyo region. This inflow to this area could affect the Japanese educational system.

3.7.1.4 Saturation point

Saturation level, that is the condition when the rural population has so diminished that there is not appreciable "surplus" of people and therefore little or no net migration to the cities has been attained in Japan (Gist & Fava, 1974:138-139). This is of great educational significance in the sense that those pupils who could migrate to the city with their parents would be easily accommodated in the schools there. According to Isida (1961:45), the majority of young people on farms, except those who succeed to family land desert their villages for urban areas. This *inter alia*, contributes to Japan in attaining this level.

3.7.2 Techniques as implemented by the Japanese to attend to the problems of movement as a determinant of the system of education

3.7.2.1 Orientation

The techniques as implemented by the Japanese to attend to their problems of movement are exposed hereunder as specifically having been influenced by urbanisation. These techniques as implemented were of a Japanese nature and therefore may at times appear queer to an outsider viewing the Japanese system of education. However, much has been attained by the implementation of such techniques, especially in the educational scenario. These techniques *inter alia* include the following:

3.7.2.2 Teaching and learning pace

In order not to create problems to the education of those people who could find themselves at other regions and schools because of possibly the transfers of their parents, the Japanese educational system has got a very unique method of addressing such a problem. A change of an educational institution at any given time does not create any educational problem since students through out the country in the same grade study essentially the same material at approximately the same time and pace (OERI, 1987:5; Copley, 1986:198). In addition, Sako and Dore (1988:73) have indicated that the Japanese system of education is characterised by *inter alia* a national curriculum which is adhered to rigidly.

3.7.2.3 The contribution of the Kumi

The Kumi, as implemented in Japan is used as a mechanism of keeping together pupils of nearly the same age. Through the organisation of the Kumi, intimate relationships which are difficult to break are formed between the members of a

peer group. Duke (1986:41) has asserted that the adjustments to a new Kumi predictably can be such a trying experience that it is estimated that about half of all married employees with school age children leave their families at the home city when transferred to a new home. Educational planners could therefore plan with greater certainty with regard to the numbers of pupils who are to be admitted at different schools and in different areas.

3.7.2.4 Establishment of various industries

Arable land in Japan is very limited due to her mountaineous topography. Only 14,7 percent represents agricultural land (*Japan*, 1980:51). Conditions such as those were instrumental in the transformation of Japan to become an industrial giant. Lockwood (1954:159) has stated that it is sometimes said that the growth of the labour force beyond the limited absorptive capacities of agriculture forced Japan to industrialise. The transformation of Japan into an industrial giant involved urbanisation and implied therefore the movement of certain individuals from their original places of abode to the urban areas. This had, serious implications for education.

3.7.2.5 Kinship system as a means of controlling movement

This technique was implemented from long, long ago to curb the rapid migration of the Japanese to the cities. Problems pertaining to numbers in their various manifestations were thus addressed. According to Vogel (1967:93) the selection of those who would and would not go to the cities was determined by a primogeniture kinship system which provided a steady exodus to the city, and an orderly basis of rural organisation during the period of migration. The steady inflow ensured that the needs of the Japanese in general could be attended to.

3.7.2.6 Availability of work opportunities

Earlier on in Japan, the influx of people to the cities was indirectly controlled by the availability of jobs there. The Japanese hated the idea of getting to the cities only to be unemployed upon arrival. All those who left the rural areas did that with the full consent that they would be employed, as prior arrangements had to be made and finalised before their actual departure. Most economic organisations in the city during the post Meiji period preferred to use personal connections to ensure getting a devoted and reliable labour supply (Vogel, 1967:94). The educational field was therefore assisted as job seekers unsure of their destination would not risk taking

their whole families to the cities before having been assured of work. Unnecessary educational transfers were thus eliminated.

3.7.2.7 Salary incentives for teachers

In order to attract teachers to remote areas where social conditions are worse, Vogel (1979:176) has it that special subsidies and salary incentives are given to such teachers. This is to compensate them for loss of social amenities which are plentiful at the cities, and in order to attend to the educational problems of those children who find themselves at remote areas.

3.7.2.8 Industrial development of backward areas

In order to curb the rapid influx of her populace from the backward areas to the cities much was done to bring the industries to the people. According to Glickman (1976:335) between 1962 and 1964 acts were passed for the construction of new industrial cities, to promote industrial development in backward areas.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The study reveals certain distinguishing characteristics with regard to the Japanese demography and all the manifestations by which it exists. These include among others lack of habitable area for the people, earthquakes and volcanic eruptions, saturation point pertaining to people mobility to the cities as well as high birthrates.

In order to address the problems of demography as a determinant of the Japanese system of education the study has revealed among others the implementation of the following techniques: compulsory and free education from grade one to grade nine, automatic promotions from one grade to the next, high level of parental involvement, high teacher/pupil ratios, reclamation of areas previously not used, high level of motivation, studying of the same material at approximately the same pace and a very positive contribution of the supplementary learning institutions.

In spite of these demographic problems the Japanese are trying by all means to ensure that teaching and learning take place at their schools and that supplementary lessons are organized as well. Beauchamp (1982:36) in analysing the Japanese educational situation asserts that this system of education is not perfect, but it has served the nation well, bringing it to the position of world leadership and though we may not agree with the means used to do that, it is hard to quarrel with the results.

CHAPTER 4

NIGERIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the demographic conditions and the determining influence they have upon the provision of education in Japan were looked into. In discussing demography and how it has affected the educational provision in Nigeria in the past and is presently affecting it now, one will be tempted to look cursorily into the past as no education system can completely break off from its past. In fact a lot of what is happening within the present Nigerian system of education has been inherited from the past. One, however should not be so naive as to deny the fact that modernisation too has had its share in what is happening educationally in Nigeria presently.

Nigeria is one of the most populous countries in Africa and its population during 1963 stood at 56 million (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:305). Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:62) assert that the official estimates for mid 1980 stood at 87,4 million, while UNESCO (1994:7) has it that the population of Nigeria during the 1992 mid year was estimated at 124,336 million. Its population is racially homogeneous but made out of very many peoples distinguished by language, culture and their sense of collective identity - an ethnic diversity, which has strongly influenced the country's politics and constitution.

In order to understand the Nigerian system of education in its correct perspective and in particular its present demographic features as the determinant of its own education system one would therefore be compelled to look into the Traditional African education, the Islamic education and the Missionary education systems, as the Nigerian educational system in its various manifestations presently has a bearing on the afore stated systems.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the demographic conditions and the determining influence these have upon the educational provision in Nigeria.

4.2 MOMENTS IN THE PAST

4.2.1 Traditional African education

It is devoid of any truth that education for the indigeneous people of Africa was introduced by either the Missionaries or the Muslims. The indigeneous peoples of Africa from time immemorial had their own education by which their cultures, norms and values were transferred or transmitted to their children. According to Fafunwa (1974:48) one of the staunch supporters of Traditional African education the objective of such a venture inter alia included the following:

- * to develop the child's latent skills;
- * to develop character;
- * to inculcate respect for elders and those in position of authority;
- * to develop intellectual skills;
- * to acquire specific vocational training and to develop a healthy attitude towards honest labour;
- * to develop a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs, and
- * to understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community.

4.2.2 Islamic education

All educational practices are based on unique educational views. Islamic education is therefore not an exception. The uniqueness of the philosophy from which a particular educational practice stems, sometimes make the adherents of a different educational view to criticise blindly other systems as if they have nothing tangible to offer. This is brought about by the fact that people who subscribe to a particular life view are inclined to judge other educational practices using their own philosophies as a criterion.

Islamic education according to Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:207) was already established firmly in the Northern parts of Nigeria while the Christian missions were confining their evangelistic and educational activities to the coastal and southern parts of the

region. Because of the differences which exist between the Christian and Moslem education practices with regard to the life view, frictions between the adherents of these two religions were sometimes experienced especially with regard to the area where one religion was dominant and the other was viewed to be encroaching in its territory of dominance. People who adhered to the same religious philosophy were thus confined to the same territory with no likelihood of moving to other areas and provided their children with an education which stemmed from their deepest conviction and religious practices.

4.2.3 Missionary education

Western education was brought to Nigeria by the Christian missionaries in the 1840's (Musaazi, 1982:146-147). This type of education as brought about by the missionaries was totally different to the traditional education system the Nigerians were accustomed to as it originated from a different philosophy of life. Because of its foreignness to the indigeneous people of Nigeria it initially met with a very strong resistance by those it was designed to serve. According to Crowder (1973:141) early missionary education in West Africa had a dual purpose. Firstly, it was aimed at promoting legitimate trade among African countries and those in Europe and secondly it was aimed at converting Africans to the Christian religion. On careful analysis of the principles stated above one could therefore infer that this type of educational provision was not based upon sound pedagogic principles, but was merely designed to further missionaries, ulterior motives. Education was therefore unfortunately misused in the process.

4.2.4 Missionary schools

In those learning institutions rote learning was emphasised as in the Quranic schools which preceded them (Fafunwa, 1974:89). This was the only available method because the matter the pupils were expected to learn was foreign to them. Education in these learning institutions did not stem from the philosophy of life of the Nigerians. They were thus educated away from their cultures. The Bible was the master textbook from which every thing stemmed from. Fafunwa (1974:83) has remarked that everything no matter how remote it was, had to be centered around it.

Missionaries came upon various tribes in Nigeria who were speaking a variety of languages. To educate the various tribes whose language the missionaries did not know, compelled the missionaries to use English as a medium of instruction

(Crowder, 1973:240; Fafunwa, 1974:89). The situation however later improved when missionaries learnt indigenous languages.

People mobility was never considered as a determining influence of educational provision. Fafunwa (1982:207) asserts that core curriculum with regard to educational institutions was difficult to implement as each mission operated its own education system.

4.2.5 Colonial education

Missionary and colonial education have a lot in common. The two are so interrelated in nature that it has become very difficult to draw a dividing line between them. The golden thread that binds them together is that they were of a foreign nature having been brought to Nigeria by those who subscribed to the Western view of life. Each was dominant during a particular era and emphasised certain aspects which the European deemed fit to transfer to the people of Nigeria.

Akpofure and Crowder (1966:185) regard the year 1906 as the beginning of the British Administration throughout Nigeria.

What colonial education stood for with regard to primary education could be deduced from the objectives of such a venture. Fafunwa (1982:230) has mentioned the following objectives:

- * to supply European traders with Native assistants who could read, write and talk a little English;
- * to prepare pupils for entrance into an English type of grammar school.

During the Colonial era in Nigeria, there were very few primary schools and to make matters worse they were scattered and thus compelled pupils to walk long distances before they could arrive at their respective schools (Fafunwa, 1982:25). The spatial aspect as one of the determinants of the education system was thus not accorded its rightful place within the then education system.

One feature of British colonial education was the one known as "indirect rule system" in Northern Nigeria with its consequence of an imbalance of educational development between the Northern and Southern areas of that country (Fafunwa, 1982:24). This obviously led to different developmental and educational standards among the people of one country.

Closer analysis of the colonial administration in Nigeria also indicates that education was terribly misused in furtherance of ulterior motives.

4.3 CONCLUSION

In this part of the chapter the Traditional African education, Islamic, Missionary and Colonial education practices were cursorily looked into. This has been done firstly to show that education systems and some of their inherent qualities do not stem from the vacuum. Secondly, this was done to trace the demographic factors within such system and to determine whether these have been accorded their rightful places in the past. One lesson becomes crystal clear after having gone through this part of the chapter, namely that education should never be used as a vehicle by which ulterior motives are to be accomplished by whoever is responsible for the provision of education, as this will lead to a situation in which educational determinants such as the demographic conditions are overlooked with detrimental effects upon educational provision.

