CHAPTER 3 : CURRICULATION APPROACHES TO PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 has shown that there is a chain of issues which hamper the chances of public relations gaining scientific status and professional recognition. These issues begin with the history of the birth of public relations itself and with the history of public relations education. There is a legacy of public relations education, and that legacy is reflected in the content (the scientific status) of public relations education, for the perspectives adopted in the curriculation of public relations have been strongly influenced thereby.

As the content of public relations education itself has a marked consequence for research, it is clear that countering negative influences of the chain of issues hampering the professionalisation of public relations, offers the most fruitful intervention opportunity at the point of the approach to education which guides the curriculum perspective. For if the content of public relations education is not firmly based on an established body of knowledge, it can hardly be expected that research will yield theory and theory-testing leading to scientific recognition.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

IPRA'S recognition of the use of two approaches to public relations education - one which offers technician level education, that is, *vocational education*, and the other which offers an educational background appropriate for management, that is, *generic education* - provides an appropriate point for launching investigation. This begins with a close examination of *generic education* and *vocational education*, so that their strengths and their weaknesses in curriculation are revealed. By means of tables covering the period from the 12th to the 20th century, the utilisation of the three curriculum perspectives of Rationalism, Empiricism and Pragmatism and their main educational features are examined with regard to the two educational models concerned. The trend in the history of curriculation as revealed in the tables has been to provide generic education of depth, and which has broadened with the development of civilisation down the ages. From the time of the Industrial Revolution, practical skills have been in much greater demand than in the time when only craftmen's Gilds provided training, and since the Industrial Revolution vocational education has grown in prominence. The trend in

public relations education in the USA has been to commence with practical skills and thus with vocational education. Public relations arriving much later in Europe than its birth in the USA, meant that because of the European approach of regarding education itself as being of great value, and with the long history of developing generic education, public relations education began there with a curriculum of generic education. The examination of the two education models of *generic education* and *vocational education* reveals strengths, but also significant weaknesses. Substantiation of these findings is sought through the analysis of the findings of an investigation done in 1996 in the USA into a *generic education* course and a *vocational education* course in an area of applied communication.

Having established the weaknesses of the two models utilised in public relations education and sought substantiation of these weaknesses by an independent source, consideration is extended to whether or not these weaknesses can be connected with the question of the lack of professionalisation of public relations. In view of the fact that a direct link is established, the latest education model, that of *outcomes-based education*, is examined. The essential point which needs to be confirmed is whether or not the *outcomes-based model* can meet the needs of the curriculation of public relations education, particularly with regard to the weaknesses of the *generic education* model and the *vocational education* model.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Criticism of this evolving model is taken into account, and a proposed interpretation of the UK version called the *competence model* is described. The criticisms of *outcomes-based* education and the findings of the USA investigation are put into relationship with the exigencies of public relations education as revealed earlier.

Finally, issues for the curriculation of, and an appropriate curriculation approach for, public relations education are discussed and a framework is suggested for an *outcomes-based* public relations curriculum.

The study now turns to an examination of the two education models *generic education* and *vocational education*.

3.2 GENERIC VERSUS VOCATIONAL APPROACHES TO EDUCATION

Generic education is general education whose primary focus is the development of the individual; *vocational education* is aimed at training the individual for a particular vocation. *Generic education* seeks to provide the individual with deep background knowledge of the areas studied, while *vocational education* seeks to impart the skills seen as essential for performance in the particular vocation.

Tertiary education that is vocational is offered by technical institutes, polytechnics and, in some countries, technical universities. On-the-job training forms part of tertiary *vocational* (or technical) *training*, and students are ready to enter the work force immediately upon completion of their education and training.

Tertiary *generic education* is university education. University education started as a general, liberal education, and was aimed at producing *"a person possessing an excellent general education, accomplished style, and superior intellect"* (The International Encyclopaedia of Education 1985:5380). The art of the profession the student wished to follow had to be acquired after university study as apprentices or in non-academic courses. Licence to practice, for example as doctor or lawyer, was obtained after successful examination conducted by legally-constituted non-academic bodies, not the university. However, as early as 1809 German universities excluded general liberal education and required students to specialise in advanced disciplines of basic art or science, such as law or medicine. An approach of unity of research and study was adopted. Tutors could promote their own ideas in lectures, and held seminars in which students were actively involved in the current research of the tutor. This led to the development of specialised and brilliant research schools. In order to promote this unified research and study, German universities excluded general liberal education. Intellectual grace, or the ability to marshall knowledge in situations when needed, was seen as more important.

The dawn of the twentieth century brought change. The growth of technology demanded research laboratories so sophisticated that it required special institutions and finance beyond the capacity of learning institutions. Thus we see, in recent times, officially established and funded research institutes, having no connection with education. Another feature of the twentieth century has been the development of the American *"graduate schools"*, offering advanced training for college graduates with a

view to their entering professions. Degrees are conferred, and research training is also given. As the government of the United States of America provides finance, these *"graduate schools"* have been able to do advanced research. (The International Encyclopaedia of Education, 1985:5375-5393.)

Thus, by and large, it can be said that university education is general education on a high level, that it does research of an advanced degree, and that it equips persons to enter professions although the degrees are not seen as licences for the practice of professions. For this, the graduate needs something more. This is in sharp contrast with *vocational education*, which focuses on skills and usually offers a period of industrial training, thus, as said, equipping students for immediate employment upon completion of their course. Tracing both the history and curriculation emphasis of *vocational education* briefly will help to illustrate its particular character.

3.3 HISTORY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND ITS CURRICULATION EMPHASIS

While education began a very long time ago - in China, for example, it goes back more than 3,000 years - *vocational education* has a much more recent history. However, formal vocational training can be traced back to times earlier than the Middle Ages in the UK : the system of trade gild apprenticeships was formalised in 1563 by the Statute of Artificers, and this remained in being until 1814, by which time contemporary practice had changed greatly. Mechanics' Institutes had been established towards the end of the 18th century first in Scotland and then in England, and were initially intended for providing basic tuition in reading, writing and arithmetic for working people. This focus broadened as elementary education became more readily available for the masses, with the first government grants for education being made in 1833. Thus it can be seen that education for the masses, especially once it had economic support from the government, encouraged the vocational establishments to focus more on vocational subject matter. In 1889 local authorities, who by this time held considerable autonomy, were empowered to spend part of tax money on technical instruction. These developments were being fuelled by the Industrial Revolution, for the demand for trained workers was growing continually (Lewis 1984:10-11).

The last-mentioned point - that the Industrial Revolution fuelled the demand for technically-trained workers - is of great importance even at the present time and for the future. Taiwan and Israel are present-day examples of countries which met their manpower needs with vocational and technical education so that they moved from a state of under-development to one of increasing competitiveness with developed countries (Rautenbach 1980:8).

The Board of Education was set up in the UK in 1899 and in 1902 empowered local authorities to provide secondary education. When a Ministry of Education headed by a government minister replaced the Board of Education in 1944 a three-stage system of primary, secondary and further education was established, with secondary education consisting of modern grammar schools and of technical schools. A written examination at the age of eleven years was utilised for a decision on whether a child would enter a grammar school - with a more academic curriculum - or a technical school - with a more practical curriculum. Secondary schooling was provided free after the 1944 Act was passed (Lewis 1984:11).

The fateful examination for eleven-year-olds referred to above highlights a schism in education which can hold far-reaching consequences for the individual. Eliasson (1998:1) states that the purpose of general education is to provide a platform for efficient future learning and that it also acts as a filter. Goodson (1994:62-81) in a history of the London (Canada) Technical School emphasises that with the growing demand for secondary schooling after 1880 in the USA and Canada and the perception that public education should be more closely related to occupational needs, courses were designated either “practical” or “liberal/academic”, and this division re-inforced gender, ethnic and socio-economic inequalities. The division also created conflict over the distribution of resources. There was also fear that social differences between classes would be reduced rather than perpetuated, thus funding became a social class question. The London (Canada) Technical School soon became an institute for those students for whom academic education was not seen as suitable, and thus could be used to reduce overcrowding at academic institutions. Organised labour, however, supported a curriculum with a balance between technical and academic tuition and in 1911 provincial funding for industrial education was approved.

Béret and Dupray (1998:40) state that the education system in France is seen as a filtering system based on scholastic performance - with the demonstration of abstract knowledge being the governing criterion. Technical and practical skills are perceived as attributes of low capacity for abstract thinking and as only worthy when backed by a high level of general education. In France the contribution of training is guided by the value of the formal qualification of general education which the individual holds. When the government made tertiary education more work orientated, the numbers taking higher education courses rose dramatically, as shown by measurements carried out in 1994. In France the contribution of industry to the design of courses of education and training is limited to consultation, so that the emphasis in school remains on general education. In Germany, however, industry is actively involved in negotiating *vocational education and training* content, examination setting and the prescription of both skills and standards, and this guides the content of secondary school education. This practice not only results in the standardisation of skills, but is also constrained by the traditional approaches peculiar to a particular section of industry (Béret & Dupray 1998:37). In a report of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Lewis (1986:20) states that decisions by managers in private and public organisations to start or improve training must be taken within a wider framework than the purely economic, for in the UK such a system has failed to produce the number of skilled workers needed for a modern economy. Béret and Dupray (1998:37-40) also state that when young people in Europe sought higher education in much greater numbers, they found that the market place grants higher recognition to academic secondary schooling plus a tertiary qualification than it did to technical secondary schooling plus a tertiary qualification. In Germany, those with technical secondary schooling found that their ceiling of aspiration was set lower than that of individuals with academic secondary schooling. This factor was considered the main reason for there being very little rise in the numbers of those seeking further education in Germany in the 1990s as compared with France.

Lewis (1984:14-15) says that in 1964 the UK had established 24 Industrial Training Boards with the aim of ensuring an adequate supply of trained personnel for industry and to improve its quality and efficiency. However, by 1983 the number of Industrial Training Boards was reduced to 7, and non-statutory bodies largely assumed their responsibilities. Since 1983 central funding of apprenticeship training has increased in order to maintain the level of training in times of recession, and also so as to move the basis of training away from time-serving.

A report on continuing training in the European Communities (1999) states that in the 1980s Europe became starkly aware of the need to train because of the massive economic re-structuring that was taking place, and this was followed in the 1990s by awareness of the great need to re-train those already at work due to the great technological and demographic changes which had come about.

According to Pittendrigh (1988), *vocational education* in South Africa, as in the UK, was also triggered by industry, in this case the mining industry, from 1890. This led to a wide establishment of technical institutes in all four provinces at that time, and these later became technical colleges, some of which were named Colleges for Advanced Technical Education. A report (RP25/1974) states that these, together with universities, are active in the whole field of tertiary education, the difference lying in their respective function, said to be seen as a greater concentration on the application of knowledge than the knowledge itself. In 1988 the name *Technikon* was adopted for these Colleges for Advanced Technical Education. The educational framework for the curriculation of public relations education is discussed in Chapter 4.

It can be seen that *vocational education* started as the practical training of apprentices but that with the Industrial Revolution far greater numbers of skilled workers were required, and that the concomitant development of education for the masses brought about a separation in approaches to education: that of the abstract and theoretical and that of the practical and technical. The tremendous growth of technology and its inalienable link with economic stability and development exhorts education to give due recognition to technical and practical skills, growing beyond their perception as attributes of low capacity for abstract thinking, as already mentioned, but it also exhorts education to focus on the second part of this evaluation - that technical and practical skills are worthy when backed by a high level of general education. In the introduction to Lewis's work referred to above, Adams and Dupont (1984) provide a definition of *vocational training* which can accommodate such an approach:-

> *Initial and further training in the period after the end of compulsory full-time education, whether this takes place entirely in the educational system or on-the-job.*

These authors also point out (vide) that *vocational training* systems are affected not only by technological development and changes in employment patterns but also by the expansion of compulsory general education. It can thus be said that while training for the particular vocation should form a vital part of the curriculum in further education, general education in the form of acquiring a thorough background knowledge of the field concerned should be the curriculum's pre-eminent basis. It is pertinent, therefore, to examine perspectives adopted in curriculation planning at this point, with *generic education* being seen as university education and *vocational education* as technical education. Such an examination can point to areas of curriculation planning which can be strengthened so that graduates are better equipped for research and the ongoing testing of theory so sorely needed for recognition of scientific status for public relations.

3.4 PERSPECTIVES ADOPTED IN CURRICULUM PLANNING

Kelly (1986:6-62) describes three main perspectives:-

- The perspective of *Rationalism*.

  Rational education is the development of powers in humans which are rational/intellectual. The reasoning mind must rule passion and emotion, for emotion is based on sense experience and yields imperfect knowledge in the form of beliefs or opinions. The rational mind focuses on universal concepts and so generates universal knowledge. Reason itself is thus the base for moral, aesthetic and educational assertions of value. Perfection in people and in society is its aim. It sees knowledge as propositional and, therefore, the rational perspective promotes discussion. St. Augustine and St. Thomas Aquinas reconciled the doctrine of Christianity with the rationalist perspective. Rational concepts are brought to bear on sensory experience, and so transcend it.

- The perspective of *Empiricism*.

  The Empiricist perspective challenges rationalism on all points of its basic premise, in particular on how knowledge is gathered and truth established. It does not accept that knowledge arises only from the rational mind, but accepts knowledge for which

there is tangible evidence as being largely procedural and as being uncertain and hypothetical. It considers that values are relative, man-made and socially constructed. It is thus not tied to the rational/intellectual mind, and can accommodate the emotional. It reflects current thinking in philosophy itself, and the approach to culture and society. It provided a base for development of the physical sciences, which depended altogether on observable experience. Assertions must reflect observable experience.

Kelly says (1986:19) that the polarities of the two perspectives described above are crucial to the education debate, which is concerned with -

questions of knowledge and truth,
human development in the intellectual as well as the emotional dimension,
values - moral, aesthetic, educational, social and political.

- The perspective of *Pragmatism*.

Zais (1976:145) sees man-centred philosophies as products of the late 19th century and early 20th century Western thought. He attributes Pragmatism to two American philosophers, Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914) and William James (1842-1910). These two philosophers, according to Zais (1976:145) said that an idea should not be regarded as a description of reality hidden from direct observation and which can be established by means of scientific method, but an idea should, rather, be seen as *a plan for action*. The validity or the truth of the idea could be accepted/rejected according to whether or not the consequences of such action were what they were predicted to be. Thus experience is the *"raw stuff of reality"*, and is not a thing, but is rather a process, or activity (Zais 1976:147). Kelly (1986:48) says that Peirce coined the term Pragmatism from the point of view that we should consider the effects of the practical bearings of the object of our conception and then our conception of these effects is the whole of our conception of the object.

John Dewey (1916) adopted the perspective of Pragmatism, which is a fusion of Rationalism and Empiricism. Darwin's (1859) establishing a large body of scientific data in order to prove the theory of evolution - which holds that there is a continuous process of change in organisms resulting in the evolving of species - influenced

Dewey (1916) on two counts: the first, that there is a continuous process of change, which is an empiricist view of evolution; and the second, that knowledge is attained by the observational method of the natural scientist. Such knowledge is seen as being tentative, hypothetical and subject to continuous change and evolution, and will be the agreement amongst all who view the world rationally as to what constitutes knowledge at any one time. Dewey (1916) applied this approach to social and moral evolution as well. Thus Dewey (vide) conceived of reason or the rational, as being applied to the observational method of the scientist for the confirmation of beliefs or ideas, and he thus rejected subjectivism. Truth so arrived at is considered to be experimental and evolutionary. Flowing from Peirce's view mentioned above that the effects of the object of conception are the whole of conception of the object, Dewey (1938) applied Pragmatism to education and views education as experience. Dewey's (1938) application of Pragmatism to education has yielded the following concepts:-

(1) Knowledge integration

Kelly (1986:52-55) says that knowledge can only be obtained by involvement in the process of knowledge-using and knowledge-getting, and by the experience of developing knowledge in order to solve problems. Thus education planning must start with the devices and strategies by which this kind of experience can be made available to each individual. Education is a process of developing the powers and attitudes of mind which make possible the continued evolution of knowledge. Rogers (1969:104) states that education must rely on process rather than on static knowledge, while Zais (1976:145) explains the foregoing aspect of Pragmatism as *"ideas have future rather than past reference, so that knowledge of the good is constructed from experience by each individual as he/she experiences consequences of ideas put into action"*. Zais (1976:148) says that there is a critical weakness of pragmatism epistemology on this point, for we all know that there will be substantial disagreement among individuals over what works best - in fact, we should have to return to the question of what is "good". The only reasonable answer for Pragmatism is the democratic one - a consensus of informed opinion - which Kelly (1986:42) describes as *"the agreement amongst all who view the world rationally as to what constitutes knowledge at any one time"*.

Pragmatist knowledge is thus not received, as in the Rationalist perspective, neither is it discovered - it is, rather, constructed from human experience (Zais 1976:148).

While knowledge integration is a goal of *outcomes-based* education, there is difficulty with this concept as assessing by results does not ensure learning by consequences as intended by Pragmatism. The planned standards of competence which are divulged to learners at the outset of the course, hardly allow the process of knowledge-getting by experience. This can only be seen as effective for basic single-solution situations.

