THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION OF
DISFRANCHISED TEACHERS

by

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DISSERTATION

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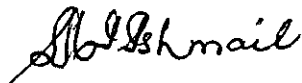
OCTOBER 1996

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own work, that it has never been presented at any other university in any way and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

Michelle Ingrid Ishmail
October 1996

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my son, Rick Jamie
for his

patience, sacrifice and understanding.

ABSTRACT

This study deals principally with the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised in the Republic of South Africa. As the creation of a democratic, non-racial, united South Africa depends on the quality of the nation's education, the calibre of the teacher assumes a critical position. The purpose of this study is to establish whether the quality of education offered, provided for the development and transformation of these teachers.

A historical overview of the major legislation which impacted on the lives of the disfranchised teacher is provided in order to give an understanding of the conditions which disfranchised teachers endured and how it affected their education in the segregated education departments. It emerges that education for the disfranchised was rigidly controlled by Central Government with the aim of preparing the disfranchised for perpetual subservience. Hence curricula for the various racial groups were diverse, it stressed obedience, communal loyalty and the rigid regimentation of teachers. Moreover none of these disfranchised teachers have completed their schooling untouched by the wave of protests, boycotts and demonstrations to oppose the entire political, economic, social and educational system which controlled their lives. In trying to accommodate prospective teachers who were unable to complete their schooling, curriculums in Colleges of Education were adapted and have thus become loaded with theory resulting in a skewed outcome at the expense of competency, efficiency, empowerment and the ability to bring about change in the classroom.

The curriculums used after 1979 at Colleges of Education for the disfranchised, is outlined to ascertain if it indeed provided for the development and transformation of these teachers. In addition a brief synopsis of teacher education for the franchised is provided to determine the difference in provision.

During the study, the key persons involved in teacher education (student

teachers, teachers and lecturers) were asked to comment on anticipated shortcomings in their teacher education as well as difficulties they experienced due to these shortcomings. The research focused on 6 schools which operated under the ex-disfranchised departments as well as lecturers from a College of Education in Kimberley.

The research shows that student teachers, teachers and lecturers agree that the practical aspect of teacher education needs more attention.

On the basis of the research, certain changes in teacher education programmes for teachers, is recommended.

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CHAPTER 1

1. ANALYSIS OF THE THEME, EXPLANATION OF THE CONCEPTS AND METHODOLOGICAL ACCOUNTABILITY

1.1 Orientation

As South Africa enters an era of democracy, there seems to be much expected from the new dispensation. Many argue that the government should make education its prime concern as the development and future of the country depends on the quality of education.

It is quite evident that amidst much publicised educational discussions, debates and proposals, that some heed had been given to this call, but the question arises, what is the quality of the majority of teachers that will man the schools?

Apart from being deprived the right to vote as fully fledged citizens in the country of their birth, these teachers who were disfranchised, were subjected to a segregated system of primary and secondary schooling under Bantu, Coloured and Indian Education. Molteno (1990:94) contends that this segregated system was designed to control the pupils knowledge, restrict lines of communication and contact across barrier lines. In effect the system aimed to dwarf the minds of children of the disfranchised by conditioning them to servitude.

The implementation of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 gave rise to Black schools being taken out of the hands of the church and non-state bodies, and control was centralised in Pretoria. The syllabi was revised centrally and when enforced in 1956, stressed obedience, ethnic and national adversity, acceptance of allocated social roles, communal loyalty, piety and the identification with rural culture. Teachers were regimented rigidly and although the provision of elementary schooling was expanded

enormously, the cost per student was reduced. This was done by means of double session schooling, the employment of underqualified teachers, paying minimal salaries to black teachers and pegging the amount of the state's contribution to education, thus making African parents pay for their children's schooling.

Like-wise the Coloured Persons Education Act and the Indian Education Act was passed in 1963 and 1965 respectively. Molteno (1990:94) adds that this segregated system with its centralised control gave rise to a more efficient and complete totalitarian control of student and teacher both in and out of school.

Although there was much resistance to the educational policy, from the disfranchised, the state responded with mechanisms of control such as the Native and Coloured and Indian Affairs, the labour bureaux, the pass laws, the group areas and other restrictive legislation. Molteno (1990:93) however believes that whereas this regimentation was mainly physical the Bantu, Coloured and Indian Education Systems were aimed at the mind.

As affirmed by Malherbe (1937:484) Bantu Education was justified at the time, as it was claimed that it would lead to a modern progressive culture where "separate Bantu society" with its separate Bantu economy would contribute to the economic prosperity of the country. However, Hunt Davis Jnr (1990:134) quotes a view from a scholar John Shingler who echoes the sentiment of Molteno (1990:93). He believed that the educational policy of the time played a major role in forging the political order of South Africa at the time. He stresses the following:

> "The superior status of the whites was sustained in turn
> by the skills which their position enabled them to
> acquire... The subordination of the Blacks was reinforced
> and complemented by their education, parsimonious financial
> support, the refusal to make education compulsory even in the

> cities and circumscribed curricula, all combined to limit Black
> participation in society. The educational policies and ideas
> were thus... directed to the reinforcement of an overall
> structure of differentiation and combination."

Be this as it may, education for the disfranchised seems to have failed to equip many with the necessary skills to meet the manpower needs of a democratic, non-racial South Africa.

Essop (1992:2) comments on the detrimental effect this education system had on the development of the economy and society as a whole. He says that it destroyed the human potential of the country with devastating consequences, as this is evident in the lack of skilled trained labour and the adverse effect it had on productivity and international competitiveness.

It is further pointed out that the oppressive, unequal and separate education system, rendered the disfranchised teacher, unprepared and ill-equipped, not only to teach the nation's young, but unable to cope with demands of teaching in a society which is in transition and also in a changing world at large (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:170).

Added to their dilemma, less than half of these teachers, through no fault of their own, do not have a Senior Certificate and have passed through teaching institutions in which they were not equipped with formal teaching skills (Kies 1989:23).

Christie (1991:168) believes that these teachers fell prey to what Paulo Freire describes as,

> "Teachers deposit or transfer knowledge into empty minds
> of their students and treat knowledge like an object, a
> commodity that can be exchanged instead of something
> people create",

they thus teach the way they were taught.

Kies (1989:3-4) on the other hand emphasises,

>"this does not allow teachers to blame their lack of
>adequate preparation for their role in education on
>the school and training college system and leave it
>at that.
>Their choice of a profession imposes powerful obligations
>upon them."

1.2   Analysis of the theme and explanation of concepts

1.2.1 Analysis of the Theme

Given the conditions of the tribalised sub-education departments, as mentioned above, there can be very little disagreement that the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised is vital. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to draw attention to this need.

Kinley (1981:4-5) outlines conditions which have deteriorated over the years. He says that teachers struggled manfully, but with growing despair and frustration against the odds of large classes, poor pre-school backgrounds of their pupils, poorly resourced classrooms and regimentation and harassment by principals and inspectors. Moreover, the considerable inadequacies of the teacher's own academic background and professional training make their task almost impossible as they themselves have been afflicted by these disabilities.

Kane (1989:4) stresses, that a programme of uninterrupted teaching, learning, research, study and professional training at a College of Education is essential for developing and producing sound competent teachers. Yet, the schooling of teachers

who were disfranchised, was punctuated by almost annual boycotts of formal lessons. Thus the quality of teachers in the schools becomes a pertinent question:

In 1985 the school programme was fragmented by a boycott that extended into the weeks of the final examinations. At many schools pupils did not write internal final examinations and were promoted on their June and September results. At schools where examinations were written, results were poor and those who passed had a far from adequate foundation in the subjects they studied for the Senior Certificate course. The fact of the matter is these basic weaknesses as affirmed by Kane (1989:4), pupils had to take with them into tertiary education programmes at universities, technicons and teacher-training colleges.

The negative effects of disfranchised schooling is reflected in the 1987 and 1988 third year examinations of student teachers. According to Kane (1989:4) the national average percentage of passes in the different courses were as follows:

In 1987, Diploma in Education (DE) III Junior Primary 78% passed. This means that twenty two out of every one hundred candidates failed. In the DE III Senior Primary, the pass rate was 80,8% but it implied that if 2000 candidates throughout the country sat for the examination almost 400 failed. In the DE III Practical Specialization the pass rate was 76%, which meant that 24 out of every 100 candidates failed.

The 1988 national results were even weaker. The DE III Junior Primary had a pass rate of 69,2%, about 31 out of every 100 candidates failed. In the DE III Senior Primary, 75,3% passed and in the DE III Practical Specialisation, 70,1% passed.

The results mirror the negative consequences of an inadequate programme, but the tragic irony is that those who got through the examination, thus became certificated teachers, but the majority passed with aggregate percentages barely above 50%.

If the strength of an education system depends largely on the quality of its teachers

as believed by George Bereday and Joseph Lawerys in their introduction to the Year Book of Education 1963, as quoted by Megary (1980(a):9) then, the quality of teachers who were disfranchised needs to be questioned seriously. Are these teachers able to give effective classroom guidance so that pupils are able to make a meaningful contribution to the political, economic and social aspects of the new dispensation. Do these teachers have the skills to teach children the concepts and principles of mathematics, of science and of biology and an appreciation of the humanities, and above all stimulate critical thought?

Mncwabe (1990:36) contends that the whole art of teaching is the awakening of the natural curiosity of young minds, therefore a competent teacher will be acutely aware of what goes on in his classroom, himself as a teacher, his background and experience during his training and his interaction with the community. He goes on to say that a competent teacher should raise the pupils level of awareness in life, enlarge rather than satisfy natural curiosity, open up a sense of individual capacity and responsibility and hold up before the pupil an ideal worth pursuing and realising as a person.

These competencies depends on the quality of the teacher training programme. Robinson (1975:3) views teaching practice as the key aspect to teacher competency. He argues that although some institutions have realised the importance of practice teaching, many have neglected it to the detriment of the prospective teacher.

According to Venter (1989:67) teaching practice provides the student with an opportunity to apply such competencies and reinforce what has been learnt. This notion is affirmed by the DET (1985:1) practice teaching syllabi. "The aim of teaching practice is to equip the student teacher with the skills that she/he will require in order to give effect to this most important aspect of her/his task, for the proper management of a class as efficient teaching is fundamental to a teacher's success."

However, if one moves from the above premise and that of Kruger and Muller (1989:10) that a teacher can only act competently and professionally when he commands knowledge, skills and a positive attitude towards his work, the task of the teacher who was disfranchised indeed seems impossible as mentioned by Kinley earlier.

Thus, an effective teacher training programme has to be sought which will lead to the development and transformation of all teachers. This seems right if one intends to hasten the spread of literacy and generate a love of learning and the acquisition of skills, so that teaching can be more rewarding for teacher and learner. Kies (1993:2) recommends positive actions, such as study, re-training, re-education and discarding negative attitudes from the misdirected past.

1.2.2 Definition of key concepts

The following terms have been used in the introduction and will be used constantly in the text that follows:

(a) Development

According to Kruger et al (1983:14) development implies that a person becomes capable of doing, knowing, feeling, etc, that which he could or did not do know, feel, etc before. It is however felt that the change that occurs in adults is qualitively different from the change that occurs in children. Adults extend their level of knowledge and deeper insight, but does not change in essence. It is said that the child becomes, as not only his dialogue changes, but he changes in totality.

Rudduck (1987:129) defines development as professional growth which leads to:

"...the capacity of a teacher to remain curious about the
classroom; to identify significant concerns in the process

of teaching and learning; to value and seek dialogue with experienced colleagues as support in the analysis of data; and to adjust patterns of classroom action in the light of new understandings."

For Hoyle (1980:42) "professional development is the process by which teachers acquire the knowledge and skills essential to good professional practice at each stage of a career."

(b)   Transformation

In his address to the summit of higher education, held on the 29 - 30 July 1996, Professor SME Bengu, Minister of Education explains what is meant by transformation in government context. He pledges the governments commitment to replace the old framework of higher education with a democratic framework which is appropriate for a non-racial, non-sexist and democratic society. This change would imply the transformation of institutions involving all stakeholders. Prof Bengu refers to transformation as a process which occurs at two levels. He refers to a systemic level and an institutional level.

At systemic level, proposed policy changes would be discussed with major stakeholders, before a public hearing would be scheduled, and later taken to the cabinet for adoption before legislation can be put into place.

Institutional transformation however, is the responsibility of the institutions themselves, under the supervision of the government. Thus each institution needs to have a clear programme of transformation that deals both with how policy decisions around transformation will be arrived at and how it will be implemented.

At the same summit, a committee of Technikon Principals view transformation as:

"Transformation entails the democratic and peaceful
process whereby all the relevant stakeholders meaningful
contribute to the creation of a learning and teaching
environment that is conducive to the successful offering of a
career focused education and also meets the needs of the
learners, employers and other stakeholders and benefits
the particular communities at large and the country as
a whole."

Students at the summit see transformation as: "the democratisation of governance structures and policy formulation, equality of access to education in line with the Reconstruction and Development Programme's principles of life-long learning and human resource development, and the transformation of curriculum research, to be relevant to the needs of our society".

In Paulo Freire's letters to post independent Guinea Bissau (1978:15) he sees transformation as follows:

"In transforming the educational system inherited from
the colonizers one of the necessary tasks is the training
of new groups of teachers and the retraining of old ones.
Among these teachers and especially those who
perceive to be "captured" by the old ideology and who
will consciously continue to embrace it, they will fall into
the practice of undermining, either in a hidden or in an open
way the new practice. From such persons one cannot
hope for any positive action towards the reconstruction of
society. But there will be others who, also perceiving
themselves to be captive to the old ideology, will nonetheless
attempt to free themselves from it through the new practice
to which they will adhere."

(c)   Disfranchised teachers: Black Coloured and Indian

For Sykes (1982:294) disfranchise is "to deprive rights as a citizen or of a franchise held...." or deprive a person of the right of voting for a parliamentary representative.

The majority of South Africans were excluded from the franchise, thus rendering them disfranchised. O'Connell (1991:131) believes that if participation in the government is a basic human right, to be voteless is to be less than human, and a transformed South Africa should be one in which democracy through humanity is restored.

This study distinguishes between the different racial groups, as they were controlled under the segregated education departments, prior to the new dispensation. It must be noted that with the rise of Black Consciousness in South Africa during the early 1960's the negative appellation which was given to all 'non white' South Africans, other than those classified as 'White' was rejected by the Bantu Coloured and Indian. The majority of the disfranchised wanted to be called Blacks (Goldin 1987:7).

Bantu

According to Sykes (1982:69) "Bantu (oo)... is a member of a group of Negroid people in equatorial and Southern Africa, ... group of languages spoken by them, (Bantu-people"

For Kirkpatrick (1981:58) the Bantu is the name given to a large group of South African languages and the people speaking them.

Gwinn (1989:876) also makes reference to Bantu languages. "The Bantu languages are spoken in a large area, including most of Africa from the fifth parallel of north latitude (roughly below the bulge into the Atlantic) to the Cape Province in the Republic of South Africa, the southernmost tip..." He adds that, the classification of Bantu

people is primarily linguistic "...the cultural patterns of Bantu speakers are extremely diverse; the linguistic connection has, however, given time to considerable speculation concerning a possible common area of origin of the Bantu peoples..."

The terms African and Native is used throughout the study but like the term Bantu it is no longer used officially, because most South Africans who were disfranchised found it offensive.

According to Sykes (1982:92) <u>Native</u> refers to ..."person born or whose parents are domiciled at his birth (place...(South Africa) Black".

Kirkpatrick (1981:507) is more inclusive. He refers to <u>Native</u> as "belonging to the people inhabiting a country originally or at the time of its discovery, especially when they are coloured or uncivilised (e.g. customs)... One born on any place; an original inhabitant..."

African refers to dark-skinned people and pertains to Negroes (Sykes 1982:92).

Coloured

Shillington (1988:25) claims that the so called "<u>coloured</u>" population of the Cape was the result of interbreeding between Europeans and Khoikoi and the Khoikoi and slaves. He states that during the nineteenth century whites began to use the term Cape Coloured to refer to the whole of the Dutch (Afrikaans)-speaking servile population of slaves, mixed race and Khoisan.

Goldin (1987:XXXI) says that in the nineteenth century, the term Coloured on official documents referred to all persons not classified as European. By 1904, the term Coloured had been reconstituted to exclude Bantu speaking people. Although the term "<u>mixed race</u>" was used by liberal commentators and The British media at the time, it

is argued that it is nonsense to attempt to distinguish the Coloured people in this manner. "Mixed race" implies the prior existence of "pure" race groups. Goldin (1987:XXVII) maintains that no race exists which is not mixed, but agrees that intermixing undoubtedly contributed substantially to the population which was defined as Coloured. In Progress of a People (1974:5) it is affirmed that the Coloured community which includes the Griquas and Malays are of mixed descent.

Indian

According to Jaff (1961:131) the Indians in South Africa were brought to Natal in 1860 as slaves to work on the sugar plantations. They originated from Indonesia and India. After their emancipation they stayed on and became market gardeners and domestic servants. Many developed into wealthy merchants in the province.

Thompson (1990:173) also refers to the origins of the South African Indian as being India, Indonesia and Ceylon.

Coetzee (1983:152) says that these Indian slaves brought to South Africa from Indonesia and India were of mixed descent. They were Australoid-Caucasian due to their travels out of the west into north west India, the present Pakistan.

(d)   Teacher

Duminy, Dreyer and Steyn (1994:5) refer to the teacher by making use of the term educator. They see the educator as a person who influences others in an acceptable and approvable way and who has an enhancing effect on them.

The educator is viewed as an adult person who accepts the responsibility for supporting the child. Parents and family members are believed to be the primary educators, while the teachers are seen as secondary professional educators. The

teacher is deemed to be essential in the life of the child as they are academically schooled professionals who are able to support and guide the child and transmit to him the required knowledge, skills and norms (Duminy and Steyn 1989:10).

For Mncwabe (1990:37) a teacher should through his personality, character and attitudes exercise a wholesome and inspiring influence on young people.

Beeby (1986:37) says: "Teachers are the frontline troops of change and progress depends on their own education, motivation and freedom to innovate."

(e)   Teaching

Söhnge and Dreckmeyer (1981:3) say that the concept teaching is derived from a Sanskrit root, 'dic' meaning to show. In a didactic sense it means to "show by way of information or instruction." Kruger et al (1983:15) believe that teaching can be explained by the use of the concept reveal. The teacher reveals certain aspects of reality or draws attention to them so that the learner can take cognizance of them.

Gunter (1978:10) views teaching as an activity by which "...a human being is taught by another person... to know and to do certain things. Teaching is always concerned with helping a pupil to acquire knowledge and skills... It must be emphasized that teaching is not a one sided activity in which only the teacher is active while the pupil is passive. On the contrary, teaching is an activity in which both teacher and pupil have an active part to play and both are essentially active."

Stuart, et al (1987:4) contends that the concept teaching includes "the activities of the person who transmits the contents (knowledge) as well as the active participation of the one who is learning. The person who is learning may be a child pupil or student. Teaching thus embraces two concepts which can respectively be described as 'instruction' and 'learning'.

(f)   Training

According to Sykes (1982:1136) to train is "to bring or come to desired state or standard of efficiency, etc., by instruction and practice."

Gunter (1978:23) says: "Training indicates some form of vocational teaching or other; the preparation by means of instruction, practical exercise and coaching of children and also grown ups, for a specific vocation, profession or task. So, for example, we speak of the training of technicians, soldiers, instructors, teachers, doctors, engineers, etc."

For Kruger, et al (1983:16-19) "Its general meaning is that of guiding people to acquire certain - skills... Training points to a certain level of coaching because it is the basis upon which sound habits are built... In a certain sense the concept 'training' can be reserved for the inculcation acquisition or mastery of skills and of knowledge of a subject or in respect of a trade in order to prepare a person in the sense that values and attitudes that are related to a particular work situation are inculcated."

The above definitions gives an indication of the key role the teacher plays within an education system, thus highlighting the importance of quality teacher education and training. Hartsthorne (1993:219) believes that society gets the teachers it deserves and is prepared to pay for. He quotes Mitchell (1935:18)

> "If the education a nation gives its children is, perhaps, the
> clearest expression of its ethos, the training it gives the
> teachers of these children is almost as certainly the index
> of the sincerity of its regard for the standards by which it
> professes to lie."