4.4 NUMBERS AS A DETERMINANT OF THE NIGERIAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

4.4.1 Orientation

Numbers in their various forms as determinant of the education system are going to be discussed. One is having in mind numbers of pupils in a school setting and numbers as they are indirectly affecting the system of educational provision where, inter alia, migration, urbanization and deurbanization may be playing a decisive role. These numbers will have an effect on educational provision in the future.

Musaazi (1982:142) reported that in some cases the figures are inflated because of the fear of political dominance. These inflated figures may lead to the provision of facilities which may be underutilized because of the shortage of pupils who will use them, whereas such facilities could have been fully utilized in certain areas to the benefit of all Nigerians and not a certain Nigerian ethnic group. This is a direct challenge to the educational authorities to do something towards addressing this acute problem which has the latent potential of spilling to other areas of the Nigerian society.

The issue pertaining to numbers is a very complex phenomenon as stated above because they affect education directly as well as indirectly. This is even more complex with regard to Nigeria which is consisting of various states which do not experience the numeral aspect with the same magnitude. The division of the country along tribal and religious practices in the past and presently is partly to blame for the mess with which the Nigerian system has to handle. The following aspects of numbers inter alia as a determinant of the Nigerian system of education are looked into.

4.4.2 Underage children

Nigerian parents have the tendency of enrolling underage children in their schools. They may of course not be aware of the adverse educational consequences this will have to their children. One of the reasons for this malpractice may be attributed to the fact that all preprimary schools in Nigeria are run by private agencies whose services unfortunately have to be shouldered financially by parents (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:322). These children who are not supposed to be at schools add to the problems which the Nigerian system of education is presently struggling to address adequately. Fafunwa (1974:169), an outspoken critic of this malpractice, declared that these children who are not supposed to be at schools, according to the Banjo Commission are partly to blame for poor education which the Nigerian system has to offer.

4.4.3 Overaged children

The Nigerian system of education unfortunately also had to address the problem of overaged children, in the primary level. According to Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:115) the enrolments in the first grade of the primary school in September 1976 totalled nearly 3 million, about 700,00 more than had been expected, and attribute the discrepancies to the enrolment of overage and underage children as well as by the uncertainty of demographic data in Nigeria. The situation which has led to the increment of pupils initially not planned for, will take some time until this batch of pupils filters through their secondary schooling. This will occur inspite or the fact that there will be some dropouts as pupils proceed towards completing secondary education.

4.4.4 Repeaters

Repetition of classes in Africa as a whole has become a very big problem. Reasons for repetition are so numerous that it would be unfair to single one as the main

cause. Moreover repetitions within African countries are brought about by various factors which shall not be elaborated in this portion. Coupled with high population growth rates in Africa, repeaters place a very heavy burden on the existing educational facilities which under normal circumstances are not in a position of absorbing a normal flow of pupils from the different education grades.

At the Lagos Conference which was organized under the auspices of UNESCO in 1976 it was stated that repetition continues to be a serious problem to enrolment development. The conference noted, inter alia, that in 1965, 23% of the total enrolment in primary schools in Africa that is 51 620 000 consisted of repeaters, repeating sometimes for the third or fourth time (UNESCO, no. 25, 1976:11). The seriousness of this problem is highlighted by Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:214-215). They project that during the 1975/1976 academic year approximately 71,4% of the primary school pupils in Anambra State either failed or dropped out of schooling. This implies that the greater part of this percentage would constitute repeaters in the following academic year.

4.4.5 Dropout rates

Dropout rates have adverse results on education in all countries and Nigeria is therefore not an exception. It is even worse in countries whose educational resources such as Nigeria are stretched to the maximum. The high birthrate of the country as confirmed by Arnold (1977:103) also add to this problem. Factors such as a lack of proper staffing and educational facilities among others should not be lost sight of. Elegbe (1972:175) has observed that the teacher is mainly concerned in Nigeria with the gifted at the expense of the slower ones and blames the weak ones for lack of natural talent. For as long as the masses are neglected high rates of dropout should be expected. This is especially so if it is borne in mind that the gifted pupils in any education system constitute a very small percentage of the total pupil populace. The dropouts cause a lot of problems which indirectly affect the very same educational budget, since support services have to be implemented to try to address these problems. The information below will highlight the severity of this problem.

- * According to Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:214-215) during 1975/1976 academic year, Anambra State had a total of 77 801 primary school leavers while only 22 246 were actually enrolled in secondary schools the following year. Closer analysis of these figures show that 55 555 pupils either failed or dropped out of schooling. This accounted for approximately 71,4% fall in numbers, something which an education department cannot afford to have.

- * Plateau State recorded a 30% primary to secondary school transition rate during the same period.

The severity of this problem is adequately indicated by the information above, although pertaining only to two of all the states in Nigeria.

Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:116) who investigated the problem pertaining to this aspect four years later remarked that dropout rates among pupils were likely to remain high especially at primary level, in rural areas and among girls.

4.4.6 Compulsory school education

In Nigeria compulsory free education was first introduced in 1976 and was termed UPE (Universal Primary Education) (Ukeje & Aisiku, (1982:211); Kirk-Greene & Rimmer, 1981:51). Numbers in most Nigerian schools later soared because of this. Educational planners were not properly prepared as many of the pupils who were not expected turned out for registration. The result was that the then existing educational facilities could not absorb such large numbers. For many years after the introduction of this scheme, secondary schools in Nigeria could not cope with the primary school leavers. D'Aeth (1975:26) who did an in depth study of the numbers as a determinant of the education system in the Third World warned seriously that there was no prospect of providing schools for all the children for the next generation or two.

4.4.7 Lowering of educational standards

Standards have been indirectly lowered in Nigerian primary schools as one of the mechanisms of determining as whether the child is fit to be promoted to the next standard have been abolished in some states. Niemann and Van Tonder (1989:324) have declared that since 1980 five south-western states have abolished the system of external examinations in order to channel 100% of these pupils into secondary schools. Pupils who should not be in the secondary schools find themselves there, with the result that they ultimately fail or dropout because of their inability to cope with secondary school work.

Niemann and Van Tonder (1989:331) sum up the situation appropriately, namely that "quantitative growth has not always been accompanied by qualitative growth".

4.4.8 School days

School days have been shortened in Nigeria. According to Taiwo (1972:132) short school days with regard to the secondary schools have made them to cease to be what they have been. The shortening of school days can perhaps to an extent contribute to failure especially with regard to those pupils who find it tough to work by themselves unsupervised. The shortening of school days could also lead to a situation in which pupils who should have passed at the end find themselves being not in a position of gaining promotion to the next grade. This shortening of school days could therefore be viewed as an obstruction to normal planning that has to be carried out continually by the education planners.

4.4.9 Educational facilities

The most acute problem is experienced in the secondary schools which find it tough to accommodate pupils from the primary schools. Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:214) have it that an acute bottleneck situation is usually created at secondary school level when primary school enrolments far exceed available secondary education school facilities. Local and state governments are given several responsibilities but without an appropriate financial base to perform them (Onibokun, 1989:106). This would probably lead to an acute shortage of educational facilities.

4.4.10 Employment opportunities

Lack of employment opportunities upon graduation by the students has an adverse effect upon the provision of education. This is even worse with regard to those who may dropout before completing their secondary careers as employment opportunities are scarce. The Nigerian system of education is therefore burdened unduly by a lot of students who should under normal circumstances be employed somewhere. The students in spite of their ages are therefore kept within the schooling system regardless of them making satisfactory progress.

In Nigeria, education has developed faster than other aspects of life thus creating a high unemployment rate among those who complete secondary education (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:326). The knowledge that upon graduation the student will find it tough to be employed, kills initiative and motivation that is a prerequisite for academic excellence. The students with no prospects of employment upon completion lack external motivation which may lead to failure at the end of the year.

4.4.11 Teacher shortages

This has been an inheritance of the modern Nigerian education system from the past.

To illucidate this phenomenon the following diagram is presented:

Table 4.1: Number of teachers needed for each category

	Graduate	Grade I
Teacher-training colleges	1 750	1 750
Secondary grammar schools	3 750	3 750
Technical institutes	200	200
Teachers of agriculture	-	250
Sixth forms	400	-
Grade I training programmes	400	-
Supervising teachers	500	500
Grade I teachers for primary schools	-	11 650

(Fafunwa, 1974:200)

The situation has not improved much as according to Niemann and Van Tonder (1989:331) there was a shortage of teachers at all levels of education from 1970 to 1980. An acute shortage was experienced in the primary schools which required 75 000 additional teaching posts of which only 81,3% could be supplied in this period leaving a gap of 1 400 teachers. In the pursuance of the Liberal Policy adopted in Nigeria with regard to the recruitment of teachers abroad to address the shortages, it was unfortunately realised that many of such teachers were not sufficiently of high calibre (Arnold, 1977:108).

The situation has improved a bit of later. In 1990-91 academic year the student/teacher ratio was 1:38,9 for the primary schools and 1:22,1 for the secondary schools (Britannica Book of the Year, 1994:684).

4.4.12 Text books

One of the stumbling blocks of academic advancement of students hinges around the textbooks which are utilized in schools. A number of Nigerian students fail to make the grade to the next standards because of irrelevant textbooks which are

used to teach them. Odebunmi (1974:88) feels so strongly about these teaching devices by stating that the textbooks are not familiar to many students they purport to serve as a lot of them are written by non citizens. Secondly, Nigerian schools experience a shortage of textbooks (Fleisch, 1995:19). The high failure rate which is stretching the amenities to the maximum is thus indirectly promoted.

4.5 GENERAL STATISTICS TO SHOW INCREASES IN PUPIL NUMBERS

The statistics below show increases in various levels of education within the Nigerian education system for different years. These statistics, if not heeded, will create a lot of problems within the Nigerian education system.

4.5.1 Primary education

The increases will be shown by the diagram below.

Table 4.2: Primary school enrolment figures in all the regions (East, Lagos North and West) from 1937-1970

Year	Total enrolment
1937	238 879
1947	626 000
1951	1 002 561
1952	1 039 659
1953	1 146 056
1954	1 275 003
1955	1 759 533
1956	2 036 613
1957	2 447 873
1958	2 544 512
1959	2 775 938
1960	2 912 619
1962	2 834 010
1963	2 896 382
1964	2 849 488
1965	2 911 742
1966	3 025 203
1970	3 515 827

(Fafunwa, 1974:245.)

Closer analysis of the statistics supplied above indicate that:

- from 1937 to 1947 there was an increase of 387 121 pupils, accounting for 162,1% increase;
- from 1947 to 1954 an increase of 649 003 pupils was experienced, accounting for 103,6%;
- from 1960 to 1970 there was an increase of 603 208 accounting for 20,7%.

According to Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:115) primary school enrolments in 1977 indicated an increase of 5,8 million just over a period of only seven years!

Recent statistics indicate that during 1990-91 academic year there were altogether 35 446 primary schools with an enrolment of 13 776 854 pupils (Britannica Book of the Year, 1994:684). Closer analysis of the figures as presented above indicate that massive expansion has taken place with regard to the primary education since 1937 in order to try to keep pace with the increasing Nigerian population.

4.5.2 Secondary schooling

The situation of increase in respect of secondary education was experienced. The statistics below show these increases.

Closer analysis of the statistics indicate that:

- from 1926 to 1937 there was an increase of 3333, accounting for 86,55%;
- from 1955 to 1957 there was an increase of 8841, accounting for 24,43%;
- from 1959 to 1962 there was an increase of 147 849, accounting for 75,63%;
- from 1964 to 1966 an increase of 6293, was experienced accounting for 2,98%.