(2) Holistic learning

Holistic learning is learning which is intellectual, emotional and physiological. Yet it also includes an even more discriminating property. As the human being is involved in the process of knowledge-using and knowledge-getting as described in (1), such knowledge will be integrated into thought processes which are connected so as to yield fruitfulness. Zais (1976:254) describes this most succinctly : *"Learning is the sudden restructuring of integrated wholes - in other words, insight."*

With regard to *outcomes-based* education, focusing upon results strongly is likely to hinder insight, for it comes more in the process of reflection upon the varying aspects of a matter and their connections, than in dwelling upon a pre-set standard.

(3) Learner-centred

Flowing from activity processes which promote insight as described in (2), the curriculum compiled according to principles of Pragmatism will foster growth in intelligence. Zais (1976:151) says that the mechanism for this will be the selection of subject matter according to students' capacity to derive meaning from it, which, in turn, means that students must be able to incorporate it into their experience through its usefulness in pragmatic projects.

Zais (1976:147) says that as reality *is* human experience, it should be described as *human experiencing*, a reciprocal exchange between the individual and the environment. In this exchange, the individual associates intentional actions with consequences. This is where intelligence operates, for intelligence is defined (Zais

1976:148) *"as the degree to which individuals comprehend at increasingly sophisticated levels the connections that exist between their actions and the environment's response (i.e. the consequences of the action)"*. It is, however, the *evaluation* of those *consequences* which Zais (vide) pointed to (as stated above) as the critical weakness of Pragmatism. Zais (vide) says that a good decision is only likely from the consensus of *informed* opinion, for we have seen that popularity polls are a bad basis for decision-making.

It is important that this concept be seen not only as an outcome in *outcomes-based* education, but as a concept to be focused upon by tutor and learner in the process of the course.

(4) Problem-solving orientation

The concepts (1), (2) and (3) above lay a sound basis for problem-solving, but Kelly (1986:52) says that knowledge cannot be obtained by the assimilation of information, it can only be gained by the experience of developing knowledge in order to solve genuine problems. Developing the ability to solve problems is how new knowledge is obtained and is the reason why knowledge is in a constant state of evolution, thus education is a process of developing the powers and attitude of mind which make possible the solution of problems. Increased knowledge is not the aim. The goal is self-realisation. The emphasis should be on the quality and the nature of the learning experience rather than upon the content. Rogers (1969:104) sums up the goal of education: *"Changingness, a reliance on process rather than upon static knowledge, is the only thing that makes sense as a goal for education in the modern world."*

This reference of Rogers (vide) to a reliance on process should be the watchword for *outcomes-based* education, as too strong a focus on "results" might insinuate stage-management procedures of "competence" - as suggested for practitioners by Actor-network theory!

(5) Action-orientation

Action-orientation is a transactional event - the individual associates intentional actions with particular *wanted* consequences. Zais (1976:148) says that thereby

unwanted random effects are reduced while control over our lives is increased. This strengthens the claim made in (4) above that the goal is self-realisation. This action-orientation plays itself out in practical application, which results in human experiencing, and this results in the *process of knowing*, or reality.

Practical-orientation is also a basic tenet of *outcomes-based* education. It must be remembered that even negative experience can be of value and contribute to the maturation process. Practical application to unrehearsed situations demands knowledge assimilation, which learners have the greatest chance of experiencing in the working situation. The competence-based model of *outcomes-based* education, in which the learner associates intentional actions with wanted consequences, can cater for Action-orientation very well.

(6) Social Referencing

Kelly (1986:46-52) says that as Pragmatism sees knowledge as being tentative and hypothetical and subject to continuous change and evolution, knowledge is regarded as something which is not static and is thus tied very strongly to the present. Thus what is recognised as knowledge at any one time will have to be agreed amongst all who view the world rationally.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Zais's (1976:148) point mentioned earlier that there will be substantial disagreement and that the only answer is the democratic one - the consensus of *informed* opinion is most likely to produce a good choice - is also relevant here. However, it should be observed that this will hold the obstacle of being a greatly *time-consuming process*. Once again, in *outcomes-based* education, the process will need to accommodate this.

(7) Education as growth and growth as measure of evaluation

Dewey (1938) sees growth as education and education as growth. However, he also sees it as important that growth should create conditions for further growth. Otherwise, such growth could, in reality, shut the individual off from occasions, stimuli and opportunities for continuing growth in new directions.

It must be pointed out here that this could very easily happen with *vocational education* where, due to an insufficient theoretical base, advancement beyond technician level can

be unlikely.

> Kelly (1986:52) says that after education provides experience for building knowledge, it must be a process of growth. Thus Kelly (1986:207) sees education as the growth of competence, but it must embrace competence of all kinds, such as in interpersonal relations. Rogers (1969:104) says that the quality of growth is the measure of evaluation for further growth. Dewey (1938) says that as growth can only be relative to further growth, education itself is only subordinate to more education. Its success can only be evaluated by the criterion of growth. Thus content assimilated cannot be a measure of education any more than can extrinsic objectives attained. Further growth - or further education - can only be evaluated by the quality of growth - or the quality of education.

While this is a valued concept in *outcomes-based* education, it is exceedingly difficult to nurture. The focus on assessment by demonstrated consequences, these being seen as “good enough” after having been made available to learners at the outset, seems to sabotage any such intentions. Once again, a great deal of responsibility will be thrown onto the process between tutor and learner.

Education as growth and growth as a measure of evaluation leads to the concept of Lifelong Learning.

(8) Lifelong Learning

Brodbelt (1983:72) says the idea of lifelong education was first introduced by Henry Adams. It follows from the previous descriptions of concepts that the Pragmatist approach to education aims to yield an individual who is seeking solutions to problems in the immediate present, seeing knowledge as a stock continually being built, so that knowledge is ever in the process of becoming. Moreover, such a learner sees herself as an active contributor to the building of knowledge, this attitude engendering an approach of confident and thus relaxed attentiveness. Kelly (1986:57) said that Dewey’s (1916) social theory is that democracy itself must be open to change and so evolve, and so must education. Society, that is a democratic society, must accept responsibility for continued evolution and development. Thus Kelly (1986:52) states that education has no end, it is an end,

for it should be seen as a continuous lifelong process.

Lifelong Learning has been adopted as a basic tenet of *outcomes-based education*.

Concepts in Pragmatism have given rise to the popularisation of different approaches to tutoring. *Andragogy* versus *pedagogy* has given rise to much debate, and as this debate impacts upon the utilisation of perspectives in curriculation, this will be briefly considered next.

3.5 PEDAGOGY VERSUS ANDRAGOGY

Hartree (1984:203) says *andragogy* is derived from the Greek 'aner' meaning 'man'. Davenport and Davenport (1985:152) explain that the word was first coined by the German teacher Alexander Kapp, who used it to explain the educational theory of Plato (Nottingham Andragogy Group 1983), and by the 1960s it was being extensively used in France, Yugoslavia and Holland. Hartree (1984:203) says that it had first been introduced into America in 1927 by Anderson and Lindeman, but only became popularised by Knowles in the 1960s. According to Warren (1989:212) Knowles (1970) defined *andragogy* as the art and science of helping adults learn. Hartree (1984:204) points out that Knowles (1970) defined *pedagogy* as the art and science of teaching children, and that it is thus not clear whether he is describing a theory of learning or a theory of teaching. Hartree (1984:204) says that because he speaks of *andragogy* 'versus' *pedagogy*, he implies a dichotomy between the two. Several authors express doubt about Knowles's (1978) statements on these two concepts. For example, Thompson (1989:2-3) says that as Brookfield (1986) has noted, not all adults possess the skills and experiences necessary for self-directed learning. Feuer and Geber (1988:32) refer to the comments of one of Knowles's graduate school professors, Houle, that his assumptions about adult learners could never be the foundation for a unifying theory of adult learners because adults and children learn in basically the same way and so Houle also questioned the claim that adults are more life-centred and problem-oriented in their learning. Brookfield (1986) agrees with Houle, according to Feuer and Geber (1988:32), stating that much of adults' most joyful and personally meaningful learning is undertaken with no specific goal in mind. Davenport and Davenport (1985:153) mention that Jack London (1973) also disagrees with Knowles's (1978)

dichotamous approach to education, stating that some principles of *andragogy* can be applied to children, and suggested that adult educators were seeking status by adding to a field already overburdened with jargon.

With regard to Lifelong Learning, Peter Jarvis, in an interview with Spear, ed., (1986:13-15) stated that he sees adult education as an area of growing significance, but feels that Knowles's (1970) theory of *andragogy* focuses too heavily on the needs of the individual learner and insufficiently on those of the wider society. The focus of the *andragogy* of Knowles as compared with *pedagogy* is shown on the following table:-

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Table 5: A comparison of the Assumptions of *pedagogy* and *andragogy* - following Knowles

	PEDAGOGY	ANDRAGOGY
The learner	- dependent Teacher directs what, when, how a subject is learned and tests that it has been learned	- moves towards independence - self-directing Teacher encourages and nurtures this movement
The Learner's Experience	Of little worth. Hence teaching methods are didactic	A rich resource for learning. Hence teaching methods include discussion, problem-solving, etc.
Readiness to Learn	People learn what society expects them to, so that the curriculum is standardized	People learn what they need to know, so that learning programmes are organized around life application
Orientation to Learning	Acquisition of subject matter. Curriculum organized by subjects	Learning experience should be based around problems, since people are performance centred in their learning

(Spear 1986:15)

Jarvis, according to Spear (1986:14) questions whether we should see students as the potential products of a system, or whether educational agencies should see their task as one which helps individuals to develop and mature *"to create a critical awareness of society, so that they are able to both help create and recreate the social system"*. Thus, says Jarvis, we choose a system which either moulds people, or one which allows them to develop as human beings. These two approaches are shown by Jarvis in the table below:-

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Table 6: **The Two Educations as Curricular Models**

	Education from Above	Education of Equals
Aims	Individual should be initiated or maintained in the social system and its culture System needs must be met	Individual should be encouraged to achieve his human potential Individual needs should be met
Objectives	Specific and behavioral objectives employed	Expressive objectives utilized
Content	Selected from culture of the social group by those delegated by society Initiates individuals into publicly accepted knowledge, its forms and structure	Selected from culture of the social group(s) by learners, often in negotiation with teachers, according to interests and relevance Problem based on knowledge integrated rather than structured
Methods	Didactic Socratic, when directed towards specific learning outcomes Teacher seeks to control learning outcomes Teacher's role clearly demarcated and regarded as essential to learning	Facilitative Socratic, when seeking to stimulate learning Teacher seeks no control over the learning outcomes Teacher's role less clearly demarcated and not regarded as essential to learning
Assessment	Public examination, competitive, Teacher sets tests Emphasis upon standards	Self assessment by learner Peer assessment Emphasis upon learning

(Spear 1986:14)

It is clear that the underlying objective of enabling students to develop so that they can both create and re-create society, will be a much more complex task in multi-cultural situations, such as in South African institutions of higher education, than it will be in situations of one clearly dominant culture.

As already mentioned, the approach of *andragogy* has been seen as very important, but it has been challenged by the concept of *student-centred* education. Boyer (1984:17-20) illuminates the common thread in the *andragogy* approach of Knowles (1974) and the *student-centred* education of Rogers (1969). Boyer states (1984:18) that both approaches stress *holistic* learning, that is intellectual, emotional and physiological, and

that both have lifelong learning as their goal. Boyer (1984:18) provides in Table 7 a comparison of these approaches with regard to five basic features essential to any educational process:-

Table 7: **A Comparison of the Principles of Teaching in *andragogy* and *student-centered education***

	Andragogy[a]	Student-Centered[b]
Context	Establish comfortable climate. Promote Trust.	Set initial learning climate of trust.
Resources	Assist in resource selection.	Organize resources.
Student	Accept learners. Assist in clarification of aspirations, needs, objectives evaluation criteria and self-evaluation.	Accept intellectual and emotional aspects of learner. Trust the meaning-bestowing and motivational traits. Recognize significant needs.
Learning	Assist in interpretation of meaning.	Elicit and clarify individual and group response.
Self	Share and contribute: participate as a resource.	Initiate the sharing of self. Become a resource and learner. Recognize and accept self-limitations.

[a]Knowles, 1970,pp.52-53.
[b]Rogers, 1969,pp.164-166.

(Boyer 1984:18)

Boyer shows that there is little difference between these two approaches. Boyer (1984:19) provides a comparison of the assumptions of *andragogy* and *student-centred* education, and summarises the comparison under "comments":-

Table 8: **A Comparison of the Assumptions of *andragogy* and *student-centered* education**

	Andragogy[a]	Student-Centered[b]	Comments
Self-concept	Increasing Self-directiveness (or independence)	Natural potential Self-purposive Self-responsible Holistic learning	* Basically the same. * Each is founded on concepts like those of self-actualization.
Experience	Learners are a rich resource for learning	Natural potential	* Knowles emphasizes adult experiences, whereas Rogers sees no distinct advantage for adults.
Readiness	Developmental tasks of social roles	Natural potential Self-change threatens Differential learning Active/Practical	* Both basically agree. Rogers cautions about threats.
Time perspective	Immediacy of application	Active/Practical	* Knowles emphasizes time relationships more than Rogers.
Orientation to learning	Problem centered	Self-responsible Active/Practical	* Both emphasize the primacy of active/problem learning.

[a]Adapted from Knowles, 1978,p.110.
[b]Adapted from Rogers, 1969,pp.157-163; see also, Boyer, 1982,pp.59-63.

(Boyer 1984:19)

Boyer (1984:19) affirms that in both approaches shown above, there are existential and humanistic orientations.

Dewey (1966:50), the father of the idea "experiential learning", says that focusing on development is the *sine quo none* of education. He defines development as "*the direction of power in special channels: the formation of habits involving executive skill, definiteness of interest, and specific objects of observation and thought*". Dewey (vide) also insists that in developing the adult, education will be making the adult grow. The adult learner, however, Dewey (1966:50) continues, "*uses his powers to transform his environment*". Steven Weiland (1977:477-490) points out that Dewey (1966) stated clearly that experiential learning is of value to the extent that it is based on "*content of learning and the precision required to master it*". In speaking of the task of technikon

education, Goodey (1987:85-92) states *"Technikons should educate man in his totality"*. While Goodey (vide) agrees that one of the most important tasks of technikons is to provide vocational and technical education, he warns against the training of the so-called *"one-eyed subject idiot"* named by Popma (1969:17).

The foregoing shows *andragogy*, which emanated from Europe as already explained, as promoting the idea of the independence of the learner and of the learner accepting greater responsibility for the learning process. This led Jarvis (Spear 1986:14) to question the idea of seeing students as products of a system - characterised on his table as *Education from Above* - and to promote rather the tutoring approach of the *Education of Equals*, in which the teacher seeks no control over the learning outcomes. This seeking no control over the learning outcomes will be shown later to be the basis of the questioning and of the label "behaviourist" being stamped on the competence-based system of *outcomes-based education* implemented in the UK because of its claimed default in this regard. Jarvis says that the *Education of Equals* tutoring approach does not see students as products in the making, but, rather, as people developing so that they can help to both create and re-create society.

With regard to the *student-centred* approach of Rogers (1969), Boyer (1984:19) shows above that there is little difference between this approach and the earlier *andragogical* approach. *Outcomes-based education* espouses the concept but uses the later label of *student-centred*. It should, however, be observed that by its inherent nature of focusing on results, *outcomes-based education* carries the risk of non-implementation in its processes, is negotiated between tutor and students and, according to Zais (1976:148) as previously explained, will be settled in democratic manner. Rogers's (1969) phrase *"reliance on process"* mentioned above with regard to the Pragmatist concept of problem-solving orientation is particularly relevant here.

Perhaps the most useful Pragmatism concept which *outcomes-based education* espouses is, from the point of view of this study, that of Action-orientation. Its significance to public relations can hardly be over-estimated. The next section examines the perspectives employed in *generic education* and in *vocational education* down the ages, with the objective of assessing their particular foci and contributions, and of revealing the extent to which they utilise important concepts of education and hold

weaknesses.

3.6 THE HISTORY OF CURRICULATION APPROACHES

The three curriculation perspectives of Rationalism, Empiricism and Pragmatism feature strongly in the development of the institutions of university and of technical education. These perspectives are related to marked civilisation changes down the centuries. This relationship, as well as the main educational features associated therewith, are shown in tabular form, covering the periods from the 12th century to the end of the 20th century.

The tables were compiled in the following manner:-

(1) Terry (1989:281-298) was consulted for orientation towards the approach of educator and practitioner in public relations.

(2) Pearson (1989:111-131) was consulted so as to link public relations education with early foundations of perspectives, that is with Rationalism, to confirm the validity of philosophical connection in the enquiry.