(g)   Education

Kruger, et al (1983:10) feel that besides the use of the concept education to indicate

a result, it can also be used to indicate the act or activity by means of which adults exert formative influence on children and by means of which children are educated or participate in and are moulded by the formative influence of others. This implies that the child is confronted with values by an educator and that he is participating in his own development by evaluating these values, accepting some o them and even rejecting others, and in this way he is progressing towards adulthood.

Duminy and Steyn (1989:9-10) believe that the concept education also means that the adult guides and assists the child in choosing or accepting particular, religious, cultural, social or personal values and norms. This is done with a specific purpose in mind, to bring about such changes in the life of a child that he will eventually turn out to be the person the child wants to be a swell as the person that his parents, teachers, society and God want him to be .

Fourie, et al (1995:9) see education as a human activity directed at a fellow human being who, with guidance will meaningfully design his own world in compliance with particular norms. They quote Langeveld, a well known pedogician from the Netherlands, who remarks that "man is a being who educates, is educated and is dependent on education."

In the context of this study, it is clear that education is deemed to be vital as the formal transfer of power to the majority, may not herald genuine change, freedom and transformation. O'Connell (1991:131) believes that genuine and deliberate effort is needed for the attainment of these goals. He sees the road to a democratic, unitary, non racial South Africa as a testing one, but is optimistic in his belief that the process can be facilitated by the quality of what is done educationally.

1.3   Problem Formulation

Due to the effects of the unequal and separate education systems in South Africa, the

majority of disfranchised teachers are underqualified and ill-equipped to teach effectively in a changing society. An effective teaching programme which ensures competency, efficiency and teaching initiative to develop and transform the disfranchised teacher for a new dispensation is lacking. Ways should be found to help these teachers to become incorporated in the professional teaching corpse.

1.4 Methods of researching the problem

1.4.1 General Approach

A descriptive and qualitative mode of study will be used. The literature study will include an evaluation of secondary sources, that is theses, and journal articles. Reference will also be made to primary sources such as books and official documentation, namely departmental circulars, education bulletins, official reports and syllabi.

The study will also include questionnaires to be completed by teachers and final year student teachers. Personal interviews will be conducted where possible.

1.4.2 Population sample to be used

Teachers from six schools in Kimberley, from the departments that were disfranchised will form the research samples. A sample of student teachers will be drawn and requested to complete the questionnaires. Lecturers from Colleges of Education in Kimberley will be approached to be interviewed.

1.4.3 Problems foreseen

Not many problems are foreseen, but it is expected that not all questionnaires will be

returned as people usually view the completion of questionnaires as time consuming.

1.5   Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to:

1.5.1   give a historical background of disfranchised teacher education in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to 1979.

1.5.2   investigate the current situation of teachers who were disfranchised.

1.5.3   investigate possible suggestions and proposals which could be included in a programme to facilitate the development and transformation of these teachers.

1.5.4   conclude the study with findings and recommendations.

1.6   Programme Announcement

Chapter 1:   Analysis of the Theme, explanation of the concepts and methodogical accountability.

Chapter 2:   Historical background of disfranchised teachers in the Republic of South Africa (1958 - 1979)

Chapter 3:   Efforts undertaken to provide for the development and transformation of disfranchised teachers (1982 - 1996)

Chapter 4:   The administration of the data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews and an interpration of the results.

Chapter 5: Possible suggestions and recommendations to be included in a programme for the development and transformation of disfranchised teachers.

Chapter 6: Final recommendations and conclusion.

1.7   First Problem Formulation

The historical background of teachers who were disfranchised is investigated as it has a direct bearing on the present education system. The disfranchised teacher who was part of disfranchised communities, was affected by major legislation at the time. It is thus important to determine how this legislation affected the lives of the disfranchised teacher as well as their academic and professional education.

CHAPTER 2

2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS WHO WERE DISFRANCHISED IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA (1948 - 1979)

2.1 Introduction

Education of the disfranchised was completely reorganized with the enactment of the Bantu Education Act which was passed in 1953 (Behr 1988:159).

The Act ensured complete control of Black Education which constituted the majority of the disfranchised, by Central Government. According to Wolpe and Unterhalter (1991:4), the Act was seen as the "major instrument" by which the government in control then, attempted to perpetuate the rigidly occupational structure in which the majority of the disfranchised were excluded from all categories of professions and jobs except that of unskilled labourers. Their views too reflect that education was used to maintain the ideology of superiority by the franchised, therefore, although educational policies were aimed at expanding disfranchised education, it was only aimed at certain levels which were deemed necessary to ensure sufficient labour requirements for the franchised. When introducing the Bantu Education Bill, Dr Verwoerd himself said,

> "Above all, good relations cannot exist when education
> is under the control of people who create wrong expectations
> on the part of the Native, if such people believe in a policy
> of equality... It is therefore necessary that Native education
> should be controlled in such a way that it should be in
> accord with the policy of the State" (Hansard, V. 10, 1953) .

Wolpe and Unterhalter (1991:4) also view that the content of education was restructured to ensure that the values of Christian National Education could be inculcated in the disfranchised, thus they would be socialized to "accept" their

insubordination within the segregated social system. Molteno (1990:94) endorses that Bantu, Coloured and Indian Education were designed precisely to control the direction of thought, to restrict lines of communication and in so doing curtail contact and delimit the boundaries of knowledge of Blacks. It aimed to dwarf the minds of black children by conditioning them to servitude and prepare them for the subordinated positions that awaited them. Subordinated positions whereby Blacks would be equipped with limited skills and would be ready to resign themselves to exploitation so that White supremacy would be secured.

Before the introduction of Bantu Education, the disfranchised were subjected to what was then known as "Native Education". This however, too implied inferior institutions and poor conditions, but the syllabi from secondary school to University level were the same as for the franchised (Ncube 1980:6).

However, the educational system was too change drastically. Black schools were centralised, syllabus revision was centralised and stressed obedience, communal loyalty and national diversity, acceptance of allocated social roles and teachers were regimented rigidly (Molteno 1990:89). The severity of the Bantu Education Act implied that it would serve as an instrument for creating and ensuring the continuance of a voteless, rightless and ignorant community. Tabata (1980:37) believed that "it wrenched the disfranchised from progressing in civilization of mankind." Hilda Bernstein (1972:43) too felt that its implications would be a far cry from what education ought to be. To her,

> "Education is the generation, the key.
> Without it life is restricted, the world
> remains closed."

Unterhalter (1991:35) contends that many believed that intrinsic to an understanding of disfranchised education, the speech presented by Dr HF Verwoerd when introducing the Bantu Education Act of 1953 stressed segregated education and also education

provided for the youth of the franchised, as "forbidden pastures" from which the disfranchised had to be prohibited. Ncube (1980:6) believes that this belief stems from a myth of superiority of the franchised. The government was prompted to restructure education and ensure absolute control of the education for the majority of the disfranchised therefore "Native Education" with the same syllabi as for the franchised was deemed unconducive to the social order. He believes that this myth is reflected in a speech made in parliament by Dr HF Verwoerd, who was then minister of native affairs and who was also in control of Native Education.

> "When I have control of native Education, I will
> reform it so that Natives will be taught from
> childhood to realize that equality are not desirable
> teachers for natives..." (Verwoerd 1954:24).

2.1.1 Reorganization of Teacher Training

Hence, education as well as teacher training for the disfranchised was reorganized. Initially, there were twenty five teacher training institutions which all offered the Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate for women only. It involved two years of training after standard six. A Primary Teachers' Certificate could also be obtained within two years after standard eight and in 1968 a Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma was introduced with an admission requirement of standard ten. Teachers who were already certificated, also had the option of completing a specialist course which involved one year of training. Specialist training would be provided in homecraft, woodwork and arts and crafts. In addition, universities for the disfranchised offered a Secondary Teachers' Diploma (Behr 1988:169).

2.1.2 Shortage of Teachers

It is revealed that the number of teachers in Black Schools increased over a decade,

between 1960 and 1969, from 27 767 to 43 638, an average growth rate of 5,7 per cent, but according to Behr (1988:169) there was still an acute shortage of teachers. In 1968, the Secretary of the Department of Bantu Education concluded that in order to maintain a teacher-pupil ratio that was satisfactory the Department needed the services of at least 60 000 teachers. The department could only provide 41 000. Therefore double sessions in the substandards and classes of an average of 55 or more in the higher standards were instituted. It was however, promised that steps would be taken to increase the annual production of teachers of approximately 2 000 to 3 000 by the end of that year and that the Department was conscious of the hardships and struggle teachers had to wage (Department of Bantu Education, Annual Report, 1968, RP 32/1970:11).

2.1.3 Curriculum Inadequacies

According to Sieborger and Kenyon (1992:149) the academic part of the curriculum of colleges has right from the start been confused with the secondary school curriculum. As it was not necessary for prospective teachers to have completed secondary school, before entering into colleges of education, college education had to thus in some way compensate for this lack of schooling. It was also felt that because primary school teachers would teach all subjects generally, they did not require higher academic qualifications or need to be specialized in any particular subject. Presently the influence of this notion is evident in the academic syllabuses of colleges. The first two years of study are not considered to be post- secondary in nature, thereby filling the gaps for students who might not have taken the subjects for the Senior Certificate.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:149) too charge that the prospective secondary teachers academic curriculum at universities has not in general been influenced by the needs of the school. The fact that the preparation of teachers in subject fields has been conducted on the basis of a rough equivalence between the university and the school

subject, has not worked to the advantage of the teacher or the education system. It is however conceded, that it is difficult to match a Bachelor of Science curriculum precisely to the needs of a physical science curriculum or equally possible for a history teacher to have done no South African history or to have only done South African history in a Bachelor of Arts Curriculum.

Against this background, many argued that due to minimum qualifications confusion to what teachers should know and the effects of oppressive education the majority of disfranchised teachers seem ill-equipped to teach in a rapidly changing society.

2.1.4 Revision and Change in Educational Policy

According to Vanessa Gaydon (1987:6) concern about the state of disfranchised teacher training started officially in 1976. Although the government recognized the needs and shortcomings of disfranchised teacher training, the unrest and upheaval in schools at the time prompted revision and changes in the educational policy. Several reforms were proposed and the government made a commitment to reduce the shortage of qualified teachers. They too promised to improve the qualifications of those teachers who were already in service.

Some visible changes indeed took place after 1977. There were structural changes in administrative control of disfranchised tertiary education institutions but according to Saleem Badat (1991:86) it became extremely complex and remained segregated. Universities and teacher-training institutions in the independent homelands were put under the control of their independent homeland state structures. Universities which were located in the non-independent homelands, and universities and teacher-training institutions for Africans in South Africa were controlled by the Department of Education and Training. The rest of the tertiary institutions for the disfranchised, that is tertiary institutions which were designated for Coloured and Indian students were controlled

by the Department of Coloured Affairs and Indian affairs respectively. It was only after the establishment of the segregated tri-cameral parliament, which came about in 1984 that these institutions fell under the Department of Education and Culture of the House of Representatives, for coloureds and the Department of Education and Culture of The House of Delegates, for Indians (Badat 1991:87).

Although the state also made physical improvements to tertiary institutions and built a number of new teacher training colleges, very little changes were made to long established institutions. According to Badat (1991:87), students of tertiary institutions compared academic facilities, courses and range of degrees offered, quality and content of teaching and many other features of disfranchised institutions with those of the franchised and found theirs to be lacking. Badat (1991:87) illuminates this point by citing a comparison made by the Human Science Research Council in 1976 between disfranchised Universities established in 1960-61 and the Rand Afrikaans University established in 1968. With the expectation that the university libraries of the older universities would be better stocked, being older institutions, it was found that by the mid 1970's, the Rand Afrikaans University's library had 195 000 volumes in comparison to the 67 000 and 84 000 books found in the universities of the disfranchised.

Upheaval and school unrest continued throughout the late 1970's. In June 1980, the government went beyond commitment to improve disfranchised education and pledged to work towards the provision of equal, but segregated education for all (Gaydon 1987:6).

2.1.5 Official Norm for Qualified Teachers

The Human Science Research Council was called upon to take up the matter and investigate education at all levels. Under the chairmanship of Professor JP de Lange,

a Human Science Research Committee issued a report which stressed the need for a core of teachers who are well trained and recommended that the government focus on the training of the disfranchised (De Lange 1981:60). The De Lange report too recommended that the matriculation certificate or an equivalent qualification be the minimum requirement for all teacher training and that training should at least last for three years.

The call was heeded and in 1983, the government established that a standard ten certificate and three years of professional training would be an official norm for all qualified teachers (Hofmeyer and Jaff, 1992:171).

Although many welcomed this progressive step by the government, the profession was faced with a dilemma as very few of the disfranchised possessed a matriculation certificate plus three years of professional training. According to Gaydon (1987:12) who quote figures from the De Lange Report, many did not possess this minimum qualification. The report reveals that in 1976, 85% of the African, 66% of the coloured and 17% of the Indian, who all were disfranchised were not in possession of this minimum qualification.

Much later, further assessment of teacher qualifications by the South African Institute for Race Relations, suggested that official figures of underqualified disfranchised teachers seemed contradictory. It was found that in 1985 the Department of Education and Training, responsible for the majority of the disfranchised, indicated that 70,2% of teachers in its system were underqualified (Gaydon 1987:12). This indicates that significant progress had been made in upgrading qualifications of the disfranchised. Yet in 1986, the Minister of Development Aid, Dr Gerrit Viljoen, revealed a completely different picture to a press conference. He stated that if matriculation plus three years of professional training was the minimum qualification for qualified teachers, then 94,6% of the teachers in his department were either underqualified or not in possession of any qualification at all (Gaydon 1987:12).

Although the South African Institute for RACE Relations found that the Department of Education and Training could not explain the discrepancy between its estimates and Dr Viljoen's statement, they did say that they were "making every possible effort" to upgrade qualifications. However, it had to be realized that this could not be achieved overnight. Evidence of the Department of Education and Training's effort was revealed in its budget. At the time, increasingly large sums of money had been spent on the upgrading of qualifications. Figures suggest that between 1981/82 and 1984/85, approximately R11 million had been spent on upgrading qualifications and on in-service training. A further R8,4 million was spent in the 1985/86 financial year and at the time it was estimated that a further R12,3 million would be spent in the 1986/87 year (Gaydon 1987:12).

In order to achieve formal certificated qualifications for the underqualified, the DET placed this task in the hands of Vista university. The university engaged in this task by offering two courses which would upgrade teachers for the Secondary school. Two courses were offered to inservice teachers, the Secondary Teachers' Certificate, with the senior certificate and Primary Teacher's Certificate as entrance requirement, followed by two years of part-time study through distance teaching, which would provide a M+2 qualification for salary purposes. The Secondary Teachers' Diploma was the other course offered which could be followed by those in possession of Senior Teacher's Certificate or the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate. Potential candidates would then also follow two years of part-time distance study which would lead to the upgrading of a M+2 to a M+3 qualification for salary purposes. These initiatives led to Vista university awarding 1997 Secondary Teachers' Certificates and 500 diplomas in 1987 (Hartshorne 1992:270-271).

Despite the increased expenditure and bold initiatives, many remained sceptical about the departments' ability to make any rapid progress. The South African Institute for Relations argued that if Dr Viljoen's estimate and the report of the Department of

Education was accurate, progress had been very limited up until 1987 (Gaydon 1987:12). The same sceptism was shown by Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:17) as they highlighted the enormity of the matter. They argued that according to the South African Institute of Race Relations, there were approximately 290 000 teachers in South Africa in 1988. Of these teachers, 177 057 were in African schools, 3 566 in coloured schools, 12 015 in Indian schools and 56 000 in schools for the franchised. They point out the magnitude of the problem by referring to the fact that in the same year, the Department had a shortage of 5 531 primary and 1 350 secondary school teachers. Although there had been a seven percent increase between 1987 and 1988, the shortage of qualified teachers for the disfranchised had increased by twenty seven percent in the same period. Hofmeyer and Jaff further state that according to hypothetical calculations, with ratios of 35 to 1 in primary schools and 30 to 1 in secondary schools, and if more than one million children of the disfranchised who did not attend school were accommodated, an estimated 74 000 additional teachers would have been needed in 1988 (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:17).

2.1.6 Academic background and professional training of the disfranchised teacher

Kinley (1981:5-6) believes that before disfranchised teachers even start their duties in schools, the odds are already heavily weighted against them. The problems which they are daily faced with such as large class numbers, pupils with miserable pre-school backgrounds, and poorly equipped classrooms, seem minor when compared to the considerable inadequacies of their own academic background and professional training.

Many disfranchised teachers are also mainly products of a fragmented and interrupted school program due to boycotts and school unrest. Kane (1989:4) comments that in 1985 many pupils did not write internal end-of-year examinations and many pupils were promoted on June and September results. This resulted in pupils being ill-

prepared and many had a far from adequate foundation in the subjects they studied for the Senior Certificate course. Moreover, this basic weakness, pupils carried into the teacher-training institutions and other tertiary institutions.

Kane (1989:4) also charges that the academic standards of candidates who have entered the teacher training institutions over the past years are extremely low due to the debasing effect of "differentiated education". Differentiated education implied a further lowering of standards, as pupils had the option of obtaining a standard grade. It did not only encourage pupils to be satisfied with a mere 33⅓% pass on the standard grade but it also allowed for a curriculum of subjects that is hopelessly inadequate to equip pupils for teacher-training.

In addition, Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:172) comment on the fact that the majority of the disfranchised teachers have a poor command of the English language due to the education system they were subjected to. According to David Johnson (1991:172) the English curriculum was designed so that the majority of students were only taught language skills which were deemed necessary to enable them to read and write accurately and to make limited decisions. The curriculum reduced language teaching to a set of basic skills. It stressed the reproduction of what was learned in more or less the same words of those who write the textbooks and did not allow critical literacy which would have enabled the majority of students to understand their lives and the social forces which shaped it.

The South African Institute for Race Relations too stress that educationists believe that colleges for the disfranchised, especially African colleges, produced teachers of lower quality as it has been alleged that many teachers from these colleges have reading ages of as low as 8 years (Gaydon 1987:13).

According to these educationists, this phenomenon could be attributed to the poor

quality of staff who trained potential teachers at these colleges. It is revealed that some of these staff members were only in possession of a standard 8 qualification and relatively few possessed a university degree (Gaydon 1987:13).

Although it has been gleamed that some quantitive strides have indeed been made in the provision of teacher education, many agree that the segregated education system with its glaring inadequacies and inequalities have left the majority of teachers who were disfranchised, ill equipped to teach in a rapidly changing society.

Furthermore, Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:169) cite comments made by a school principal and teacher educator which highlight the need for skilled and progressive teachers.

> "Compared to skilled and motivated teachers, buildings,
> desks and schoolbooks are easy to provide."

> "...our reality of the nineties, and beyond, demands
> more than what has, up to now, passed as career-
> long professional development."

From the above, it becomes apparent that the development and transformation of teachers who were once disfranchised, is absolutely essential.

2.2 A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE POLITICAL, ECONOMICAL, SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS WHICH AFFECTED THE DISFRANCHISED (1948 - 1979)

After 1948, constitutional changes by the National Party government ensured that the vast majority of Black people in South Africa, become disfranchised segregated and rigidly controlled.

According to Schrire (1990:78) the goverment's policy at the time was focused on control rather than development or welfare. This was done in order to protect minority interests, in this case those of white South Africans, including the state structures themselves. The policy was implemented by excluding blacks from the political system, including higher levels of public service and implementing a maze of repressive laws. These laws were amongst others, the Group Areas, population mobility and private sexual choices. Control was deemed to be the fundamental driving force of the entire political system.

There was much objection to these laws as it brought about hardship, inconvenience and indignity. An international conference report on human rights held in Montreal in 1968 viewed the policy as:

"the most flagrant violation of human rights."

It stated that the policy constituted a gross denial of the most basic civil and political rights of non-white South Africans as well as their most fundamental economic, social and cultural rights. There was universal condemnation of the practice as well as the daily shocking violations associated with it (De Villiers 1970:47,48).

Apart from international condemnation, there was early concerted resistance by the disfranchised people in South Africa as well. This resistance came from the disfranchised teaching corpse as well as African parents when they realised the impact which Bantu Education which lie in the heart of the segregated policy, would have on their lives (Lodge 1990:269,270).