Table 4.3: Secondary school enrolment in all the regions from 1955-1970

Year	Total enrolment
1955	27 347
1956	39 017
1957	36 188
1958	41 391
1959	47 650
1960	55 235
1962	195 499
1963	211 879
1964	205 012
1965	209 015
1966	211 305
1970	310 054

(Fafunwa, 1974:246)

According to Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:115) post primary schools (secondary schools of all kinds, teacher training institutions, polytechnics and universities grew from about 325 000 in 1970 to one million in 1977.

Later statistics indicate that during the 1990-91 academic year there were 3 123 777 students in 5 594 secondary schools in Nigeria (Britannica Book of the Year, 1994:684). Statistics as furnished above indicate that the Nigerian educational planners did much to try to address the increasing pupil numbers by establishing more learning institutions.

4.5.3 University education

The tendency during the missionary period in Nigeria had been to send students to foreign universities (Fafunwa, 1974:90). This obviously thwarted the development of universities in Nigeria for some time. The situation later improved, as the diagram indicates below.

Table 4.4: Growth of Nigerian universities: Actual enrolments from 1962-1963 to 1970-1971 academic years

Year	Total enrolments
1962-3	5 761
1963-4	5 106
1964-5	6 707
1965-6	7 709
1966-7	8 904
1967-8	7 058
1968-9	8 510
1969-70	9 695
1970-1	14 468

(Fafunwa, 1974:250.)

The statistics as reflected above show an upward tendency. Clear analysis of the statistics as supplied indicate that:

- from 1962-3 to 1963-4 there was an decrease of 655,
- from 1965-6 to 1966-7 an increase of 1195 students was experienced, accounting for 13,42%;
- from 1969-70 to 1970-1 an increase of 4 773 students was experienced thus accounting for 33%;
- in the period of 8 years that is from 1962-3 to 1970-1 an increase of 8 707 students was experienced thus accounting for 60,18%.

Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:115) have stated that university enrolments in 1979 rose to 60 000 and attributed the expansion to a decision by the military government in 1974 to attempt equalisation of educational opportunities throughout the federation, initially by accepting federal financial responsibility for the provision of fee-free primary schooling.

According to Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:222) this figure illustrate Nigeria's inability to pursue its policy of primary education for all at post primary levels. The number of

students studying in foreign universities increases annually. In 1980 this number was 26 863 (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:392).

Later figures indicate that there were 307 207 students during the 1990-91 academic year in Nigeria (Britannica Book of the Year, 1994:684). These statistics pertaining to Nigerian universities show that massive expansion has been taking place since 1962-63.

4.6 TECHNIQUES WHICH WERE IMPLEMENTED IN ORDER TO ADDRESS THE PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH NUMBERS

The problems associated with numbers have been attended to in various ways in Nigeria as these are unique to all the states, and the educational goals to be met also differ. The exposition below pertains to attempts to try to answer to the problem of numbers in their various manifestations as a determinant of the education system.

4.6.1 Shortages of classrooms

Provision of educational facilities is still a problem in Nigeria. However, means though not to the satisfaction of everybody are being sought to address this problem adequately. According to Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:215) Lagos state when confronted with the problem of increasing numbers immediately after the implementation of Universal Primary education scheme resorted to a shift system (commonly known as the platoon system) of morning and afternoon secondary schools to increase intake.

4.6.2 Age restriction

As a measure to curb the tendency of parents enrolling pupils at primary schools who should be at preprimaries, Fafunwa (1974:169) has stated that compulsory registration of births by the local authorities was enforced. This was aimed at assisting the educational officers to eradicate the bad tendency of enrolling pupils who should be at preprimary institutions. This was a real advantage as pupils who were likely to repeat a course because of their stage of development and premature registration were kept far from the primary schools. By the implementation of this policy, educational institutions were "reserved" for those who were of the correct age of utilizing them.

4.6.3 Automatic promotions

The abolition of the system of external examinations by the South Western states as indicated earlier on leads one to infer that it was also aimed at diffusing a situation in which large numbers of pupils are retained at a particular level because of failure, thus making it impossible for the others to secure the necessary places (see 4.4.7).

4.6.4 Technological aids

Educational television in general and in Nigeria in particular was used extensively as a teaching aid in Africa during the 1970's in order to overcome among others shortage of teachers. However, its implementation in the schools was more costly than expected and the results were disappointing (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:331).

4.6.5 School fees

One of the obstacles pertaining to equality of educational provision is the issue revolving around the enforcement of paying school fees, since pupils who are unable to pay school fees are sometimes compelled to leave school, only to resurface the following year when funds have been made available. This is a problem for educational planners as they are unable to estimate how many of these unfortunate ones will turn up again. When these do come back they are merely "squeezed" into classes overflowing with pupils. Odebunmi (1974:8) has stated that cases of pupils who were sent home by teachers for not paying school fees have been reported. The situation has improved slightly as only secondary schools levy funds (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:325).

4.6.6 Conclusion

Numbers as the determinant of the Nigerian system was looked into as well as the strategies which are implemented to attend to problems created by numbers. Some of the techniques are of course non pedagogic in nature, something which the educational planners and in particular the educationists have to look into.

The problem of numbers in various forms stem to a certain extent from the fact that no proper head count has been done. According to Kirk-Greene and Rimmer (1981:62) the size of the population is highly uncertain. The census of 1973 which produced a provisional total of 79,76 million was annulled as was the census of 1962, the results of which were never officially published. Wrong figures are also

supplied to the government. IEERS (1985:3554) in 1976 had estimated that there would be 2,3 million pupils as based on the figures supplied to the government, whereas the actual enrolment stood at round about 3 million. That meant that about 0,7 million pupils were not adequately planned for.

The problem of accommodating all the pupils within the Nigerian system of education still exists and will exist for some foreseeable future if nothing drastic is done to remedy this. There is some willingness on the part of the education officials and the government to address the problems associated with numbers, but it appears that their efforts are not wholly successful because of inter alia the economy which does not have the muscle of addressing such ills. Increases with regard to educational budgets, Chuta (1986:524) asserts have been to no avail. Next to agriculture, education is Nigeria's biggest industry absorbing over a third of regional budgets and a prominent slice of foreign aid (Schwarz, 1968:47).

Some mechanisms have to be worked out to ensure that the failure and or dropout rates are brought to a minimum. No country in the world irrespective of how rich it is can afford to have such big numbers of failures and or dropouts. The tendency, Musaazi (1982:240) asserts, of selecting pupils of low academic ability to do vocational and training courses in Nigeria increases failures. Insufficient educational institutions and teachers also contribute to this state of affairs. A good education system should have sufficient secondary schools to accommodate pupils completing their primary course, and sufficient tertiary institutions to absorb those completing secondary courses and seeking further education (Rupert, 1982:4). The statement that the educational situation in Africa is both disturbing and encouraging, disturbing, because of inadequate facilities and encouraging because of the tremendous efforts that are being made by the African Governments to remedy this leaves one with hope (Denny, 1963:41).

4.7 SPACE AS A DETERMINANT OF THE NIGERIAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Numbers and movement of people from one area to the other have a determining influence upon the space which is to be utilized. To attend to the problems emanating from space as one of the determinants of the Nigerian system of education is not an easy task. The problem is compounded by the fact that tribal bounds in Nigeria are accorded a very special place. Secondly, each of the nineteen states is dominated by an ethnic group (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:305).

The physical space as it refers to the lie of the land and the educational space will be looked into as the two are interrelated in nature. Concerning the latter it has to conform to pedagogic norms in order for education to be beneficial to its consumers, that is the pupils. Ignoring the norms pertaining to educational space and attributing that to, inter alia, external factors such as finances is not a valid excuse.

4.7.1 Location of schools

Politics in Nigeria dictate to education how it should handle its affairs. One does not deny the fact that there is interrelationship between education and politics but one is against the misuse of education to attain political goals as is the case in Nigeria. Musaaazi (1982:141) stated that schools, colleges and other educational institutions may be located geographically at unsuitable places purely for political reasons. The internationally accepted principle of demand and supply is therefore deliberately overlooked as several schools may be established at an area which may require very few or one school to address the educational needs of the pupils there.

At some areas the situation is so bad as to wonder whether careful consideration was ever done in the selection of areas for the establishment of the learning institution. Ozigi and Ocho (1981:83) in support of this have remarked that some schools have been located at areas where the basic infrastructure like access roads, communication, transport system and modern amenities such as electricity and health facilities are lacking.

4.7.2 Ethnic boundaries

Ethnic boundaries in Nigeria have become an obstacle to educational development, as Nigerians prefer living as ethnic entities. This way of living is attributed to the Europeans. According to Ostheimer (1973:14) arbitrary boundaries drawn by the Europeans are solely to blame for the tribulations experienced by the new states which tend to split some African tribes and sometimes put hostile tribes together thus laying grounds for future tension. In some areas schools are located centrally in order for them to be beneficial to pupils coming from various areas. This, however, has also met with rejection in some quarters as the following exposition shows. Because of intercommunal conflict, Asungbale village in Kwara State withdrew their children from the common central school located in Bojafe after 1977. Community leaders in Asungbale said that their children would go to school only "if we have our own school" (Oni, 1988:91). Statements and practices such as these illustrate the reality of space as determinant of the education system. This

further confirms the point as illustrated in 4.7.1, that education is not free from interfering factors and that ethnicity and culture, though important to education as external determinants are so valued in Nigeria to such an extent that they have made the Nigerians to ignore other important determinants.

4.7.3 Urbanisation process as having an effect on space as a determinant of the Nigerian education system

The tendency among the Third World countries has been for people to migrate to the cities as rural areas have not been developed to the extent as to cater for the needs of the people there. Harbison (1965:23) expresses the same sentiments by declaring that the urban population is increasing at a very rapid rate as a result of immigration from country side to towns and cities. The rapid movement of people to the urban areas creates some problems. Mabogunje (1974:87) asserts that squatter settlements erupt especially in the rapidly growing industrial centres as a failure by the urban centres to adequately serve rural population in fields such as health, education and other social amenities.

Normally, a balance between expansion as caused by increase in numbers and schools has to be maintained, though this has not been the case in Nigeria as revealed by this study and in most Third World countries because of many factors.

4.7.4 Provision of educational facilities as having a bearing on space as a determinant of the Nigerian education system

It is a well known fact internationally that provision of facilities in urban areas is generally better as compared to rural areas. Educational standards may also differ considerably because of this. Educational standards should be better in the urban areas than in the rural areas in Nigeria because of, inter alia, unwillingness of teachers to serve in rural areas where social amenities are terribly inadequate. The tempo of urban expansion in Nigerian towns and cities has accelerated very rapidly (Ajaegbu, 1976:10). Taylor (1987:435) asserts that throughout the country the annual urban growth rate is estimated to be between 6 and 10%. This rapid expansion is one of the factors contributing to the failure of the Nigerian system to accommodate all its pupils especially in urban areas. Lately the urban rural population constitute 35,2% and 64,8% respectively (Britannica Book of the Year, 1994:648). Considering the determining factors of education this means that Nigeria is compelled to have an education system which specifically caters for rural and for urban populations.

4.7.5 Boarding school facilities

One thing that is remarkable about Nigerian schools is the fact that sites have been put aside for the erection of boarding facilities. This feature was typical of the era of Missionary education in Nigeria, and has been a debatable issue since then. Those who adhere to the principle that boarding facilities should be established when schools come into existence may find solace in the fact that almost all government schools and the majority of voluntary agencies and community secondary school offer boarding school facilities (Ozigi & Ocho, 1981:82).

4.8 TECHNIQUES WHICH HAVE BEEN IMPLEMENTED IN ORDER TO ADDRESS PROBLEMS OF SPACE AS A DETERMINANT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

The following techniques have been implemented in order to address the problem of space as a determinant of the Nigerian system of education.