(3) The translation of Cornford's (1972) The Republic of Plato was consulted, as it deals with issues of perfection in people and in society on the basis of humanism and versatility, which Plato explains as balance and moderation. Plato also deals in this work with other issues which are central to the perspective of Rationalism, such as Knowledge of the Good (1972:227-235), and Dialectic (1972:250-255).

(4) The three works of Borer (1966a:1966b:1968) were utilised to construct the line of social development, outlining marked civilisation changes. Those considered to have had close effect upon developments in education were extracted and are represented in brief statements.

(5) The contributions of leading figures named in the line of social development were traced by consulting the various volumes of Ford's (1954:1968:1970:1969) Guide to English Literature. These books also supplemented the social history of the various ages.

(6) Tappan's (1940) Brief History of English Literature was also consulted as a supplementary source for relevant contributions of leading figures and of social history.

(7) Collier (1920) provided some facts, for example of Roger Bacon (1920:144-151), which later works omit.

(8) Consulting Russel (1984) not only clarified the development of Western Philosophy through the ages, but helped to pinpoint changes in thinking which presaged marked shifts in political thinking and which eventually influenced the course of education greatly, such as Locke's Theory of Knowledge (1979:584-595).

(9) The table for the 20th century was compiled largely from the material utilised in this study, particularly with regard to curriculation. General and common knowledge has also been used, and it can be seen that only occurrences which are seen as influencing curriculation greatly are mentioned, in order that the impression is streamlined to that of perspectives utilised in curriculation of *university* and *vocational education*.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

(10) The list of sources consulted with page references from which specific points were extracted is given in Appendix 1, but it should be observed that it was also found important to read entire sections in order that the shifts could be perceived, and also that there is overlap in these works of the periods represented in the tables.

The tables show educational features down the ages. Particularly, it can be seen that university education has followed the path of *generic education*. The history of learning and of university education is so intertwined that they cannot be separated. The spirit of inquiry and the promotion of the intellect has led universities to lead the way to scientific development with invention. The inventions have resulted in development in science and machinery and so to the Industrial Revolution. This has brought about a continually growing demand for technological workers, which has augmented demand for technical training since before the beginning of the 19th century. The continually growing demands of technology have increased pressure for career-orientated education in the

20th century.

UNIVERSITY
OF
JOHANNESBURG

Table 9: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION:
12TH CENTURY TO END MIDDLE AGES 1559

INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULATION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
UNIVERSITIES established in Paris, then in Oxford and Cambridge	In England, people began to question the basis upon which the church and the State was organised. New learning was eagerly discussed and people became more aware of the social and religious problems of the day. Medical knowledge from the East came with Crusaders and immigrant Jews from Europe, and virtues of cleanliness and a sound diet were proclaimed. Oxford produced first English physician who practised during early 14th Century. Towards the end of the 14th Century, the printing press was invented in Belgium. By this time, many grammar schools had been founded in England, and teaching was based on Latin. Civil servants, lawyers and doctors used Latin for record. Inns of Court was established in London and gave instruction in Grammar Schools and Universities in English Common Law. Renaissance spurred boldness and freedom of thought in the 15th Century. The discovery of the Americas spurred on efforts to extend human endeavour in many directions. In 1558 Queen Elizabeth came to the throne - to rule a poor nation. She instilled harmony between ruler and ruled, established freedom of religious worship, and the nation prospered, as did the universities and literature and expeditions of adventure. The Middle Ages ended with the Reformation of the Church by 1559.	RATIONALISM: At first, study and disputation of theological questions. Later, returning Crusaders inspired a new interest in the study of the Classics and in physics and mathematics. Renaissance reaching Western Europe brought the re-discovery by scholars of the humanist, versatile individual.	Lecture form and student note-taking. Promotion of morality. Promotion of intellectual and of imaginative powers. Spirit of inquiry. Striving to relate cause and effect. Scientific experiment (frowned on by Church) by Oxford lecturer Roger Bacon. Invention - Roger Bacon experimented in optics and is thought to have invented gunpowder. Faculties of law and science by 1600. Curriculum included Latin, Greek, mathematics and philosophy. Pedagogical to a large extent.
NO INSTI-TUTIONS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION	Craftmen's Gilds were formed by tradesmen and were highly organised. An apprentice had to serve for 7 years in his master's house with the servants before he could become a "journeyman". The gilds were the first trade-unions.	INDIVIDUAL TRAINING: Master trained apprentice in practical craft - the work done by a craftsman was regularly inspected by gild.	Practical and individual - APPLICATION of verbal guidance and practical demonstration. Pedagogical to a large extent.

Table 10: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION:

17TH CENTURY			
INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULATION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
UNIVERSITY	The 17th Century opened in England with the established glory of accomplishment of the humanist, versatile individual cultivated by classical education of ancient Greece and Rome. Such schooling, acting and playwrighting produced the epitome of the ideals of classical education - William Shakespeare, the world's greatest poet and playwright. It also produced Sir Walter Raleigh, who also attended university - an explorer, a colonizer, estate manager, vice-admiral, captain of the guard, courtier, author - and also Sir Francis Bacon, who attended university from the age of 13, who proved to be an author of great wisdom from an early age and eventually became Lord High Chancellor, and who was also a philosopher! Business organisation came strongly to the fore in England in the establishment of the Bank of England, insurance and trading companies, and Lloyd's Coffee House, which gave rise to Lloyd's Shipping Agency. The accumulated reasoning of philosophers and evidence patiently collected by men of science began a transformation in thinking - the acceptance of basic natural laws inherently challenged scriptural dogma, divine right and other dogmatic policy, such as authoritarianism. Scientific instruments, such as the microscope, telescope, thermometer and barometer and their utilitarian value could not be argued against by the power of ancient or theological record. Astronomy was supported by the great advances in mathematics and physics. Locke's *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* of 1690 gave rise to *empiricism* , which holds that all knowledge is obtained from experience. Locke's claim that differences in nature proceed by continuous gradations was accepted following Darwin's theory of evolution acceptance in the 19th Century. Locke also held a theory of labour which was later developed further by Karl Marx. Seeds of democracy are also present in Locke's work, his principle of the division of power having found full application in the constitution of the United States of America. A general revolution of thinking had come about in the seventeenth century in Western Europe.	RATIONALISM	Greek and Roman Classics - less emphasis on lecturing and teaching, greater emphasis on reading and discussion. The main features otherwise much as before, but there was questioning about these - Sir Francis Bacon declared that the aim of university education seemed to be, not to discover new truths, but to go over and over the old ones. He taught that in the study of the action of the human mind or in the study of nature, men ought first to notice how the mind and nature worked, and from this knowledge derive general laws. He was not the first to propose reasoning by induction, but he advocated eliminating all inaccurate, worthless notions and believed that all reasoning should lead to advancement of knowledge and to practical good. In 1632, in his work *Didactica Magna*, John Comenius, A Czek bishop of the Moravian Church, suggested the inclusion of science in the curriculum. Pedagogical to a lesser degree than previously.
NO INSTI-TUTIONS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION		INDIVIDUAL TRAINING of apprentices, as earlier.	As earlier - practical and individual - APPLICATION of verbal guidance and practical demonstration. Pedagogical to a large extent.

Table 11: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION:

18TH CENTURY			
INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULATION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES

UNIVERSITY	The 18th Century saw the rise of prose, with newspapers and novels and the Copyright Act, and reading becoming popular because of the spread of general education. Adam Smith's book *Wealth of Nations* portended business economy of future ages. Correctness and social graces were marks of status, and this correctness percolated education and was applied to Latin composition. Emigration to America meant classical education held influence across the Atlantic, too, although in 1749 Benjamin Franklin proposed for the education of American youth that they be taught those things likely to be useful to the professions for which they were intended. Yet his academy founded in 1751 only developed into the University of Pennsylvania after it had adopted a curriculum of the classical tradition. Whereas the 17th Century in England had passed in comfortable familiarity with the spinning-wheel, the hand-loom and pack ponies, an American John Tucker remarked in 1757 that no country excelled the English in the numbers and contrivances of their machines to abridge labour. Thus practical application of the thinking of great minds was gathering momentum. The second half of the eighteenth century saw the steam engine put to many uses, and the Industrial Revolution began to gain ground, though the great change in market economy was brought about, not by steam engines, but by water-power in the textile mills.	RATIONALISM	Entrenchment of the classical curriculum continued and this largely excluded peoples who had no private means of livelihood and also excluded women. The label of *elitist* became attached to the classical curriculum. Pedagogical approach persevered.
NO INSTI-TUTIONS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION		INDIVIDUAL TRAINING of apprentices, as earlier.	As earlier - practical and individual - APPLICATION of verbal guidance and practical demonstration. Pedagogical approach persevered.

Table 12: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION: **19TH CENTURY**

INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULATION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
UNIVERSITY	Curriculum subject of much controversy following Spencer's	RATIONALISM and also	Classical studies prevailed in England, though

	essay *What Knowledge is of Most Worth*. Royal commissions on schools confirmed the role of liberal humanist study for general cultivation of the intellect and rejected the idea that schools might prepare boys for particular employment. However, in the USA, the economic development and settlement of the West demanded a more flexible education system for skilled manpower, and functional secondary schools caused the decline of the Latin grammar school, while universities established professional schools. However, by the end of the century, entrance to college was controlled by requiring secondary school education akin to the classical and liberal model. This was the beginning of curriculation as a separate study field. Democracy was strengthening.	SCIENTIFIC METHOD and also EMPIRICISM	universities had long offered degrees in law and medicine. German Universities excluded liberal education and specialised in art and/or science, thus focusing on *content* and also on *procedures*. They also established brilliant research schools which resulted in the generation of new knowledge. Science thus became prominent in the university curriculum. Also, the Professional Schools established by American universities were giving advanced TRAINING for particular professions. Pedagogical approach undermined to a significant extent, and *andragogy* began to assert itself with promotion of search for new knowledge.
TECHNICAL COLLEGES	Following the Industrial Revolution in England, the first technical institute was established in Glasgow in 1820, followed by London Technical Institute in 1823. Technical training spread rapidly, with the first polytechnic being established in 1882.	EDUCATION and TECHNICAL TRAINING thus some RATIONALISM, largely EMPIRICISM, and also SCIENTIFIC METHOD.	EDUCATION and TRAINING in mechanical areas of industrial machinery, focusing on *procedures*, *design* and construction, and *repairs*, and other *technological* questions for APPLICATION of SKILLS. Pedagogical approach undermined to some extent, as the potential of new machine inventions encouraged innovation. Thus *andragogy* grew in strength.

Table 13: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION: **20TH CENTURY**

INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULA-TION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
UNIVERSITY	In 1918, the first book devoted to curriculum in all its stages, was produced in the USA. Curriculum design became an established	RATIONALISM EMPIRICISM PRAGMATISM	In addition to classical education, subject disciplines were derived from:- *Humanities,

Table 13: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION: **20TH CENTURY**

INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULA-TION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
	field, and developed throughout the century. The theory of mental discipline was discredited by the developing field of psychology. However, the Great Depression of 1929 caused people to lose confidence in the manufacturing model of education. Curriculum design became an established field in the USA and developed throughout the century. Development of new inventions, such as aeroplanes and the motor-car and petrol engines, sparked diversity in university education as never before. However, in 1957, the surprise launch of the first satellite by Russia caused the USA to grant a billion dollars to upgrade the teaching of science, mathematics, technology and foreign languages - the latter because it was shown that articles in scientific journals had told of the planned satellite launch, but as these articles had been written in Russian, American scientists had not read them. Academic rigour and selectivity were urged, and it was also urged that students should study the structure of the disciplines. The communication revolution with radio, films and television had a great impact on civilian and political life internationally. In the second half of the century, the computer revolutionised business, personal life and academic life, ushering in greater co-ordination of study fields and thus hastening the already rapid technological development.		examples are literature, philosophy, theology, music. *Natural sciences, examples are physics, chemistry, botany. *Social sciences, examples are sociology, psychology, anthropology, economics. From these three areas, the following are applied areas of knowledge:- *architecture, *engineering, *law, *medicine, *education. Co-ordination of study fields include such examples as *mining engineering, *mining geology. Features of approaches include:- Knowledge/*Generic education*/ Reasoning/intellectual/ academic, which includes reflective, critical thinking. Scientific Research. Empirical observation. APPLICATION. Practical in many fields, which could include offering community services, such as legal aid. Professionalism in Graduate Schools. Lecture forum, tutorial discussion and debate, own research, field observation, community service practice and thereby experiencing, assignments. Pedagogical approach for accepted knowledge, but cultivation of new knowledge became so strong a goal that approach became largely Andragogical and Pragmatic.
TECHNICAL/ TECHNOLOGICAL COLLEGES, POLYTECHNICS, TECHNIKONS, UNIVERSITIES	Business and industrial development brought about the transition from technical colleges which took over on a group scale the training of apprentices which had earlier been done on an individual scale, to polytechnics	RATIONALISM EMPIRICISM PRAGMATISM	Career-orientation, thus knowledge tailored to career APPLICATION. Practical and on-the-job TRAINING with co-operative education.

Table 13: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WESTERN HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMPARISON / CONTRAST IN CURRICULATION APPROACHES OF UNIVERSITY/TECHNICAL EDUCATION: **20TH CENTURY**

INSTITUTION	MARKED CIVILISATION CHANGES	CURRICULA-TION APPROACH	MAIN EDUCATIONAL FEATURES
	where many arts and technical subjects are taught, to institutions where advanced technology is taught, such as technikons, with upgrading of such institutions through "qualification-recognition by student research" to status of technological university.		Technological focus and SKILLS focus. Learner-centredness and Lifelong Learning. Approach Pedagogical to some degree, but Problem-centredness tilted it strongly towards Andragogical approach.

The above tables show that the institution of the university is grounded strongly on the goal of the development of the versatile and humanist individual, which requires a broad or *generic education*, and that this approach has developed in tandem with societal development, incorporating and also building scientific endeavour, research and the generation of new knowledge in areas of the natural sciences, social sciences and humanities. The university has also embraced fields of applied knowledge and offered community services for society's benefit and students' practice and experiencing, yet practical on-the-job experience is not a formal requirement of degree communication courses. Thus while university learning has moved from a *pedagogical* to an *andragogical* approach in several ways, it lacks practical application. It utilises the approaches of Rationalism and Empiricism but does not embrace all of the concepts of Pragmatism, such as Action-orientation. The spirit of university education is to provide a thorough knowledge background, and to be awarded a university degree is sufficiently demanding an accomplishment for graduates to have thereby shown beyond doubt that they have developed qualities of applying intelligence, of diligence and of dedication to their own personal development. Such qualities are eagerly sought after by the business and academic world, but the snowball changes through scientific development which the university has itself so successfully nurtured, has burst into ongoing technological development which makes on-the-job experience a vital knowledge-updating-reference phenomenon essential for the 21st century employment market. Thus a stronger Pragmatist approach can strengthen university education greatly, and this can be found in an *outcomes-based* approach to education. Boyer has shown that *andragogy* and *student-centred* education share a common basis, thus it is important to

ensure that the *outcomes-based* approach maintains the philosophy of the Education of Equals, as set out earlier in the table by Jarvis.

Technical institutions, on the other hand, have come into being fairly recently in the century time-scale. They, too, utilise Rationalism, Empiricism and Pragmatism, embracing *student-centred* education yet not meeting the philosophy of Education of Equals fully, for students are being prepared for service in industry, thus industry influences what is learned to a strong degree. The strength of technical institutions is their fulfilling of the Pragmatist philosophy of Action-orientation, a basic tenet of *outcomes-based education*. Their goal is career-orientated, thus narrowing education and training to knowledge required for the performance of a particular job in a study area. This performance requires focus on skills, on problem-solving in that particular area, with much emphasis being laid on the practical application of the delimitated knowledge. The word *training* is significant, for it conjures up a strong impression of *pedagogical* influence and of Jarvis's *education from above* shown in his Table 5 heretofore, thus seeing students as potential products of a system, rather than as individuals who must be helped to develop and mature so they can both help create and recreate the social system. The debate on *generic education* versus *training* is ongoing, and is particularly relevant in the field of communication, and this will be considered in the following section.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

3.7 GENERIC COMMUNICATION EDUCATION VERSUS PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION: TENSIONS AND ISSUES

Holtzhausen states (1995:225) *"public relations is an applied science, which is increasingly influenced by a number of other theoretical approaches"*. An applied science means that knowledge has been adapted for special use, and because it must be adapted for a special use, applications require a focus on *training*. The tooling required to adapt a communication application to a special use, such as *public relations*, is to narrow its focus. Perhaps, as such an adaptation takes root and becomes firmly embedded in industry and society with developments such as technology and societal demands - both of which have given great impetus to public relations - it should be expected that, not only will such adaptation evolve into a field in its own right, but that it does so partly because such adaptation requires that it be honed for its particular focus,

and this honing meshes it with other areas or fields. Thus it draws in aspects of other fields, so the narrow focus becomes a specialisation of breadth, that is on a horizontal plane, and not one of depth on a vertical plane. Particularly relevant here is the statement in a paper delivered at the 19th Conference of the Southern African Communication Association (Sacomm) at the University of the Free State in September 1997 by Prof. Fourie, Head of the Department of Communication at the University of South Africa, that where departments in South Africa base their curricula on the American model (as many do in career-oriented training) it presents a difficulty which has been given too little attention by education. This is the fact that South Africa is so much smaller when compared with the United States of America and does not have the resources to provide sufficient training for specialisation areas. The fragmentation of communication education does not, therefore, lead to true specialisation under such an arrangement. Other areas of applied communication are also likely to manifest the need for depth-coverage, and it is to one of these that the focus now turns in order to observe the effects of the narrowing of focus.