However, legislation was put into place and teachers found themselves in the middle of the ground contested by the state on the one hand and by pupils, parents and communities on the other. The disfranchised teachers' position became unenviable,

as they were members of disfranchised communities as well as employees of the state and therefore perceived to be part of the state's policy apparatus (Hartshorne 1990:172).

Indeed the lives of the disfranchised teacher was profoundly affected. They were criticized from all sides for inadequacies for which they were often not to blame and the generally negative image of teachers, which was even held among teachers themselves, contributed to the breakdown of the learning environment (Hartshorne 1990:173).

Teachers were further suppressed by restrictive controls which were intended to govern every aspect of the teacher's life. This entailed political beliefs, activities in and out of school, and membership of societies and associations. Individual teachers and their professional organizations were restricted in what they could say publicly, not only about the Department of Education and Training (DET) but about any other state department. To silence teachers completely, the government placed restive measures on teacher associations such as the non-racial National Education Union of South Africa (NEUSA) (Hartshorne 1990:173).

As acknowledged by De Villiers (1970:92) it cannot be denied that the complete National Party policy brought hardship, humiliation and indignity which was suffered by all of the disfranchised including the teachers who were part of these communities.

The major legislation which impacted on economical, social and educational lives of the disfranchised teacher and all disfranchised people is elucidated in the following paragraphs.

2.2.1 Political conditions which affected the disfranchised

(a)   Political Supremacy

According to Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:96-97) political supremacy was the main objective of National Party government right from the start. Thus during the first two decades of office all forms of black representation in Parliament was removed.

(i)   The Separate Representation of Voters Act (Act 46:1951)

The election of 1948 was won by a narrow margin of only eight seats and to the National Party this was deemed intolerable as approximately 50 000 coloured voters could theoretically determine the result of the following election. Although election results in 1953 proved their fears ungrounded, the 1951 Separate Representation of Voters Act was passed effectively to remove the coloured voters from the voters roll (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:97).

It is claimed that initially the National Party shrank from complete disenfranchisement, resulting in coloured people still being able to be led by four white representatives, two in Parliament and two in the Cape Provincial Council on a separate voters role after being removed from the voters roll. However, in 1970 this representation was terminated (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:97).

The same fate was bestowed upon the Indians. Legislation which provided representation in Parliament and the Natal Provincial Council was abolished (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:97).

Likewise, the Native Representative Council was established in 1951 with the introduction of the Bantu Authorities Bill. According to Scher (1993:347) Dr Verwoerd's system of Bantu Authorities reflected his believe that there was no place for the African in the white political system. In effect, tribalism was resuscitated through a

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combination of tribal and bureaucratic authorities (Christie and Collins 1990:173).

Control was run on a three-tier hierarchical system of authority. The lowest level consisted of the chief or headman and his councillors. One or more tribal authorities would take up the next level, the regional authority, which would administer a wider area with common interests. The third level, a territorial authority for the whole ethnic group, which would be constituted out of two or more regional authorities. Members were black and were able to advise and exercise administrative and executive and judicial powers, "according to Native law and custom". At each level of authority, the constituent elements were traditional and not elected. The Minister and his officials were the sole persons who could determine who was traditional (Scher 1993:347).

(ii)   The Bantu Self-Government Act 1959

In 1959, the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act was passed which provided for the establishment of eight, (later increased to ten) bantustans or Bantu Homelands (Pampallis 1991:186).

The bantustans viz Lebowa, Kwandebele, Venda, Gazankulu, Kangwane, Kwazulu, Transkei, Ciskei, Bophuthatswana and Qwa-Qwa were envisaged to become independent states. Each bantustan was meant to be for members of a particular ethnic group with two bantustans for Xhosas. In effect, every African in South African was to become a citizen of one of these homelands and would thus be deprived of his or her own South African citizenship. This implied that "white South Africa" would be left with no African citizens (Pampallis 1991:186).

According to Scher (1993:348) Dr Verwoerd never deviated from his promise that the African in town was a temporary visitor. There was no distinction between urban and rural Africans. To him, the African born in the cities or those who lived there a long

time, belong as much to the bantustan as the African who had never departed from them. Thus, every effort was made to convince the African that he could enjoy social or political rights only in their homelands.

Pampallis (1991:186) asserts that Dr Verwoerd saw Bantustans as a means of perpetuating white domination by a "divide and rule" strategy while effectively providing justification for refusing to grant any real power to the African majority.

Moreover white supremacy and white domination would be strengthened by the creation of a group of African collaborators associated with bantustan governments and small businesses which would develop inside the bantustans. As the economic interests of these people would be tied to the bantu system, they would become allies of the white regime and play an active role in maintaining the oppression of the African masses (Pampallis 1991:186).

(iii)   The Native (Urban Areas) Amendment Act 1955 (Amendment to the 1923 Urban Areas Act)

The National Government tightened up the system of influx control as there was the fear that the rapid African urbanization would undermine white supremacy (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:64). This was done through passing several Acts as outlined in the following paragraphs:

The homeland idea further prompted the government to set about increasing the range of control over Africans in urban areas. Their rights of domicile was stealthily removed outside the homelands by the Native Law Amendment Act which implied that the movement of African workers was controlled by labour bureaus. African workers had to apply for permission to the nearest bureau if they wanted to move from a non-

prescribed area, which was the rural area to a prescribed area, the urban area. These bureaus served as effective instruments of control, restricting mobility and ensuring that urban areas were out of bounds to Africans.

The Act further limited Africans with a right to live permanently in an urban area to those who had been born there, those who lived there continuously for 15 years, and to those who worked for the same employer, continuously for ten years (Scher 1993:348) (Worden 1994:98).

Scher (1993:348) states that in justifying the bill in the senate, Dr Verwoerd stated that emigration control had to be established to prevent manpower from leaving the rural areas to become jobless in the cities. On the other hand, critics argued that the bill sought to pin Africans in poverty stricken rural areas where there were few opportunities. They claimed that the only beneficiaries from the bill were the farmers who could obtain a black work force at a minimal rate of pay.

(iv) The Abolition of Passes and Co-ordination of Documents Act of 1952

The above Act introduced a single reference book to record information which were kept in a variety of documents. The Act, which previously exempted women from carrying a pass, now insisted that they do. Influx control was now applied more stringently and the Native Law Amendment Act passed in 1956 as mentioned in 2.2.1 provided towns with automatic proclaimed status. This status was only exercised when local authorities requested it. The amending legislation implied that the hated section 10 provisions were introduced. No African was allowed to remain in an area which was proclaimed for more than 72 hours unless he had received permission from an official. The 1937 law permitted a fortnight. Added to these harsh restrictions, permits lapsed when his period of employment terminated. The Act was later further amended

and specified that urban local authorities had the power to order any African to leave from an urban area within a specified period if his presence was deemed to be "detrimental to the maintenance of peace and order" (Scher 1993:348).

The harsh and rigid control of the disfranchised people resulted in them being trapped and exploited brutally. Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:76) quote a deputy minister who outlined the effect of influx control on African farm labourers.

> "A record of every registered Bantu farm labourer
> is kept in a central register, and the position is
> that the labourer cannot be employed in the urban
> areas, because as soon as his service contract
> must be registered, it will be established that he
> is a farm labourer, and then he cannot be legally
> employed."

They too point out that the government embarked on far reaching measures to ensure that rural farming areas remained white. They forced farmers in northern Natal to stop the labour tenant system with the result that African farmers who lived on white farms for generations, were forced to take up labour for wages or face the grim prospect of eviction or resettlement in the homelands.

(v) Industrial Conciliation Act of 1956 / Amendment to the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1924

The passing of the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1956 empowered the Minister of Labour to reserve jobs for certain racial groups or fix the ratio of White to African employees in an industry, a factory or in a certain type of employment (Scher 1993:324).

Job reservation was implemented as protection of white interests was priority. According to Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:79) positions of ambulance drivers, firemen, post office jobs and railway jobs were reserved for whites.

By the 1960's the government was forced confronted with new challenges, as virtually all white males were employed. Increased mechanization created a large demand for machine operators, mechanics and technicians and white males left the industry to move into white-collar jobs in the tertiary sector.

The challenge was however overcome by allowing skilled jobs to be fragmented into semi-skilled operations in which blacks were employed and by moving white workers into senior or supervisory jobs. This strategy ensured that Africans were kept out of skilled jobs (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:79).

(b)   Social Separation

Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:82) and Scher (1993:322) claim that in order to safeguard the racial identity of the white population, social separation or communal separation had to be instated statutorily. This was done by means of the Mixed Marriage Act of 1950, the Population Registration Act of 1950, the Group Areas Act of 1950 which was strengthened with the Separate Amenities Act of 1953 and the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

(i)   The Mixed Marriages Act of 1950

The Mixed Marriages Act of 1950 was intensified with the Immorality Act of 1927. Originally the Act prohibited carnal intercourse between white and African, but an amendment to the Act was now extended to all people of colour, this included Indian and coloured (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1981:82) (Scher 1993:322) (Worden 1994:95).

(ii)   The Population Registration Act of 1950

As racial division was the objective, it necessitated, the classification of the population into whites, coloureds, Indians and Africans.

Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:83) believe that although the government originally claimed that the purpose of this was to set up a population register and issue all citizens with an identity card, it in fact provided the foundation for the entire apartheid structure.

They state that the Act enabled the State to classify every person as "a white person, a coloured or a native" and allowed for subdivisions within the category of coloured people, which were the Indian, Chinese and Malay groups. Indians were treated as a distinct category and became the effective statutory group under apartheid, while the Chinese and Malay were lumped with the coloured group. Although the government was warned about the suffering anguish and hardship that the classification system would cause, they argued that it was a small price to pay for the advantages which a strictly separated society would provide. The classification system was entrenched on the basis of an individual's appearance and by general descent (Scher 1993:323).

(iii)   The Group Areas Act of 1950

The Group Areas Act of 1950 provided another pillar for the government. In effect it designated specific urban areas for occupation to a particular group. When any area was set aside for a particular group, non-members of the group was forced to move (Pampallis 1991:183).

Giliomee and Schlemmer (1981:87) feel that the Group Areas Act did not have such a devastating impact on Africans, since they were already controlled under the Urban

Areas Act of 1956, except for townships such as Alexandra in Johannesburg, and Fingo Village in Grahamstown.

They maintain that the Indians and coloured people were hit brutally by this Act due to the fact that although residential segregation had been increasing in the 1930's and 1940's, a third of the coloured people were still living in suburbs integrated with whites in Cape Town. Throughout the Cape Province white towns had "onderdorpe", which carried class connotation as coloured people lived interspersed with lower-income whites. Indians also had business premises and homes in a number of towns where they could acquire property, except in the Free State.

Examples of these harsh realities were: Coloured inhabitants of suburbs in Cape Town were relocated in segregated areas, despite local council objections and Indian traders were moved out of the centre of Pretoria (Worden 1994:96).

In 1954 the Native Resettlement Act gave the government the power to override local municipalities which was done with vigour with the forced removal of Africans to separate townships. An example of the first casualties were the areas of western Johannesburg such as Sophiatown, where inhabitants were relocated to a new township, Meadowlands in Soweto in 1955 (Worden 1994:96).

(iv)   The Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953

This Act in effect enforced social segregation in all public facilities such as transport, cinemas, restaurants and sporting facilities (Worden 1955:96).

According to Scher (1993:324) the Act embodied the principle of inequality and left no discretion to the law to limit its extent. Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:86) explain that inspite of the courts declaration, that the government had taken invalid measures to

reserve facilities exclusively for whites, as it was against the doctrine of "separate but equal", and facilities for Africans were inferior to those of whites, the government enforced segregation by passing the Separate Amenities Bill. This measure aimed at legalising unequal facilities for different races, thus obviating any court judgement that a degree of discrimination was unacceptable.

(v)   The Bantu Education Act of 1953

Crucial to the success of the government's policy, was education. Although African educational provision before 1948 had been unequal and segregated, the Bantu Education Act of 1953 brought all African schools under the control of Native Affairs, thus phasing out missionary institutions which had previously led the field in African education (Worden 1994:96).

According to Pampallis (1991:184) Worden (1994:96) and Scher (1993:324) the Bantu Education system was meant to provide basic knowledge for unskilled manual workers, to train children to accept an inferior position in society and to promote an ethnic consciousness in children.

The State intensified its control over the education of the disfranchised and separate education departments were also formed for coloured and Indians in 1963 and 1967 respectively.

(vi)   The extension of University of Education Act of 1959

Another major piece of legislation which ensured educational segregation and State control was the Extension of University of Education Act of 1959.

According to Behr (1988:192), Scher (1993:360) and Pampallis (1991:184) the Act

closed white universities to blacks, except those with special government permission and led to the establishment, management and control and maintenance of university colleges for Blacks, Coloured and Indians.

The University College of Fort Hare was restricted to Xhosa students only and control was transferred from Rhodes University to the then Department of Bantu Education. The following University Colleges were opened:

(i)   University College of the North near Pietersburg in the Transvaal for Sotho, Tsonga and Venda speaking students.

(ii)   University College of Zululand at Ngoye in Natal for the Zulu.

(iii)   University College of the Western Cape at Bellville near Cape Town.

(iv)   University College Durban for Indians at Salisbury Island in Durban Bay (Behr 1988:192) (Pampallis 199:184).

The Extension of University of Education Act of 1959 furthermore, introduced two new principles into the established practice in which State control can be clearly gleamed.

(i)   It created State controlled universities alongside the State-aided universities.

(ii)   It deprived the universities of the right to accept or reject students for admission. Whites were prohibited from attending universities for Non-Whites and Non-Whites were debarred from White universities. The University of South Africa (UNISA) was however the exception. The Act too proclaimed that the Minister could limit the admission of a specific

Non-White ethnic group to a Non-White University, and subject to the approval of the Minister, a Non-White person could be admitted to a course of study at White University if such a course was not offered at a particular university college.

Other segregated universities created are the Medical University of Southern Africa (Medunsa) which was established in terms of Act 78 of 1976 and Vista University in terms of Act 106 of 1981 (Behr 1988:194).

In 1969 five of the existing university colleges, Fort Hare, Zululand, the North, the Western Cape and Westville became autonomous state universities, which implied that they could admit people of other race groups, other than whites. Universities were also no longer under the tutelage of Unisa and they could establish satellite campuses as the University of Zululand did, with the establishment of a campus at Umlazi in Durban. More development was underway due to further legislation as in 1977 and 1979 these universities could admit students from all race groups (Behr 1978:192) (Behr 1988:194).

(c) Increased control over the disfranchised people of South Africa

According to Worden (1994:97) other legislation which ensured increased control of the disfranchised peoples of South Africa were the following:

(i)   The Suppression of Communism Act of 1950 gave the Minister of Justice the power to ban any individual or organization he viewed as "communist". This broad definition included all forms of opposition to the apartheid policies.

(ii)   The Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1953 which prescribed heavy

penalties for civil disobedience.

The range of legislation was wide, rigid and dragodian and according to Mbeki (1992:70) the conditions of these laws affected equally the unskilled worker, the medical doctor, the lawyer, the teacher, professional people of all sorts, businessman and ministers of religion, all people who were disfranchised.

2.2.2 Economic Conditions which affected the disfranchised

Although the country experienced an economic boom due to manufacturing growth, the government was faced with a dilemma as they feared rapid urbanisation by Africans would totally undermine white supremacy. This fear stemmed from the fact that during the first two decades of National Party rule, the manufacturing industry contributed 18,3 per cent towards the total economy of the country which was less than two thirds of the combined mining and agriculture contributions. By 1970 the manufacturing sector's contribution had risen to 24 per cent, a third higher than the total for mining and agriculture. Concern arose as there was a massive increase in the number of Africans who were employed in the manufacturing and commercial sectors (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:65).

Farmers were also experiencing an acute shortage of labour, and as their vote was crucial to the success of the National Party in 1948, their needs had to be addressed as there was concern that the flow of labour to the cities would bypass the farms.

These concerns prompted tightening up the system of influx control which was already enforced by the previous government (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:65).

(a)   The effects of the Native Urban Areas Amendment Act

Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:66) point out that the 1952 Native (Urban Areas) Amendment Act together with the 1957 amendment, introduced a rigid division of labour between the low paying primary sector and other sectors of the economy. Farm labourers and migrants were restricted to such an extent that farms and mines faced no real competition from the manufacturing sector which paid much higher wages, as suggested by Scher (1993:348) in 2.2.1 (a.iii).

It is further said that most of the franchised at the time supported the apparent limits set by the Native (Urban Areas) Amendment Act, as it had not interrupted economic growth, as living standards of the franchised increased steadily. Farmers benefited from increased produce prices and workers benefited from racial job reservation. Furthermore, although English-speaking manufacturers were alienated from the Nationalist Party politics, they were able to expand production and enjoy tariff protection.

Gold production was expanded with the exploitation of the gold fields in the Free State and foreign investment encouraged cheap labour, which furthered white prosperity resulting in very little criticism of National Party policies from the outside world (Worden 1994:99).

(b)   Job reservation

The plight of the African worker deteriorated further with the passing of the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1956 as it gave legislative shape to the principle of job reservation. This implied that the minister of labour could direct industrial authorities to reserve certain categories of work in order to safeguard the economic welfare of employees of any race in any undertaking, industry occupation or trade (Scher 1993:324).

According to Scher (1993:324) this measure was undertaken to protect the interest of white labour, thus preventing changes in the racial composition of the labour market. Although it was argued that the legislation would also protect other groups such as coloureds, against competition from blacks, the effect was devastating for the African worker, as application of the Act was meant to freeze the position of the African worker at the bottom of the economic scale.

(c)   The homeland policy and the Group Areas Act

The 1959 Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act which implied a Bantu-Homeland, each with a degree of self government, extended the powers of the co-opted local chiefs to extend a principle of ethnicity as the basis of the homelands (Worden 1994:111).

This homeland policy had fundamental implications as it led to the forced relocation of many of the disfranchised on a large scale. The Group Areas Act and Separate Development produced urban removals and dispossession. Worden (1994:11) cites Platzky and Walker (1995) who claim that between 1960 and 1983, an estimated 3,5 million people were relocated under Group Areas and Separate Development. The population of the homelands rose by 70 per cent while, the population of African townships fell. Moreover, those who were relocated to homelands were consigned to barren areas, which were far removed from employment or adequate resources (Worden 1994:111).

Despite recommendations by the Tomlinson Commission that rapid industrialization of the Homeland areas, together with modernization of agricultural methods, were necessary for successful separate development and that the Government assisted by private franchised capital and entrepreneurship should assist this industrialization, the Government rejected the idea. It was felt that development within the African

Homelands would defeat the whole objective of separate development, as Africans had to be free of competition from the franchised whites in their own territories (Behr 1978:155).

Pampallis (1991:187) concludes that homelands were seen as places where the unemployed could be dumped, far away from the major industrial cities. They were kept away until they were needed, their very poverty ensuring that they would be prepared to work for very low wages.

He goes on to say that living conditions worsened as most people in the homelands supplemented their incomes with subsistence farming, but as production decreased and landless families increased, the extent of poverty and human suffering grew. Dr Verwoerd's prohibition of investment by white entrepreneurs in the homelands as this was contrary to the notion of separate development caused a severe blow to growth. Although a total of 85 554 jobs were created in the homelands and its border areas between 1960 and 1972, it fell far below the creation of 50 000 new jobs per year which was considered necessary (Giliomee and Schlemmer 1991:101).

The Group Areas Act also wrecked havoc on workers and businessmen of all races as it forced the sale of property belonging to members of one designated racial group to another. The value of property was inflated or deflated which induced intense personal misery and social tension, due to overcrowding and uncertainty (Stadler 1987:122).

(d)   Unequal provision of State funding for education

Added to the disfranchised peoples dilemma was the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

In the State's funding provisions for Africans, was four fifths of the direct taxes paid by

Africans which was channelled into the Bantu Education account. Although the proportion was later increased, funding proved to be inadequate and African parents had to contribute to the cost of erecting buildings and paying additional loans. African children were also required to pay for their own textbooks and stationery which was not required by children of the franchised (Christie and Collins 1990:180).

In table 2.2.1, Christie and Collins (1990:181) further point out that although expenditure was greatly increased after the introduction of Bantu Education, the establishment, the expansion and separate facilities could not be achieved without expenditure. It is also noted that expenditure did not increase much during a decade, and the increased enrolment meant that expenditure did not keep up with expansion.