4.8.1 Ethnic boundaries

The problem of ethnic boundaries was indirectly addressed when Nigeria became a federation consisting of four regions which could make their own laws with the federal legislation being decisive when conflict occurred (Niemann & Van Tonder, 1989:313). Through this the Nigerians could realize that they are one nation though they may have differences as ethnic entities. Nationality was indirectly promoted and eradicated ethnicity to an extent.

4.8.2 Urbanization process as having an effect on space as a determinant of the Nigerian education system

As people migrate to cities, expansion of the cities take place. Among the movers to the cities there are those unfortunate masses who cannot afford proper housing and usually resort to informal settlements. These people are unfortunately discriminated upon with regard to the provision of social amenities as well as schools.

One cannot obviously expect conditions to be the same when numbers are increasing. Programmes are usually developed to accommodate increasing numbers. Barker (1974:271) has stated that in the period of 50 years, that is from

1917 to 1967 Lagos grew from a colonial town of less than 100 000 people to a metropolis of 1 250 000, the largest city in tropical Africa.

Urbanization prompted the movement of people from rural areas to urban areas. This must have forced the educational authorities to embark on programmes aimed at addressing the demographic conditions in Nigeria. Urbanization therefore to an extent could be viewed as a technique.

4.8.3 Conclusion

It was realized that space as a determinant of the Nigerian education system is influenced by various interconnected aspects. The following aspects e.g. location of schools, ethnic boundaries, urbanization process and provision of educational facilities were discussed as having a bearing on the spatial aspect. Some flaws with regard to space as the determinant of the Nigerian system of education were highlighted as well as the techniques which are being implemented to try to address such problems. Positive aspects were also mentioned.

In order for Nigeria to address its spatial related problems, the issue pertaining to squatting cannot be overlooked. Squatters in many countries are in great numbers. In emphasising the importance of squatters with regard to educational planning, Blair (1984:199) has stated that slums and squatter settlements are not isolated temporary phenomena or marginal unfortunate appendages to the "real city" - they are the city. Eijionye (1984:199), who did an intensive study with regard to the urbanization process, sounded a stern warning when declaring that unless new strategies are created for integrated implementation and management of urban planning, Nigeria will face massive problems if not chaos in human settlement development. There is no way by which education will not be affected by this. The influence of external determinants should never be underestimated when spaces are selected for the building of schools. Ignoring the pedagogic consideration with regard to this will always prove to be disastrous in the end.

4.9 MOVEMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN NIGERIA

4.9.1 Orientation

Mobility in each country is influenced by unique factors emanating from such a country and Nigeria is therefore not an exception to this. This does not rule out the

possibility that different countries may experience nearly the same problems with the same magnitude. The movement of people from one area to the other has an effect on a number of services that are to be addressed. Various comparative educationists have attributed this phenomenon to a variety of factors such as urbanisation, migration and de-urbanization to cite but a few. The problem of urbanization in Nigeria was highlighted by Taylor (1987:435) who observed that urban areas represent less than 10% of the land of the country and yet accommodate 28% of the total population.

Failure to heed this serious problem would have very serious results for the education system of Nigeria. The movement of people to urban areas in Nigeria occur in spite of great housing problems which people in the urban areas are experiencing. Taylor (1987:439) has it that 65% of the urban population suffer from lack of proper housing. The following factors with regard to movement are looked into:

4.9.2 Squatter settlements

Squatter settlements, informal settlements or slums as they are called have sprang up adjacent to a lot of urban areas in Nigeria. A lot of inhabitants in these areas have been forced by poverty amongst other factors to illegally occupy such areas. Agbola (1988:187) has it that low income Nigerians are almost permanently excluded from access to mortgage facilities because of the type of collateral security necessary and the ever increasing interests rates. It is the children of these squatters who are severely disadvantaged because of lack of educational facilities by virtue of them been referred to as "illegals". Mills-Tettey (1988:57) has compiled a list of areas where not much consideration has been given to public amenities. Those unplanned settlements which have not been adequately provided include, inter alia, the following: Ajegunle, Badia, Itire Ijeshatedo, Maroko, Iwaya and Ketu. The movement of these people to these unplanned settlements create educational problems as their children go to the neighbouring towns to receive education. Mills-Tettey (1988:55) has observed the phenomenon that the provision of new houses in Nigeria has not kept pace with the rate of population growth. Only an example of pupil movement to other area will suffice to illustrate this point. Akinola (1963:107-108) has asserted that most of the youths in the surrounding villages of Ibadan move to Ibadan because of its wider opportunities for learning, social amenities, employment and entertainment and for the general glamour of modern city life.

4.9.3 Erection of houses without approval of authorities

A lot of houses in Nigeria are erected by the owners prior to having received clearances from the authorities. This is brought about by the fact that planning authorities are usually understaffed with the result that frustrated developers go ahead and build prior to having received a go ahead to that effect (Agbola, 1988:191). This has brought about areas which are still "illegal" with the result that no facilities such as educational institutions are established in order to attend to the needs of the inhabitants. The spilling over of the learners to adjacent areas thus occur. Agbola (1988:191) has stated that it is not uncommon for a building to receive planning approval two years after it has been occupied, a situation which not only makes a mockery of the entire plan approval process but one which renders the task of policy development within the designated urban area utterly hopeless.

4.9.4 Urbanization and deurbanization process in Nigeria

Mobility in Nigeria is a very complex issue because of the fact that it involves moving into and out of the cities in pursuance of favourable economic conditions. This dual movement as dictated to by economic level creates a lot of problems for educational planners as they are at times compelled to work with estimates.

4.9.5 Ethnicity and religious practises

Ethnicity and religious practises also contribute to the movement of people from one area to the other to occur. According to Lewis (1965:15) and Hatch (1970:13) Mohammedanism is the dominant religion in the North and in the West Christianity and indigenous animistic faiths dominate. Ethnicity and religion occupy such a special place in the hearts of the Nigerians so much so that these influence the selection of an area a person is likely to migrate to. One would therefore expect a majority of Mohammedans in the northern cities and Christians in the western ones.

According to Hatch (1970:215), after British occupation of Nigeria, regionalism closely associated with three large ethnic communities had taken precedence over nationalism. Each of these regions was dominated by one ethnic community, Hausa, Fulani and Ibo respectively.

4.10 TECHNIQUES WHICH HAVE BEEN IMPLEMENTED IN NIGERIA IN ORDER TO ADDRESS THE PROBLEMS OF MOVEMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF AN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The following techniques were, inter alia, implemented in Nigeria to try to address the problems as caused by movement.

4.10.1 Movement of the Federal Capital (Lagos) to Abuja

The reason of moving the Capital Lagos to Abuja according to Gale (1979:11) had nothing to do with politics, but rather the desire to escape from hopelessly congested Lagos. The very same sentiments are echoed by Lockwood (1984:265) and Taylor (1987:438) who, inter alia, also added the following points:

- Lagos was located in a swampy and unhealthy area;
- it was the home territory of one ethnic group;
- it possessed little land for growth;
- it provided a dual function of a State Capital and a Federal Capital.

The changing of the capital city from Lagos as a Federal Capital to Abuja was an honest attempt to address demographic problems in Nigeria. It was a move in the correct direction more so it was not dictated to by politics which seem to be regulating demographic issues in Nigeria.

4.10.2 Industrial locations

Industries as sources of providing employment for the masses have the tendency of attracting a lot of people to the areas where they are situated. In order not to have congestion The Fourth National Development Plan (1981-1985) as stipulated in the Federal Government's Industrial policy, states that Nigeria's major industries with emphasis on steel development should as far as possible spread throughout all the parts of the country (Eijionye, 1984:160-161). This has an implication on education as educational institutions in their attempt to address the problems as created by movement will also be located throughout all the parts of the country.

4.10.3 Establishment of satellite towns in order to absorb the increasing number of people caused about by movement

One of the techniques used to control the increasing population of Lagos was the creation of Lagos satellite towns built between Lagos and Budagry (Eijionye, 1984:159). These towns absorb a lot of people from overcrowded Lagos thus relieving it of the social, economic and educational problems that go with it.

4.10.4 Government's standpoint with regard to movement in Nigeria

Freedom of movement in Nigeria was guaranteed after independence irrespective of religion and ethnicity which seem to be deeply entrenched in the minds of Nigerians. Hatch (1970:225) has it that ten years after independence Gowan declared that every Nigerian must be free to live and work wherever he chose irrespective of ethnic origins. This was an attempt to ensure that people were not confined to a particular area and so indirectly aimed at spreading the pupil populace in various directions.

4.10.5 Nigerian Town Country and Planning Ordinance

This Act was passed during 1946 and was designed to promote order in urban development by establishing planning authorities which could control urban growth (Taylor, 1987:436). This mechanism, however, seems to be a dismal failure as squatting in Nigeria is taking proportions difficult to control.

4.10.6 Conclusion

The fact that the Nigerians were accorded a free movement within their own country was a step in the correct direction. This, however, requires that other related services should be of a nature of catering for the out and in-movers and that there should be smooth transition educationally for the children of people who would like to settle in other states. The fact that each state has its own department of education and follows its own curriculum contradicts this noble idea and becomes a hindrance to free movement. Akinpelu (1981:239-240) is of the opinion that flexibility has to be maintained in spite of each part maintaining its own objectives and identity. It should be possible for a student in one sub-system to cross over to another for which he has necessary pre-requisite qualification.

In spite of the setbacks which are experienced in Nigeria with regard to mobility aspects, there are other positive aspects as revealed by the study.

One of the distinguishing characteristics pertaining to the Nigerian education system is that it has to handle a lot of pupils because of high birth rates which are experienced there. Ethnicity is negatively promoted as people there wish to live as ethnic entities. This becomes a hindrance to people mobility. However, in order to address the demographic problems the Nigerians have implemented the following: a shift system to increase intake of pupils, age restriction measures for the beginners, abolition of school fees in the primary phase, compulsory school attendances, unification of various states under the Federal Government umbrella, movement of the Federal capital (Lagos) to Abuja, spreading of major Nigeria's industrial cities and controlling of urban growth by means of various legislations.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The demographic factors and techniques which are used to attend to them in Nigeria were looked into in this part of the study. This study has revealed among others that this system of education is beset by a lot of problems related to demography. Some of the problems related to demography such as the over involvement of politics in educational arena could be eradicated easily. Financial constraints within which the Nigerian system of education has to function seems to be another factor which is a hindrance to eradicating demographic ills. Adequate finances are necessary, but should not be seen as panacea for all demographic problems in Nigeria.

Until such time the demographic problems in their various manifestations are accorded their rightful place within the Nigerian system of education this system of education will always be criticised for its failure to attend to the educational needs of its population.

CHAPTER 5

SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 4 the demographic factors and the determining influences they have upon the provision of education in Nigeria were looked into as well as the possible solutions that are implemented to attend to such related problems.

In this chapter pertaining to the South African education system, concentration will be on the previous Black subsystem of education. This is done because this subsystem of educational provision has been experiencing the worst demographic problems than the subsystems which catered previously for other population groups such as the Indians, Coloureds and Whites. It is therefore hoped that the recommendations which will be made concerning the previous subsystem will contribute substantially in improving the new South African education system.

Vos and Brits (1987:56) assert that the system of education in South Africa was based on multinational (separate) development for the main population groups, meaning that each population group was served by its own subsystem of education with little cooperation and coordination. This type of educational provision used a lot of money as duties and facilities have to be duplicated in order to ensure that each department catered for the educational needs of its target group.

Separate educational provision came about because of the recommendations of the Eislen Commission, released in the fifties (Rose, 1965:208; Davis, 1972:8). The commission categorically stipulated that each of the four main groups that is the Whites, Coloureds, Indians and Africans were to be serviced by their own education subsystems.

The provision of education for all South Africans on different population tracks creates a lot of problems for the educational planners in terms of using the limited resources (financial) this country is having at present.