Applied communication: Focus on the areas of overlap

Another field which is an applied science of communication, is journalism. Having evolved from the practice of a craft, journalism has long been recognised as a scientific field in its own right. Once again, we can see it as communication honed for a particular focus. Journalism, like public relations, has drawn in aspects of other fields too, such as that of language and political science, among others. We can expect that if there is any difficulty with *education* versus *training* in the field of communication, this would also manifest itself in journalism.

In 1996 The Freedom Forum, whose commitment to journalism education spans more than four decades, asked Betty Medsger, who is both an academic and a journalist, to investigate and report on the effects of an integrated communication education curriculum on journalism in the USA, as compared with the journalism course.

Medsger reports (1996:10-11) that there are two competing paths in journalism education:-

1. One which is guided by the standards of the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC), where the ratio of journalism and mass communication courses is no more than 25% of the classes a student takes as an undergraduate journalism major. These courses must be a combination of skills, theory and survey courses, which usually means a combination of basic and advanced skills courses, introduction to mass communication, journalism history, law and ethics, and selected electives. Students must take a rich mixture of liberal arts and science courses.

2. The integrated curriculum, the *new professionalism*. Students can take 50% or more of their university units in journalism/mass communication, the number of writing courses they may take is reduced, and they are required to take a large portion of their major courses in communication theory - concepts about the mass communication professions blended with that of personal-communication theories.

The two competing paths can be seen as representative of education planned along *vocational* lines and that planned along *generic* lines.

Medsger (1996:6-7) says that the study *"was conducted with the premise that journalism is an intellectual activity; that journalism is of central importance in a democratic society; and that it would be valuable for professionals and educators to understand the strengths and weaknesses of journalism education today, the role it plays now and the role it should play in the future"*. The term *"journalism"* is used to embrace print and broadcast news media, and is defined as *"news and feature storygathering and storytelling in words and visual elements - on behalf of public interest and through any means of distribution - by independent gatherers, organizers and analyzers of information and ideas (rather than by representatives of special interests, as happens in advertising and public relations)"*.

At the outset, then, Medsger's (1996) report makes a distinction between communication education that is fundamental and critical, communication education that is planned and effected for special interests as in public relations and advertising, and communication that is carried out by a reporter on behalf of the general public in the interests of society as a whole, as journalism. This focuses attention again on the wide ambit of the term

communication, with communication education that is fundamental and critical being provided in the integrated communication education course, while special interest communication education such as for public relations or advertising is vocational and thus can be seen as being akin to the journalism course.

Several of Medsger's (1996) findings illuminate the debate on *generic education* versus *vocational education*, and because both journalism and public relations are areas of applied communication which have evolved from the same craft, they hold relevance to the question of public relations education. Findings which parallel the situation for public relations education have been extracted for consideration. These relate to:-

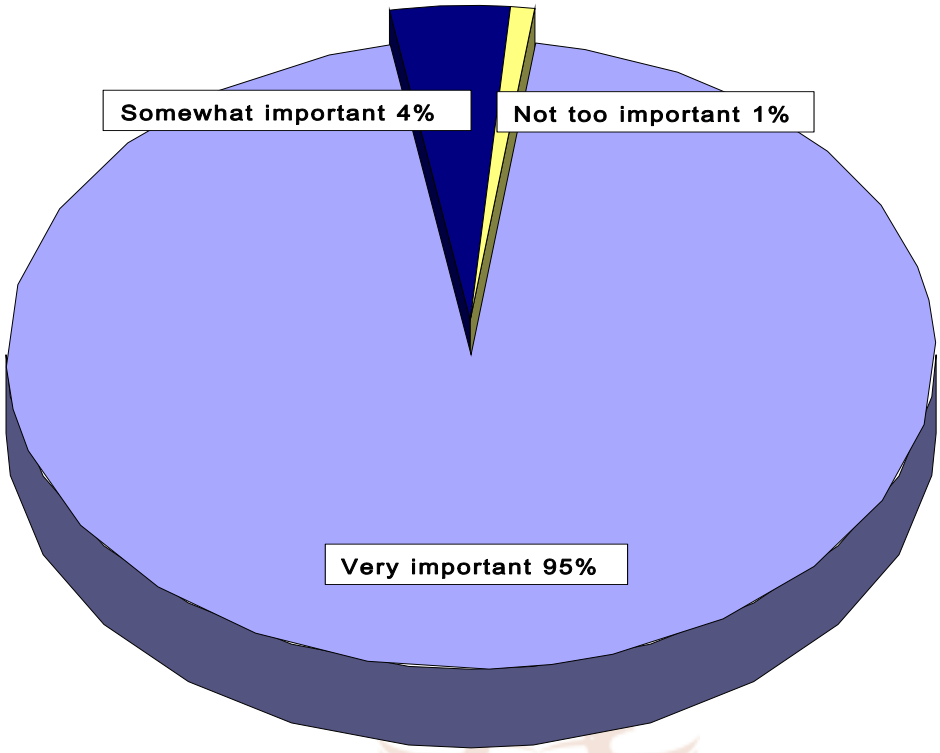
(i) The value of extensive professional experience for tutoring.
(ii) Vocational training as preparation for management or as a leader in the field.
(iii) Skills training limitations.
(iv) The benefit of a wider general education
(v) Flexibility, enabling students to adapt their capabilities to new situations.
(vi) Ethics.

Medger's findings with regard to the Journalism Course/Vocational Education:

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

(i) **Extensive professional experience was declared to be more important than a doctoral degree for tutoring, according to a survey of new journalists.** The response to the question of how much importance is attached to professional experience in tutors, is reflected in Figure 7:-

Figure 7: Response of importance attached to professional experience in tutors



UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

(Medsger 1996:124)

The high value new journalists attached to tutors having what the survey question termed as *"extensive professional experience"* strengthens the concept of Pragmatism that students learn in an action-orientated environment in which knowledge can be

developed by solving genuine problems, with self-realisation as the aim. Tutors who hold extensive professional experience are likely to be able to plan appropriate learning situations most effectively. Moreover, planning for particular wanted consequences and the learner connecting consequences with actions is also likely to eventuate when the tutor has extensive professional experience upon which to draw. Even Zais's (1976:148) criticism that the weakness of Pragmatism is seated here because of unavoidable disagreement over what the wanted consequences should be, tends to re-inforce the new journalists' view that professional experience is of paramount importance, for a tutor with extensive professional experience will have had much exposure to referencing with the social group (newspaper professionals) whose consensus of *informed* opinion constitutes the only reasonable answer Zais (1976:148) sees. Moreover, Zais (1976:148) sees this as the democratic answer to the problem.

Medsger's (1996:124) finding highlights the great strength of *vocational education* and the great weakness of *generic education* - the inclusion/exclusion of experiential learning for credit recognition. This finding of Medsger (vide) applies to public relations education too. The applications of communication can be effectively tutored by those with extensive professional experience, and this can be closely linked with on-the-job training. However, in practice the compulsory experiential training for all learners could lead to a situation where numbers of learners have to be regulated by the expected number of available employment opportunities, which may, in turn, knobble the democratic right to tertiary education of one's choice. Oxenham (1984:23-25) says that where there has been over-supply of candidates for jobs or educational courses, the solution of selecting according to highest *levels* of education has been followed, with the relevant *vocational education* not receiving preference. The most desirable approach would seem to be that experiential learning be adopted for both *generic education* and *vocational education* in tertiary education.

In public relations in South Africa, experiential learning is tied to the technician level. Technicians are concerned with activities which are performed in the execution of communication programmes. They follow the directions of a member of staff who is senior to their position, so that knowing how to execute various aspects of a communication programme is more important than knowing intricacies of the reasons for the programme, the *wanted consequences* of the communication programme having

already been decided. Thus the question arises of whether the training advocated in public relations can be regarded as meeting the need for individual development and self-realisation by the connection of consequences with actions as visualised in Dewey's (1938) application of Pragmatism to education. Dewey's (1938) experiential learning seems to be of greater value for Communication Managers than for technicians. Perhaps Dewey (vide) is not referring to the experiential training of *vocational education*, for such training of "how-to" smacks strongly of the *Education from Above* illustrated earlier by Jarvis (Spear 1986:14), and surely seeks to mould people. Fourie (1997:109) refers to this as being a situation *"to train somebody to 'fill a slot'"*. It should thus be seen as vitally important that *experiential* learning be planned so as to gain maximum development for the learner, which seems to be Dewey's (1938) intention but which does not seem to be the dominating influence of public relations training at present. Strenski (1998:24-25) says that the next millennium will be an unusually challenging time for those in public relations, as they struggle for the common good in many niche areas such as health, environmental concerns, sports marketing and many social problems. Fitzgerald and Spagnolia (1999:12-14) see the new millennium as an exciting time for public relations with website opportunity for dealing with crises, multilingualism and an increased sensitivity to cultural differences assuming increasing importance with globalisation, growing complexity in media relations with increased internationalisation, and greater demands in the area of law with litigation public relations all demanding greater sophistication in the practice. The focus in these two articles can be seen as pointing the way - should experiential learning in public relations become a period in which students who have completed a registered course of education spend time in accredited employment of their choice, after which such students become qualified? This would offer students the opportunity to choose the kind of public relations they would particularly like to work in, such as financial public relations, for example, and the experience they would need to obtain after completing the educational side of their course is likely to be closer to Dewey's (1938) idea of connecting consequences with action. Such an arrangement could require that the "how-to" aspect of executing a communication programme be covered, rather, in the educational institution in a package form of generally-applicable techniques. Were this to be done, the tutor of extensive professional experience is likely to be the most effective here.

The next two findings are discussed together:-

(ii) A journalism degree does not increase chances of becoming a newsroom manager or of gaining an award.

(iii) Skills training signifies meaning of limited-centredness in the concept of learner-centredness.

Out of new journalists who became newsroom managers within 11 years, 29% had never studied journalism and 29% had majored in journalism, and 33% were those who took a few journalism courses, and 16% had studied journalism only at master's level. Journalists who had never studied journalism received 61% of the most prestigious awards in recent years.

As journalism, like public relations, focuses on the skills needed for the career, the first finding points to skills training as being more relevant to the technician level of work rather than to the level of manager or of work gaining recognition in the field and showing leadership qualities.

Claassen (1997:185) states (translated from Afrikaans) that in describing *skill*, we usually focus on expertise, proficiency and specialisation as necessary qualities. Claassen (vide) describes *skill* as the ability to perform an appointed task proficiently, with training and experience also being seen as elements of *skill*. Claassen (1997:186) also refers to the role of training in acquiring certain skills, as described by La Fromboise and Rowe (1983:590) - they point out that social skills require learning both effective and ineffective behavioural patterns, by observation of the responses elicited by our behaviour from those around us, and the consequences. Claassen (vide) points out, too, that in South Africa this is important for communication in organisations, because of cultural diversity. In addition to the foregoing, Claassen (1997:186-187) distinguishes four components of *skills* as set out in the South African National Qualifications Framework Notebook(a)(1996:43). They are given below so that the scope of Medsger's (1996:11) phrase "skills of journalism" can be seen:-

Task skills - carrying out individual tasks

Task management skills - the management of a group of different tasks within a specific function

Contingency management skills - respond to irregularities and breakdowns in routine tasks

Task environmental skills - the handling of responsibilities and expectations which may arise in the surrounding environment, for example, in terms of safety and environmental conservation.

Skills have been defined as *Practical Competence* of applied competence (Education Training and Development Practices Project 1997:106). Medsger (1996:12) states *"The term 'occupational training' is intended to disgrace journalism in the university"*, and points out that there seems to be a rejection of journalism skills as being intellectual - this is despite the fact that introductory journalism courses emphasise research, critical thinking and organisation of material, which the university sees as essential parts of liberal education. One should note here the identification of Claassen and Verwey (1997:49-50) of *skills* as threshhold competencies, being essential knowledge or skills that everyone in a job needs to be *minimally effective* but that do not distinguish superior from average performers. This does not separate *skills* from *intellectual activity*, as if there can be no connection.

Medsger (1996:54) says that Bleyer and Pulitzer, two founders of journalism education in the USA, both wanted to improve the mind of journalists so as to produce a more-informed citizenry. Bleyer said that a great difficulty in journalism was *"to keep the news instinct from running rampant over the restraints of accuracy and conscience"* (Medsger 1996:54). They were speaking of reporters, who were a motley crew, and many of whom had an inherited rather than an educated gift of language. This is the reason why journalism is seen as a craft, and has not been readily recognised as central to the university mission. The point which is of significance here, is what it was believed had to be given to such reporters in order to produce good journalists. Pulitzer (1904) wrote an article in *North American Review* magazine in which he speaks of the inborn news instinct which newspapermen have, and asks: *"And...does not the instinct...need*

development by teaching, by training, by practical object-lessons illustrating the good and the bad, the Right and the Wrong, the popular and the unpopular, the things that succeed and the things that fail, and above all, the things that deserve to succeed and the things that do not...?" Claassen's (1997:185) *skill* is manifested prominently in the above wording of Pulitzer: the word *proficiency* is applicable, and this means, performing...with expert correctness and facility while the word training means to make proficient with specialised instruction and practice. *Practice* is a word of great impact here, for this is the intrinsic distinction between education and training. Education does not require the repetitive exercising of one's powers to some particular, narrowly-defined, end. Every lecture in education requires some new knowledge, new concepts, new understanding and a careful seeking on the lecturer's part of ways to impart this so that a mixed group of students - mixed in the sense of background and ability and innate intelligence - can, if they so wish, reach out and grapple with the offering. Crucial understanding of fields such as communication is built in such a manner, providing critical understanding. This is a much bigger and far more challenging task than is involved in the applications of the field, which by their intrinsic nature, represent only a fragment. If we see the application of a study field as a further stage of acquiring proficiency for a particular part - or specialisation - of such study field, which part has been separated from its main foundations, it is clear how public relations and journalism fit in. In public relations, the group communication dealt with is the management on an agency basis of the communication between an organisation and its publics. Techniques and practice for proficiency of this demarcated area is the focus of public relations education and training. In journalism, it is specified that the communication dealt with is that of mass communication, also on an agency basis. Techniques and practice for proficiency of this demarcated area is the focus of journalism education and training. Thus it can be seen that an application utilises a portion of a study field and focuses on acquiring proficiency in that portion. In order to do this, such application may well draw in parts of other study fields, developing a coverage which can become quite extensive and justify its claim to being a domain in its own right.

Pulitzer's (1904) wording in his magazine article referred to earlier *"object-lessons illustrating the good and the bad, the Right and the Wrong"*, echoes the claim of La Framboise and Rowe (1983:590) referred to by Claassen (1997:186) that both effective and non-effective behaviour are involved in learning social skills.

Perhaps the underlying causes of the comments in Medsger's (1996:12) report that there is a lack of understanding of the intellectual nature of the skills of journalism and that the term "occupational training" is intended to disgrace journalism in the university, can be found, not in whether or not journalism is of an intellectual nature, but in an understanding of the place it occupies in the overall scheme of higher education. Both public relations and journalism require intellectual activity as well as proficiency in their particular spheres of implementation. These two applications provide for ready measurement of Practical Competence and Foundational Competence. They also provide for threshhold competences according to Spencer and Spencer (1993:15). Claassen and Verwey (1997:59) found that the highest importance attached to public relations by industry is to threshhold competencies, showing that public relations is perceived by organisational management as a technical function, while its strategic role is viewed with scepticism.

This confining of public relations to technical functions because of its intrinsic essence is the foundation of the difficulty of defining competencies for public relations on higher levels.

Skills of *vocational education* stand in contrast to the aim of *generic education* of producing the versatile humanist individual. Again it must be said that skills training reminds one of Jarvis's (Spear 1986:14) *Education from Above* and does not seem to fit Dewey's (1916) idea of development and self-realisation of the individual. Medsger's finding is based upon the achievement of students of the journalism course after a period at work of 11 years, thus it seemed these students had been limited to a fair extent. Thus *vocational education* had not produced the effect envisaged by Pragmatism's learner-centred approach.

The findings with regard to journalism are paralleled by that of other communication areas, including that of public relations. The Final Report of the South African Task Group on Communications (1996) highlights general shortcomings of South African communication professionals as being due to *"the widely varying background of communication officials and is reflected in the status and training of communication professionals"* (Fourie 1997:106). Fourie (1997:107) also says with regard to the

shortcomings listed in the Report, that *"These criticisms relate to a critical understanding of communication."* Fourie (vide) refers to the argument of the American scholar Shoemaker (1993:150) that the organisation of South African departments and curricula is the outgrowth of the industrial revolution and may not be useful in the information age. Fourie (1997:107) says the division in South African departments and curricula of, for example, journalism or public relations so as to train students for particular job slots, is like training workers for an assembly line. However, the rapidly changing communication industry, intertwined with the effects of technology and subsequent convergences, requires students to have a sound knowledge in many areas so that they can be flexible.