Table 2.2.1   Per Capita Expenditure on African Education

YEAR	EXPENDITURE SA Rands (in thousands)	ENROLMENT IN THOUSANDS	COST PER PUPIL (SA Rands)
1945	5 724	589	7,3
1950	11 635	749	9,7
1954	16 210	942	8,7
1955	15 879	1 014	7,7
1956	17 467	1 103	7,6
1957	18 225	1 259	6,8
1958	18 184	1 345	6,1
1959	20 223	1 409	6,1
1960	19662	1 506	5,6

To highlight the inequality of the system, Christie and Collins (1990:182) compare the per capita expenditure of the franchised which increased during the same period, to that of the African in table 2.2

Table 2.2   Per Capita expenditure on Education (SA Rands)

YEAR	AFRICANS	WHITES
1945	7,78	76,58
1953	17,08	127,84
1960	12,46	144,57
	(Republic)	(Cape)

They further remark that from the above it is self evident that the quality of schooling provided for Africans could not equal that provided for the franchised and cite Horrel (1968) who states, "As should have been obvious to all the legislators ... this method of financing Bantu Education inevitably curtailed development."

Separate education departments formed in 1963 and 1967 respectively for coloureds and Indians, also displayed major inequalities in funding provision.

(e)   Economic Growth

Moreover economic growth and prosperity was ensured for the franchised, as the repressive measures, embedded in the passing of the various Acts, resulted in a reduction of real wages for African workers. Greater profit was made by all sections of the capitalist class and there was large scale foreign investment from Western Europe, the United States of America and Britain (Pampallis 1991:189).

The franchised capitalist class benefited greatly from the governments policies, as profitable government contracts were awarded to Afrikaner firms. The bank accounts of many government departments, local authorities and state corporations were transferred to Afrikaner banks and businessmen were appointed to official economic boards which could influence decisions so as to benefit their interest. Firms such as Sanlam, Rembrandt, Volkskas and others grew into giant monopolies (Pampallis 1991:189).

It is further concluded that there appeared to be few disadvantages for the franchised population. Farmers benefited from the stricter pass laws, white small businessmen benefited from lower wages and the removal of Indian traders from certain areas where they had been a source of competition, and white workers progressed due to job reservation as many manual workers were promoted to supervisory, technical and

clerical jobs (Pampallis 1991:189).

2.2.3 Social Conditions which affected the disfranchised

In the wake of social separation being instituted statutorily by means of the Mixed Marriages Act of 1950, the Population Registration Act of 1950, the Group Areas Act of 1950, the Separate Amenities Act of 1953, the lives of many of the disfranchised were profoundly influenced.

(a) Forced Removals

Apart from these Acts establishing separate social spheres with the division of the population into defined racial categories, the Group Areas Act of 1950 cut across all traditional property rights of people which led to the eviction of thousands of blacks, coloureds and Indians which caused deep resentment, personal anxiety and social destruction (Scher 1993:323).

According to Worden (1994:96) the application of the Group Areas Act as mentioned earlier was particularly felt by the disfranchised in the cities. He mentions that Indian traders were moved out of the centre of Pretoria and many coloured people of suburbs in Cape Town suburbs were relocated in segregated areas despite fierce objection from local councils.

The scale of these removals is highlighted by Giliomee and Schlemmer (1991:88).

> By 1976, 306 000 coloured people and 153 000
> Indians had been subjected to forced removals.

> In Cape Town the whole of the Table Mountain

area to the west of the suburban line from Cape
Town to Muizenberg had been zoned for whites.

Coloured communities were moved from areas
such as District Six and Kalk Bay to sandy townships
such as the Cape Flats, Mitchell's Plain which is
further east and Atlantis, forty kilometres to the north.

By 1974 more than 5 058 Indian traders were affected
by the Act. Only 984 were resettled and in 1977, a
total of 1 482 were resettled which included the first 984.

Indian traders suffered severe losses in the
Transvaal and Natal country towns, as they
depended on trade with whites and Africans for
75 per cent or more of their turn over, although
in Durban, Indians retained their most important
trading area, the Grey Street complex.

Although the African population were less severely affected by the Group Areas Act,
as other controls such as the Native Resettlement Act already affected their lives, they
were however disadvantaged further in Sophiatown (Stadler 1987:120). Despite fierce
opposition by the national executive of the ANC, resistance was crushed by an
overwhelming state power and the removal of the disfranchised which ranged from
doctors, lawyers, journalists, artists, teachers, musicians and factory workers, began
in 1955 (Stadler 1987:121-122).

Stadler (1987:118) remarks that while racial segregation of the urban environment,
enforced by the Group Areas Act, induced some degree of inter-class collaboration
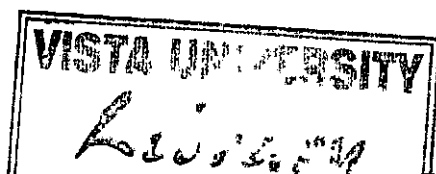
between members of the disfranchised, it further worked to split and divide communities by resting certain racial groups with distinct, competing social and economic interests.

(b)   Decline in quality of African education

The immediate result of the controversial Bantu Education Act impacted severely on the African population.   There was a dramatic decline in the quality of African education.   The number of African teachers in training declined from 8 817 in 1954 to 5 908 in 1961 and the rise in pupil - teacher ratio in African schools from 40 to 1 in 1953 to 50 to 1 in 1961.   There was a corresponding deterioration of examination results.   In 1953, 259 Africans obtained a matriculation pass whereas in 1961 only 115 was able to do so (Scher 1993:327).

The African population further felt the brunt of the segregated policy, as the system of financing African education was altered.   Scher (1993:327) comments on the fact that there was much resentment as the poorest section of the population had to pay for the education of their children.   In effect, it meant increased taxation without representation which was the hallmark of tyranny.

(c)   Resistance by the disfranchised society

Despite the Suppression of Communism Act of 1950 and the Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1953, the disfranchised masses opposed the State vehemently.

A number of major events which influenced disfranchised society is listed below.

(i)   In 1952 the ANC and the Communist Party jointly launched the Defiance Campaign to protest against the discriminatory laws. The aim was to mobilize

widespread defiance of unjust laws, such as pass laws and segregation of amenities, which resulted in 8 000 people being arrested for defiance actions mainly in the Eastern Cape and on the Rand. This Defiance Campaign was however broken by the banning and imprisonment of many of the organizers due to the legislation which forbid civil disobedience (Worden 1994:101).

(ii)   The disaster at Sharpville. The Pan African Congress (PAC) president, Robert Sobukwe announced that on Monday 21 March 1960, the PAC would embark on a campaign against the pass laws. People were called upon to leave their pass books at home and present themselves peacefully at police stations for arrest. No bail would be requested, no defence offered and no fines paid. This action resulted in 69 people being killed, eight women and ten children, while 180 were wounded (Scher 1993:390-391).

(iii)   In 1960 the ANC and the PAC were banned and by 1964 leaders of these resistance movements were either in prison on Robben Island or had escaped into exile (Worden 1994:115).

(iv)   Attempts were made in March - April 1955 by the ANC and African teaching bodies to organise school boycotts voicing displeasure at the Bantu Education Act. Apart from the Transvaal and the Eastern Cape, the boycott failed due to the ruthless action of Dr Verwoerd, who retrenched teachers where enrolments fell below a certain level, rigid regulations governing teachers and the failure to organise alternative education programmes for children of the disfranchised (Scher 1993:327).

(v)   The Soweto school riots in June 1976 due to Afrikaans being introduced as medium of instruction into secondary schools, and continued boycotts thereafter. The riots resulted in great loss of life and damage to property which amounted

to millions of rands. The government announced in 1976 that the police had shot dead 172 Africans and wounded 1 439 (Liebenberg 1993:463).

2.2.4 Educational conditions which affected the disfranchised

When the National Party took control of government in 1948, they immediately set to work to put their grand scheme of differentiated and segregated education for different racial and cultural groups into place.

(a)   The Eiselen Commission

Dr D Malan set up a Commission on Native Education under the chairmanship of Dr WM Eiselen. According to Behr (1988:32) very significant terms of reference was to be used by the commission. It included:

(i)   The formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race, in which their past and present and their inherent racial qualities, their destructive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under ever-changing social conditions are taken into consideration.

(ii)   The extent to which the existing primary, secondary and vocational system for Natives and the training of Native teachers should be modified in respect of the content and form of syllabuses, in order to conform to the proposed principles and aims, to prepare Natives more effectively for their future occupations.

(iii)   The organization and administration of the various branches of Native Education.

(iv)   The basis on which education should be financed.

(v)   Such other aspects of Native education which is related to the preceding terms of reference.

(b)   The Bantu Education Act (No 47 of 1953)

The Commission reported to the Government in 1951 and subsequently the commission's main recommendations were embodied in Act 47 of 1953, the Bantu Education Act (Behr 1988:33).

In effect, the Bantu Education Act gave wide powers to the Minister of Native Affairs, Dr HF Verwoerd who brought into effect the major recommendations of the Eiselen Commission. Black education was to be directed to black, not white needs, it was to controlled by central government and financed under the Minister of Native Affairs, syllabi were to be adapted to the black way of life and black languages were to be introduced into all black schools (Christie and Collins 1990:161).

According to Behr (1988:34-35) other recommendations embodied in the Act included the following:

(i)   Elementary schooling should be organized to provide for two types of primary schools, viz: a lower primary school catering for pupils in the age range 7 - 10 and offering a four year course from Sub-Std A to Std 2. The courses would be directed primarily at acquiring numeracy and literacy in the mother tongue. A higher primary school course of four years, from Std 3 to Std 6, which would extend the work of the previous years. This course would however include instruction in the official languages and other subjects such as handwork, and if possible, agriculture and horticulture. At the end of the first two years of the higher primary school, pupils would be directed for the next two years, i.e. Std 5 and 6, into either a practical or an academic direction.

(ii)   Post-primary courses of five years' duration should be provided. These too

should be either a practical or an academic direction. The first three years should be devoted to preparing the pupil for the Junior Certificate examination, thereafter a two year course leading to the Senior Certificate or matriculation examination. Successful completion of the academic course should open doors to universities or teachers' training courses, while the successful completion of the practical course should open the door to a teachers' training course for higher primary schools and to technical training of post-matriculation standard.

(iii)   The teacher's training colleges should provide a three-year post-Std 6 course as a preparation for teaching in the lower primary school, and a two year course after the Junior Certificate for teaching in higher primary schools.

(iv)   Schools of agricultural should be established in collaboration with the Department of Bantu Technical Services in order to train Bantu as demonstrators, supervisors and assistants for service on lands belonging to the Bantu reserves and trusts.

In addition, Behr (1988:35) too points out that the commission was of the opinion that the establishment of private schools for Blacks was unnecessary. If such schools existed, they would be registered and should comply with the regulations laid down by the State and be subject to inspection.

Thus, the Bantu Education Act stipulated that all black schools would have to be registered with the government, and that registration would be at the discretion of the Minister. This development implied that the government could close any education programme which did not support its aims (Christie and Collins 1990:171).

(i)   Control and Administration of Bantu Education

From 1954 to 1958 the responsibility for African education fell under the Department

of Native Affairs. In 1958 a separate Department of Bantu Education was established with its own minister (Behr 1978:171).

When the Homelands were granted self-government status, the legislative Assemblies in these territories set up Departments or Education or of Education and Culture. These departments operated their administrations independently each with its own Minister of Education, but remained closely linked professionally to the central Department of Bantu Education. The Homeland Governments, through their respective Departments of Education, had full control of everyday administration and running of schools, appointment of teachers, provision of buildings, furniture, books and other equipment. In order to assist the Homeland Departments of Education to establish themselves on a sound professional basis, senior white officers from the Department of Education was allocated to the Homeland Education Departments (Behr 1978:171-172).

Administration and control of African education was rested in two authorities, viz.

(i)   Urban areas under direct control of the Department of Bantu Education, and

(ii)   Homelands, under the control of the Homeland Department of Education.

(c)   Coloured Persons Education Act (No 47 of 1963)

A commission on Coloured Education was set up in 1953 but it was only in 1963 that the Coloured Persons Education Act was passed. This provided for education of children classified as Coloured as well as teaching training for coloureds transferred from the provinces to a Division of Education within the Department of Coloured Affairs (Molteno 1990:88).

The transfer of control was effected in the Cape and Transvaal on the 1 January 1964 and in the Orange Free State and Natal on the 1 April 1994 (Molteno 1990:88).

(i)   The Department of Coloured Affairs

A central State department which resided under the jurisdiction of a Cabinet Minister assisted by an advisory Education Council was established to deal with all matters which involved the coloured population group. For the first time a separate education section, headed by a Director of Education was established with the sole purpose of planning and providing education and teacher training for the coloured people. An elaborate system was set up and all schools for coloured pupils and lecturers at training colleges came under the jurisdiction of this one department. All facets of education for coloureds became the responsibility of this single department. A senior professional staff was appointed consisting of a Director of Education and Educational Planners (Education for Life 1981:2).

(ii)   The Coloured Persons Representative Council

On the 30 June 1969 the Department of Coloured Affairs, after handing over certain duties to the Coloured Persons Representative Council of the Republic of South Africa, ceased to exist and the Department of Coloured Affairs and Rehoboth and Nama Relations came into being (Dept of Coloured Relations and Rehoboth Affairs Report 1.4.69-30.6.69 and 1.7.69-31.3.70).

According to a Government Notice (1969:37) the Coloured Persons Representative Council was empowered with the following aspects as far as teacher training is concerned.

i.   the delegation erection and maintenance of training colleges.

ii.   determining the nature length of and conditions for admission to courses at colleges.

iii.   the granting of aids and loans to the government body of any college.

iv.   to conduct examinations and issue diplomas and certificates.

v.   providing fees for tuition at colleges and schools.

vi.   granting bursaries to pupil - student teachers.

vii.   the introduction and revision of syllabi and curricula for training institutions.

viii.   control over the training of teachers.

Van Schalkwyk (1983:204) points out that the government was forced to dissolve the Coloured Representative Council in 1980 as it did not satisfy the educational and political aspirations of the coloured people. Educational control for coloureds continued under the Director of Education within the Department of Coloured Affairs, thereafter the Administration of Coloured Affairs. Later it continued as a subordinate section of the Department of Coloured Relations and thereafter the Department of Coloured Affairs. Until the commencement of the new Parliament on the 4 September 1984, the education department was under the jurisdiction of the Department of Internal Affairs (Van Schalkwyk 1983:205).

(d)   Indian Education Act (No 61 of 1965)

The last legislative bricks of the Nationalist Government's segregation policy was laid in the wall of the segregated schooling system by the Indian Education Act of 1965.

This Act provided for the transference of the control of education for people classified as Indian from the provinces to the Department of Indian Affairs. The provisions of the Act were applied throughout Natal and to the Transvaal College of Education for Indians as from 1 April 1966. A year later the Act came into operation throughout the Transvaal and on 1 April 1970 the Act came into operation in the Cape (Molteno 1990:88).

(i)   Control and Administration of Indian Education

The South African Indian Council (SAIC)

This representative body was created to advise the Government and make recommendations on all matters affecting the Indian people. Members were appointed by the Minister of Indian affairs, though provision was made for a Council comprising of 30 nominated as well as elected members. Five executive members were chosen from the council of 30. The chairman of the executive committee was elected by the Minister of Indian Affairs (Behr 1978:240).

In 1976 the Minister delegated most of the powers vested in him in terms of the Indian Education Act (No 61 of 1965) to the Executive Committee of SAIC.

According to Behr (1978:241) the Executive Committee was empowered with the following in terms of teachers and teacher training:

(i)   the appointment, promotion transfer and discharge of staff at state schools.

(ii)   Conditions of service for teachers.

(iii)   Classification of posts at schools.

(iv)   The institution of courses of training for teachers.

(v)   The recognition for purposes of consultation and association of Indian teachers.

Behr (1978:253) goes on and explains that in 1965 the Minister of Indian Affairs established a Consultative Committee for Teacher Education to advise the Director. This Committee comprised of representatives from the teacher training institutions, the inspectorate, the chief educational planner for teacher training and representatives of the South African Teachers Association. This Committee where only Indian members had the vote advised the Director on the following aspects amongst others:

(i)   Alleviating the shortage of teachers at senior secondary level in Afrikaans, Mathematics and commercial subjects.

(ii)   The feasibility of solving the problem through intensive one-term intensive full-time training for teachers and in-service courses to enable lowly qualified teachers to upgrade their qualifications.

(e)   Provision of Teacher Training for the disfranchised in the Republic of South Africa

(i)   Teacher Training courses under Bantu Education (1953 - 1979)

The main courses offered at the 35 training schools which had enrolment numbers of 7 025 in 1969 were for:

(i)   the Lower Primary Teachers Certificate (LPTC) (a course of two years after Std 6 for women only).

(ii)   the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) (a course of two years after Std 8).

(iii)   the Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (JSTD), which was introduced in 1968 and for which the admission requirement was Std 10. This course was designed to equip persons for teaching in the lower forms of the secondary school. Studies would be directed towards one or more of the following areas: language, arts, mathematics, science, commerce, history and geography.

(iv)   Special one-year courses for certificated teachers were offered to provide specialist training in woodwork, homecraft, arts and craft.

Universities made provision for:

(i)   the two years Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) for which students took professional training plus five degree courses in Arts or four in Science.

(ii)   A University Education Diploma (UED) which was taken concurrently with the degree course.

The universities of Fort Hare, the North and Zululand made provision for the Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD) and also the University Education Diploma (UED). The entrance qualification was a Senior Certificate. In addition the University of Fort Hare offered the Senior Secondary and the B Ped degree in 1974. A SSTD was awarded to a student who completed three years of study towards a degree but could not complete the diploma and had to teach. In the STD course, the first year was for academic studies and the second for professional training (Behr 1978:185).

In the late sixties, the Lower Primary Teacher's Course and the Higher Primary Teacher's course were phased out. Two other courses were offered at the training

schools in the 70's, viz the Primary Teachers Certificate Course (2 years after Form III) and the Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate (two years after matric) (Horrell 1968:86).

Behr (1988:169) remarks that over the decade 1960 - 1969 the numbers of teachers increased in African schools from 27 767 to 43 638, which was an average annual growth rate of 5,7%. However, in spite of the growth rate, there was an acute shortage of teachers due to the severe influx of African children into schools. In 1968 the Secretary of Bantu Education stated that in order to maintain a satisfactory teacher-pupil ratio, the Department needed the services of 60 000 teachers, but could only manage 41 000. Emergency measures such as double sessions in the substandards and classes with averages of 55 pupils had to be continued.

(ii) Teacher,Training courses under the Department of Coloured Affairs (1963 - 1979)

According to Behr (1988:170) three courses of training were offered to prospective coloured teachers at 8 training schools and two training colleges.

Prior to 1948 the training schools were under supervision of the church until Central Government took control in 1963. These institutions offered the following courses:

(i)   a Primary Teachers course (LPTC) of two years after Std 8 for work in the lower primary classes.

(ii)   a two year Primary Teachers' Certificate course (PTC) after Std 10.

(iii)   a higher Primary Teachers' specialization course (HPTC) of one year's duration was also offered to practising teachers.

The most popular course of which the duration was two years, with an entrance qualification of a Junior Certificate, which led to the LPTC, was restricted to women students.

The LPTC teacher could follow a third year LPTC special course, subject to certain requirements in physical education, fine art, music, needlework and pre-primary education. The two year Primary Teachers Certificate (PTC), post matric was superseded by the three year course which led to the introduction of the Teachers Diploma (PTD) in 1970. A student who successfully completed the second year of the PTD course was granted a Primary Teachers Certificate if he discontinued his studies after two years (Behr 1978:227).

In 1971 a new course which led to the Intermediate Primary Teachers Certificate (IPTC) was introduced. This course enabled prospective teachers who were selected and enrolled as prospective teacher training, but failed the Senior Certificate examination, to continue their training. If they obtained the Senior Certificate in the course of their studies for the IPTC or thereafter they were awarded the PTC. Only persons who were in possession of the PTC were allowed to proceed to a third year of study for the PTD (Behr 1978:228).

In 1977 the two year course for the LPTC was replaced by the three year JPTC. As in the case of the old LPTC course, this course could be taken only by women students who were in possession of a recognised Junior Certificate. Candidates enrolled for the JPTC were trained to teach in the Junior Primary classes i.e. Substandard A to Standard 2 (Report 1 April 1977 - 31 March 1978:10).