The Black education system originated from certain determinants which have given it the present form and structure. In order to understand the intricate demographic problems this country is experiencing presently one will be tempted to look cursorily into the past by discussing, in short, missionary and Bantu education systems. This

chapter is aimed at discussing the demographic factors as they had effect on the former Black education system in South Africa. Possible solutions that are implemented to attend to such problems (demographic) will also be discussed.

5.2 EDUCATION PROVISION IN THE PAST

5.2.1 Missionary education

Up to 1800 education in South Africa was the responsibility of the church and has as its aims conversion of the people to Christianity as well as the establishment of the church work in South Africa (Christie, 1985:65). Missionary education was organized in a totally different way from the one the Blacks were accustomed to, hence it was initially rejected by those it was aimed at upgrading.

Christie (1985:55) asserts that the introduction of the Bantu Education Act almost led to the closure of all missionary schools. The missionary schools did not, however, stop functioning at the time that this act which required that education be a State's undertaking was passed. Behr (1984:175) has it that until 1902 all education for Non Whites (Blacks) as they were then called was a missionary undertaking in the Transvaal.

There was misunderstanding among the various missionary societies as to what type of education should be given to the Blacks. Christie (1985:67) asserts that some missionaries thought that Blacks should be given exactly the same academic education as Whites. The fact that missionary education was run by different church denominations imply therefore that different approaches and curricula were followed.

5.2.2 Bantu education

Bantu education became enacted in the constitution of South Africa during the fifties as the Eislen Commission had recommended (Rose, 1965:208; Davis, 1972:8). The initiation of the Bantu education system was based more on political and racial than educational considerations. A serious imbalance in the provision of education between the various racial groups was therefore created. Davis (1972:2) declared that Bantu education is not merely a synonym for African education, rather it refers to the distinctive process of education for Africans as it has developed under the Nationalist rule since 1948. That the South African government has developed a distinct and unique education for the Bantu suggests that it holds different attitudes

Republic as well as the rural urban migration cannot be left unchecked if the education system has to accomplish the mission to which it has been assigned.

The education system has to address the issue of numbers as a determinant of the education system as they appear intertwined with other related factors in their various manifestations.

Failure to address a specific numerical issue will automatically create a problem for the other aspects, with the result that a vicious circle difficult to break will ensue. Numbers as a determinant of the then Black subsystem will be discussed under the following aspects:

5.3.2 Underaged children

The Department of Education and Training (DET) has specified years by which pupils could be enrolled in schools. This has been scientifically worked out because pupils during a specified period of development are in a position of doing certain developmental tasks associated with their maturity level. However, this policy is circumvented by parents in various ways to have their underaged children enrolled at schools. The result of such behaviour is that a lot of these children being not yet school ready fail at the end of the year. Taylor, (1989:5) in her book "Falling at the first hurdle" attributes low survival rates in all African Departments to underaged enrolments. The insufficient educational facilities are therefore stretched to the maximum as teachers are unfortunately expected to handle large numbers of pupils that were not initially planned for. Primary schooling cannot be used as a kindergarten even if funds were sufficient.

5.3.3 Overaged children

The Black education system has to cope unfortunately with large numbers of those who should under normal circumstances be in the tertiary institutions or labour related markets earning salaries. According to Vos and Brits (1990:98) the age of Standard Fives in 1984 ranged from 11 to 22 years. In his speech to the symposium on Standard 10 results, the Director General of DET on May 5 1992 said that most of these overage children contributed to the bulk of Matric failure and stated that these children use the school as substitute for aimlessly idling around (Louw, 1992:12).

To elucidate this occurrence clearly the following diagram is provided.

Table 5.1 Matric results for different population groups during 1986-1994

Year	Blacks	Whites	Coloureds	Asians
1986	51,6	93,1	67,6	87,1
1987	56,1	95,1	72,7	95,2
1988	56,7	96,1	66,0	95,1
1989	41,8	96,0	72,7	93,6
1990	36,7	95,8	74,9	95,0
1991	40,9	96,0	82,8	96,0
1992	43,8	97,3	86,5	94,7
1993	39,0	97,3	82,8	91,3
1994	48,5	97,3	87,5	92,6

(Du Pisani *et al.* 1990:14; Strauss, Plekker, Strauss & Van der Linde, 1994:12)

From the statistics supplied above an average percentage of 48,9 was attained by the Africans/Blacks as from 1986 to 1990 as compared to 95,2 for Whites, 71,8 for Coloureds and 93,2 for Asians/Indians. DET attributed a low pass percentage for 1989 on school disruptions and protests which were taking place country wide in and around Black primary and secondary schools (DET Annual Report, 1990:4). Such low pass percentages do not augur well with the Black education system as the failure rates have an influence on the way in which education has to be provided. A lot of these failures tend to repeat, thus creating a severe accommodation problem. This high failure rates are partly to blame for overaged pupils found in the Black education system (c.f. figure 5.1).

5.3.5 Dropout rates

The Black system of education has a very long history of dropouts. Jones (1970:61) has it that the 1949 statistics indicated that two-thirds of all those children who started school dropped out before completing Standard 2. CREID (1991:68) in analysing the present trend has indicated that four out of every 100 Africans who start schooling reach Matric, and put the blame squarely on the adverse conditions within which the Black system of education has to function. The high dropout rates have an adverse effect on educational provision. Rose (1970:11) views this high rate of dropouts as a wastage and has asserted: "In many African educational systems, the wastage is excessive. It is generally accepted that unless a child

remains in the educational system for at least four years, his cost to the school system is not offset, because he has not achieved even a basic literacy".

5.3.6 Compulsory school education

Samuel (1990:25) has it that the DET during 1981 announced the introduction of compulsory schooling in certain selected areas only. A lot of needy pupils enrolled at schools because of such a move. However, the scheme was rejected as it was felt in some quarters that if education was to be compulsory it should also be free. Finally there was the feeling that it was wrong to accept compulsory Bantu Education (Samuel, 1990:21). Upon rejection of this scheme numbers had already risen with the result that temporary arrangements had to be sought to accommodate the learners.

5.3.7 Lowering of educational standards

One of the factors which does not augur well with the Black system of education is the fact that standards are sometimes sacrificed in order to channel as many pupils as possible to the next standard. This has got an impact on the provision of education. DET Annual Report (1990:104) asserts that promotions prior to Matric are made despite the fact that pupils cannot yet prove that they have reached acceptable standards. This creates problems at Matric, hence the high failure rate.

5.3.8 School days

A lot of school days are lost in the Black Education system due to pupils and teachers protests marches which are usually organized during teaching time. It was reported (Anon, 1992:1) that the disruption of classes caused by class boycotts called by student organizations like the Congress of South African Student would adversely affect the results at the end of the year. In his speech on 5 May 1992, the Deputy Director General of the DET stated that his research indicated that the schools which fared badly with regard to Matric results had lost more days as a result of such actions. Because of school disruptions, many pupils who could have made it, failed dismally (Scholtz, 1992:8). This has had an adverse effect on the provision of education, as a situation difficult to solve is created at a particular educational level.

5.3.9 Educational facilities

The Black system of education is at present experiencing serious problems of accommodating its pupils. Classrooms are insufficient. It is unfortunate that this

type of problem has been taking place since time immemorial. Pells (1970:133) asserts that inadequate facilities have been the problem of Natives, Blacks as they were then called since education for them was controlled by the missionaries. The greatest need exists in squatter areas which have come into being virtually overnight (Education Realities in SA, 1991:9). The Director General of DET on 5 May 1992 estimated the shortage of classrooms to be between 6 000 and more (Louw, 1992:16). Fleisch (1995:17) later estimated the shortage of classrooms to be approximately 94 000. The insufficient physical facilities have an adverse effect on the provision of education, as it leads to the stopgap arrangements which are unacceptable to the majority of the Black parents, teachers and pupil alike. This feature of the Black system of education could but lead one to the conclusion that it is a very under financed system which has great problems of doing justice to numbers as one of the determinants of the education systems. However, Claasen (1992:11) gives a very stern warning that the output of education cannot be improved simply by increasing the financial output.

The period of economic recessions should be an opportune one in which educational budgets are improved. In this regard, Kostecki (1985:13) asserts that governments acting rationally should be expected to increase their subsidies to schools during periods of high unemployment to take full advantage of the beneficent impact of schooling on the equilibration of labour market.

5.3.10 Illegal immigrants and refugees

The problem of catering for all its pupils in South Africa by the Black education subsystem is compounded further by illegal immigrants who are entering this country from the neighbouring states. These people circumvent the enrolment procedures by having their children registered in schools run and controlled by the DET.

Exiles are also returning to South Africa since the government started to negotiate with various political organisations and liberation movements a constitution for a new democratic South Africa (CREID, 1989:22). The numbers of these people who are to be accommodated in the Black subsystem of education add to the problems of numbers the government is presently unable to satisfy because of, among others, economic constraints within which the system has to function.

5.3.11 Employment opportunities

Unemployment in South Africa has an adverse effect upon the provision of education. Overaged pupils who should be working spent most of their times idling in the educational institutions and making very slow educational progress. For them the school is seen as a safe haven. It is felt in some quarters that the way in which education is run in South Africa also contributes directly to the high level of unemployment. Moulder (1990:108) asserts that the high unemployment rate is the result of the failure by our schools and also universities to teach their pupils and students conscientiously the psychomotor, analytical, behavioural judgmental and creative skills that are required in the work place. This state of affairs drives black students to sullen acceptance of hostile rebellion, or to all frustration that is encapsulated in their demand for liberation before education. These overaged pupils who should in anyway be employed, make it very difficult for the others of the correct ages to be enrolled at schools because of the shortage of physical facilities.

5.3.12 Teacher shortages

This feature of the South African education system goes hand in hand with overcrowding and insufficient teaching facilities. There is a very serious shortage of teachers within the Black education system. Vos and Brits (1990:53) assert that the Black school population increases by 3 000 000 annually, meaning that approximately 300 large schools have to be built and at least 8 000 teachers have to be trained annually. This feature of the South African education system leads to high failure rates and dropouts which create problems for educational planners.

5.3.13 Textbooks

On 7 August 1991 the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) during its "National day of action" forwarded various memoranda to the various education authorities. One of its complaints was shortage of textbooks (De Beer, 1991:6). In defence the shortage of the textbooks was ascribed to the fact that most of the students do not return the textbooks loaned out to them, at the end of the year (DET Annual Report, 1990:16). To add to the woes of the teachers, textbooks as supplied by the DET are not only in short supply but are in most cases irrelevant. Christie (1985:148) has it that one Soweto teacher remarked that the reading books are all about middle class in England and have no relation to the culture of the Blacks in Soweto. As a result they do not instil the love for reading. This in a way may lead to high failure rates.

5.3.14 General statistics to show increases in pupil numbers

The statistics below show increases in various levels of education within the Black subgroup. These statistics have been supplied by various people but all of them paint a very bleak future unless drastic changes are implemented to attend to the numbers as determinant of the education system.

5.3.14.1 Primary schooling

Table 5.2: Primary school enrolments: SSA - Std 5

Year	No of pupils
1967	2 610 347
1984	3 262 934
1989	5 354 631
1990	5 650 366
1992	5 497 542
1993	6 337 911
1994	6 458 126

(Vos & Brits, 1990:98; Du Plessis, Du Pisani & Plekker, 1989:6; Du Pisani *et al.*, 1990:6; Strauss, Plekker, Strauss & Van der Linde, 1992:6; Strauss, Plekker & Strauss, 1993:6; Strauss *et al.* 1994:4)

On careful analysis of these figures one realizes that there has been an increase of 2 887 195 pupils in the primary phase from 1967 to 1992.