The notion that skills training in *vocational education* mirrors the Pragmatism concept of Action-orientation is indicted by the Pragmatism concept of Lifelong Learning, in which education is growth which creates conditions for further growth. It appears from Medsger's (1996:29) findings that the journalism course/*vocational education* had more of the opposite effect Dewey (1938) describes - that of shutting the individual off from opportunities for continuing growth in new directions.

Thus Medsger's (1996:29) finding with regard to skills training supports the suggestion made in the discussion of Medsger's (1996:124) first finding that technician skills can be elicited in public relations education by involvement in a packaged module of generally-applicable techniques for the execution of a communication programme, preferably tutored by someone with extensive professional experience, with experiential learning being gained in a short period after completion of institutional public relations education.

Findings with regard to the Integrated Communication Education Course/Generic Education:

(iv) The Integrated Communication Education Programme resulted in a wider focus which included more communication professions, it de-emphasised skills courses, yet there was more emphasis on preparing students to enter journalism.

One of the pointers supporting the idea that, despite de-emphasising skills courses,

there was greater emphasis on preparation for journalism, is the fact that 41% of journalism educators felt writing standards had remained the same and 39% felt writing standards had increased (Medsger 1996:77). It seems that the wider education has an indirect yet unmistakable effect of raising the quality of output. As writing ability, such as for press releases, is an extremely important aspect of public relations, it can be said that a wide general education also holds added benefits for the development of public relations learners. It is interesting to note that the improvement in writing standards had come about in an indirect fashion, thus being identifiable with Jarvis's *Education of Equals* (Spear 1986:14) in respect of the following:-

Expressive objectives utilised
Individual should be encouraged to achieve her/his human potential and individual needs should be met
Teacher's role less clearly demarcated and not regarded as essential to learning

The foregoing aspect was probably also strengthened through the changes mentioned by Blanchard and Christ (Medsger 1996:11) that occupational training would absorb little time and effort and gain little academic credit, and students would do intellectually challenging studies of mass media and communication that provide bridges to the behavioural and social sciences, arts and humanities.

Medsger (1996:102) reports that, next to enthusiasm about journalism, Newsroom Recruiters and Supervisors (71%) saw having an education that stressed wide general knowledge as being of great importance for an entry-level job in journalism, and 85% of this same group said that hiring practice required applicants to demonstrate wide general knowledge in an interview. Careers in public relations also require a wide general knowledge, yet there is a difference, for the journalist will be more dependent on a wide general knowledge in searching for news value in news story topics, while the technician in public relations will, to a large extent, be occupied with executing a communication programme which has basically already been planned by someone senior. Should a technician advance to communication manager (or public relations manager), a wide general knowledge will be of great significance. It has earlier been said that programmes of excellent public relations are more often carried out by communication managers who are well educated and qualified, and also that Steyn

(2000) points out that the emerging role of Public Relations Strategist requires knowledge for the planning of the organisation's strategy. This could require background knowledge of the organisation's line function, such as financial knowledge, and it might well require, in addition, cultural knowledge with regard to stakeholders. Thus a wide general knowledge is also significant for public relations on the strategic levels.

Another benefit of immense value to public relations is the launching pad effect of a wide and general education for research. Leonard (Medsger 1996:46) argues for meaningful research as a way to improve the profession. He says that distinguished teaching requires continual research production that is reviewed and judged by the best people in the field, otherwise the professional's skills will grow stale. Communication application areas tend to produce quantitative research which often has little or no theoretical base, but a wider general education is likely to trigger more research from a cross-current effect as described earlier by Prior-Miller (1989). Medsger (1996:13) has mentioned above the difficulty of maintaining visibility within the university with a vocational journalism course, and Dennis (1984) urged in the Oregon Report that students be given a general communication education with a largely conceptually based core of courses which will nurture, among other things, critical thinking. A foundation promising research is particularly valuable to public relations because of its great need for the building of a body of knowledge.

(v) The Integrated Communication Education Programme provides flexibility - proponents claim that it moves away from preparing students for an "occupation" and enables students to move from one "information job" to another.

Medsger (1996:79) found that the second most important reason for fewer students entering journalism had been that a greater number than previously were interested in public relations. In the long term, the same position could easily apply to public relations in that more students could be interested in advertising or one of the other applied communication areas. The fact mentioned earlier that in the 1990s Europe had to re-train those already at work due to the great technological changes which had come about, is relevant here. A wide and general communication curriculum will provide the

background for several specialisations of communication, which is a rapidly-changing industry largely because of continuous technological development. Europe's experience points to the economic sense of giving students a wide and general background so that they can readily specialise in a different area when the need arises. Shoemaker (1993:151) says *"Educating students for slots is unacceptable in a world in which our graduates experience so much change in their careers"*. Moreover, Shoemaker (1993:150) says that we can no longer be sure of what the job "slot" will be in 5 or 10 years' time, thus flexibility is a valuable characteristic, and (vide) *"flexibility requires a different sort of education than that needed to train somebody to fill a slot"*.

The flexible approach advocated lies at the heart of *generic education* and also fulfils Pragmatism's philosophy of Growth as Education and Lifelong Learning. It is not only relevant to journalism and to public relations, but to all areas of communication education.

(vi) Ethics : values are affected by the profit motive and this has led to a drop in the numbers of students entering journalism.

Medsger (1996:26) says that vested interests are damaging journalism and that there is a need to balance social values.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Business is dependent upon profit, and the competitive environment of the free market economy applies to both journalism and public relations.

The profit-motive gains priority in most businesses, whatever their nature, yet the recent approach of considering all stakeholders in public relations can help to balance this. Earlier it was mentioned that Weaver (1970:211) explains that reflective thought is needed to discover the highest values and then to relate these to the particular circumstances. As reflective thought is promoted by a wide and general education, this should help to promote ethical consideration. As also mentioned earlier, Grunig, L, (1992:85) advocates meliorism. Meliorism can be seen as being like the moderation of the ancient Greeks but, in addition, it also sees viewpoints as only being applicable some of the time to some degree. Another way of expressing this is that one should view situations in their own particularity and perspective. This opinion contrasts with that

of Holtzhausen (2000:99) which was also mentioned earlier, who stresses the need for change in society, suggesting that public relations practitioners can act as community activists and contribute to alliance politics in order to address ideological domination of minority groups. Holtzhausen (2000:101) gives as an example of alliance politics - the unlikely alliance between anti-pornography feminists and the Christian right. It is interesting to observe that public relations practitioners can be involved for activism against dominating ideologies, yet the definition of public relations as communication management for an organisation could also see the practitioner dealing with activists from the side of the organisation. When the public relations practitioner acts as community activist so as to challenge ideological domination, the practitioner could well be striving for democracy, but it is difficult to categorise this work under the public relations definition of *the management of communication between an organisation and its publics*. Holtzhausen (2000:104-105) also suggests that practitioners should be activists within their own organisations, arguing for the public relations practitioner to create opportunities *"for dissent, for opening up debate without forcing consensus, to create possibilities for change"*.

Medsger's (1996:16) finding that poor ethics in journalism discouraged new entrants to the field seems to suggest that if public relations promotes democracy by undertaking activism as Holtzhausen (2000:104-105) suggests, its popularity may rocket on a global scale with respect to new entrants to the field.

The following table shows how Medsger's findings are related to the question of public relations curriculation for it illuminates the debate on *generic education* versus *vocational education* and also shows the relevance of each of these findings to the most recent education model, *outcomes-based* education:-

Table 14 : Linking findings of investigation into *generic* education and *vocational* education and their curriculation concepts with the basic tenets of the *outcomes-based* model of education.

Parellel finding Journalism / Public relations	Education Model	Positive / Negative	Curriculation concept at play	Link with *outcomes-based* model
(i) The value of extensive professional experience for tutoring.	Vocational	Positive	Pragmatism : action-orientation.	Action-orientation is a basic tenet.
(ii) Vocational training as preparation for management or leadership in the field.	Vocational	Negative	Pragmatism : action-orientation.	Action-orientation being a basic tenet, the negative finding indicates deficit in education for management or leadership in the *vocational education model*. The concept needed to promote leadership and management - demonstrated in 3.6 as resting in *generic education* - needs to be cultivated.
(iii) Skills training limitations.	Vocational	Negative	Pragmatism : learner-centredness.	Learner-centredness is an objective, yet can only be achieved in the process thus throwing the responsibility onto tutor and learners.
(iv) Wide general education and research.	Generic	Positive	Pragmatism : social referencing / knowledge integration.	Both social referencing and knowledge integration are basic tenets yet the essence can only be fully realised if incorporated inextricably in the process. This will be time-consuming. It also throws the responsibility upon tutor and learners.
(v) Flexibility.	Generic	Positive	Pragmatism : lifelong learning and education as growth..	Lifelong learning is a basic tenet. Education as growth is seen as a valued concept, yet the focus on assessment by demonstrated consequences previously divulged, throws this responsibility upon the process and so tutor and learners to a large extent.
(vi) Ethics	Generic	Positive	Pragmatism : social referencing education as growth, lifelong learning.	These three concepts are encompassed by the *outcomes-based* model. However, both social referencing and education as growth need to be accommodated in the process between tutor and learners - which is likely to lend strength to the inherent nature of ethics.

The weaknesses disclosed in both the *generic education* model and the *vocational education* model having been confirmed by Medsger's (1996) investigation into journalism, it is important to observe that the particular weakness of the lack of a wide general education in the *vocational education* model can be seen to have important consequences for the professionalisation of public relations. Medsger's (vide) finding that research was adversely affected by the lack of a wide and general education points to research which is unlikely to be theoretically-grounded and also to the strong likelihood of a low research output. Thus a body of knowledge is not likely to be built up, and practical testing will lack the necessary theoretical base. The weakness of *generic education*, that practical experience is not a compulsory part of the curriculum, will also affect the chances of public relations attaining scientific status, for some practical

experience is not only likely to suggest opportunities for research, but can help to guide research.

The above weaknesses of the *generic education* model and the *vocational education* model, indicate that the latest approach, that of *outcomes-based education*, should be examined with the object of ascertaining whether or not it can meet the needs of public relations education. This is the objective of the following sections.

3.8 AN *OUTCOMES BASED* APPROACH TO THE CURRICULATION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION

3.8.1 An evolving model

Outcomes-based education can be seen as an evolving model of education and training, for as countries adopt this model, the experiences of countries who are already utilising it lead these newcomers to adapt the model according to their own needs.

Isaacs (1996:24) says that *outcomes-based education* stands in opposition to traditional curriculum-driven education and training with concomitant inputs, in that *outcomes-based education* takes as its starting point its intended outputs, which are the significant exit outcomes, and bases the curriculum design and process, instructional planning, teaching, assessing and advancement of learners according to the designed demonstrations involved with these outputs.

Pragmatism, a 20th century perspective to curriculation, can be seen as being at least in part the source of *outcomes-based education* and training, for its principle of *knowledge-in-action* is a corner-stone of the *outcomes-based* model. One can see that, more than in almost any other profession, a good knowledge base must needs be accompanied by adequate performance in the teaching profession, thus it is not surprising that according to Wolf (1995:1-16) early work in initial teacher education was carried out in the USA with the focus on performance from the outset. Wolf (vide) says that since 1979, in response to claims of the failure to produce a skilled and adaptable workforce, all aspects of the British education system have been reformed. More than once in this study, the need for re-training in Europe due to the economic-restructuring of the 1980s

and the technologically-driven need for re-training of the 1990s was mentioned. In Britain, however, it was claimed that the economy could not compete with emerging growing Eastern economies or established economies because of the failure to produce a capable workforce in the face of rapidly-advancing technology and rapid changes in employment patterns. However, Hillier (1997:35) points out that there is a lack of a culture of training and development in the UK when compared with countries in Europe. New entrants in Germany expect to be given training including ongoing development, but this is lacking in Britain. Earlier in this study in the history of *vocational education* it was pointed out that industry in Germany is closely involved in all aspects of education, even at school level. This close involvement may well bring about a very strong sense of responsibility in industry to contribute actively to continued training and development. However, its limiting effect was also pointed out earlier. Hughes (1994:149) says that a broadening of the nature of *vocational education* has been seen as essential since *"A limited training with a fixed set of skills is no longer enough."*

Whatever the reasons, the UK reformed its education system. Marshall (1991:56) says that in 1981 the Manpower Services Commission New Training Initiative stated there was a need to train people for careers in which technology would advance rapidly, with a flexible workforce and repeated re-training as essential features. The New Training Initiative also began the process of identifying standards required by industry, calling these 'Standard Tasks', which were grouped into modules of accreditation by 1984. The first National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) criteria were published in 1986. These criteria are expressed as outcomes which are observed in performance of the Trainee. The National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) are very clear that they consider the observable behaviour of the trainee as the crucial variable. It can be seen that performance is of overriding importance in *outcomes-based* education. Spady (1992:7) says that *"an outcome...is...an actual demonstration in an authentic context"*, thus it can be seen that competence and performance are at the heart of the NVQ system. There has been a great deal of criticism of the "competence-based" system, as it has come to be called in the UK. So much so that, according to the report on the Education, Training and Development Practices Project, South Africa (1997:54), the Beaumont Report (1996) identified problems *'at the level of implementation'*, causing a moratorium to be placed on the ongoing processes of standard-setting. It can be seen, therefore, that this 'competence model' of education has been applied to *vocational*

education in the UK, but has not been introduced in university education for which traditional subject-based 'A' levels have been retained. The criticisms which have been raised of competence-based education and training will be discussed in the next section.

Outcomes-based education and training has not halted at the point described in the UK, but has been continued on an international scale. However, it is reported in the Education, Training and Development Practices Project, South Africa (1997:52) that interviews conducted with education colleagues in New Zealand disclosed a polarisation of positions in which criticisms and suggestions made by people who are generally supportive of a qualifications framework are treated as attacking the whole system, while in Australia the standard-setting process is not seen as 'anti-academic' to the extent it is in the UK.

In 1990, New Zealand established a national qualifications authority whose chief task was to set up a framework for all post-compulsory qualifications (Robson 1994:63). While it is clear that countries like the UK reformed their educational systems because of economic upheaval and growing unemployment and also rapid technological change, Robson (1994:64-65) states that the background to the New Zealand changes was even more widely based. During the 50s and 60s, New Zealand had a small, mostly racially homogeneous society, living in relative comfort and security, with low unemployment and little violent crime. By the mid 80s, this position had changed: a larger portion of the population claimed Maori ancestry and demanded cultural and political recognition, women were rejecting conventional roles and the younger generation was aligning itself culturally with the USA. The growth of Eastern economies and the loss of traditional markets for New Zealand exports with the entry of the UK into the European Economic Community forced New Zealand to enter the global economy. Politically there was also a profound change, with a basis of partnership with the Maori population governing conflict resolution. As a result of the foregoing, New Zealand adopted a policy of social equity and affirmative action to correct inequalities, and of privatisation and a market economy. One of the results of these changes is the need to make education available to all, reducing barriers to access and to movement between institutions.

New Zealand education is meeting these demands through the Education Amendment Act of 1990, which seeks to promote excellence in tertiary education, training and

research. The Act removed any barriers to access for groups who had previously been under-represented, and confirmed the establishment of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority. Notably, neither the word *education* nor the word *training* are represented (Robson 1994:65). In addition, the bodies of Industrial Training Organizations and the Education and Training Support Agency were established, holding financial implications for traditional providers of training, such as polytechnics, who offer a full range of vocational work. Reasons given for this move echoed those given in the UK for similar moves - that the system for vocational certification and assessment was *'complex, incomprehensible and incoherent'* (Robson 1994:66). Once again, the importance of vocational qualifications being relevant to the workplace was stressed.

A notable evolution of *outcomes-based education* took place with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority establishment. This has come about through the drive for social equity, and, influenced by the Swedish qualifications framework in which one strand (among others) has a joint academic and vocational strand and also because some New Zealand teachers had been pushing for achievement-based assessment, a broad competence-based approach for a single framework was adopted. All qualifications, therefore, have a purpose and a relationship to one another, the distinction between academic and vocational no longer being made, and the system is flexible with recognition of previously-achieved competency and Robson (1994:67) calls this *"a near unique attempt to unify all levels of both academic and vocational qualifications within one system"*.