According to Mandew (1985:23) this course was no improvement to the LPTC, in effect it was a change in name only as the admission requirement to this course was the Junior Certificate. The Administration, however, realised its error and progressively

phased out the course in 1981.

In 1979 a revised Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) was introduced as the old Primary Teachers Diploma prior to 1979 was deemed to be inadequate. Criticism levelled at the old Diploma course was that theoretical and practical professional training played a relative subservient role in the diploma course. Almost 80% of the time available over the three year period was allocated for academic content and important aspects such as technology in teaching, speech training and guidance were neglected (Alpha Feb 1979 Vol 17 No 1:2).

According to a report by the Commissioner of Coloured Affairs (1.4.74 - 31.3.75:9) the three fields which trainees could specialize for the Primary Teachers' Diploma were as follows:

Course A: Academic course for training of teachers
for the senior primary and junior
secondary standards.

Course B: Kindergarten course for the training of
teachers for the junior primary standards.

Course C: Special subject courses for the training of
teachers for the practical subjects
in the primary and secondary
standards: Music, Handwork,
Art, Needlework, Home Economics
and Physical Education.

The University of the Western Cape offered training courses for secondary school teachers and like other universities awarded degrees in B.Ed, M.Ed, D.Ed (Behr 1978:229).

(iii)   The Department of Indian Affairs (1965 - 1979)

As early as 1951 Springfield Training College, now Springfield College of Education, and the Transvaal College of Education offered two courses viz:

> (i)   a two year course with a Std 8 as admission requirement

> (ii)   a one year course with a Std 10 as admission requirement (Behr 1988:171).

However, Behr (1988:171) mentions that in 1965, prior to Central Government taking control of Indian Education, Indian students were taking the same courses as their fellow students in the colleges of the franchised as admission requirements for the courses offered was a Senior Certificate, viz:

> (i)   a two year course leading to the Natal Teachers Diploma

> (ii)   a three year course leading to the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma

The two colleges of education, for Indians, viz Springfield College of Education and the Transvaal College of Education, offered three, three year post Senior Certificate courses in 1966 - 1967 when the Department took over colleges from the provincial administrations.

The courses were the following:

> (i)   Education Diploma - Pre-primary and Junior Primary

(ii)   Education Diploma - Senior Primary

(iii)   Education Diploma - Junior Secondary

The University of Durban - Westville offered the following:

(i)   Bachelor of Paedogogics (B.Ped), a four-year integrated degree course with specialization for teaching in the senior secondary school or in the primary school.

(ii)   The University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE), a one year post graduate course for teaching in the junior or secondary school.

(iii)   The University Diploma in Education (UDE-JS) a three year course for teaching in the junior secondary school.

(iv)   The University Diploma in Education (UDE-SP) a three year course for teaching in the senior primary school.

For admission to the B.Ped, a Senior Certificate with matriculation exemption was required, for the UHDE an approved degree, and the UDE-JS and UDE-SP an approved Senior Certificate.

With these courses available, the Education Department worked towards a four-year post matriculation for all secondary school teachers (Behr 1978:254).

(f)   The Curriculum for the training of disfranchised teachers

As mentioned earlier, the entrance qualification for the Lower Primary Teachers

Certificate Course under the Department of Bantu Education was Form 1. In this course students studied the two official languages, an African language, arithmetic, religious education, health education, physical education, environment and social studies, nature study, music, arts and crafts and needlework or gardening.

Professional studies included, principles of education, child study, general method, school organization, blackboard work and teaching aids. Practice teaching was done at local schools for 6 to 9 days per year.

The HPTC curriculum did not differ much from the LPTC course. Subjects taught at the Higher Primary school were studied and teaching practice ranged between 9 to 12 days per year.

Students who studied for the JSTC could specialise either in science and mathematics or in languages or social sciences. The professional subjects were included in this course.

There are striking similarities in the LPTC course post Junior Certificate of the Department of Coloured Affairs with the LPTC course and the HPTC course of the Department of Bantu Education. The only difference is the absence of an African language and gardening.

The PTD course included subjects which were studied in the Junior classes of the secondary school and provision was made for professional studies such as principles of education, didactics or method of the academic subjects studied, school administration and organization which was included in principles of education and teaching technology. Teaching practice also ranged from 9 to 12 days per year. However, as mentioned earlier, too much emphasis was placed on the academic side of this course, neglecting important aspects of professional training.

(g) **Effects of the segregated education system on disfranchised teachers**

As Dr Verwoerd indicated that it would be state policy to phase out white teachers in black schools and also to replace men teachers with women teachers in lower primary schools, as this would save funds, staffing changes together with the expansion of lower primary schools meant that additional provision had to be made for African teachers (Christie and Collins 1990:178).

According to Behr (1978:171) at the time lower primary education, i.e. Sub-standard A to Standard 2, was deemed a priority as only 40% of children of school going age.

Thus provision for the training of lower primary teachers was made available, hence a three year post Form 1 and a three year post Form 3 teacher certificate were introduced.

The effects of this provision can be gauged in Table 2.2.4(i). Horrell (1968:86) reflects the increase of women teachers between 1959 to 1963 in a table adapted from the Departmental Reports and Information given by the Minister in the House of Assembly on 12 March 1963.

Table 2.2.4 (i)

	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
1959	12 824	13 264	26 088
1960	12 950	13 975	26 925
1961	12 969	14 859	27 828
1962	13 114	15 735	28 849
1963	13 307	16 812	30 119

Although a definite increase is reflected, Christie and Collins (1990:178) argue that there was an increased shortage of black teachers in the education system, due to the influx of Black pupils into schools. Table 2.2.4 (ii) reflects the high teacher-pupil ratio, which still is a disconcerting feature in Black Education.

Table 2.2.4(ii)

1959	51,1 pupils per class
1960	54,7 pupils per class

Christie and Collins (1990:77) remark on the supplemented enrolment figures of pupils in primary schools, which resulted in the "double sessions" and the platoon system. This meant that schooling facilities were used by two groups of pupils at the expense of facilities being strained, the school day shortened by approximately one third and moreover at the expense of quality education.

Table 2.2.4(iii) reflects the rapid expansion of black pupils between 1950 and 1960 which added to the problems of black teachers.

Table 2.2.4(iii)

	1950	1955	1960
Substd A & B	350 640	466 527	665 655
1	114 729	151 144	238 146
2	82 847	113 449	188 668
3	67 154	90 948	138 495
4	48 211	66 101	97 437
5	34 087	47 353	70 012
6	25 325	34 667	53 833
Form			
1		16 122	21 310
2	17 162	9 879	14 105
3	4 873	6 915	9 607
4	840	1 393	1 741
5	439	674	835
Unclassified	719	552	164
Totals	747 026	1 005 774	1 500 008

In effect teachers had to work a double session day with larger classes, employment qualifications meant low salaries and according to Lodge (1990:270) teachers were reduced to state employees.

Lodge (1990:270) asserts that teachers were directly subordinated to the sometimes uneducated members of school boards which had the power to recommend their dismissal.

The status of the disfranchised teacher was relegated and according to Lodge

(1990:270) Dr Verwoerd made little effort to conceal official hostility to the profession:

> "The Bantu teacher must be integrated as an active
> agent in the process of the development of the Bantu
> community. He must learn not to feel above his
> community, with a consequent desire to become
> integrated into the life of the European community.
> He becomes frustrated and rebellious when this does
> take place, and he tries to make his community
> dissatisfied because of such misdirected ambitions
> which are alien to his people." (Rose and Tunmer: 1975)

Behr (1988:36) too concludes that Dr Verwoerd indeed wanted the Black teacher to be 'an active agent' in the process of the development of the Black community, which in turn had "to bear sufficient financial responsibility" to create an awareness that education was its own concern.

Tabata (1980:43) claims that the disfranchised teacher was not only robbed of status but of security and the proper practice of his calling. He argues that under normal circumstances any professional or civil servant, once employed, had certain entrenched rights which ensured the security of his employment. However, under Bantu Education, the position of a teacher with respect to his immediate employer was reduced to that of master-and-servant, due to the fact that the teacher became a personal servant who could be dismissed without any reason being given or charge laid against him. The regulations governing the teachers employment was stifling and regimented. Under misconduct alone, the disfranchised teacher could not for example:

> "contribute to the Press by interview, or in any other
> manner, or publish letters or articles criticizing the

State department, or school committee, school board

or any Bantu Authority, or any official connected with

one or more of the above-mentioned bodies."

The Bantu Education Act provided for the imprisonment of any teacher who broke these regulations and implied that teachers would be subjected to severe punishment if he should "treat with gross discourtesy a member of the public or any other official".

Further accusations levelled at Bantu Education and the debasement of the teacher by its effects; is outlined by Tabata (1990:43):

When Bantu Education was instituted, a reign of terror was let loose on the disfranchised teacher. Members of the Criminal Investigation Department (CID) swooped on schools, interrogated teachers with long records of distinguished service and have been summarily dismissed without any charge or trial. The only reason sometimes given was the fact that they were unsuitable under Bantu Education.

The educational qualification of disfranchised teachers were exceptionally low, due to the fact that they required no more than a Std 6 certificate to train to become primary school teachers. Those who were to teach in the higher primary classes required a mere Std 8 certificate and two years of teacher training. In addition these teachers were paid salaries of unskilled labourers. This practice was justified by Dr Verwoerd when he commented that, "It is wrong to utilize expensive teacher staff to supervise large classes of bored pupils."

Regimentation was deemed to be the essence of the system. It covered even those teachers who had retired as well as pupils for whom there was no room in overcrowded schools. An example of the strict implementation is noted when a retired Black teacher gathered a number of African children to keep them off the streets. As the teacher did not seek the Ministers permission, he was arrested and fined seventy

five pounds. The magistrate who convicted him commented:

> "You are a learned and respected man in the community,
>
> yet you keep on defying the law."

Teachers became the instruments of policy in a suppressing, authoritarian teaching culture where teachers as well as parents and pupils were excluded from all forms of decision making and critique (Walker 1991:208).

In effect, the disfranchised were rendered silent and non participative by a whole range of regulations, punitive oppression and centralised control. As the above discussion illustrates, censorship, the restriction of access to schools and universities, the Group Areas Act, Population Registration, Separate Amenities, the suppression of political activities, the restriction and banning of political groupings and all other notorious acts, played a part in the systematic corrosion of democratic and parliamentary processes (Morrow 1989:175).

Moreover, the disfranchised became part of a system which negated the fact that, "Education is a terrain where power and politics are given fundamental expression, since it is where meaning, desire, language and values engage and respond to the deeper beliefs about the very nature of what it means to be human, to dream to name and struggle for a particular future and a way of life" (Giroux 1985:XIII).

2.3 THE NEED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION OF DISFRANCHISED TEACHERS

Teachers are continuously told that it is only through education that people are able to deal with contemporary environment so that they are able to contribute to general welfare and achieve a good life for themselves. Only through education can individuals be liberated to think independently and critically so that meanings can be created for themselves. Only through education can vocations be chosen and careers

developed. Only through education, injustices can be alleviated, national security protected and social progress be guaranteed (Mncwabe 1990:101).

Yet, given the historical inadequate school education and professional teacher education the teacher who was disfranchised had, they are expected to live up to these expectations.

Mncwabe (1990:101-102) asserts that, even if these teachers are committed to the notion of cognitive development, the encouragement of self-realization or promotion of citizenship, they cannot help being affected by the doubts and uncertainties which lie beyond the familiar surface of the classroom and school. According to Mncwabe (1990:102) teachers seem confused about what they are to achieve with their pupils and their plight is further complicated by pressures from many different directions. On the one hand more is being asked of Black Education than ever before in South African history and on the other hand Black Education is being attacked for its inefficiency. Teachers are held accountable for the failures in their classrooms, they are asked to produce better products, they have to individualise in large classes so that the needs of all children in the class are provided for and they have to become immediately concerned.

Their predicament is further illustrated by Mncwabe (1990:102) as he states that teachers too find themselves pulled in many directions. They find themselves asking many questions. Who are they responsible to? Is it the community, the administrator of education, the government, their students, their profession? And for what are they responsible?

It is believed that once they considered the option of scapegoating and the incessant challenges of what they are faced with they react in a variety of ways. Mncwabe (1990:101) suggests that they like "beleaguered Hemingway heroes" resolve and say,

"It is better not to think about it." They concentrate on their daily work, trying to be calm and disengaged and as functional and impersonal as machines. When the gap between what is asked for and what seems possible becomes too wide, they often experience outrage and despair. This results in frustrations which are projected on to the young children in their classrooms. They invent self-fulfilling prophecies and resign themselves to the likelihood that they and their students will fail. They behave like clerks that are subjects of some remote authority that issues orders supervises and asks little more than conformity to the rigidity of their classrooms.

In addition, black teachers have experienced a detrimental process dominated by teacher talk and transmission of prescribed knowledge in their own schooling. Walker (1991:158) asserts that at the end of ten or twelve years of being passive and inert scholars, memorising and regurgitating official textbooks, most black teachers would have internalised a particular understanding of teacher behaviour which will be practised in their own classrooms. Sachs (1987:91) points out that research in other countries suggests that teacher behaviour is learnt during the teacher's own school days and that this school experience is the most significant influence on teaching.

Mncwabe (1990:103) also charges that the manner in which Pedagogics or Education is taught in the teaching institutions, is hopelessly inadequate in preparing students for a meaningful career as effective teachers. The fragmentation of the subject into so called part disciplines which are housed in separate compartmentalised departments is ridiculous. There is no intention to integrate and correlate the content and the manner of presentation of these disciplines show no relevance and application to how learning should take place.

This sentiment is echoed by Enslin (1988:73) who too observes that the vast majority of black teachers are products of institutions in which fundamental pedagogics is the sole theoretical discourse through which South African schools are understood. Enslin

(1988:73) believes that fundamental pedagogics supports the authoritarian practices and ideology of segregation which offered "little hope of fostering a discourse offering a language of critique and of possibility."

In Paulo Freire's critique, "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" (1987:58), he views the kind of education mentioned above as an education with a purely narrative character. This narration means that the teacher becomes a depositor, depositing knowledge and the student a mere depository. The teacher teaches and the students listen patiently, receive, memorize and repeat. This is the "banking" concept of education in which the students scope of involvement extends only as far as receiving, filing and depositing knowledge. It is conceded that students will have the opportunity to become collectors or cataloguers of the knowledge they store, but in the final analysis it is "men themselves who are filed away through lack of creativity, transformation and knowledge in a misguided system" and that "knowledge emerges only through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other." (Freire 1987:58)

The kind of education which the teacher who was disfranchised had, therefore, seems hopelessly inadequate. Mncwabe (1990:119) sites Silberman (1970) who states that:

* teachers need more than knowledge of subject matter and a little practice teaching experience before they enter the classroom;
* they need knowledge about knowledge, about the reunifications of the subject or subjects they teach, about how these subjects relate to other subjects and to knowledge and even life in general;
* they need insights into their purposes as teachers; why they are teaching, what they are teaching and how these purposes relate to the institutional setting of the school and to the values of the local community and the society as a whole.

* they need understanding of the processes of growth and development and of the nature of the mind and thought;

* most importantly, perhaps they need to know the kind of questions their teaching will raise and to have some sense of where to turn for further understanding.

It is therefore agreed that teachers who were disfranchised, have to clarify their role in serving the needs of society in South Africa. They should continuously be asking questions about school, pupils, curriculum, teaching methods and education in general so that they are able to formulate a philosophy of education which induces patterns of critical inquiry instead of being confused, passive and receptive as in the past. They have to assume a stance of thinking seriously, deeply and continuously about education as this will be an important steps towards the development of professional expertise and competence.

To the teacher who was disfranchised this seems extremely daunting. Walker (1991:209) confirms this as she mentions that in interviews conducted in 1990, she found that practising teachers struggle to think creatively about their work. She too believes that three sources underpin teacher's professional knowledge at present, that is their own experience of school, their professional training and their experience as teacher. Therefore she concludes in the words of an interviewer, who put it this way,

> "Teachers think the way they are taught,
> overwhelmingly they were taught dreadfully,
> and to them a good class is one that sits and
> takes notes."

Furthermore, although it is believed that education cannot bring about development by itself, it is viewed to be one of the basic agents for change and progress for any

society in the contemporary world (Mbiti 1981:61).

If one moves from the premise that education is a basic factor in the social, economic and political change and development of a nation or society, it becomes evident that teachers have a crucial role to play. In South Africa particularly they will be held responsible for inculcating the forms of knowledge attitudes, values, beliefs and skills which the new democracy needs to prosper.

2.3.1 Political changes and the effect it has on disfranchised teachers

President FW de Klerk's famous speech at the opening of Parliament on Friday 2 February 1990 marked the beginning of a process of reconciliation and change. The African National Congress, the Pan Africanist Congress and the South African Communist Party were unbanned, and the announcement that Nelson Mandela would be released set South African politics in a completely new direction (Cameron-Dow 1994:1).

Many changes came about with the scrapping of many apartheid laws, such as the Group Areas Act, the Mixed Marriages Act and the Population Registration Act. According to Olivier (1992:6-7) and Van Schalkwyk (1988:15) these changes induced the formation of new relationships between the franchised and disfranchised who lived apart and isolated from one another for many years. There was a new found freedom as people were now able to move freely into professions, public facilities and neighbourhoods of their choice.

Education seemed to be on the road to transformation, as Levin (1991:123) argues that "Education could not effectively be transformed without the undermining of the central pillars of discriminatory practices which include the Group Areas Act and the Population Registration Act." He believes that it is these laws which prescribed the

necessity of separate state educational structures.

This new found freedom seemed to invoke in the disfranchised teacher, a new awareness of their plight. They became more politicised and more vocal, and seemed to have no fear of voicing their dissatisfaction.

Molefe (1990:10) reported that it had not been since 1955 that teachers had come out so strongly against the government and education authorities. The report sketches a contrast of disfranchised teacher passiveness before 1990 compared to the open confrontation after 1990. It reveals that before teachers tended to grumble quietly, while students led the deviance campaign. Teachers allegedly watched from a distance when students marched in June 1976 demanding the scrapping of Bantu Education, although mention is made of the fact that an attempt to make themselves heard was made by an isolated and muted voice of the Sowetan Teachers Action Committee. Two hundred teachers resigned their posts in 1977 in support of student grievances, but when the government threatened them with an ultimatum to re-apply for their jobs, they returned to their posts. The disfranchised teachers' passiveness then, is further illustrated with the widespread action of 1976 when throughout the country, workers challenged employers on improved working conditions. The teaching fraternity were apparently left unmoved.

However, it is reported that the Transvaal United African Teachers Association responded by sending circulars and memoranda to Pretoria wherein they stated their dissatisfaction with the then prevailing conditions. A new spirit emerged and teachers around the Reef erupted in anger. From Soshanguve and Mamelodi in Pretoria to the Vaal Triangle in the south, from Ikakeng to Katlehong on the East Rand, thousands of teachers took to the streets. They held jam-packed meetings and openly defied the Department of Education and Training (Molefe 10:1990).

To accentuate their defiance teachers dumped five thousand record books at the Vereeniging Department of Education and training regional offices. They resolved that there would be no more official record books which would ensure that the Department of Education would have no control over what was taking place in their classrooms (Hartshorne 1992:321).

The Vaal Progressive Teachers Organization rejected in a manifesto, the fallacy that teachers should be apolitical in an increasingly politicised society. The manifesto also condemned the disparity in government expenditure between education for the franchised and education for the disfranchised (Molefe 1990:10).

Indeed, 1990 became the year of the 'chalk-down', go slows, strikes and refusal to comply with departmental instructions such as the filing in of leave forms when teachers absented themselves from school, to go on protest marches. In many areas teachers refused to allow principals, subject advisers and inspectors to access classes for supervision purposes, which resulted in the department to lose control over teachers. The lack of effective supervision contributed to further deterioration of the learning environment and the catastrophic Matric results at the end of 1990 (Hartshorne 1992:320).

The victimisation of teachers by circuit inspectors and regional offices and also the retrenchment of teachers, despite the overcrowding of schools for the franchised were condemned. On the 24 July 1990 the voice of teachers across all the various departments of education was heard when the National Teachers Unity Forum organised a successful nation-wide "sit-in" to protest against the education crisis (Moll 1991:199).