5.3.14.2 Secondary schooling

Table 5.3: Secondary school enrolments Std 6-10 from 1989-1994

Year	No of pupils
1989	1 782 554
1990	2 003 904
1992	3 038 803
1993	2 613 558
1994	2 787 7630

(Du Plessis *et al.*, 1989:6; Du Pisani *et al.*, 1990:6; Strauss *et al.*, 1992:6; Strauss *et al.*, 1993:6; Strauss *et al.*, 1994:4)

An increment of 1 256 249 students was experienced from 1989-1992 in the former DET schools.

Phenomenal increases of these nature make it difficult for an education system to optimally cater for the educational needs of its pupils, but an education system should be seen to be doing its best to eradicate all those problems which are having the bearing on numbers.

Table 5.4: Increased enrolment: DET, 1980-1994

Year	Enrolment	Annual percentage increase
1980	1 521 898	
1981	1 594 841	4,79
1982	1 623 743	1,81
1983	1 684 918	3,77
1984	1 729 611	2,65
1985	1 763 008	1,93
1986	1 811 150	2,73
1987	1 949 929	7,66
1988	2 062 506	5,77
1989	2 145 837	4,04
1990	2 247 272	4,73
1991	2 391 256	6,41
1992	2 524 323	5,18
1993	2 655 161	5,03
1994	2 788 981	5,03

(Anon, 1993, 38(7):46; Strauss *et al.*, 1994:3)

The table above indicates the growth in pupil numbers from 1980-1994 in schools run and registered with DET. This global view shows an increment of 1 267 083 pupils. The pupil growth rates in the past decade have taken on proportions which have become difficult to manage, hence the stopgap arrangements which are implemented to serve as a solution to the problem of numbers.

5.3.14.3 University education

The practice since 1959 has been to prevent Non-Whites, Blacks as they were then called, to attend open universities of Witwatersrand, Cape Town and the segregated university of Natal unless they had magisterial permission (Rose, 1970:118). This resulted in Blacks attending in great numbers certain institutions which were set aside for them. However, this practice was later done away with when the democratic order in the Republic of South Africa began to take shape some years ago and Blacks were then at liberty to attend any university of their choice. The following statistics refer to university enrolments for Africans.

Table 5.5: University enrolment for Africans from 1970-1992

Year	Students
1970	4 601
1975	9 181
1980	17 989
1982	115 181
1984	130 686
1987	151 307
1988	79 439
1989	91 285
1990	94 870
1991	116 112
1992	126 084

(SAAIR, 1980, 1982, 1985 and 1988 as quoted by Samuel, 1990:42; SAPSE:1996)

Universities catering for Africans do not experience enrolment problems because of very few matriculants who pass each year. The situation is simplified further by private studies conducted at universities such as University of South Africa, Potchefstroom and Rand Afrikaans University to cite but a few.

5.4 Techniques which were implemented in order to address the problems of numbers as determinants of the South African subsystem for Blacks

5.4.1 Orientation

The techniques which the South African education system implements in order to attend to the issue of numbers are not readily accepted by the people for whom they have been designed to serve. Various reasons have been supplied as to why such techniques are unacceptable. The fact that education in South Africa was an "own affair" seems to be the source from which most of the criticism stem from. These techniques are hereunder discussed.

5.4.2 Shortage of classrooms

In order to address this problem the following techniques were implemented:

5.4.2.1 Double session

This is a system whereby a single teacher handles two groups of pupils of the same standard at different intervals. The pupils thus alternate to use the facilities. This system was also aimed at reducing the cost of education per pupil (Molteno, 1988:89). The method of addressing the numerical problem is totally rejected by the teachers and Black communities as among others it forces the teachers to teach very big numbers of pupils with detrimental effect upon learning. According to Christie (1985:26) in 1980 a memorandum of grievances was forwarded to the educational authorities by the Black School Boycott Committee of Port Elizabeth Eastern Cape and Border areas. One of their demands was that double session as a means of addressing the issue pertaining to physical facilities should be discontinued forthwith.

5.4.2.2 Platoon system

Platooning takes on various forms. For example, a school may utilize the facilities in the morning and the second batch of pupils enrolled in the same school may use the facilities in the afternoon. Two schools may alternate, one may use the facilities in the morning while another uses the building in the afternoons. The Third possibility is that the school buildings may be utilized by two different schools in the mornings and in the afternoons.

Guidelines are even supplied by the DET as how to make the platoon system function. (DET, 1991, chapter 34:1-10). This form of addressing the problem of lack of classrooms is totally rejected by the teachers. One of the demands by SADTU (South African Teachers' Union) in its memorandum on 7 August 1991 which was handed over to the educational authorities demanded that platooning be discontinued because of the adverse effect it has on proper learning. The Minister responded by saying that platooning is disliked by everybody, however, it is an essential stopgap arrangement to provide pupils with education (De Beer, 1991:5).

5.4.2.3 Teaching methods

Teaching methods have been directly or indirectly implemented by teachers in order to address the problem of big numbers of pupils they are to teach. CREID (1991:111) asserts that teaching methods as practiced in our schools are characterized by a high level of authoritarianism and passivity, this appears to be due to both the ideology of the education system and conditions like overcrowding and high pupil/teacher ratios. If they have many pupils to teach, it becomes

virtually impossible for teachers to implement strategies aimed at keeping pupils involved, for example, experimentation which requires individual attention. Hurwitz (1964:34) adds by declaring that increased teacher/pupil ratio can lead to falling educational standards and the impairment of the efficiency of the teacher with detrimental effects on the pupils.

5.4.2.4 Teacher/pupil ratio

In order to compensate for shortages of classrooms and teachers, high teacher pupil ratios have been implemented. These are highlighted below:

Table 5.6: Teacher/pupil ratio

Year	Ratio
1946	42,3
1959	54,1
1960	54,7
1969	60,0
1975	49,0
1990	42,7
1991	40,6
1992	40,4
1993	39,5
1994	39,1

(Rose, 1965:210; Jones, 1970:77; Davis, 1972:46; Behr, 1984:191; Du Pisani *et al.*, 1990:21; Strauss, Plekker & Strauss, 1991:21; Strauss *et al.*, 1992:18; Strauss *et al.*, 1993:13; Hofmeyr & Hall, s.a.:29)

The high teacher/pupil ratios as experienced in the Black subsystem of education have been one of the educational problems which contributed to lack of discipline, high failure and dropout rates. This problem is compounded further by the fact that favourable teacher/pupil ratios are enjoyed by other racial groups. For example, the teacher/pupil ratios for Asians, Whites and Coloureds during 1990 stood at 1:20,2, 1:17,4 and 1:23,1 respectively as against 1:42,7 for Blacks (Du Pisani *et al.*, 1990:21).

5.4.3 Bridging course

In order not to create a bottleneck situation at the SSA level which is caused by high failure rates, DET has since 1987 developed a bridging period programme which is aimed at making primary school beginners school ready before a start is made with formal schooling (DET Annual Report, 1990:52). This scheme according to Taylor (1989:33) reduced the high failure rate.

5.4.4 Compulsory education

In order to try to address the problem of those pupils dropping out, DET according to Samuel (1990:25) announced the introduction of compulsory education in certain selected areas. Unfortunately this scheme was rejected on the basis that if education was to be compulsory it has to be free also. Finally there was a feeling that it was wrong to accept compulsory Bantu Education.

5.4.5 Age restriction

In order to address the problems of numbers in schools which DET was unable to cope with in spite of the stopgap arrangements, an age restriction regulation was introduced. According to Samuel (1990:25) during 1981 Standard 9 and 10 students over twenty years and Standard 6, 7 and 8 students over 18 years as well as primary pupils over 16 years were to be forbidden to attend any of the DET schools. This scheme was however not successful as it met with strong resistance from the community. In 1988, DET issued a circular through the Regional Directors to primary school principals in all the seven regions warning them that they would be charged with misconduct if found contravening regulations governing minimum age restriction (Taylor, 1989:5). This however, did not serve as a deterrent to the primary school principals as many underaged pupils found their way through the primary schools.

5.4.6 Building and renovation programmes

In order to house the rapidly increasing number of Blacks, Oertel (1982:75) states that during 1978 DET embarked on a programme whereby buildings were repaired, classrooms upgraded and additional classrooms built at existing schools. This was again confirmed by the Director General of DET in his speech on 5 May 1992 when he stated that the schools built in the townships in the 1950's and 1960's were of a poor quality and therefore repaired then. He further stated that DET would be building 2520 classrooms for 1992 and additional 2766 for 1993 (Louw, 1992:16).

5.4.7 Taking over of schools no longer required by other educational departments

The statement by Louw (1992:16) that DET would be taking over schools no longer required by other population groups as their educational needs with regard to the provision of physical facilities have been met is a step in the correct direction as an interim measure. This, however, does not address the real issues of providing physical structures where they are needed most that is in the Black residential areas.

5.4.8 Projects by other educationally interested groups

In order to provide solution to the South Africa demographic problems, educationally interested groups provide buildings and tuition to those pupils who should otherwise be without accommodation and therefore not attending schools. For example, a church based project called Vuleka which caters for 320 children between Grade 0 and Std. 1 is being run in the buildings and grounds of ten churches in the White suburbs in Johannesburg (CREID, 1991:97-98).

5.4.9 Automatic promotions

Before 1978 pupils in lower standards that is SSA to Standard 2 were promoted automatically (Vos & Brits, 1987:92). This was aimed at reducing the high failure rate at the lower primary level. This is, however, not the case at present.

5.4.10 Remedial education

In order to ensure that the failure and dropout rates are kept to the minimum, remedial education is given to the pupils in the primary schools (Vos & Brits, 1990:86). In this way pupils who could not have made it at the end of the year pass because of such an assistance. Enough space is therefore created for those pupils who are promoted to the next standards.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Number as a determinant of the education system for Blacks was discussed as it affects the education system. It has been indicated that the number of people in a particular area influences the provision of education in that particular area and that the number of schools should accommodate all the pupils. There is therefore the need for scientific projections to determine increasing or decreasing population numbers. The effects of not giving the numbers due consideration and the techniques which have been or are being implemented were discussed. It should be

pointed out that these techniques unfortunately indirectly defeat the ends of education they purport to upgrade. Other better methods of addressing the numerical aspects within the Black subsystem in South Africa should be looked into.

5.6 SPACE AS A DETERMINANT OF SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

5.6.1 Orientation

The selection of locality is influenced by a number of reasons, such as employment, facilities and the lie of the land. According to Steyn (1991:71) the spatial aspect considers issues such as settlement patterns of the people and whether these people live in rural or urban areas. The South African situation is a very complex one because of the laws which have forbidden some people to stay and develop certain areas, and because of the fact that it is not wholly urbanized. The education system has therefore to cater for urbanized and rural areas.

Urbanization is taking place at a rapid pace. The education system should not lose sight of this important fact. The following aspects which have an effect on the spatial aspect as a determinant of the education system are looked into.

5.6.2 Homelands

The Homelands as an extension of the policy of separate development confined people of the same ethnic origin to the same area. Migration to the cities by the homeland dwellers was unthought of. Schools had to be built at these areas in compliance to the principle of demand and supply. CREID (1991:53) has it that by 1975 the majority of schools for ethnic groups were built in the Homelands rather than in the urban areas.

5.6.3 Urbanization process as having an effect on the spatial aspect

In the years after the Second World War (1939-1945) industries grew rapidly as did the cities. Thousands of Black people from the rural areas flocked into the cities in search of work and a better life (Fleisch, 1995:1). The mining industries in particular employed a lot of people from the rural areas who at times brought along their families.