However, it cannot be said (Robson 1994:69) that there is full acceptance of the system or that it is meeting all of the objectives. The new national certificate for schools is seen as catering for the less academic and thus it is felt that the existing form of the school certificate should be retained in its present form alongside it. Also, universities are reluctant to design degree courses according to the framework, and wish to guard the academic freedom of determining their own degrees. It is of interest to note that there is agreement in New Zealand that a strict competence-based model is inappropriate for academic work, although a project carried out by the University of Otago's English department on standards-based assessment in teaching English literature represents a positive response to the new framework. However, Robson (1994:72) says that John Cadd (1993) argues that educational reforms in New Zealand have tended to increase

inequalities in opportunity and provision of education, as accompanying administrative and procedural policies have subverted the agenda for social justice and pursuing both equity and individual choice are deeply paradoxical.

South Africa, which has similar circumstances to those in New Zealand to contend with - yet it should be observed that these are on a much greater scale - also emphasised the importance of integrating *generic education* and *vocational training* into a coherent system in 1992. The establishment of a National Qualifications Framework was first proposed in 1994 and the South African Qualifications Authority Act was gazetted in 1995 (Isaacs 1995:17-18). Integration is seen as a primary lynch-pin of the framework so that, as in the New Zealand framework, a competence-based assessment system within a single framework has been adopted. This means that in South Africa, too, *academic* and *vocational education* will be combined. Unlike New Zealand, which has dropped the use of the terms academic education and *vocational education*, South Africa utilises the combination wording of *education and training*.

South Africa is also contributing to the evolution of the *outcomes-based* model of education, making its underlying objectives clear in definitions of principles of the framework, such as (Isaacs 1995:21) *"an integrated approach to education and training...aimed at integrating the theory with the practice, and the academic with the vocational"*, and, with the intention of bridging the old theory-practice divide and to learn from and about one's own learning, the Education, Training and Development Practices Project (1997:106) explains *Applied competence* as an overarching term for three kinds of competence - Practical competence, Foundational competence and Reflexive competence. Bellis (1997:5) proposes the following definition of competence which, he says (vide) speaks of performance and not of task performance only, but also of understanding, reflectiveness and for development:-

> A skill or integrated cluster of skills executed within an indicated range or context to specific standards:
>
> - of performance
> - of integrated understanding of the performance and its knowledge base
> - of understanding of the system in which the performance is carried out
> - of the ability to transfer to other related contexts
> - of the ability to innovate when appropriate

The Education, Training and Development Practices Project (1997:49-50) states that Australia also adopted a national standards framework after active and early involvement of the professions and higher education, with strong union involvement having a great influence. Lately, Australian standards have emphasised generic abilities and attributes more, which is part of the basis for transferability of specific skills, but questions have been raised as to the validity of this connection. However, other criticisms, which are the same as those levied against the competence-based system in the UK, have been levied against the Australian system and these will be discussed in the following section.

3.8.2 Criticisms of the competence-based model

There are very strong criticisms of the competence-based model:-

- The model is positivist and behaviouristic
- The model is functionalist
- The notion of competence

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

- **The model is positivist and behaviouristic**

Hodkinson (1992:30-39) rejects a competence-based model which, he claims, is based on Logical Positivism, assuming that role competence can be objectively discovered, defined and measured and then given a central place in creating quality, to which process employers give legitimacy in the selection and definition of elements of competence. Thus role performance dominates, is seen as a composite of skills, knowledge and understanding and performance is linear and unproblematic - the 'right' skills, knowledge and performance will give the 'right' performance. Hodkinson (vide) says that this positivistic stance is combined with a theory of learning partly based on Behaviourism - it is a response to outside stimuli, where learners respond to their environment (the laid-down performance) - and a combination of instruction, practice and experience is goal-directed so as to yield the required performance. Precision in assessment is crucial, so these goals have to be defined in some way which can be measured. The measurement itself is also seen as unproblematic and as simply being a

matter of finding the 'right' evidence, and how role competence is learned does not matter. It is only in the range of applications of competence that there are tests for knowledge and understanding.

Marshall (1991:56-64) says that the NVQ competence-based system sets out its requirements in behavioural terms as outcomes, which are then observed in the performance of the Trainee. It is made very clear that the behaviour of the Trainee is the crucial variable. The Trainee is assessed repeatedly until such time as considered 'competent'. Trainees will behave in a predictable way as this is assured by the conditioning process as in classical behavioural psychology. However, Marshall (1991:56-64) points out that theory of learning has developed greatly beyond this in the last twenty years, that the NVQ system allows no place for innovation, no place for any constructive contribution from the trainee, no place for individuality, and the Trainee is treated like an automaton with little or no cognitive abilities beyond those required to do the job. Marshall (vide) says that from the 1950s, the encouragement of individual and independent thinking has been a central element in education, and that this model should be restricted to the training of basic skills.

Ashworth (1992:8-17) says that while the basic aims of the NCVQ can be fully endorsed, the strictly behavioural analysis underlying competence means that only *activities* of the candidate are taken into account, and no attention is paid to mental activities underlying such activities. This simplifies the process of assessment, but leaves out understanding and knowledge. A further behaviouristic stance is displayed by the *atomism* of competence statements. Ashworth (vide) expresses the view, as an example, that to be able to communicate should not be seen as being a free-standing competence, but should be related to what is being communicated and to whom. Ashworth (1992:8-17) acknowledges having serious doubts about the competence-based system.

- **The model is functionalist**

In addition to seeing the NVQ system as behaviourist, Marshall (1991:56-64) also sees it as Functionalist. The NVQ is viewed as a system, and within the employment function units and elements of competence are identified as primary and sub-functions essential to the maintenance of the system, with performance criteria being seen as part of a

functioning whole, in accordance with the functionalist philosophy of Spencer, Comte and Durkheim. These functionalists viewed society as a system of functioning parts, with any part which did not contribute to the functioning of the whole system being discarded. The individual is not important, only the contribution to the functioning of the whole system is seen as important. Marshall (vide) makes a comment about this functionalist stance which is the same as that which he has made about the behaviouristic stance - that the NCVQ overlooks the work of more recent theorists. In the case of functionalism, for instance, the work of Merton (1968) with regard to manifest and latent functions could have reference to the NCVQ system. Marshall (1991:56-64) is thus critical of the functionalist approach of the NCVQ model.

Garland (1994:16-22) says that the NCVQ focus upon work roles has been attacked as functionalist, uninspiring and inclined to dwell overmuch on what *is* rather than what could be. Garland (vide) argues for a positive approach to the competence-based system. He says that the great thing about using competence statements in their various forms is that it makes available reasonably clear and detailed statements of what is considered *good practice*, the assessment specifications are as clear as they should be and are made available to learners from the start, providing a clear framework for negotiation and for the justification of the programme content. Garland (1994:16-22) believes that the UK emphasis on standards has led to a narrowing notion of competence and led attention away from aspects of curricula which have more to do with processes than outcomes. This is a crucial point, which was made several times with regard to Pragmatism concepts. Garland (vide) refers to Hall and Jones (1976) on competency-based education, wherein they set competence in perspective as a notion developing out of the behavioural-objectives approach, and which *"enables the integration of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains into meaningful and holistic work and life-related statements - and dwells at length on the learning processes (negotiation, contracting, self-direction, self-assessment) which enable the delivery of a competence-based qualification"* (Garland 1994:18). Thus the processes can be negotiated so as to yield personal and professional development, and the NCVQ has been criticised because it constructs standards which can be achieved through any process. The key is to make links between the definition of learning outcomes (which will be made available to learners) and the need to maintain a *student-centred* approach. Negotiation is the basis for achieving this link. This encourages students to accept

responsibility for the learning process. Integration of skills and knowledge can also be demonstrated in assignments.

- **The notion of competence**

Wolf (1995:52), a powerful advocate of the competence-based approach, says *"Arguing from first principles, we can conclude that faithful simulation and sampling of the behaviour of interest should provide us with the most valid form of assessment."* Wolf (1995:78) also makes a claim which is similar to that of Garland (1994) above that successful implementation of the competence-based system can be quite difficult but that it is implementation which offers the opportunity to fill the gaps in the system pointed to by critics. Moreover, Wolf (1995:137-138) argues, competence-based assessment will continue to challenge educational awards as expenditures continue to rise.

Hillier (1997:34) says that the demonstration by performance that the trainee can meet the laid-down standards of the vocational qualification in question has adjusted the meaning attached to "competence" to being "good enough", rather than what is actually of good quality.

Ashworth (1992:8-17) says the notion of having NCVQ competences and of actually being competent are two different things, because theoretical knowledge and understanding is essential to being competent but the NCVQ competences pay scant attention to this; being competent involves the ability to engage in teamwork but the NCVQ adopts an individual orientation by employing *personal* competences; and because of the behavioural analysis on which the competences are based.

Ashworth (1992:10-11) says that *understand* means people have a mental representation of the situation, so they can give an account to themselves and bring to bear on it a wide range of perspectives. The person can work on it creatively and imaginatively, and the greater the understanding, the more dimensions of the situation and surrounding circumstances the person can bring into consideration. This is why theoretical and other forms of knowledge are of great importance, for it is through this knowledge and understanding that the person is able to vary the situation imaginatively and to construe alternative possibilities.

Ashworth's (1992:10-11) pinpointing of the role of understanding and knowledge raises a big question about the NCVQ standard-setting when it is borne in mind that one of the principle aims of the competence-based system is to achieve flexibility of thinking among learners.

Competence in the NCVQ definition, Ashworth (vide) argues, remains at the level of lived-through experience and, while practical experience enables the learner to learn practical skills, reflective understanding is usually built up through the creative use of language.

With regard to teamwork, Ashworth (1992:16) points out that *"The more human the action, the more likely it is that the action will require creative thought and understanding, and involve a team rather than the activity of an individual alone."* A management team, Ashworth (1992:12) explains, needs a group of people with *complementary* skills. The fact that someone is adjudged to be a good member of a workgroup is also a function of the skills of the other members of the group. The point of view expressed by Ashworth (vide) here supports the view of Marshall mentioned above that the competence-based model should be restricted to the training of basic skills.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

The lack of focus on understanding and knowledge with the notion of a competence-based system, is seen by Ashworth (1992:14-15) to be a basic cause of *lack of transfer*, because of a lack of depth of understanding and a consequent lack of flexibility. Range statements are supposed to identify where a competence can be applied, or where it might be unsuitable, but Ashworth (1992:14-15) expresses dubiousness about the validity of range statements in the ability of transferring competences, and this doubt is exacerbated by the *atomism* of competence statements.

Ashworth (1992:15-16) also expresses grave doubt about assessing competence, for the perception of evidence about a candidate's performance and a decision concerning the level of competence involve great scope for subjectivity, especially with social or personal skills, and this situation cannot be altered by the specification of assessment criteria.

It can be seen that there is strong criticism of the competence-based model, although Garland (1994) calls for a positive approach to the model and says that the shortcomings identified in the performance standards can be offset in the processes. In addition to Garland's (1994) defence, there is a proposal of another interpretation of the competence-based model, which will be described next.

3.8.3 A proposed interpretation of the competence-based model

As said above, Hodkinson (1992:30) rejects the behaviouristic model of the competence-based system, but he claims that there are two possible interpretations, the behaviouristic and the interactive, with implicit but conflicting values underpinning them. The interactive model removes many of the weaknesses of the NCVQ approach, yet retains the power of competence to emphasise role performance as an important component of *vocational education* and training.

The interactive model Hodkinson (1992:32-36) says, follows Mead's (1932) argument that reality is not "out there" but arises in the interaction between participants and is based on the meaning they attach to symbolic representation in the interaction. Symbolic Interactionism has been referred to earlier in this study, for Prior-Miller (1989:68) suggested that this middle-range social theory could be utilised for the building of public relations theory. Its application to the NCVQ model would mean that a particular role, contrary to the behaviourist interpretation, would not be defined in an absolute way, but by the perceptions of the participants, which will be influenced by culture and other background factors, including context.

Hodkinson (1992:33) says that *"the NCVQ practice of isolating a statement of competence is a nonsense,"* because of the claim by Brown, Collins and Dugiud (1989) that learning cannot be separated from context and the claim by Resnick (1987) that learning is not just about interactions between people, but also the interactions between people and their environment. It should be observed that Hodkinson (1992:33) exposes a weakness of the NCVQ system here, for context must surely be an active principle guiding subtle nuances of problem-solving knowledge application. Moreover, employers seek trainees who hold the property of flexibility, yet the standards laid down which have been largely influenced by employers, do not provide fertile ground for the development

of flexibility. This point is also supported above by Ashworth (1992:10-11) in pinpointing the role of understanding and knowledge. Hodkinson (1992:33) refers to the work of Rumelhart (1980) which sees learning as the use and development of schemas, which are mental representations of sets of related categories. Rumelhart (vide) says we select a schema from our mental stock for a new situation so as to try and make sense of it, thus as learner we react with the learned, adjusting our schema as we react. Interaction with context is thus a strongly influencing aspect. Hodkinson (1992:33) also refers to the warning given by Resnick (1987) that although there is greater congruence between the environment and that which is to be learned with learning outside of school, this is situation specific, whereas education has to be engaged in generalisable understanding, capable of application and development in new and unforeseen circumstances.

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation & Development (1994:151) it was Raizen (1991) who developed the concept of 'situated learning', claiming that the most effective learning takes place through 'situated activity'. However, it should be noted that Raizen (vide) had, in proposing situational activity, pointed to the failure of the USA to deal with disadvantaged students. Perhaps, therefore, the tendency to move away from generalisable understanding rests upon an attempt to de-link education from its base of symbolic representation, or language richness. This may be a further development of the effects of mass education, which was shown earlier in this study to have affected the curriculum of *vocational education*. Mass education today involves dealing with large numbers of people from many different cultures and teachers often cite the language problem in multi-cultural class groups as one of the greatest obstacles to education. It may be, therefore, that society is seeking to counter this problem somewhat by reducing the role of language and trying to promote more of a "hands-on" approach. It should be noted that the school system has for many years been utilised to filter students with such leanings from those who operate better from an abstract, or academic, approach. Thus it is the *vocational-educational* divide that is being challenged with the UK competence-based system. Hodkinson (1992:33) says that from the learning perspective, the NCVQ model of competence looks static and inappropriate. Although some jobs can be routinised (Hodkinson 1992:35), constant new challenges are presented by many, especially those dealing with people. This requires a mixture of context specific knowledge and skill, with generalisable abilities and strategies to tackle

the unknown, according to Perkins and Salomon (1989), and also the ability to think critically for and about oneself. Role performers, in order to practise intelligently, have to theorise, to develop their own understanding of both the situation and role they are trying to perform. This requires the integration of public theory (the accumulated wisdom of the profession, from literature and experts) and private theory (one's own personal belief and understanding). An interactive model accommodates these needs, for it focuses on beliefs and thinking strategy as well as on performance. The teacher is a facilitator helping learners to make sense of their own experiences.

The interactive model also sees elements of competence as useful tools which break down the role into manageable bits and also which facilitate dialogue between tutor and learner. However, these elements should be useful for learning rather than for assessment. Specific measurable behaviour as defining statements of competence make it difficult to achieve flexibility of many different views of a role. Such elements could better be described through statements about understanding and/or the learning process, as well as performances. Hodkinson (1992:34) gives the model of competence developed by Harvard and derived from this interactive belief system:-

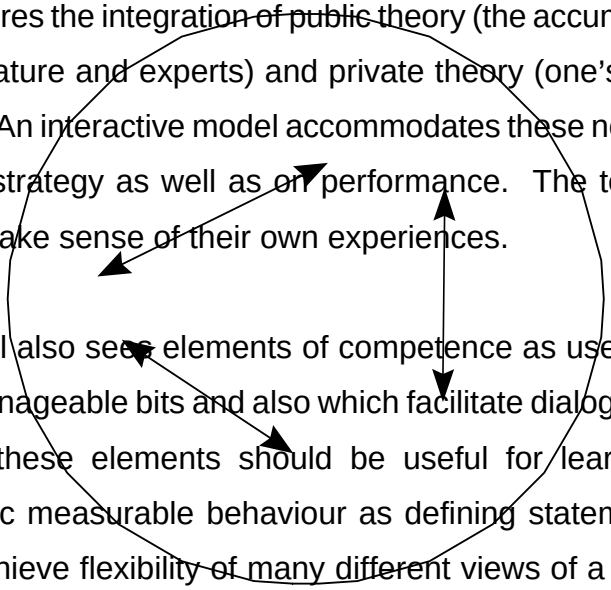


Figure 8: An Interactive Model of Competence

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

The model shows, according to Hodkinson (1992:35), that elements of competence cannot be seen as fixed because there are many different ways of defining a role, according to personal schemas and to changing roles and the ability to learn from one's performance, which flows from context specific knowledge and skill and generalisable abilities and strategies to tackle the unknown and the ability to learn from one's performance - as mentioned earlier.

Hodkinson (1992:36) says that the interactive model refocuses attention on the learning process and encourages meaningful reflection on performance. It also emphasises the significance of public theory related to workplace performance. Public theory must be critically addressed with reading, discussion groups and lectures. Economic, social and political contexts need to be understood. Competence is only a part of the model, which can *"rescue the concept of competence from its behaviouristic fetters"* (Hodkinson 1992:38).

It can be seen that the criticisms described in sections 3.8.2 and 3.8.3, taken together with Medsger's findings, can offer guidance for the curriculation of public relations education with an *outcomes-based* approach, and this is considered next.