From the above it becomes apparent that teachers and their associations have become politicised over the years as they struggled to survive in a system which they

did not believe in and which had no credibility in the community (Hofmeyr and Jaff 1992:173).

This new politicisation of teachers was also viewed from another perspective. Kies (1989:2) emphatically condemns boycotts and strike actions, and questions the ability of disfranchised teachers to make the right choices. Boycotts and strikes by teachers are considered to be a disastrous anti-intellectual madness which is coupled with a strange belief that children can be neglected in schools for thee quarters of the year and then be given "a catch-up" injection that will enable them to succeed. It is argued that teachers should be made aware that it is unscientific and that it ignores the basic notions of teaching and learning. It furthermore mocks the aspirations, ideals and capabilities of children and is a dishonest, deceitful and patent assault upon the rights of children.

None the less amidst the vociferous call by disfranchised teachers for authorities to heed their call, many more political changes and developments took place.

The National Party Government and the African National Congress - South African Communist Party - Congress of South African Trade Union Alliance, concluded arrangements for the return of exiles to South Africa, the freeing of political prisoners, indemnities from prosecution for political prisoners and the suspension of the armed struggle (Maré 1993:3).

A Multiparty Conference took place in December 1991 under the joint sponsorship of the Government and the African National Congress for a Democratic South Africa.

The convention was hailed as marking the end to white minority rule as it was the intention to reach some agreement on the basic form and principles of a new Constitution for a Democratic South Africa (Maré 1993:3). ·

A divergence of ends however brought about a breakdown in talks, but progress was made and a Conference for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA I) was followed by CODESA II. The Conference was unable to produce meaningful progress and elicited angry recriminations from frustrated participants. A stalemate had arisen over the percentage majority which would be required to enable the dominant party to effect constitutional change (Cameron Dow 1994:62). A breakthrough came when Communist Joe Slovo introduced his famous "Sunset Clause", which offered the De Klerk government a period of five years of joint control. With this agreement, the Transitional Executive Council was established by the end of 1993. The task of this Transitional Executive Council was to ensure that the newly enfranchised voters were not disadvantaged in the arrangements and circumstances which led up to the General Election of 1994 (Maré 1993:4).

With the new era of democracy, the preparedness of teachers to teach in a democracy is seriously questioned. Walker (1991:212) concedes that democratic decision-making by organised parents, students and teachers is a broader struggle for people's power, yet she feels that it does not necessarily follow that the achievement of participatory democracy in the organisation of education will be an easy or rapid process. She stresses that when apartheid goes, everything that was wrong in schools will certainly not be set to right as teachers in the past focused on the question of control instead of democratic practise. This implies that democratic practises will not come easy to teachers who were once disfranchised.

Thompson (1981:15) emphasizes that changes in formal education must "in the end mean changes in what goes on in the classroom." Resa (1988:21) too suggests that changes in classroom practises are necessary if people's education is to fulfil the promise of removing "stunted intellectual development" and the encouragement of "collective input and active participation by all as well as stimulating critical thinking and analysis."

Thus the development and transformation of disfranchised teachers seems an absolutely necessity, as much demands are placed on teachers to effectively organize classroom practice so that democracy will prevail.

The role that the teacher plays in education for democracy becomes extremely crucial. Spaulding (1988:16) asserts that:

> "Perhaps in the long run if education can
> better prepare young people for more
> intelligent and constructive participation in
> the democratic process, this may be the
> most significant contribution it can hope to make"

2.3.2 Economic changes and the effect it has on teachers who were disfranchised

The gradual demolition of the apartheid policy culminated in South Africa's first democratic elections on the 27 April 1994. Hence the disfranchised have become franchised, but many agree that "even if apartheid is "removed" the post-apartheid South Africa that is left behind will be little different from its apartheid predecessor" (Kies 1989:2).

Peach (1992:3) too paints a gloomy picture of the economy in South Africa. He states that the country is in an economic crisis and there seems very little hope of recovery in the new future. On the other hand, the Congress of South Africa Trade Unions (COSATU) is however more optimistic. They believe that an eduction system should be developed to satisfy the needs for economic growth (Cosatu Human Resources Committee 1991:82).

The ANC Discussion Document (1994:10) also acknowledges that the South African economic growth rate has been declining for the past thirty years. It declined from about six per cent in the early 1960's to about one per cent per year by the beginning of the 1990's. It also states that since the population has been increasing at about 2,6 per cent per year, the per capita economic growth has been negative since 1982.

Reports suggest that one of the most important causes of poor economic performance in South Africa is the huge inequality in skills which exist across the different parts of the labour force. Employers and the government have not invested meaningfully in the development of broad skills and knowledge, therefore labour productivity has been impeded by the poor quality of education (ANC Discussion Document 1994:32).

It is therefore concluded that quality education and training should be made available to as many people as possible, as it would secure improvements in access to higher levels of education, it would increase access to jobs and in turn there will be an improvement in the distribution of incomes. (ANC Discussion Document 1994:32)

Kies's (1989:2) prediction that post apartheid South Africa would still be faced with realities such as illiteracy, innumeracy, lack of skills, brutalised social environment in locationed societies, and lack of unemployment due to the impoverished society seems to be a definitive reality, if the education system is not revised.

According to the ANC Discussion Document (1994:31) the state of the economy has affected the disfranchised, especially the Black population tremendously. The Discussion Document finds that the growth in the number of jobs has declined in line with the long-term economic trend. Since the population has continued to increase, the gap between the growth of employment and that of the labour force has widened extensively, thus unemployment has increased rapidly. It is further found that almost one quarter of the labour force are without jobs, resulting in widespread unemployment

which aggravates the deeper problems which South African people face.

Truscott and Milner (1984:36) reveal that it is estimated that approximately 350 000 school students become job-seekers each year. The enormity of the problem is highlighted by Hyslop (1990:84) who cites a comparison made between job-seekers in the 1960's and job-seekers in the 1990's. It is found that in the 1960's, three quarters were able to be employed, but as the economic crisis deepened, the figure was reduced to a mere 13%. According to Riordan (1995:75) official employment figures soared from 22% in 1970 to 30% in 1980 and to 40% in 1989.

Statistics of the Department of Manpower - sub-directorate (1991:2) confirm that in November 1991 there were 285 583 registered unemployed persons. Van Schalkwyk (1988:14) and Viljoen (1989:12) also share the view that unemployment rose to alarming proportions and according to projections, there will be 8 million unemployed persons by the year 2000.

The task of the teacher who was disfranchised even seems greater now, as it is now more than ever believed that education is able to induce the economic development and growth of the country. This is evident in the governments commitment to invest in education by providing ten years of free and general education to all children (ANC Discussion Document 1994:10).

Mbiti (1981:64) believes that education should be seen as a powerful weapon at the disposal of society which can be used for the advancement of human welfare and human awakening. He states that it is because many developing nations, realized the power of knowledge, therefore they invested heavily in education. Mbiti (1981:64) verifies this statement with a study made in Canada from 1911 to 1961 which shows that:

"The higher the level of education, the greater are the earning differences between younger and older age groups and the high initial earnings. Subsequent experience and performance is also influenced by the degree of initial formal training."

This implies that formal education is a crucial investment which is able to induce national development.

The ANC Discussion Document (1994:32) endorses this, as it finds that countries with well developed education systems have grown faster in the 20th century than those which have delayed educational development. It finds that the rapid growth of newly industrialising Azian countries have been influenced largely by the relatively large numbers of well educated labour.

Walker (1991:206) however, warns that even if attention is paid to education, and here she specifically mentions polytechnic education, that is education dealing with subjects to skill workers in the labour force and also education for critical literacy, it will require teachers with confidence and skills which is underpinned by a teaching culture which supports innovation and experimentation. She argues strongly that the key determinant to quality schooling, is the quality of teaching.

Education and most of all the teacher is a vital factor, if the reconstruction, development and economic growth of the country will depend on the forms of knowledge, skills and attitudes which teachers have to offer.

2.3.3 Social Changes and the effect it has on teachers who were disfranchised

According to Mncwabe (1990:121) society influences classroom activity therefore

change that occurs in wider-society and in culture should find a place in the classroom. Therefore as South African society now moves into a state of democracy, it is felt that classrooms and education must be organized democratically if it is to prepare young people for life in a democracy. (Walker 1991:212) The problem however is, most South African teachers are not well equipped to implement alternative classroom practises. This is due to their own school experience which was reinforced by training colleges characteristic of transmission teaching or banking education as referred to by Paulo Freire (Walker 1991:212). Parker (1981:27) charges that such transmission teaching in schools and colleges flows from the fundamental pedagogics view of the child having to be "moulded and inculcated into an attitude of obedience and submission towards the instruments of authority."

It is also emphasized that teachers will have to be shown how to change because if teachers are given the necessary support, they can and do change their practice. (Walker 1991:217)

Long before the 27 April 1994 elections, Mncwabe (1990:117) asserted that the disfranchised people were living through a period in which democratic consultation was becoming obligatory. What children learn at school should not be a matter of indifference to them. The days when groups of bureaucrats dictated what teachers had to do were coming to an end. Parents wanted to be involved in the education of their children and authoritarian, top down, talk-and-chalk methods of teaching were being questioned. Teachers will thus have to be encouraged to find the best methods to teach certain parts of knowledge or skills which is required to live up to the expectations of a democratic, non-racial South Africa. Democratic teaching is not an insurmountable task, Alister Fraser (1987:147) writes about pupils aged nine to eleven participating in regular meetings at school to organize matters such as the cleaning of litter in the school ground, caring for younger pupils and to discuss issues such as discipline and responsibility. She points out that these children set their own agenda

which is not grounded in their own experience, but they are now able to learn about control and responsibility by creating their own ways of exercising them. It is suggested that such skills cannot be developed by simply telling children how to run their lives. Castles and Wustenburg (1979:53) believe that such knowledge, skills and attitudes where pupil participation is more than 'just a game with democratic values', seem essential for full participation in a democracy.

Mncwabe (1990:117) does however concede that change would be extremely difficult for teachers who were disfranchised, as the traditional talk-and-chalk methods have a tenacious hold on teachers, due to their insecurity and academic and professional incompetence.

Walker (1991:214) on the other hand emphasizes why the rigid and authorization teaching methods of apartheid education has to be replaced by a democratic approach to educational practises. She cites an explanation by John Guttig of Natal University on the merits of democracy in classrooms.

> "If you've got a class of 70, it's useless simply to
> talk to the front. Break the pupils into groups. Get
> them educating each other. Get them participating
> by listening to their ideas. Think democratically.
> And always remember that education isn't a purely
> technical function of imparting knowledge, it's a
> way of developing attitudes and values. That's why
> the democratisation of education is so vital."

Mbiti (1981:61) confirms that in a constantly changing society, formal education bears the responsibility of inculcating in each generation forms of knowledge skills, values and attitudes which society needs to prosper.

In South Africa particularly, endemic violence still faces the Government of National Unity. Hirschowitz, Milner and Everatt (1994:82) comment that South Africa is currently characterised by both a high rate of political violence as well as a high rate of violent crime and domestic violence. Vogelman (1991:5) comments that South Africa has more than 32 murders per day. In Gauteng, murders occur almost ten per day, which is twice the average rate of New York City. The problem however is that according to McKendrick and Hoffman (1990:42) "violence is accepted as being normal and ordinary in South African society". Hirschowitz, Milner and Everatt (1994:82) maintain that exposure to this kind of violence has a profound effect on young people's present future attitudes, values and behaviour.

According to Coutts (1992:35) South Africa also rates very high in the gap in wealth between rich and poor, by world standards. He believes that efforts to improve the well--being of the poor by academic support programmes should be reinforced by any school system. Although schools acting alone do not have a very good record of equalising the distribution of opportunity or wealth in society, it is quite clear that all teachers in multi-cultural schools should become skilled and knowledgeable concerning strategies of academic support, bridging courses, affirmative action and second language teaching. Jack (1992:31) does however warn, that it should be remembered that teachers are also human beings. They bring their cultural perspectives, values, hopes and dreams to the classroom, with this, also their prejudices, stereotypes and misconceptions. To clarify the statement, he explains that both teachers, one who believes that Jan van Riebeeck and his companions brought civilization to South Africa and the other who believes that South Africa was occupied by groups of people with rich and diverse cultures will send different messages to students when the European exploration of South Africa is studied. Teacher education should therefore help pre- and in- service teachers to explore and clarify their own ethics and cultural identities and also to develop more positive racial, ethnic and cultural groups (Jack 1992:31).

As the National Education Policy Investigation Report (NEPI-report) (1992:49) recognises that "teachers are the life-blood of an educational system" it seems imperative that teachers who were disfranchised receive quality retraining and in-service training so that they are able to make a vital contribution to society and the changing world.

Mncwabe (1990:121) therefore stresses that teachers have to remain students in changing society, as changes in society influence activity in the classroom. He cites notable changes which are taking place in contemporary society.

*   Science and technology are continuing to advance as news discoveries and breakthroughs are made in physics, chemistry, medicine and other fields.

*   Societies are in the midst of an information revolution which is based on computers and telecommunication, that has a huge impact on society.

*   The family has tended to disintegrate, so that striking changes such as single parent families have been interwoven in family patterns of living.

*   The population explosion seems to be growing out of proportion.

*   Social movements that include the integrating of races, mobility of the population and movement of the people from lower socio-economic to higher socio-economic status are continuing.

*   The rapid technological and social changes have produced conflicting values amongst people.

Teachers therefore face a tremendous challenge of having to equip pupils with dealing with changes in contemporary society and also changing attitudes and values so that

people are able to be tolerant of one another so that they are able to live in peace and harmony.

2.3.4 Educational changes and the effect it has on disfranchised teachers

After much conflict and turmoil in education, a climate of renewal also became evident on the education front after the watershed speech of President De Klerk on the 2 February 1990. A consensus was reached amongst all parties involved in education, including the government, that Christian National Education had failed in its task in providing individuals with skills necessary for progress in a modern economy and also on the incompetency of individuals to play their rightful part in a modern political democracy. Substantial agreement were made on the following: (Muller 1992:9-10)

* that there should be a single centralised authority
* that all children should be treated equally by the state
* that race as an allocative principle should be dropped
* that well trained teachers are essential for effective learning
* that rapid technological advances should be dealt with by means of a flexible curriculum and that an adaptive rather than a narrowly vocational curriculum best prepares children for a rapidly changing world.
* that pre-primary education is important
* that there should be the maximum degree of articulation between the non-formal and formal sectors of education
* that some degree of choice and participation is both important and desirable.

Therefore a number of major undertakings took place to investigate policies which could reconstruct the entire education system. They were carried out in South Africa and at international level. Studies carried out by the World Bank, the Commonwealth

Secretariat, the United Nations and UNESCO aimed at assisting organisations in developing a policy to change apartheid education. In South Africa, the government directed the Committee of Heads of Education Departments to produce the Education Renewal Strategy. The African National Congress and the National Education Coordinating Council also played their part and drew a wide range of democratic academics into a number of interconnected research groups which later produced the National Education Policy Investigation Report (NEPI Report) (Unterhalter and Wolpe 1991:X-XI)

It includes:

i. The restructuring of school education which will aim at providing quality general education for all. All children will receive ten years of free and compulsory general education, starting with a reception year and proceed for a further nine years to what is now standard 7.

ii. The three year post compulsory stage (which is up to the present standard ten) still has to substantially redesigned in order to provide for a variety of courses which will lead to the award of a further Education Certificate.

iii. The curriculum has to be reconstructed as this would ensure ridding the education and training system of the legacy of racism, authorization and outdated teaching practises. Importantly, teachers and trainers will be involved in the designing of a new curriculum (ANC Discussion Document 1994:10).

The NEPI Report (1992:17) too finds that fundamental pedagogics still dominates teacher education in South Africa and that its harmful effects are apparent everywhere.

The pretentious to scientific objectivity of Fundamental Pedagogics, together with the way it is taught in the lecture rooms, prevent teachers from developing .an understanding of the relationship between education and the context in which knowledge and understanding are created and shared. Fundamental Pedagogics is thought to be intellectually harmful, as it neutralizes and depoliticizes educational discourse, which in turn does not provide students and teachers with concepts which are necessary to assess matters critically.

It is further reported that Fundamental Pedagogics is kept in place by the education faculties of the University of South Africa (UNISA), most of the Afrikaans universities, most of the universities in the homelands and the now defunct Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) states, and all the colleges under or affiliated to the Department of Education and Training (DET) and the House of Representatives. Judging from examination question papers, it was found that colleges under the House of Assembly and House of Delegates, have had a measure of curriculum freedom, however the influence which UNISA has, is pervasive, as approximately 10 000 students are currently studying Fundamental Pedagogics in Education 1 (NEPI Report 1992:17).

In addition, African teachers have a poor command of the English language, as a result of the Bantu Education System that was forced upon them (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:172). The NEPI Report (1992:18) findings confirm the fact that the link between language and cognition is not stressed. Teaching is essentially a linguistic activity, which demands of teachers an excellent command of the medium of instruction used in the classroom.

With the overwhelming victory in the first democratic election in South Africa, the African National Congress are now likely to take action on the policy initiatives which they outline in the ANC Discussion Document.

As these policy initiatives have a direct bearing on all teachers, the demands placed on teachers who received an inadequate education themselves, therefore rendering them ill-equipped, seems overwhelming. It is indeed welcoming to note that the African National Congress too has a policy for teacher preparation and development. The policy is based on principles which include:

    i.   preparing sufficient numbers of teachers and trainers to meet the commitment of lifelong learning.

    ii.   developing a competent confident and critical and reflective corps of teachers and trainers.

    iii.   evolving a new culture of active learning through the education system.

    iv.   developing schools, colleges and community education centres as effective sites of education. (ANC Discussion Document 1994:50-51).

2.4   **Conclusion**

Despite the segregation inequality and injustices which was brought about by the historical legislation of the past and which impacted on the economic, social and educational lives of the disfranchised, there seems to be much optimism as many see education as the lynch pin for the creation of a true non racial, non-sexist united South Africa.

Therefore Bagwandeen (1994:15) Walker (1991:217) and Pillay (1991:98) agree that the quality of teacher education and the calibre of the teacher as the most important change agent should assume a critical position in the total education spectrum.

But as teachers themselves are the products of segregated schooling and years of struggle, they find it difficult to take responsibility for effective learning in their classrooms, therefore the development and transformation of these teachers is vital.

There is however, much hope as the present government too acknowledges the above sentiment and promise that they will be actively involved in creating an education system whereby "the human resources and potential in society will be developed to the full" (ANC Discussion Document 1994:2).

2.5 Second Problem Formulation

Due to the effects of the segregated education system with its inadequacies, many teachers who were disfranchised were found to be ill-equipped to teach in a rapidly changing society. In an attempt to determine whether the measures undertaken provided for the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised, the revised college curriculi as well as the provision of in-service education and training was scrutinized.

CHAPTER 3

3. EFFORTS UNDERTAKEN TO PROVIDE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION OF TEACHERS WHO WERE DISFRANCHISED (1982 - 1996)

3.1 Introduction

Efforts made by the separate Departments of Education to facilitate the development of the larger majority of teachers who were disfranchised is discussed in Chapter 3. This research concentrated on the implementation of the present curricula in Colleges of Education with the intention to find out if the present situation facilitates and assists in the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised.

The sustained increase in the number of students who completed the Senior Certificate annually made it possible to phase out all teacher training courses with an entrance requirement below Standard ten and to introduce a range of three-year post-Senior Certificate teacher's diploma courses (Behr 1988:177).

In addition, the criteria for the Evaluation of South African qualifications for Employment in Education were revised in 1979. In an official document of the Committee of Heads the standard qualifications of teachers were set. All disfranchised education departments revised and structured their teacher training accordingly.

According to the Alpha, (1982 20.1:10) the Department of Internal Affairs, responsible for Coloured Education, viewed the new courses with the following objectives in mind:

a. To provide for the training of teachers for the Primary and Junior Secondary standards.

b.   To accept in future only pupils who have passed the Senior Certificate and satisfied the minimum requirements as set out in the Criteria of the Committee of Heads.

c.   To see that no teacher training for the primary school teachers should be less than three years after standard 10.

d.   To see that no teacher training for secondary school teachers should be less than four years after standard 10.

e.   To maintain standards as set down by the Criteria throughout.

f.   To make provision for part-time and correspondence.

g.   To train already in-service teachers to the minimum level of three years after standard 10 so that they can all at least fall into category C.

h.   To do away with all interim external examinations and to write only in the final year of the specific course, the most important subjects or sections thereof. (Marking of scripts should be done internally by colleges).

i.   To provide mechanisms which will enable the training of teachers to take place according to Departmental needs thus preventing overproduction in some areas.