Black residential areas near the mining areas developed that way. The developments of these areas were coupled with the building of educational

institutions in order to attend to the spatial needs of the urbanized Blacks. Griffiths (1991:158) has estimated that by the year 2 000, 40 000-50 000 hectares of additional land will be required for the PWV (Pretoria, Witwatersrand and Vaal) areas for settlement. This could be attributed to the fact that the cities in respect of the mentioned areas are becoming bigger and bigger or that such areas are attracting a lot of people. The educational system must take earnest note of this.

5.6.4 Provision of educational facilities as having a bearing on the spatial aspect

The provision of facilities and access to them in both rural and urban areas is inadequate (Craig, 1990:25-26). Balance is not maintained between the number of Junior Secondaries as well as the Senior Secondaries in rural areas. There are more Junior Secondary schools in rural areas than full high schools and students thus have to move within rural areas usually to larger subcentres in order to matriculate (Craig, 1990:260). This arrangement could be inconvenient to the learners because it could involve travelling long distances.

5.7 TECHNIQUES WHICH HAVE BEEN IMPLEMENTED IN ORDER TO ADDRESS THE SPATIAL ASPECT

Various techniques have been implemented by the South African government in order to try to address the spatial problems. The techniques as implemented by the government to attend to spatial requirements were approved by the Black sector of the community as they were possibly viewed as the mechanisms by which the ills of apartheid could be corrected. These techniques will be deliberated upon.

5.7.1 The 99 years leasehold schemes in Black townships in South Africa

The scheme was introduced in order to assist Blacks to own land in Black residential areas (Development Southern Africa, 1987:3). The scheme resulted in the provision of health and educational services in the Black residential areas to cite but a few. Because of this scheme more land was made available in order to counteract illegal squatting.

5.7.2 The scrapping of influx regulation

The influx regulation was aimed at restraining "illegal" inhabitants from entering certain areas in South Africa. This regulation was relaxed in 1985. One of the implications of the relaxation of the influx regulation one could infer, among others,

was to make land available for the inflow of inhabitants to the so called urbanized areas. This could have an adverse impact on the availability of space for the building of educational facilities.

5.7.3 Repealing of Group Areas Act

This act was closely connected to the Influx regulation as the pillars of apartheid or separate development as it is also known. Group Areas Act was also done away with when the Nationalist Government began to negotiate with some political parties and liberation movements a new democratic political dispensation for South Africa prior to the democratic elections in 1994. That made it possible to obtain sites outside a specific group area as it is necessary at times to do that. One could therefore infer that the scrapping of the Group Areas Act made it possible for the authorities dealing with Black affairs to obtain additional land within other areas previously not theirs.

5.7.4 Conclusion

Seeing that a lot of people are migrating to the urban areas while others are still remaining in the rural areas, the Black education system will therefore be compelled to implement a dual system of educational provision that caters for the spatial needs of the rural and urban populace according to their special educational needs. The recent declaration by the DET that it could work on the educational policy that will ensure that pupils in squatter areas are optimally catered for should be viewed as a positive step (DET Annual Report, 1990:22). This will eradicate the bad practice in which other areas have no or insufficient educational facilities to address their problems.

5.8 MOVEMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM WITH REGARD TO THE BLACK SUBSYSTEM

5.8.1 Orientation

South Africa as a developing country like all the other developing countries is experiencing migration to the cities. This statement is supported by Sibeko (1989:5) who has asserted that urbanization is an international phenomena not unique to South Africa and is closely related to the level of industrialization of a country. Though urbanization is not unique to South Africa, the nation experiences unique problems because of its uniqueness as a separate entity.

People are migrating to the cities in great numbers, making it impossible for the local authorities to house them properly. These people resort to informal settlements also known as squatter areas in order to address their settlement problems. The squatters create problems for educational planners. According to Palen (1987:343), shanty towns or squatter areas are built illegally. Therefore the inhabitants of these areas cannot demand city services with the result that schools are rare. The number of informal settlements is set to increase rapidly in South Africa as a lot of people are migrating to the cities where conditions are seen to be favourable.

Statistics vary concerning the number of black people who will live in urban areas in South Africa, but whatever the differences, they all paint a bleak future if nothing positive is done to address the problems. Matlock (1988:16) asserts that the Black population will probably increase from less than 40% urbanized in 1980 to about 60% urbanized in the year 2 000. This is an indication that South Africa should start working on mechanisms that would address the urban explosion by then. Griffiths (1991:163) has categorically declared that South Africa has reached a turning point in the urbanisation process as the nation has changed from being rurally orientated to a predominantly urban society requiring specialized attention. It is therefore incumbent upon South Africa to view urbanization positively rather than try to curb it. South Africa should be applauded as it is beginning to view urbanization positively. Until such time that urbanization is carefully managed by the authorities and accepted as an inevitable phase in a development of a country, problems which will originate from people mobility will spill to other areas such as educational, social and economic fields. This will create a vicious circle of events which will be very difficult to break in the future. It is important to highlight reasons as to why people are migrating to the cities in order for one to understand urbanization and how it plays a determining role with regard to the provision of education.

5.8.2 Reasons for migrating to urban areas

Various specialists in their different fields of specialization have supplied differing opinions as to why people migrate from rural areas to urban places. Their reasons, inter alia, include the following:

- * Griffiths (1991:54) makes mention of economic reasons as the factor for urban migration;
- * Hillard (1992:163) views individual freedom as one of the reasons;

- * Choldin (1985:474) has it that rural urban migration is caused by the introduction of modern agricultural technology with more machines and chemicals which tend to diminish the need for agricultural workers;
- * Craig (1990:26) asserts that in the South African context students have historically being perceived as moving to urban areas in order to matriculate, due to shortage of high schools in rural areas.

5.8.3 The effects of urbanization on the education provision of Blacks in South Africa

5.8.3.1 Increase of urban population

Presently there is an education crisis which stem from the inability of the existing physical structures to cope with the pupils enrolments in various phases. This state of affairs could be attributed to a variety of reasons of which urbanization is but one. The situation is going to be worse when the economic situation of South Africa improves. Simkins (1990:8) asserts that the faster the economy grows the more rapid urbanization can be expected to be. Kaiser (1975:9) asserts that people who migrate to the cities tend to be in the child rearing stage. This will therefore require more educational facilities to be erected as a result of the increase of the urban population.

5.8.3.2 Informal or squatter settlements

It is unfortunate that up to recently squatters have been termed "illegals" with no prospects of adequately being catered for in spite of their big numbers. As a point of illustration, Hillard (1992:165) estimated that during 1987-1988 there were 1 310 813 Black squatters in South Africa including the TBVC states and self governing territories. As a result of not being educationally catered for, children from these squatting families are compelled to attend schools near their places of abode where there are educational facilities. This creates accommodation problems for these schools since they have to cater for these children from squatter areas as well as to cater for the children who are "legally" entitled to attend them because of the "legal" residence status.

5.9 TECHNIQUES WHICH WERE OR ARE IMPLEMENTED IN ORDER TO ADDRESS THE PROBLEMS OF MOVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Various techniques have been implemented in South Africa to attend to the mobility issue. It is unfortunate that these techniques bore political connotations. For example, the National Party won the 1948 elections with the promise of maintaining White supremacy and stopping African urban migration (Fleisch, 1995:1). In pursuance to the promise made to the White electorate, techniques as implemented by the government aligned themselves with this idea. These techniques, implemented by the government, with the political connotations they have, were primarily viewed by the Blacks as an extension of the apartheid ideology and were thus vehemently opposed, rejected or circumvented by the Blacks. The following techniques are discussed.

5.9.1 Influx control regulation

It was introduced basically because urbanized areas did not have the capacity to cope with big numbers of those converging on them (Hillard, 1992:164; Development Southern Africa, 1987:3). This form of legislation was aimed at restraining Blacks from entering the urbanized areas which were mostly in the so called White areas. This form of control measure was not effective in curbing illegals as heavy fines did not deter people from squatting (Anon, 1987:56)

The influx control regulation was done away with in 1985 and South Africa witnessed an enormous inflow of rural dwellers to urban areas (Anon, 1989:46). This inflow gave birth to social ills and provided fertile grounds to the people of different political persuasions to criticise the government on the basis that it failed to manage urban population explosion.

5.9.2 Other restrictive legislations

There were other restrictive regulations which were aimed at controlling Black urbanization and stand in the way of free urbanisation. These shall not be discussed in detail here. Olivier (1988:591-592) has stated that other restrictive legislations include the following:

- * Prevention of unlawful squatting Act 52 of 1951.
- * Trespass Act 6 of 1959.
- * Slums Act 76 of 1979.
- * Health Act 63 of 1977.

5.9.3 The creation of the Homelands

Different people including politicians have cited various reasons as to why Homelands have been introduced in South Africa. One is in a position of inferring from Hillard (1992:162-163) that Homelands were created with an aim of curbing urbanisation. Because of the inflow of Homelands dwellers to the cities, the Homeland system as mechanism of curbing urbanization has failed (Hillard, 1992:163).

5.9.4 Aliens Act of 1937

This act contains provision with regard to the entry into South Africa by persons who are not of South African nationality and affects particularly Blacks who are from the neighbouring states (Olivier, 1988:592). Those people who are found to be aliens in South Africa are returned to their countries of origin as a means of counteracting increased numbers. This form of problem solution has been viewed as ineffective as those who are extradicted to their countries of origin tend to come back the next day. A lot of those who are never identified are swallowed in our overutilized educational institutions which are stretched to the maximum especially in urbanized areas.

5.9.5 Combating urbanization by education

In order to control urbanization in South African education was unfortunately sacrificed during the process. Fleisch (1995:4) propounds that education was used to promote the apartheid ideology by:

- * stopping enrolment of all pupils whose parents did not qualify for Section 10 or a right to "live" in an urban area;
- * demanding of a residence permit before a child could be admitted in an urban school (Fleisch, 1995:4).

5.9.6 Conclusion

It has been a pity that South Africa instead of viewing urbanization positively spent a lot of money trying to curb it until recently. The White Paper on Urbanization which was published in 1986 may be seen as a watershed document, because it accepts urbanization as an inevitable phase in the process of development of a country (Griffiths, 1991:151). Catering for the urbanized would not be an insurmountable task as according to Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe (1991:98)

white urbanization has already reached saturation point. Concentration would then be to the other population groups in South Africa. Scientific projections could easily be implemented in South Africa as the largest urban growth arises from a natural increase of urban populations and not from high rates of rural-urban migration (Mabin, 1990:311). Seeing that the numerous issues resulting from migration to the urban areas have confronted the South African authorities since the colonial days, Hillard (1992:162) asserts therefore that urbanization in South Africa has been viewed negatively for a very long period. This mismanagement of urbanization has spilled over to the educational sphere. Another point which makes urbanization difficult to manage especially with regard to the numbers, is the differentiated plural social order in South Africa (Mears, 1988:46). The words of Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe (1991:106) are appropriate and should be considered: "Urbanization must be positively exploited as a constructive opportunity in the social and economic development of regions/states and for improvement in the quality of life for people living there.

This study reveals certain distinguishing characteristics with regard to demography in South Africa, for example, the decreasing birthrates for Whites, Indians, and Coloureds (Education Realities in South Africa, 1991:19), hence the declaration by Louw that the DET would be utilizing schools no longer required by other population groups (see 5.4.7). The study also reveals a very phenomenal growth in numbers with regard to Black pupils in educational institutions and the inability of the educational officials to address this problem. There was also an attempt by the government to keep people of the same colour and race together at certain residential areas, though this practice has since been discarded.

In order to address the problems of demography as a determinant of the South African education system, the study reveals among others, the implementation of the following techniques: high teacher/pupil ratios, implementation of double sessions and platooning systems, age restricting regulations for the beginners, compulsory school renovation programmes and lately the scrapping of the influx regulation and the repealing of the Group Areas Act.

5.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter demography as a determinant of the South African education system of Blacks was discussed and the techniques which have been and are presently implemented to attend to those problems.