3.8.4 Guidance for the curriculation of public relations education with an *outcomes-based* approach

Section 3.7 has shown that Medsger's findings help to shed light on the urgent needs of public relations education. The criticisms of the competence-based model of the UK which were described in section 3.8.2 and Hodkinson's proposed interactive model facilitating dialogue between tutor and learner and which was discussed in section 3.8.3, also hold influence for public relations education and its curriculation with an *outcomes-based* approach. The influence of these three different areas point to the exigencies of the curriculation of public relations education, in view of the difficulties illuminated earlier.

The connections between these three sets of phenomena are most easily shown in tabular form:-

TABLE 15: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIOUS PHENOMENA INFLUENCING CURRICULATION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION

MEDGER'S FINDING (1996)	CRITICISMS OF THE COMPETENCE-BASED EDUCATION SYSTEM.	EXIGENCIES OF CURRICULATION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION
(1) An integrated communication education programme provides flexibility so that students can move from one communication career to another more readily than with *vocational education*	**Hodkinson's (1992)** interactive competence model yields the following relevant properties: -Inclusion of context/ -Flexibility/ -Generalisable understanding/ -Integration of public and private theory with elements of learning rather than assessment/ -Public theory being addressed through reading, discussion groups and lectures/ **Ashworth (1992):** Theoretical and other forms of knowledge and understanding are of great importance and should not be treated in a paltry way, such as merely underpinning an immediate skill or its transfer. It is impossible to predict what aspects of situations will be central to its understanding, thus the wider the knowledge of the person, the more chance such person has of understanding a situation in manifold aspects.	The lack of a body of scientific knowledge and the lack of ongoing theory development in public relations - an application area of communication
(2) *Vocational education* does not increase chances of becoming a manager or a leader in one's field.	**Ashworth (1992):** The competence-based system adopts an individual orientation by employing personal competences, which is insufficient for management jobs. Management teams require individuals with a group of complementary skills. Management requires teamwork. The more human the action the more likely it is that it will require creative thought and understanding. **Garland (1994):** The competence-based system makes available reasonably clear and detailed statements of what is considered good practice.	The failure of public relations to define its fundamental purpose, its dominant metaphor, its scope or its underlying dimensions.
(3) Scholarly research is more likely to be promoted by an integrated communication education course	**Hodkinson's (1992)** interactive model pinpoints the need to address social, economic and political contexts.	The need for 2 majors.
(4) A strong emphasis on skills training limits the learner's career and achievement opportunities. Extensive professional experience is of great value in tutors of specialisations, such as public relations.	**Marshall (1991):** the competence-based model should be restricted to the training of basic skills. **Ashworth (1992):** practical experience enables the learner to learn practical skills. **Hodkinson (1992):** The power of competence to emphasise role performance is an important component of *vocational education* and training. A role should not be defined absolutely, allowing context to promote differing interpretations of a role with meaningful reflection on performance. **Garland (1994):** Proposes a focus on 'process' rather than 'product' so as to extend the educational experience coverage.	Applied communication as specialisations.
(5) Ethical considerations can be explored more readily in an integrated communication	**Hodkinson (1992)** says that the many people-jobs present constant new challenges, which can only be met through an interactive interpretation of learning. This requires, for intelligent practice, a mixture of context specific knowledge and skill with generalisable abilities and strategies to tackle the unknown and also the ability to think critically for and about oneself. **Ashworth (1992)** says that the wider and deeper the	Ethics in public relations.

TABLE 15: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIOUS PHENOMENA INFLUENCING CURRICULATION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION		
MEDGER'S FINDING (1996)	**CRITICISMS OF THE COMPETENCE-BASED EDUCATION SYSTEM.**	**EXIGENCIES OF CURRICULATION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION**
education course.	knowledge and understanding an individual has, the more dimensions of the situation such person will be able to bring into consideration.	

The exigencies of curriculation of public relations education are discussed in more detail below:-

The lack of a body of knowledge whose theories have been scientifically tested by the scientific community and the lack of ongoing theory development, which is closely allied to its lack of research on substantive issues

Not only do the above factors render the compilation of an acceptable curriculum for public relations extremely challenging, but they link very strongly with the non - professional status and the non-scientific status of public relations. Had public relations professional status with accreditation and compulsory registration, public relations practitioners and public relations managers would hold the necessary educational and practical qualification to promote the use of the Excellence Model of public relations. This Excellence Model can be seen to represent the beginning of the building of a body of knowledge in public relations, for while Hutton (1999:203-205) states that there is little evidence showing that one-way/two-way and symmetrical/asymmetrical communication are causally related to any substantive measure of organisational success, the research titled The Excellence project (1984) established, inter alia, three points:-

- a high percentage of successful public relations programmes use the two-way asymmetrical model in order to establish the viewpoints of publics and the two-way symmetrical model in order to bargain and negotiate so as to achieve a balanced relationship;

- the Excellence Model is practised more often if the responsible manager is an educated public relations practitioner;

- the Mixed Model which has augmented the Excellence Model so as to form the General Theory of Public Relations is also used by many organisations.

It can thus be said that the building of a body of knowledge and the testing of theory has begun but it can hardly be claimed that there is sufficient theory development to justify a claim to scientific status. This is a crucial stage for public relations, for compulsory registration with professional status would ensure a steady and renewing supply of graduates in the field who are educated for both academic and practical research necessary to gain scientific recognition. The question must be raised of which comes first: the education or the scientific recognition, and this is where the vital part which education can play becomes clear : an adequate curriculum for public relations education will promote the realisation in graduates of the qualities which will yield a body of knowledge and ongoing theory development necessary for scientific status, and professional recognition will soon follow.

This viewpoint rests on support which has been shown earlier. Dunne (1993:3) explained that his *judgement* required reflection and a sound foundational background, and that this sound background depended on a body of knowledge with values of prediction and control. Medsger (1996:97) found that the integrated communication education course provided a broad and deep theoretical background which gave students flexibility so that they could readily move from one information job to another. Fourie (1997) claims that fragmentation of communication education does not necessarily lead to true specialisation in an applied field but rather to a narrowing of career opportunity and a reduction in chances of gaining employment. The re-training mentioned as being found essential in Europe in the 1990s had to be done at more frequent intervals when the initial training had a narrow focus and was not supported by a wide relevant general background.

Hodkinson (1992:33-35) says context is a guiding principle of problem-solving knowledge application, accounting for the flexibility the employers seek through a competence-based system. To practise intelligently, role performers have to theorise, and this involves the integration of public theory (the accumulated wisdom of the profession, from literature or experts) and private theory (one's own personal beliefs and understanding). This public theory can best be addressed through reading, discussion groups and lectures.

Ashworth (1992:8-11) points out the overwhelming importance of knowledge and

understanding, which needs to be broad and deep as we can never predict what aspect of knowledge will lie central to a situation, and knowledge serves as an 'interpretive resource' for the person.

The failure of public relations to define its fundamental purpose, its dominant metaphor, its scope or its underlying dimensions

There remains, however, the confusion referred to in the point above, for even though The Excellence Project has investigated and supported the underlying dimension of the direction of communication, direction of communication is a pillar of the body of knowledge of communication science, thus supporting Hutton's (1999:202) plea for public relations to distinguish itself from other fields of communication, and to establish a broadly accepted definition of itself in terms of its purpose. As this study has already said, Hutton's (1999:208) proposed definition of public relations *managing strategic relationships* offers a clearer definition than that of *managing communication between an organisation and its publics*. Hutton's (vide) claim that this last-mentioned definition speaks to the issue of organisations but ignores the practice of public relations for groups of people who are not formally organised, is not only justifiable but also focuses attention on principles of democracy which are now empowering people who would in times past have had great difficulty in making their voice heard on issues but who are now in small and large groups which are often loosely-attached seeking activism services such as public relations can offer, on a frequent basis. This last-mentioned definition also lacks the power of honed focus of purpose, which Hutton's (1999:208) proposed definition supplies to a greater degree, while Hutton's (vide) definition also offers unlimited locale of operation. As already mentioned, public relations needs to be released from the tether of locale for the question of *what it is* to be confronted.

However, while this study sees Hutton's (1999:208) definition as holding a more focused meaning, the term *managing* merits further consideration. Hutton (vide) says managing implies control, feedback and performance measurement. Were the public relations practitioner responsible for an organisation's (client's) communication, it could be a career respected in the public domain, provided it followed the values of the society concerned. When, however, the word *control* is linked with *relationship* it suggests that the public relations practitioner seeks to control *both* sides, and the ogre of manipulation arises in one's mind. For this reason, it is proposed that Hutton's (1999:208) definition

be adjusted to *STRATEGIC RELATIONSHIP COMMUNICATION*. Such definition

- frees public relations of locale
- includes the planning and action which is at present associated with the field
- includes the mutuality and shared values and adaptation and trust and commitment basis
- embraces the valued relationship partner (recipients) of the client outside of time boundaries, thus involving relationship partners strategic to the instant or situation
- releases any hold on manipulation attempt and
- speaks of the sharing of meaning by client and destination (recipients).

Furthermore, this adjusted definition offers inherent meaning for an appropriate and closely-allied term for an individual following the career, being *STRATEGIC RELATIONSHIP COMMUNICATOR*.

This adjusted definition holds the additional merit of not being tied to "its publics" as in the definition *the management of communication between an organisation and its publics*. As the use of "its" suggests possession and the meaning of "its publics" is not clearly signified, confusion is introduced thereby in that an organisation's publics are also the recipients of communication by its departments of marketing, of advertising and of finance, to name the more obvious. It is not altogether surprising that departments of marketing seek to act as umbrellas of the public relations function. Perhaps public relations ought always to be seen as a separate function - Grunig (1997:291) says that it is more effective when it is - and perhaps if it focused on *strategic relationship communication* it would be easier to demarcate the areas it would serve. Furthermore, we should also note that public relations deals mainly with *issues*, and that this claim, which has been made by several writers, is readily accommodated within the meaning of *strategic relationship communication*.

Several references are made herein to public relations being seen as a craft rather than as a science. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the IPRA Gold Paper (1990) giving the Wheel of Education mentions that IPRA accepts that there are two schools of thought about public relations education and training, the first that it is a technician-based skills programme and the second that it should prepare students for roles as managers. Medsger's (1996) investigation showed that the journalism-focused course did not

increase students' chances of becoming a newsroom manager or of gaining an award or of becoming a leader in the field.

Ashworth (1992:8-16) says knowledge and understanding are essential, that management requires teamwork and that the more human the action, the more likely it is that it will require creative thought and understanding. Garland (1994:18) says that a property of merit in the competence-based system is that it provides a clear framework of what "good practice" is considered to be, thus it can be argued that *outcomes-based education* may elicit from the field of public relations greater clarity with, for example, its fundamental purpose for the shaping of outcomes.

The need for two majors

Extrapolation of Prior-Miller's (1989:68) enlightening observation that researchers who understand the root theories out of which the various research traditions have grown can help to build a unified body of public relations theory by relating new research to these origins, confronts the inherent potential of public relations graduates having a second major subject which is a subject of the humanistic tradition but which is not an allied subject of the communication field. Just as organisational theory has its roots in a number of social science disciplines, so too can graduates expeditiously construct a body of public relations knowledge on an ongoing basis if they have a deep background both of communication science and of another subject such as sociology, psychology, economics or another appropriate subject of their choice. Such a position can also help to alleviate the position which Hutton (1999:209) finds a particular reason for concern - the lack of field themes, which leads, Hutton (vide) cites, to examples such as the "commitment/trust" model of relationships developed by the field of marketing and which could be most useful to public relations, being overlooked.

There is a further advantage to possessing a second major which can be of great consequence : students may choose a subject which provides a background suitable for the line function of an organisation, such as economics. This will greatly increase their chances of becoming members of the dominant group of, say, a financial organisation, after suitable experience. Several writers have referred to the drawbacks of not being members of the dominant group, and to the higher chances of being able to practise excellent communication if the public relations manager is such a member.

While Medsger (1996:11) comments that students of the integrated communication education course do intellectually challenging studies which build bridges to the behavioural and social sciences, arts and humanities, the parlous state of public relations theory calls for graduates to hold a *second major subject* which is not allied to the field of communication, as explained above. An integrated communication education course can provide communication science as a compulsory major with the second major being one of choice from outside of the communication field. The need for social, economic and political contexts to be addressed is highlighted in Hodkinson's (1992:36-38) interactive model of competence-based education.

Applied communication as specialisation

While Medsger (1996:29-30) found that a strong emphasis on skills training limits the learner's career and achievement opportunities, Ashworth (1992:12) encompasses this state of the situation by claiming that *"practical skills are learned by practical experience, reflective understanding is usually built up through the creative use of language"*. Marshall (1991:63) says that the competence-based model should either be refined or it should be restricted to the training of basic skills. Marshall (vide) sees much to recommend the competence-based model for the training of basic skills, for it outlines precisely what is required. This clarity of criteria is also commended by Garland (1994:18-19), who sees it as crucial to the learner recognising its relevance to the job and its meaningfulness. Garland (1994:20-21) also holds that rather than focusing on the skills required for competence assessment as the "product" of the course, the focus should be directed to the "process" of the education course, thus facilitating much wider educational experience coverage. Hodkinson (1992:30) says that the power of competence to emphasise role performance is an important component of *vocational education* and training.

All of the foregoing lend credence to the idea of applying the competence-based model to the skills aspect of a "people-job" such as public relations, offering this as a specialisation in an integrated communication education course. Specialisation in the field of communication can also be a matter of choice from the other applications of communication, such as journalism or advertising. Thus specialisations are electives and it is possible that an elective can be done over one year of a three year course.

This means it will be possible for graduates to return so as to do another specialisation, if they so wish. Such a situation meets to some extent Fourie's appeal for flexibility in communication education and training in view of today's rapid developments in technology and industry. Experiential learning can also be included in the second half of the year in which the elective is taken, with industry providing such opportunities. In addition, industry should participate in planning and teaching the electives, for Medsger (1996:124) found that extensive professional experience is of great value in tutors of specialisations. Such contribution is unlikely to create a situation as mentioned earlier with regard to *vocational education* in Germany, where pervasive industry involvement has even influenced the curriculum for secondary school education so that young people experience a curtailment of the reach of tertiary education opportunity.

It will also be important that the necessary resources be put in place for specialisations, such as funding for industry specialists to tutor on a part-time basis. On this point Medsger's (1996:124) investigation showed that students found tutor experience to be of greater value than the holding of a doctorate. Medsger (1996:11) reported that the integrated communication education course granted little credit for occupational training and that it also took up little time and was not mandatory. However, the economic movement of Taiwan and Israel from one of underdevelopment to one of increasing competitiveness with developed countries through supplying adequate manpower needs justifies specialisation areas being given both the necessary resources and recognition, so that graduates will not only have an adequate background for academic research, but also adequate training in current technology for immediate entry into the market and also for carrying out the necessary practical testing of theories which will help to build a body of knowledge.

Ethics in public relations

The recently identified role of *public relations strategist* can help to raise the field to new heights, with heightened capability of incumbents strengthening ethics of public relations. In section 2.4.9 it is said there are clear pointers by several scholars that heads of public relations departments are seldom strategic managers due to many of them lacking the knowledge and background required. Yet Steyn's (1999:30) research confirmed the role and identified its essence of monitoring relevant environmental developments, anticipating their consequences and contributing to the organisation's

strategy formulation processes with sharply-honed timing. Should public relations education and training provide a background adequate in all respects, there will be a much higher percentage of public relations managers capable of fulfilling the role of strategist. Environmental scanning demands heightened sensitivity in addition to a wide background knowledge and up-to-date alertness for the keen anticipation of possible consequences for an organisation, especially with regard to pluralism, chance and change.

This holds the meaning of “prevention is better than cure” and thereby the potential of raising the ethics of public relations practice. Heightened sensitivity is akin to adopting some of the points of chaos theory: helping the organisation to capitalise on unplanned opportunities, quick action for intervention at crisis points, having well-grounded knowledge of the society in which the organisation operates, allowing change to evolve from within a target group itself, helping the organisation to stay open to information from the outside. Readiness to utilise chaos theory requires not only a thorough and wide relevant background but also creativity on the part of the strategist. Creativity flows more readily in a relaxed attitude of alert confidence, which the relevant wide background and experience is likely to nurture. It is in the sense of the strategist illuminating spontaneous opportunities and curtailing or pre-empting setbacks rather than the organisation *controlling public perceptions* of issues that the ethics of public relations can be strengthened. Taking the initiative at the critical instant requires being alert to all the ramifications of events and impacting influences. A field led by such people will gain much higher respect, both in its purpose and operation, than one which purports to *manage public perceptions*.

High ethics and high integrity in a field motivates strongly, for people need to feel that they are doing something truly worthy. Medsger (1996:23-24) found that fewer students were entering journalism because of concern that newsroom managers promoted sensation and titillation in the belief that it is linked with higher profits, while journalists expressed disenchantment with the daily struggle to preserve integrity. Medsger (1996:15-16) also found that ethical considerations can be explored more readily in an integrated communication education course, although some journalism courses said there was no need for an ethics course as ethical discussions can be included in any part of the programme.