Thus from 1982, teacher training courses for Coloureds were revised. According to Report 1 July to 31 June (1981:38), the Diploma in Education course with a three year training period as the minimum for Primary School teachers and the Higher Diploma in Education for secondary, a four year minimum course were introduced.

In colleges of the DET, the Annual Report (1981:117-118) states clearly that "The

existing courses, the best known of which are the two-year post standard 8 Primary Teacher's Certificate and the post-standard 10 Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate course, are to be phased out and will be replaced by the Primary Teacher's Diploma Courses and the Secondary Teacher's Diploma Courses as from 1982". In addition, in-service courses would be provided to teachers at all levels as well as principals.

3.2   Courses offered at Colleges of the DET from 1982

These courses were the Senior Primary Teacher's Diploma (SPTD) and the Secondary Teacher's Diploma (STD). The above two courses replaced the Primary Teacher's Certificate, the Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate and the three year Senior Secondary Teacher's Certificate (Thembela and Walters 1984:42).

A Junior Primary Teacher's Diploma (JPTD) was also introduced which would qualify the candidate to be able to teach sub-standard A and B and standard 1 and 2. Further provision was made for the STD course mentioned in the previous paragraph to be completed with degree courses or without degree courses at colleges of education (Thembela and Walters 1984:42).

On completion of a three year diploma course, candidates also had the option of a one year specialisation course in any of the following: Art, Woodwork, Physical Education, Librarianship and Supportive Services (remedial and individualised education). Universities provided opportunities to train teachers for post graduate diplomas and for the education degree (B Ped) which could be completed within a period of 4 years and universities such as Vista University Distance Education Campus offered services for the training of teachers already in service (Thembela and Walters 1984:42).

3.3   Courses offered at the Colleges of the Disfranchised Departments from 1982
As mentioned earlier, in order to bring teacher training courses in Coloured and Indian

education into line with those of other education departments, courses were revised in 1982. The Diploma in Education course with a duration of three years for Primary School teachers and Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) for Secondary school teachers with a training period of four years was introduced as from January 1982 (Behr 1988:178).

A Senior Certificate as entrance requirement was laid down as minimum qualification and a common curriculum was followed in the first year of study. According to the Education Bulletin No 14/81 of 31 July 1981, the student could study either of the following courses in the second year:

I.   Junior Primary Teachers Diploma for the Junior Primary standards.

II.   Senior Primary Teachers Diploma for the Senior Primary standards.

III.   Practical Specialization which qualified a teacher to teach a practical subject to at least the standard 7 level.

IV.   The Higher Education diploma (Junior Primary and Senior Primary or Practical subject). The training course for the Higher Education Diploma is a one-year specialist course following the Diploma in Education.

V.   The fourth year Higher Education Diploma (Secondary).

Behr (1988:178) remarks that in 1980 there was a dramatic increase in the enrolment of teacher training institutions in Indian education, which gave use to the situation that in 1983 the supply of teachers outstripped the demand. Thus from 1985 all initial teacher training courses, both for primary and secondary school offered at Indian colleges of education were extended to a duration of four years, post-Senior Certificate (Behr 1988:178).

In addition, a vigorous programme of in-service training was provided for the professional development of teachers, principals and subject advisers in service of Indian Department of Education. These courses continue to take place over one or two days on a regional basis or one-term full time courses at the Springfield College of Education (Behr 1988:178).

The University of the Western Cape provided courses for secondary teachers as well as specialization courses in youth guidance and remedial education to teachers under the House of Representatives. Likewise, the University of Durban Westville, offered a four-year degree course and a one year post-graduate diploma for teachers in the House of Delegates. Courses in specialised fields such as remedial education, guidance and counselling and library resource centre management is still being offered (Behr 1988:178).

From the above, it is concluded that much development in Indian Teacher Education had taken place with the extension of Diploma courses to four years. In order to further trace development an indepth study will thus be continued of the Curricula for the Diploma courses offered at colleges of the DET and colleges under the jurisdiction of the Department of Internal Affairs.

3.4   The Curricula for the Diploma Courses offered at Colleges of the DET (1982 - 1989)

A brief synopsis of the changing curriculum as set out below reflects a curriculum loaded with theory.

The JPTD curriculum up to 1989 consisted of the following subjects:
Education; Teaching Science; Subject Didactics; first language (vernacular); official languages (English and Afrikaans); Mathematics; Environmental Study and Health

Education; Biblical Studies; Student guidance; Library orientation.

The curriculum was revised in 1990 and Teaching Science was replaced by two separate subjects: Teaching practice and School Management.

The SPTD curriculum included the following subjects: Education; Teaching Science; Classroom Practice; Senior Primary Subject Didactics; Teaching Practice; First Language; English and Afrikaans; Biblical Studies; Biology or Physical Science or History or Geography; Student Guidance and Guidance; Library Orientation and Book Education; Health Education; Religious Education; Arts and Crafts.

The 1990 revised curriculum split Teaching Science into three components each with its own syllabi. The components are: Teaching practice, Senior Primary Didactics and School Management which was studied only as from the second year.

The Structure of the curriculum for the STD consisted of:

Education; Teaching Science; Teaching Practice; first school subject (Languages, content subjects); Second school subject (Languages, content subjects); Special Afrikaans; Special English; Bible and Philosophy; Physical Education; Music and Singing; Student Guidance; Library orientation; Arts and Crafts; School Guidance; Music; Method and Organization of Sport.

In 1989 more SPTD and JPTD students were recruited for study at colleges as the DET concluded that a situation had then arose whereby universities and colleges of education were likely to educate more teachers for the Secondary school than would be required in 1992.

For this reason all new colleges had to cater for the education of primary school teachers only and the STD courses at existing colleges had to be scaled down as

universities would eventually assume responsibility for the education of secondary school teachers (DET Annual Report 1988:130).

3.4.1 Practical Teaching in Colleges of the DET

The syllabi for the JPTD, the SPTD and STD are separate and is each divided into two sections. An observation period which implies observing lessons under a schools' supervision and the presentation of criticism lessons which are evaluated by college lecturers.

(a) Teaching and classroom practice for the JPTD

According to prescriptions, students spend two weeks on merely observing the presentation of lessons and practice teaching was gradually phased in during the first year.

The second year was planned so that schools are visited twice (a) at the beginning of the school year for two weeks to enable pupils to gain experience in the school readiness programme, (b) during the course of the year for another two weeks, whereby students were evaluated.

During the third and final year, the student spends two weeks or practical teaching at schools near home and a further two weeks during the year for evaluation purposes near the College of Education. The teaching practice session provided the student the opportunity to practice teaching with classes of the Junior Primary School, i.e. Substandard A to standard 2.

(b) Syllabus for Practice Teaching in the JPTD

In an attempt to trace the development and depth of syllabi for practice teaching, the

researcher quotes Siyoko (1993:63-64) who gives a brief analysis of the practice teaching syllabi.

I.   College and School Practice Teaching Observation:

In addition to observing an operative school for 10 school days, students have to also complete a comparative case study on two children.

Demonstration lessons and feedback

The lecturer demonstrates a lesson using pupils or students as a class. Each session is followed by a feedback by students.

Practical Teaching Workshops

The lecturers responsible for Didactics run these workshops which includes aspects such as microteaching and team teaching.

Block Teaching

A minimum of 90 teaching practice lessons spread across the four teaching practice periods during the second and third year of study have to be completed by students.

Evaluation

Approximately 10 of the 90 lessons taught had to be evaluated by the lecturers concerned and a detailed record of Teaching Practice had to be kept.

II.   Classroom practice

This component aimed at the following:

*   Creating a learning situation based on the life - world of the child

*   Cultivation of good relationships in the classroom

*   Classroom Organization

*   Creating a stimulating learning environment

*   Attending school regularly

*   School readiness

*   Evaluation - Keeping a daily record of the child's progress

*   Time-table for different classes including combined classes

*   Grouping and group teaching

*   Handwriting

*   Aids - The choice of teaching aids, their usage storage and making

*   Pupil's responsibility - discipline and punishment

(c)   Teaching Practice Syllabus for SPTD and STD Courses

Students were expected to do a total of 10 weeks of practice teaching with a minimum of 90 teaching practice lessons which had to be spread evenly over a period of 5

teaching practice sessions. The programme included observing lessons being presented by lecturers practical teaching at home schools, and teaching school subjects followed in the course. Ten lessons out of the ninety had be evaluated by lecturers concerned and students also had to do a case study on one child during the second year. The observation period implied observing classes and matters pertaining to classes and the normal operations of the school, such as aspects of school management and administration which includes the following: class registers, school policy, the record book, scheme of work, time-tables, etc.

3.5 The Curriculum for Teacher Training at Colleges of the DET after 1990

Presently most colleges offer the two diploma courses viz. the JPTD and the SPTD.

According to prescriptions of the Department of Education and Training the duration of instruction is stipulated at thirty hours a week with 40 minutes recommended as the length of each lesson period. The revised curriculum is divided into three groups of subjects which is stipulated below:

3.5.1 Group 1: Subjects

Professional Subjects. This group entails Education, Teaching Science and Didactics. The Education and Teaching Science syllabi are the same for all courses. Education deals with philosophies of life, theories about human behaviour and learning and general didactics.

(a) Teaching Science

The syllabi used until 1989 reflects aspects such as chalkboard work, teaching aids (media), demonstration lessons, classroom organisation and micro teaching is added in the second and third year.

In 1990 the revised Teaching Science syllabi had been divided into four definite subjects each with its own syllabi.

I.   Teaching Practice included chalkboard work, skills practice, media and school practice
II.   School Management
III.   Junior or Senior primary didactics
IV.   Teaching and Classroom Practice

(b)   Junior Primary Didactics reflects the following:

Religious Education, Music, Physical Education, First Language (remacular), Second Language (English and Afrikaans), Mathematics, Handwriting, Environmental Study and Health Education, Arts and Crafts and Needlework or Gardening.

(c)   Senior Primary Didactics

The Senior Primary course includes: Physical Education, Arts and Crafts, Needlework or Gardening or Music, Guidance, Book Education and four school subjects.

3.5.2 Group 2: Academic Subjects

This group offers academic enrichment in relevant school subjects to the student teacher. It is inclusive of the following academic subjects: Afrikaans A or English A, Afrikaans B or English B, and the First Language. The subjects are studied at a post matric level which is aimed at improving the communicative skills of a student in a particular language.

The following subjects are specific in the Junior Primary Course: Mathematics, Environmental Study and Health Education and Biblical Studies.

The Senior Primary Diploma included one of these specific subjects. Mathematics, Biblical Studies, Biology, Physical Science, Geography and History. The student was allowed only to choose the subject passed in matric.

3.5.3 Group 3: Background Subjects

Subjects in this group aimed at shaping the students professionally, so as to develop a healthy perspective on life in general as well as contributing to the students self esteem and confidence.

Subjects studied in the first year are: Library Orientation and Book Education. Student Guidance and English as medium of instruction is included in courses, as the latter aims at mastering communication skills in English for use in general.

3.6 The Curricula for Diploma Courses offered at Colleges of the Department of Internal Affairs (later House of Representatives (1982)

A brief synopsis of the curriculum for the following courses too reflect that much emphasis is put on the theoretical aspect of teacher education.

3.6.1 The Different Courses offered at Colleges of the Department of Internal Affairs (House of Representatives)

The first year of teacher education is a general basic professional orientation year, which offer subjects such as languages, school subjects e.g. Mathematics, Science History, Geography, professional subjects and Practical subjects.

(a) The Junior Primary Diploma

The Junior Primary curriculum included the following: Languages, Children's Literature,

Biology or Biblical Studies, Education Class Teaching, teaching Aids and Speech training, Subject Didactics, Physical Education, Class Music and Art.

(b)   The Senior Primary Diploma   /

The course offered the official languages, Mathematics, Biology, History, Geography, Education, Class Teaching, Teaching Aids, Speech Training and one of the following subjects int he second and third year: Physical Education School Music, Art Handicraft Needlework and Biblical Studies.

In the third year a candidate was able to choose one of the four academic subjects completed in the second year viz. Mathematics, Biology, History or Geography.

(c)   The Practical Specialization Diploma

The following subjects are specific to the above mentioned course: The official languages, one of the academic subjects, Biology, Geography, History or Biblical Studies at SP level, Education, Class Teaching, Teaching Aids, Speech training and one of the following practical subjects: Physical Education, Music, Art, Handicraft, Needlework and Human Ecology.

(d)   The HDE (JP or SP or Practical Specialization Course)

This course is a one year course, completed after a JP or a SP diploma. The JP HDE offered subjects such as Education, JP Teaching Science, First Language Biblical Studies, at 4th year level another language as first language at third year level and Remedial Teaching and Teaching Science or the Gifted Child.

(e)   The HDE (Secondary) Course

For this course the following subjects were offered: official languages, first and second

language, a choice of thee of the following, Mathematics, Biology, Physical Science, Geography History, Education, Class Teaching, Teaching Aids and Speech Training. In the third year two of the three academic subjects were chosen which were continued in the fourth year. One of the following subjects discontinued after the second year would be completed in the third year on a third year level: Mathematics, Biology, Physical Science, Geography and History, Speech Training is discontinued in the fourth year.

In 1989 however, the HDE Secondary course under the Department of Internal Affairs was suspended for the same reason given with the suspension of the STD in the Department of Education and Training.

3.6.2 Practical Training of Students under the Department of Internal Affairs (House of Representatives) after 1982

According to the Department of Internal Affairs Syllabus and prescriptions for class teaching, Diploma in Education and Higher Education Diploma (1982:1) the aims for the practical training of students are as follows:

(a) "To give the students the opportunity of observing actual teaching and the lesson and classroom situation.

(b) To enable the student to acquire the skills and techniques of effective teaching by means of practice teaching and,

(c) To give the student the opportunity of maintaining effective control over the class and exercising sound discipline in the classroom situation."

The amended edition 1983 of the 1982 prescriptions (1983:13) emphasizes that

practical training is an extremely important facet of teacher training which is completed in collaboration with the neighbouring schools under the control of the department. It stipulates that provision should be made on the time-table for guidance, demonstration, micro and criticism lesson which reside under the following sections of practice teaching: Institute Practice' Teaching and School or Field Practice Teaching. A detailed account of the above mentioned concepts will be discussed later.

The syllabus for Practice Teaching stipulates the following:

Out of the total of 45 periods, four periods are used for practical teaching, which are utilized as follows:

I.   Micro-teaching sessions continued in subject didactics periods.

II.   Preparation of lesson.

III.   Presentation of lessons.

IV.   A feedback session and remedial teaching.

The minimum requirements for field Practicum or block-practice teaching stipulates that out of 41 weeks, five weeks are utilized for practice teaching. In the DE 1 course Field Practicum or block-practice teaching includes intensive micro-teaching, one week of observation at schools and one week of practice teaching, teaching 2 lessons per day.

(a)   Practice Teaching Syllabus for JPTD

In the JP 2 and JP 3 course, students are expected to complete a total of 10 weeks of practice teaching over the course period, with a total of 100 lessons for JP 2 students and 125 lessons for JP 3 students.

(b) **Practice Teaching Syllabus for the HDE Secondary DE 3 (SP) Courses**

The HDE Secondary, DE 2 SP, DE 3 SP and the practical specialization courses also stipulate 10 weeks of block practice teaching spread over the duration of the course with 75 lessons being taught. A minimum of 10 lessons have to be evaluated by lecturers with a minimum of 2 per subject.

(c) **Practice Teaching Syllabus for the HDE (SP, JP and practical specialization course**

For the HDE 4 (SP, JP and practical specialization Course) 3 periods per week is stipulated for Institute Practice Teaching and 3 weeks for Field Practicum or block practice-teaching. A minimum of 45 periods lessons have to be taught and 10 lessons have to be evaluated by lecturers concerned.

It is quite evident that although there are differences in the diploma courses of the various departments, e.g. speech education is a compulsory subject in all diploma courses of the Department of Internal Affairs (House of Representatives), the similarities lie in the curriculum programmes of practice teaching which is rated as the most important aspect of teacher education by practising teachers as well as student teachers who were interviewed.

3.7 **The Role of Practice Teaching in Colleges of Disfranchised Teachers**

Although the practical training of teachers is deemed to be the aspect which needs the most attention, syllabus prescriptions allocate very little time to practical training, e.g. the Department of Internal Affairs, (House of Representatives) allocates a mere 8,8% of teaching time to practice teaching. This means that out of a total of 45 periods only 4 periods are allocated to practice teaching.

However, the practice teaching syllabi of both departments reflect similar aspects which are vital in preparing teachers for the classroom.

Practice Teaching is divided into two. Institute Practicum and School Practicum.

3.7.1 Institute Practicum includes the following:

Use of the chalkboard, different types of media, intensive micro-teaching or skills practice as well as demonstration lessons in subject didactics.

(a) Use of Chalkboard

The DET syllabus (1990:4) indicates that chalkboard work is a complete first year course which should be completed in 28 periods of 40 minutes. The syllabus further prescribes that evaluation should take place at the end of the course and that failures should continue to practise chalkboard work and be evaluated at the end of the second year of study.

The techniques of chalkboard work is not only developed during Institute Practicum, but in colleges under the Department of Internal Affairs (House of Representatives) chalkboard work is further developed in the period allotted to Teaching Aids.

As the chalkboard is deemed to be the most basic teaching medium as it always seems to be available, it becomes imperative that teachers should master the skill of using the chalkboard.

The DET syllabus (1990:4) as well as Duminy and Steyn (1989:49-56) recommend that chalkboard work should be approached practically and perceive that the following aspects should receive attention.

- Care, maintenance and the repair of the chalkboard and accessories

- The different types of chalk which is convenient to use
- The effect of different colours of chalk and the visual impact it has
- The handling and correct holding of chalk
- Neat and legible handwriting (print and cursive for different school phases)
- Spacing of words, size of letters and numerals (± 3 cm)
- Writing horizontally on the chalkboard
- Effective arrangement of work on the chalkboard to prevent cramming
- Economical use of chalk and dusters
- The use of feint lines in making illustrations or sketches, e.g. plants, shapes, people, animals
- Chalkboard summaries and diagrams
- The position of the chalkboard n the classroom and the position of the teacher, in relation to the class and the chalkboard.
- Use of the chalkboard by pupils

(b)   Teaching Aids on Media

The Teaching Aids or Media period aims at training students in the making of simple and cheap teaching aids in schools which do not have the necessary facilities.

The syllabi also prescribes teaching students the use of visual media, both projecting and non projecting.

According to Duminy et al (1992:11-14) non-projecting media include: the chalkboard, flannelboard, bulletin board, books. flash cards, wall charts, maps, models, etc. Projecting media are: slide projectors, overhead projectors, and the episcope or opaque projectors. Audio media also plays an important role in lesson presentation, thus the use of the following is deemed necessary: tape recorder, radio, record player, etc.

The use of audio-visual media is also taught, e.g. 16 mm sound projector, video and television etc.

As the syllabi aims at enabling students to master basic general skills and techniques for the making of media, e.g. tracing enlarging, colouring, cutting, the making of transparencies, students are introduced to materials and equipment which can be used in the making of the media (DET Syllabus 1990:3).

(c) Micro-teaching or Teaching Skills Practice

Micro-teaching or Teaching Skills Practice as referred to by the DET syllabus (1990:4) is allocated 28 periods for each year of study. This aspect of Practice Teaching aims at contributing to the improvement of the student's performance in the School Practicum.

According to Duminy et al. (1983:1), Verster and Potgieter (1990:52-53) and Yule, et al. (1991:7) micro-teaching originated in California, at Stanford University in 1963 to help student teachers recognize and use practical teaching skills. As the Greek word "Micro" meaning small implies, micro-teaching concentrates on a specific teaching skill for a period of approximately 5 to 8 minutes.

Micro-teaching aims at developing the students skills to recognise and achieve attentive behaviour from pupils, establishing frames of reference, control of pupil participation, incorporating educational media, illustrations with mental images and examples, questioning and heuristic teaching, giving non-verbal clues and achieving closure (DET Syllabus 1990:5).