It also became evident that the demographic factors are very difficult to present as distinct, separate entities because of their interconnectedness. Problems which manifest themselves from a particular demographic factor always resurface in a different form in the other demographic factors. This therefore places an onus on the education system to attend to the various forms by which the demographic problems manifest themselves so as to avoid a vicious circle which will be very difficult to break.

It appears that amongst others, some of the demographic problems stem from lack of finances especially with regard to the number aspect. Money also should never be viewed as a panacea for all the demographic problems.

In chapter 6 the summary, findings and recommendations pertaining to this study will be presented.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present a summary of the whole study as discussed in the previous chapters. The research findings, similarities and differences pertaining to demography with respect to the countries under discussion will be presented. Recommendations emanating from this research will subsequently be made.

6.2 SUMMARY

The problems of the research were stated as follows:

- * What is the theory on demography as a determinant of an education system?
- * How does the Japanese education system take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * How does the Nigerian education system take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * How does the South African education system (Black-subsystem) take cognisance of its demographic conditions?
- * Are there any lessons that the South African education system can learn from the Nigerian and the Japanese education systems?

Derived from the problems of the research, the aims of the research were operationalised as follows:

- * to investigate the theory on demography as a determinant of the education system;
- * to investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the Japanese education system;

- * to investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the Nigerian education system;
- * to investigate how the demographic conditions are taken cognisance of by the South African education system; and
- * to investigate lessons that the South African education system can learn from the Nigerian and the Japanese education systems.

In order to accomplish the aims of the research, the literature study as a method of investigation was engaged.

In chapter 2 some theoretical guidelines pertaining to demography as a determinant of the education system were presented. These guidelines served as a background to the understanding of how the education system functions although the education systems themselves are unique entities. The foundation was therefore laid for the understanding of how the countries under discussion namely, Japan, Nigeria and South Africa handle their education systems with regard to demography.

In the discussion of the demographic issues it became clear that such issues play a determining role with regard to the education systems and that it would indeed be a big mistake to ignore them, after all education systems are meant to satisfy the educational needs of the target group (Steyn, 1991:34).

The following concepts were also discussed:

- an education system as an entity that is ultimately aimed at the provision of educational needs of its target group (cf 2.2.1);
- an educational policy which aims at giving direction to the education system with regard to, inter alia, the content in order to solve the educational needs of the target population (cf 2.2.2.1);
- an educational system administration which, although there is not yet consensus among various comparative educationists, relates to the structural and functional organization of the education system i.e. the way in which the functionaries and personnel in the education system are organised as well as their functions which are aimed at creating an educational situation conducive to effective educative teaching (cf 2.2.3);

- the structure for teaching which indicates the combination of all educational institutions at all four educational levels viz. the pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels (cf 2.2.4); and
- the educational support services which are specialised services needed to improve the quality and effectiveness of the educational activities such as those related to educators, the teaching activities and structures and learners (cf 2.2.5).

In chapter 3 demographic issues which affect the provision of education in Japan were discussed. The Tokugawa period (1600-1687), the Meiji period (1867-1912), and education in occupied Japan (1945-1952) were looked into in order to highlight the fact that some of the educational problems which are experienced in Japan had been inherited from the past. The various manifestations of numbers as an aspect of demography as well as the techniques which are implemented to address such problems were discussed. The same procedure was followed with regard to space and movement. Subsequently, lessons which could be learnt from the Japanese system of education were highlighted.

In chapter 4 the Nigerian education system was discussed. The traditional African education, Islamic education, missionary education and colonial education were looked into because of the determining influence they had upon the provision of education in Nigeria. The various manifestations of demography as a determinant of the Nigerian education system were looked into, as well as the techniques which are implemented to answer to such ills. Subsequently, lessons which could be of value to the South African situation were presented.

In chapter 5 the South African education system was discussed. Missionary education and Bantu education were looked into because of the determining influences they had upon the provision of education in South Africa. A presentation of the various manifestations by which demography unfolds itself was done. The techniques which are implemented in order to address these demographic problems were also made mention of.

6.3 FINDINGS

It is of great importance, as indicated earlier, that the demographic issues pertaining to any country be taken cognisance of by their governments. Taking into account the three countries under discussion, it is realized that attempts are sought

to address the demographic ills. However, some of the techniques as practiced in these countries are terribly unpedagogic as a result of lack of space, economic constraints within which they are to function as well as political interferences.

6.4 SIMILARITIES

In going through the research, the following similarities in demographical characteristics are found:

- high population numbers;
- high teacher-pupil ratios;
- continual movements of people to and from the urban centres;
- lack of space for settlement and consequently for educational institutions;
- lack of enough educational facilities e.g. educational resources; and
- implementation of unique strategies by each country in order to answer to the unique demographic problems.

These similarities occur despite each country experiencing unique demographic conditions.

6.5 DIFFERENCES

Differences manifest themselves as a result of the techniques employed by each country in order to answer to its demographic problems. These include:

- the way in which numbers are attended to by the education systems e.g. the contribution of the private sector to education, censuses, equal educational opportunities, entrance examinations, the contribution of the Yobiko, family planning devices, and home-test workbooks in Japan (3.5.2), shift system, age restrictions through compulsory registration of births, automatic promotions, technological aids and school fees in Nigeria (cf 4.6), double sessions, platoon systems, teaching methods, teacher-pupil ratios, bridging courses, compulsory education, age restrictions, buildings and renovation programmes, taking over of schools no longer required by education

departments, projects by other educationally interested groups, automatic promotions and remedial education in South Africa (cf 5.4).

- the way in which space as a determinant of the education system is made use of e.g. large classes, school district residence regulations, erection of school buildings, reclamation processes, the contribution of the school and community in Japan (cf 3.6.2), ethnic boundaries, urbanization processes in Nigeria (cf 4.8) and the 99-year leasehold scheme, the scrapping of the influx regulations and the repealing of the Group Areas Act in South Africa (cf 5.7);
- the way in which movement as a determinant of the education system is attended to by the education systems under discussion e.g. teaching and learning pace, the contribution of the Kumi, establishment of various industries, kinship system, availability of work opportunities, salary incentives for teachers and industrial development of backward areas in Japan (3.7.2), movement of the Federal Capital from Lagos to Abuja, industrial locations, establishment of satellite towns, government policy regarding movement and the Town Country and Planning Ordinance in Nigeria (cf 4.10), influx control regulations, other restrictive regulations viz. Prevention of unlawful squatting Act 52 of 1951, Trespass Act 6 of 1959, Slums Act 76 of 1979 and the Health Act 63 of 1977, the creation of the Homelands, Aliens Act of 1937 and combating urbanization by education in South Africa (cf 5.9).

Other differences among the countries under discussion manifest themselves in the following:

- dropout rates in South Africa and Nigeria are higher as compared to Japan;
- salary incentives for the teachers to work in backward areas are implemented in Nigeria as against Japan and South Africa;
- literacy rates are higher in Japan as compared to South Africa and Nigeria due to the demographic problems like dropouts and failure rates experienced by the latter countries;
- employment opportunities for school leavers are readily available in Japan as against South Africa and Nigeria. This serves as a motivation for Japan learners not to drop out of schooling before completing their studies;

- teacher shortages are experienced in Nigeria and South Africa and not in Japan;
- over-aged enrolments are a normal feature of the Nigerian and South African education systems as against Japan;
- under-aged enrolments are a common feature of the Nigerian and South African education systems while this is not the case with respect to the Japanese education system; and
- textbook shortages are experienced in Nigeria and South Africa while this is not the case with Japan.

Although there are similarities in the demographical characteristics of the three countries under discussion, there are more differences than similarities with regard to Nigeria and South Africa as compared to Japan perhaps because of Japan's First World status against both Nigeria and South Africa's Third World statuses.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following issues merit closer attention by the educational authorities in South Africa:

- * Under-aged enrolments
 - Children who are under-aged should under no circumstances be allowed in the primary schools. Primary schools cannot compensate for pre-primary education even if funds were in abundance. The Japanese situation of handling this issues is worth emulating (see 3.3.2).
 - In-service training courses for the teachers should be done on a continual basis in order to curb the high failure rates since the available educational facilities cannot adequately accommodate pupils who are rightfully in certain grades and those pupils who have to repeat those grades (cf 5.3.4).

Each school should have a functionally effective remediation team. Pupils experiencing learning problems should be referred to this unit or to the support services, depending on the magnitude of their

problems so as to facilitate the movement of pupils through the grades. This will curb the problem of high numbers of pupils in classes due to failures that could be avoided through proper and effective remediation programmes. This is especially so in the light of the high school population growth rate in South Africa which implies new entries into the education system every year (cf 5.3.1.2).

- Under-qualified teachers should gradually be replaced by qualified teachers who will also be remunerated accordingly. As a point of illustration, Webb and Erwee (1990:88) asserts that the quality of teaching is affected by the morale of a teacher. The teacher who is under-qualified works for a low salary in a system in which he has little faith and to which he or she cannot be fully committed. Replacing under-qualified teachers with qualified teachers and the resultant improvement of the quality of teaching will go a long way towards addressing the problem of high numbers of pupils due to high failure rates.
- School disruptions motivated by politics should be condemned by all stake holders in education as they lead to loss of precious time and contribute to failures which result in high numbers of repeaters in classes thereby impacting on the availability of space (cf 5.3.8).

* Dropouts

In order to curb dropping out, the researcher recommends the following:

- That education for Blacks should be made relevant and adequate for the needs of the industrialised and technologically based economy of South Africa which Nel and Nel (1990:3) found not to be the case in South Africa. This will curb the drop out rate because pupils will be motivated to complete their school since they will have confidence and some assurance of being easily absorbed into the industrial market thereby easing the problem of high numbers (cf 5.3.11).
- Education should be made compulsory up to and including standard 8. This will curb dropping out and ensure that pupils go through their entire schooling. This will also ensure that projections for the provision of facilities and personnel becomes easier.

- The platooning referred to (see 5.4.2.2) and double sessions (5.4.2.1) as a means of attending to severe overcrowding should be phased out. This system is a mockery of true education.

- * Educational facilities

The seriousness of providing enough educational facilities is manifested in rising aspirations, the population explosion and the requirements for modernity, qualified teachers and appropriate school facilities necessary to meet the demands for education (Hanna & Hanna, 1971:91).

In order to address the burning desire of providing enough facilities, the researcher recommends that:

- Communities should become jealous custodians of the educational facilities which are already in existence by protecting them against vandalism.
- "White schools" which according to Coetzer (1989:50) are experiencing underutilisation of their educational facilities because of the declining birth rates in the white population, should understand and accommodate the demographic realities of South Africa by admitting people of all races. Schools should be used only for the purpose for which they were established.

- * Census data

The researcher recommends that reliable census data should be made available in South Africa. Pollock (1968:319) points out that sufficient accurate information was in many cases not available, especially census data such as the size, sex and age structure of the African population. Accurate census data serves as a basis around which thorough planning hinges and should therefore be viewed in a very serious light.

- * Urbanisation and immigration

The government should ensure that people who live in squatter areas are adequately catered for educationally. Confining people to rural areas against their wishes will never succeed. With regard to illegal immigration, strict measures should be implemented to curtail the movement of those people to South Africa as those people are a hindrance to any population projections.

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has recapitulated issues deliberated upon in the previous chapters. The findings, similarities, differences emanating from the study have been made. Subsequently, recommendations based on the findings were also presented. These have highlighted the seriousness and implications of demography as a determinant of the education system. The problems experienced due to demographic factors in other countries as compared to South Africa have underlined the possibilities of devising strategies to solve these problems. Though seemingly insurmountable at first, the problems of demography in South Africa can be solved as is seen in the countries studied.

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