Hodkinson (1992:35) says that people-jobs particularly present constant new challenges, for which a mixture of context specific knowledge and skill and generalisable abilities and strategies to tackle the unknown and also the ability *to think for and about oneself* is necessary. Not only does a good theoretical background play a vital role, but Ashworth (1992:10-11) points out that understanding should be given a place of honour, for the wider and deeper the knowledge and understanding an individual has, the more dimensions of a situation and surrounding circumstances such person will be able to bring into consideration, thus being able to work on the situation more creatively and imaginatively. Ashworth (1992:14) says that some people are better than others at seeing relevant applications in new contexts and that it is not, as yet, known why. One should not, therefore, expect that every public relations technician given a good theoretical background will become a public relations strategist.

3.8.5 Issues for the curriculation of public relations

The most basic challenge is the first kind of competence required in *outcomes-based* education and training and is consequent upon the lack of a body of theory in public relations, in other words, the lack of scientific status and of professional recognition : as *outcomes-based* education and training must provide foundational knowledge, practical ability and also reflexive ability, it is important that foundational knowledge be built from the beginning of any course. However, *generic* communication studies can provide the foundational knowledge for public relations, and, as this is also the case for the other *specialisation* areas of communication, such as journalism and advertising, efficacious economy guides us to an integrated communication education and training course/programme, which means that graduates in all of these areas will thereby be equipped with a basis for traditional, scholarly research as well as for the application area and also for reflective competence. Medsger's (1996) investigation has shown the great benefit to be derived from an integrated communication education course, and this can be put to even greater use by offering it as the basis for, not just journalism, but other applications of communication as well in any one institution.

An issue which will flow from the foregoing is the second area of competence required by *outcomes-based education*, the ability to perform a set of appropriate tasks. This requires practical application in a particular area or field, and each of these can thus be seen as a specialisation of communication. Important here is the utilisation of expert contribution from industry. A vital aspect of this issue will be the linking of the

performance of tasks with the theory of the particular specialisation, thus it is important that both the theory of the specialisation and the practical application be tutored by experts from industry. This could be the engine of the testing of academic theory by practitioners - so sorely needed for the building of a scientific body of knowledge in public relations.

A further issue flows from the foregoing issue, and that is the issue of utilising tutors who hold appropriate accreditation. Thus the credits in a particular field should be closely linked with qualification which, in turn, should govern registration, and this should provide a clear guide to designation. This will promote high standards in tutoring and in research and also in industry.

Education and training for the 21st century can surpass the contribution of either *generic* or *vocational* education and training according to the measure in which it successfully negotiates the issue of the third kind of competence required in *outcomes-based* education and training, that of reflexive competence. Reflexive competence, as stated at the beginning of this section, is the connection of knowledge and understanding for application to new situations. In other words, the connection of knowledge with performance enables the individual to solve unforeseen problems. It has been shown that many writers have said that communication, while the foundation of public relations, is no longer a sufficient base. The overriding importance of culture for the public relations practitioner has also been stressed and, of course, the multi-cultural situation. As reflexive competence rests on the ability to draw together in the thinking process all the various impacting influences of a public relations issue, it is clear that social and cultural and psychological bearings, to name some possible background influences, will be relevant. Also relevant could be areas affecting the line function of an organisation, such as any current market economy events or, as in departments of defence, political changes. These serve as examples of obvious connection, but the context of public relations issues can house many more. The significance for education and training is that it needs to provide graduates with more than a deep knowledge of communication and its practical application in its specialisation, for this provides the expertise of message-sending. This clearly is extremely important for any messenger serving in the public arena, but the question must be raised of whether or not it is sufficient, and reflection leads to the compelling conclusion that it cannot be. Minor subjects included in an educational programme which are allied in the communication field - whether one

or more of these communication subjects is regarded as a major - fail to provide the deep knowledge which a public rhetor or a communicator of strategic relationships demands. As Weaver (1965:18) said, the public rhetor should lead the audience in the direction of what is good, and if we add to such responsibility the ability to solve the situational problem at hand, it can be seen that graduation must furnish an area of broad and deep knowledge other than those allied to the field of communication. A second major subject is also significant for research and, as already discussed, for the promotion of a body of knowledge in public relations.

The foregoing suggests a theoretical framework for an appropriate curriculum for public relations education which -

(1) lays down as the grounding theoretical component Generic Communication Studies, providing a deep understanding of human communication, including the areas of interpersonal, small group, intercultural, persuasive, organisational, political, and the philosophy of, communication, inter alia;

(2) recognises the various applications of communication as elective modules of specialisation each providing a strong link with a particular career;

(3) provides for qualifications linked with credit-levels, for compulsory registration which furnishes appropriate designation;

(4) fosters both foundational and applied competence and particularly meets the demand for problem-solving abilities through the fostering of reflexive competence;

(5). offers as second major subject choices only those which are not a sub-field or closely allied field of communication in order that qualifying learners will be able to offer industry, in addition to strategic communication skills, a knowledge background which connects their potential contribution closely to line function, thus promoting (where relevant) their chances of becoming part of the management/dominant group of an organisation;

(6) provides adequate background on high levels for research that is contextual and reflective and developmental.

3.8.6 An appropriate curriculation approach for public relations

Section 3.4 sees the Rational perspective of education as grounding values on reason, with this being the approach utilised by universities, or tertiary *generic education*, from its inception in the Middle Ages. It was only in the 19th century in both Germany and in England that Empiricism, which requires tangible evidence as well as a rational basis for knowledge, ushered in scientific method. It is clear from the history of curriculation approaches given in section 3.6, that whatever approach university education has adopted down the ages, it has succeeded in its aim of nurturing students to high levels of education and intellectual grace, which is the ability to *marshall knowledge in situations when needed*, much like the *reflexive competency* required by *outcomes-based education*. The civilisation changes in section 3.6 show that university men, such as the Oxford lecturer Roger Bacon, were indeed leaders in ideas, inventions and innovations, and were inextricably linked with the march to scientific development. Until the end of the 18th century, *vocational education* followed its pattern of individual practical training of apprentices, utilising a *pedagogical* approach, which approach was also used by the universities up to that time. The undermining of the *pedagogical* approach, which began in the 19th century and strengthened into the Lifelong Learning of the 20th century, took form first as *andragogy*, in which the individual's learning needs took focus, with problem-solving and experiencing being prominent, and which are both important focuses of *outcomes-based education* today. While Rogers (1969) has challenged the approach of *andragogy* with his *student-centred* approach, Boyer (1984:18) has shown, as has already been mentioned, that both of these approaches stress holistic learning and that there is very little difference between them.

Yet change in the form of the Industrial Revolution which gained ground in 18th century England had a strong influence on education. While mass education was a growing phenomenon, it has been shown that it influenced *vocational education* in the 19th century, and that during the 20th century the clear value divide was apparent between the secondary school *generic education* and the secondary school *technical education*. Yet we see that 20th century curriculation approaches of both university and technical institutions include Rationalism, Empiricism and the more recent Pragmatism, which includes, inter alia, practical experience and problem-solving.

Turning to the education and training of public relations, it cannot be stated that all institutions follow all three approaches, for it varies from one institution to another and also from country to country. What can be postulated is that the combination of all three provides an approach promising fruitfulness for acquiring foundational knowledge, practical application and problem-solving ability, in other words, the three kinds of competence required by *outcomes-based education*. Moreover, the more recent pragmatism approach holds fertile ground for the promotion of democracy. Pragmatism sees knowledge as constantly undergoing change and that it constitutes that which is agreed amongst all who view the world rationally at any one time. (The critical weakness herein is apparent, for, as Zais (1976:148) says, there is bound to be disagreement so we should have to return to the question of what is good.) Yet democracy is arrived at through accommodation so as to produce consensus, which calls to mind the injunction of Plato *moderation in all things*, for this is surely moderation being applied in a general way. (It has also been noted that Zais (1976:145) says this social agreement means that knowledge has future, rather than as heretofore past, reference.) The foregoing statements are a particularly promising basis for promoting the practice of public relations, for Holtzhausen (2000:99-102) says, there is a strong need for fundamental change in society and for public relations practitioners to address as community activists ideological domination of minority groups. This dramatically confronts one of the social roles in which White (Grunig & White 1992) says public relations practitioners view their work, that of the *conservative social role* in which *the interests and privileges of the economically and political powerful are defended*, which is mentioned in section 2.4.10. Thus it seems that the adoption of the Rational, Empirical and Pragmatist approach to the curriculation of public relations is not going to make any contribution to its basic controversies. What these three approaches in curriculation will do is to maximise opportunities for discussion and debate and for providing background and impetus for research on both the academic and the practical front for the building of a body of knowledge.

It has been shown that *outcomes-based education* is an evolving model. The criticisms of the competence-based model discussed in section 3.8.2, and the table in 3.8.4 showing the relationship of these criticisms and the findings of Medsger (1996) regarding an application of communication, journalism, to the exigencies of the curriculation of public relations education, point to the judiciousness of adopting an *outcomes-based* curriculation approach to public relations education as initiated by New Zealand in the

1990s. This proposes a single system which will eliminate the academic/vocational divide. This system (which New Zealand has not yet succeeded in implementing fully), should adopt a competence-based approach towards practical skills, but this should be effected against a strong background of relevant knowledge and understanding. Learners should have what the cliché calls “the best of both worlds”, on an overall basis of the *Education of Equals*.

3.8.7 A suggested framework for an outcomes-based public relations curriculum

The history of public relations education shows that from its beginning in the USA, the national education tradition, which is close to the perspective of Pragmatism, resulted in the *vocational* education model being utilised for public relations education and training. In Europe, however, where the *generic* education model has been utilised over centuries, this model has been utilised for public relations education. However, the twentieth century has seen these two models needing to move closer to one another, due to developments in communication and technology imposing requirements of broader and deeper knowledge upon the *vocational* education model and of practical application upon the *generic* education model. The two areas of requirement, this study holds, can be accommodated in the most recent education model, that of *outcomes-based education*, provided, as both Garland (1994) and Hodkinson (1992) have explained, the process reliably accommodates the link between the definition of learning outcomes and the need to maintain a student-centred approach and also emphasises the significance of public theory (the accumulated wisdom of the profession, from literature and experts); and, in addition, all the contexts of such learning are understood. Great responsibility will thus rest upon tutor and learners. Bearing these factors in mind, consideration is now given to a proposed outline for a curriculum for public relations.

It can be seen that the following framework for an *outcomes-based* public relations curriculum makes provision for two majors, of which communication theory is compulsory for all students, and that Public Relations is shown as a specialisation elective, other electives not being shown. The elective should be tutored by a person with extensive professional experience, according to the findings of the investigation by Medsger. Several writers have mentioned as stated in section 2.3.2, such as Lee and Padget (2000) and McInerny (1997/1998), that ethics courses need to be extensive so

as to develop values considered essential for ethical behaviour. Ethics for public relations could form part of the elective, so that at regular intervals a public relations practitioner is invited to speak of first-hand experience of ethical issues, with discussion periods following. Innovative methods of assessment thereof should be welcomed. Ethics is also provided for in Communication Studies. The elective of public relations should also cover new communication technology which can be harnessed for public relations, so that the tutoring can keep pace with the latest developments.

A second language from another country, should be seen as compulsory. The first part of a language course can deal with conversational ability, while the second part should give the students a reasonable writing ability. This will equip them with a basic ability, which they can build upon readily once they have graduated. Such a language course should provide some understanding of the relevant culture.

The second major subject will help to provide a wider background, which should promote research, and the research course should make students very aware of the value of theoretically-grounded research. Flexibility is also promoted by a broad and deep background, according to Medsger's findings set out in section 3.7.
Perhaps one of the most important requirements for many students will be the second major subject. Should a student be desirous of, or need to, commence work upon graduating, a major of, for example, economics will favour their job-seeking, and should it be the line-function of the company concerned, it should strengthen their chances of becoming a member of the organisation's dominant coalition in due course.

A suggested framework is set out below:-

Table 16 : SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK FOR A TECHNIKON LEVEL *OUTCOMES-BASED* PUBLIC RELATIONS CURRICULUM

Length of course :	3 years (can be 4 years)
Compulsory subjects :	Major : Communication studies Major : Choice of 2nd major from list Minor : Second language (from another country - 2 semesters) Minor : Presentation skills (1 semester) Minor : Media studies, including media law (2 semesters) Minor : Choice of another 1 from list (1 semester) Elective: Public relations (2 semesters)

The full course consists of 2 major subjects, 3 compulsory minor subjects, plus 1 minor subject chosen from remaining minor subjects, and the elective from a list of communication specialisations offered. It should be noted that compulsory minor subjects may vary according to the communication specialisation elected.	
Compulsory major :	Communication studies (The following areas are included, inter alia - fundamental communication theory, interpersonal and group communication, mass communication, persuasive communication, organisational communication, quantitative and qualitative communication research, communication philosophy, ethics of communication, communication policy, communication campaign and project management, development communication).
2ND Major chosen from :	Economics Business Management / Marketing Management Sociology Political Science Industrial Psychology Development Studies Philosophy (Majors : 6 semesters each.)
Compulsory minor subjects : (List can vary with communication specialisation elected)	(1) A second language - that of another country (2 semesters) (2) Media Studies, including media law, communication media (2 semesters) (3) Presentation skills (1 semester)
1 additional minor subject from : (Can vary with different communication specialisation electives)	Business economics Public administration Public health affairs Sport management, entertainment management and welfare management (Each 1 semester)
one elective : (To be chosen from list of offerings)	Public relations (The following areas are included, inter alia - New communication technologies for public relations, international public relations, Globalisation of public relations Ethics in public relations.)
Experiential Training :	A period of 3 months' service in an approved organisation, which can be arranged during a study break period or after the end of the study course. (A completed service period of three months gains this credit.)

New areas include the requirement of a second major subject. Students will thus have a wider and deeper background in an area to which public relations can be applied. The elective of *public relations* will focus strongly on areas such as Globalisation of public relations and International public relations. The major of Communication studies will include communication philosophy, communication policy, ethics of communication and campaign and project management. Also very important is both quantitative and

qualitative research. The specialisation of communcication management in Public health affairs and Sport Management and other areas will deepen knowledge of particular areas so that the application of public relations will be sharply honed. A second language from another country will help to equip students further for international public relations. Another benefit will be gained from the fact that the 3 months' experiential training will be gained outside the study sessions of the 3 year programme, allowing more time for the academic programme.

3.9 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 has sought to investigate how education can make a contribution to the scientific status of public relations education.

As the lack of professionalisation and scientific status links with the history of public relations education and thus with IPRA's recognition of there being two approaches to public relations education, and bearing in mind that the approach adopted influences the perspective employed in curriculation, the two approaches of *vocational education* and *generic education* have been closely examined. The strengths and the weaknesses of each have been revealed, and substantiation sought for the weaknesses identified in an analysis of the findings of an investigation into *generic education* and of *vocational education* courses in another applied field of communication, journalism. Both the examination and the investigation have shown that while *generic education* lacks practical training, *vocational education* lacks a broad and deep theoretical foundation. These findings confirm the link between curriculation and the lack of a body of knowledge and theory-based research in public relations.This is the link between the perspective adopted for curriculation and the lack of professionalisation.

A table has been compiled linking the findings of the investigation into *generic education* and *vocational education* and the curriculation concepts involved with the basic tenets of the most recent model, *outcomes-based education*. This model has been adopted by several countries, but is still in the process of being adapted by some to suit their particular educational needs.

For this reason, the *outcomes-based* approach to the curriculation of public relations education was closely examined, and a suggested framework for an *outcomes-based*

public relations curriculum was drawn up.

The history of curriculation approaches which is shown in the tables in section 3.6 demonstrates the constraints which issues such as world view / values / prevailing ethics place on the context of public relations education. The educational context leads to an emphasis on particular curriculation. Chapter 2 has illustrated how the context of public relations education in the USA has lead to the adoption of a *vocational education* approach, while in Europe the context has led to a *generic education* approach to public relations. In section 2.3.2 dealing with the dual approach to public relations education, Boyer (1990) mentions that in Europe education is more likely to be seen as noteworthy, for Europeans place a different value on education and being educated than do most Americans, while Hazleton and Cutbirth (1993) point out that the European Economic Community is impacting on the legal/political, the competitive, the economic, the social and the technological, dimensions of the environment, and that this has affected the demand for, and the practice of, public relations. It has been mentioned that South Africa can be seen as a microcosm of the overall situation of the field of public relations, for in South Africa tertiary education has some institutions which follow the European approach, and some which follow the approach of the USA. Here these two approaches exist side-by-side, and discharge into one and the same environment products of varying properties for the field. It can be expected that in this situation the weaknesses of either approach will be confirmed as issues for the field and the practice of public relations.

Chapter 4, therefore, discusses how the issues which have been explored in Chapter 2 and 3 manifest in the South African context.