Therefore, the following skills are included in micro-teaching programmes at Colleges of Education. Duminy et al. (1992:108) classifies the micro-teaching into four categories:

I.   The introduction skills

- Establishing set
- Recognising and getting attentive behaviour from pupils
- Establishing frames of reference
- Control of pupil participation

II.   The explicatory skills in direct instruction

These skills involve: clear communication, lecturing, eye contact, non-verbal clues, variation of movement, voice modulation, illustrations with mental images and representation, repetition and feedback.

III.   Explicatory skills in heuristic instruction

Questioning and heuristic teaching go hand in hand with giving instructions, teaching pupils to observe and the incorporation of educational media.

IV.   The close phase skills

When the lesson is concluded, reinforcement and achieving closure are important skills to master.

V.   Micro-teaching Procedure

Duminy (1983:9) describes six essential steps which should be taken during micro-teaching.

- Micro-teaching is explained in general terms to students.

- Students are divided into groups of five or six for the observation of the specific skill. Each student should be prepared to teach a micro-lesson with the topic of his/her choice or topics chosen by lecturer. However, the skill must be demonstrated by the supervising lecturer which will ensure that the objective of that particular skill be practised and the objective clearly stated.

- Micro-lessons last between three and ten minutes to a "class" of fellow students.

- The students view the recorded micro-lesson with their lecturer and fellow students analyze and re-evaluate it.

- The students replan and reteach their micro-lesson practising the same skill.

- They revised the micro-lesson, analyze and re-evaluate it.

Verster and Potgieter (1990:57-58) on the other hand structures micro-teaching into three phases. Their programme consists of the following: the briefing stage, teaching and recording stage and the feedback stage.

I. Coding

Coding is done while the micro-lesson is in progress. It implies the evaluation of the different elements of a skill by the student group and the lecturer in charge. Duminy et al. (1992:112) emphasises that the student group should know what the main elements of the skill is and how often it should be used during the micro-session.

II. The Advantages of Micro-teaching

Yule et al. (1991:10) perceives micro-teaching as advantageous as it provides the

student with realistic and clearly defined encounters which takes place in the traditional classroom and reduces the risks to which pupils and student teachers are exposed to. Students are able to apply with caution the behavioural approach of repeated practice and accompanying reinforcements, immediate diagnostic feedback and expert supervision which are based on objective evaluation techniques. It furthermore ensures that there is the opportunity for the student teacher to transfer the "micro" training situation to the "micro" classroom situation where he is able to practise teaching as a total activity and further extend his teacher training.

Duminy (1983:4) refers to the values of micro-teaching as follows:

- to bridge the gap between theory and practice,
- to develop complex skills
- to provide both models for behaviour and imitation or practice,
- since behavioural objectives are clearly defined it helps learning and is important for evaluation
- it provides immediate feedback for the student which is reinforced for him
- video or audio tapes makes self and peer evaluation possible which leads to improvement.

White (1983:58) states that micro-teaching is valuable in that:

- It bridges the gap between theory and practice because micro-teaching teaches both the principles and practice of good teaching.

- Micro-teaching develops complex skills. Through practice students become more skilful and achieve complex skills easily.

- As teaching is a social behaviour and social behaviours are learned in situations of guided invitations, micro-teaching provides both models for behaviour and

also the opportunity to imitate or practice. Behavioural objectives are clearly defined for both supervisor and the student which is imperative for learning and evaluation.

- Micro-teaching also provides feedback for students.

- Feedback is given by the videotape recorder which adds the element of self-confrontation.

Yule et al. (1991:53) further asserts that micro-teaching assists in students gaining the skill performance, they grow in confidence, there is an increase in their perception and evaluation of observed teaching and they learn to teach precisely around the formulated objectives and in so doing is able to conceptualise teaching skills. It enables the student to become sensitised to subtle aspects of classroom interaction and trains him/her to anticipate behaviour with a view to prevent problems and to react appropriately when the problem occurs.

(d)   Demonstration Lessons

Demonstration lessons are prepared by lecturers who teach subject didactics. Lecturers present lessons using a group of pupils from a neighbouring school or student teachers who play the role of pupils.

During lesson presentation, student teachers are given copies of the lesson and receive observation forms on which they have to fill in remarks. Students hereby carefully note every step of the lesson, e.g. the aims and objectives, the presentation, the control phase and the application and evaluation phase.

Being a practising lecturer at a college of education, the researcher finds that lecturers at this specific college which falls under the Department of Education and Culture - now ex-House of

Representatives try to integrate subject didactics with all their lessons, thus trying to teach model lessons in all subjects. Students are thus able to see the principles of learning and teaching integrated in lesson presentation.

(e) The Nature of Demonstration Lesson

Lessons usually take the form based on Gagne's description which is outlined by Duminy (1983:33-34) as follows:

- an introduction
- a presentation, during which new knowledge is given or discovered
- a time for activity
- a feedback or display time

(f) Advantages of Demonstration Lessons

Demonstration lessons are deemed important as it reinforces the skills which were dealt with in micro-teaching. Skills such as: establishing set, during the introduction of a lesson, skill of questioning, etc. These techniques are used to teach the student to elicit pre-knowledge from pupils and to link the pre-knowledge with the new knowledge being presented.

Students are also exposed to different methods of presenting subject knowledge such as the lecture method, the pupil centred method and problem solving method, the question and answer method, experimentation investigation and discovery method and the demonstration method etc.

While observing these lessons, Duminy (1983:35) asserts that students should become aware that skills such as the following should be used during his own practice lessons.

- the skill of explaining and presenting information,
- the skill of gaining and holding attention (the skill of using attention determinants),
- the skill of revising,
- the skill of teaching practical skills,
- the skill of using teaching/learning aids.

3.7.2 School Practicum

School practicum or block practice teaching affords the student the opportunity to observe lessons presented by experienced teachers as prescribed by the Practice Teaching syllabus of the DET (1985; 1990) as well as the Practice Teaching syllabus of the House of Representatives (1992).

(a) Duties of Students during School Practicum

During school practicum students are also afforded the opportunity to practice methods and techniques which he has tested and evaluated. Farrant (1988:7) refers to this period as an experimental period which requires a more prolonged stay in school.

According to Duminy et al. (1992:145-147) the presentation of lessons provide the student the opportunity to coordinate all the didactic principles, methods and techniques which have been studied. Students are required to secure active pupil participation while considering the pupil's level of knowledge, so as to generate interest and motivation in pupils.

(b) Evaluation of Lessons during School Practicum
College Lecturers

The DET syllabi (1985, 1987 and 1990) reflect constant changes in the number of

lessons to be presented. In 1985 students were required to teach sixty lessons plus 10 evaluation lessons. From 1987 to 1989 the number increased to eighty plus ten evaluation lessons and in 1990 the minimum requirement was set at one hundred plus ten evaluation lessons.

The syllabus (1982) of the House of Representatives stipulated 75 lessons per study year, of which 10 had to be evaluated by college lecturers.

Duminy et al (1992:148-152) gives a brief discussion on specific aspects which have to be assessed when students are evaluated. These aspects are the following: the written lesson plan, formulation and attainment of goals or objectives, content selection, introduction of the lesson, presentation of the lesson, use of media and chalkboard work, introduction of the lesson, pupil activity, personality and appearance of the teacher and lesson timing.

(c)   Moderation by Departmental Officials

At Colleges of the DET a selected number of students from each course in the final year appear before a panel of moderators. The panel of moderators is made up of DET officials and the College's Senior Staff (HODS) and Senior Lecturers. The practice teaching journal which according to Duminy et al. (1992:152) should consist of the following, is checked.

- attendance registers for school practicum
- an observation assignment
- a record of demonstration lessons
- a record of micro lessons given and observed
- a record of practice teaching lessons presented
- a record of evaluated lessons by college lecturers
- a record of the three lessons prepared for the panel of moderators.

Students chosen from the top rating, average and low rating, present lessons which is moderated.

At Colleges of the House of Representatives, officials from the department, accompany lecturers on their day to day evaluation of student teachers. This usually occurs over a period of two to three days.

3.8   The Role of School Management in Colleges of Disfranchised Education

The DET curriculum makes provision for School Management as a two year course. In the JPD, it is started in the first year and finishes in the second year. For the SPTD the course starts in the second year and is completed in the final year of study.

Siyoko (1993: 128) shows that as teachers are expected to carry out organizational, planning control and leadership, the DET Syllabus (1990:2-3) prescribes topics such as:

1.   Four main components of management
2.   Planning as management principle
3.   Organization as management principle
4.   Leading as management principle - through self management
5.   Managing people
6.   Control of pupils
7.   Control of staff and pupils (Principals)
8.   Areas to be managed
9.   The structure of an Education Department e.g. DET
10.   Various Education Acts and departmental regulations
11.   Departmental policy and legal aspects of education

The curriculum of the House of Representatives makes no provision for School Management as separate entity but School Administration is included as a discipline of the subject Education only in the third year of study.

The School Administration sub-section of the Education syllabi of the House of Representatives makes provision for professional orientation and class organizational duties. Professional orientation includes: application and appointment procedures and mandates, temporary, permanent, indefinite, on probation appointments, promotion posts and required qualifications, category-division and salary, merit awards, training of the teacher and opportunities for further studies and promotion, Relationships with authorities, official communication channels and procedures and assurance, medical schemes and professional associations.

The class organizational duties are as follows: attendance registers, stock, e.g. stationery, textbooks, library books etc., school funds, levies and other monies, discipline and punishment, Tours and excursions, health regulations, medium of instruction regulations, instruction in Scripture regulations and the importance of circulars, education bulletins and other official notices.

The syllabi also includes the duties of teacher with regard to inspections and the extra-curricular duties of the teacher (House of Representatives Syllabus 1988:34-35).

The structure of the School Management syllabi for the DET and the School Administration syllabi of the House of Representatives reflect important aspects which is essential for the efficient handling of day to day activities in the classroom and school as a whole. Yet, many teachers who were disfranchised emphasize that this vital section of their teacher training was neglected.

3.9   The Role of In-Service Education and Training in the Development and Transformation of Disfranchised Teachers

Apart from providing Pre-service Education and Training (PRESET) for teachers, the different departments of Education deemed In-service Education and Training (INSET) a necessity, considering the inequalities of the past which left many teachers who were disfranchised ill-equipped and unqualified in the classroom.

It thus becomes important to trace efforts made by the departments of education to provide INSET for teachers who were disfranchised.

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:174) conclude that although INSET dates back to the 1970's when the first College of Education for Further Training for the franchised was established in Pretoria and Teacher's centres were started, it has to be noted that INSET for the majority of the disfranchised teachers was seen to be a post-1976 phenomena. The Department of Education and Training (DET) was one of the first education departments to set up a permanent centre for INSET at Mamelodi outside Pretoria, as early as 1969.

Given the historical background of the majority of teachers who were disfranchised, Hartshorne (1992:263) categorises professionally unqualified teachers in one or more the following categories:

(a)   Those in the primary schools with a LPTC, who in generally need a better academic subject background.

(b)   Those in the secondary school with a senior certificate and a professional certificate in primary school work, who is in need of the equivalent of a further year's training to gain a better understanding of the subjects they are teaching and a better understanding of secondary school methodology.

(c)   Those with the two-year JSTC who find themselves teaching
        standards 9 - 10 and require a stronger subject background
        in order to cope with levels of work for which they have not be trained.

These professionally unqualified teachers should further be grouped into two main components of INSET:

i.   Upgrading of qualifications and professional training.
ii.   Professional training to improve classroom competence.

3.9.1   The nature of INSET

INSET is defined in a number of ways. Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:20) quote Hartshorne (1985:9) who suggests an adapted working definition for INSET.

> "The whole range of activities by which serving teaching and other
> categories of educationist (within formal school systems) may
> extend and develop their personal education, professional competence
> and general understanding of the role which they and the schools are
> expected to play in their changing societies. INSET further includes
> the means whereby a teacher's personal needs and aspirations may be
> met, as well as those of the system in which he or she serves."

Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:20) also give other definitions such as one from the James Committee, commissioned by the Department of Education and Science in England (1972) who regard INSET as a whole series of activities by which:

> "Teachers can extend their personal education, develop their
> professional competence and improve their understanding of
> educational principles and techniques."

Brian Cane (1969:x) and Yule (1987:64) regard INSET as:

> "In-service training is taken to include all those courses and
> activities in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose
> of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill.
> Preparation for a degree, diploma or other qualification, subsequent
> to initial training..."

None the less, some form of INSET is provided by the Education departments.

3.9.2   Provision of INSET by the Department of Bantu Education, later DET

Hartshorne (1992:263) further points out that in an attempt to deal with the needs of
INSET, the then Department of Bantu Education in the 1960's placed much
responsibility on the inspectorate to hold refresher courses at circuit level. He too
remarks on the fact that in practice, the response of the inspectorate was varied from
almost complete neglect to that of a few circuits in which the inspectors took their
tasks seriously and provided an effective level of professional support which was
based on the demands made by the official syllabus.

Inspectors reported on courses, but there was no national plan to co-ordinate activities.

(a) INSET Courses provided for Classroom Competency by the Department of Bantu Education later DET

It is however argued that when a national plan backed by support in the form of
materials, visual aids and teachers' guides was used, much success was achieved.
Hartshorne (1992:263) lists the following projects where inspectors were key figures
and success was achieved:

     i.   The introduction of the decimalized money

system in the early 1960's. This included the introduction of the metric system of weights, measures and scientific terminology.

II. In 1960 seven inspectors at the head office of the department, an organizer of domestic science in each region, each with two assistants called supervisors held courses in their particular subjects. Courses covered were woodwork, art and crafts, religious education and agriculture. There were no specialist subjects in the core school subjects such as the languages, mathematics and science. By 1970 there were 12 specialist inspectors at head office, school libraries and audio-visual education were added and by 1980 14 specialist inspectors rendered services. Two physical education specialists were added. For home economics and junior primary work there were 26 subject inspectresses in the region. By 1980 the group of specialists were running courses involving thousands of teachers.

III. In the middle 1960's a planning division in the department attended to the concerns of the standard of subject teaching in the secondary schools. A physical science specialist equipped with a mobile laboratory toured the country giving science courses to groups of secondary teachers. This proved too taxing for the pioneer specialist

and an in-service training centre as mentioned
earlier was opened at Mamelodi near Pretoria.
In 1970, 51 courses involving 1 436 teachers
were held at the centre and a further ten
elsewhere in the regions. Courses lasted a week
and for the most part concentrated on the work of
the senior secondary schools. By 1980 lecturers
in the African languages, Commerce,
Accountancy, History, Geography and Religious
Education, joined the English Afrikaans
Mathematics Biology and Physical Science staff.
In 1980, 90 courses involving 1 414 teachers in
standard 7 to 10 were held.

Although the in-service centre was deemed as an important initiative, Hartshorne
(1992:264) believes that it was of assistance to only those who had direct contact with
it, as teachers who were supposed to conduct follow up courses in the circuits they
represented, did not have the authority, the background knowledge, nor the resources
to disseminate the knowledge and skills they had learnt.

Other projects were the following:

Between 1960 and 1980 journals such as the Bantu Education Journal now changed
to the Educamus was produced to aid teachers. Some of the materials is deemed no
better than the average textbook but on the other hand much of the material has been
of good professional quality, especially the regular series of articles produced by
members of staff of the INSET centre at Mamelodi.

In 1963 a school radio service mainly in the African languages was made available.
As the FM radio system expanded more schools were supplied with battery operated

FM radios. In 1980 1 200 sets were issued by the department. The service was initially intended for primary school pupils, but later attempts were made to reach the teachers and notes and visual aids were issued to support the radio lessons. However, programmes did not always fit in with the teachers scheme of work, broadcast times were not suitable and sets were either broken or stolen.

Hartshorne (1992:268-269) too reports remarks that the in-service training centre at Mamelodi was continued and expanded in the 1980's. In 1981 six additional lecture rooms were added to the facilities and during the 1981 year 77 one week courses involving 1 742 teachers were held.

Facilities at Mamelodi were deemed insufficient, resulting in the DET deciding to build a new in-service college at Soshanguve. This centre was well equipped with lecture rooms and laboratories and offered much improved residential accommodation to teachers who came from all over the country.

During the 1984 year, 170 courses involving 4 200 teachers were run, micro-computers were installed to both allow individual remedial work for the teachers and teachers were introduced to computer literacy.

The number of courses and teachers involved increased rapidly, so that in 1986, 388 courses which involved 11 050 teachers and in 1988, 643 courses involving 14 219 teachers were run.

In 1986 Project Alpha which involved interactive video-computer programmes were used, in an attempt to improve Mathematics in standards 8 to 10. The project started with 480 standard 8 teachers in 1986, a further 840 were included in 1987, with the first 480 who started in 1986 moving to standard nine work.

Although the DET regarded the Soshanguve College as one of the showpieces of its

activities, Hartshorne (1992:268) comments that the College was too isolated from the tensions and conflicts that were ranging at the time and teachers were too far to give them any real support when they needed it.

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He further states that all the effort of the College seemed to have a minimal effect on matriculation results of the 1980's as the main purposes of these courses were improvement. Although it is probable that many teachers did improve their grasp of the subject matter, it is less certain that they were equipped to cope with the everyday situations that developed in the schools in the 1980's.

Parallel to the development of Soshanguve, circuit based in-service programmes of the department were also run. Hartshorne (1992:269) lists a number of these programmes:

I. In 1981 the DET Annual Report indicated that 6 400 primary and 1 000 secondary school principals were involved in school management courses. Later 15 000 primary and 5 000 secondary school teachers were involved.

II. In 1988 a Management Guidance and Performance improvement programme involving 5 500 farm schools, run on a modular basis was run over a period of 4 years. Modules such as Self Management, management of parents and the community, group teaching, utilization of the environment as resource were inclusive of the 1988 programme.

III. Programmes for training of "tutor teachers" who were to be "utilized as trainers for groups of their colleagues at local level" were also introduced.

IV. In 1986, the first of the Circuit Teachers Centres were established. By 1988 there were 13 of these centres, with 4 that were in the process of being established.

The DET Annual Report (1986:134) states that the purpose of these centres was to help teachers keep abreast with the latest developments in regard to subject didactics, receive assistance in preparing lesson material and diverse teaching aids, to get acquainted with the use of sophisticated media, to obtain transparencies, colour slides, sound tracks and video tapes on a loan based system.

3.9.4   Upgrading of Teacher Qualifications in the DET

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:175) state that in an attempt to upgrade teacher qualifications, 51 adult education centres offered instruction which aimed at a matric certification. In 1978, figures quoted from the De Lange report in chapter 2, indicated that 85% African, 66% Coloured and 177% Indian teachers did not possess the matric plus three years of teacher training as minimum basic qualification (De Lange 1981:52). Increasing large sums of money was spent on upgrading qualifications and in 1989 it was reported that the proportion of DET teachers without a standard ten certificate indeed dropped from 74% in 1983 to 34% in 1989 (Kelly 1991:7).

However, it is argued that if DR Viljoen's estimate in 1986, as referred to in chapter 2, that 94,4 per cent of teachers in the department were underqualified or possessed no qualification at all and the DET's report that 8,6 per cent of teachers in the DET and 10,7 per cent in the non-independent homeland possessed matric plus three years of training, then progress had been extremely limited (Gaydon 1987:12-13). This limited progress could however be attributed due to the fact that the benefits of the insistence of matric plus three years would only be felt much later, as the first batch of students to graduate after entering college in terms of the matric plus three years stipulation did so only in 1986 (Gaydon 1987:12-13).

It is further believed that the matric plus three years stipulation, would not ensure parity in qualifications by the year 2000 or within the next twenty five years. This argument

is based on the assumption that if there were 158 000 DET teachers at the end of 1986 and that 90 per cent of these teachers did not possess matric plus three years, then approximately 140 000 DET teachers did not possess matric plus three years. The magnitude of the problem lies in the fact that if 10 500 teachers were trained until 1994 and 11 780 a year thereafter, and that all new teachers graduating from the end of 1986 would have matric plus three years of training, these graduates would still only make up little over half the number of qualified teachers required by the year 2000. The implication is that change is not enough to ensure parity in qualifications by the turn of the century or for a significant period beyond that, unless the rate of training new graduates increases substantially or the qualifications of existing underqualified teachers are upgraded at a faster rate (Gaydon 1987:13).

None the less, Van Wyk (1987:7) concedes that considerable and increasing resources have been laid out for INSET by the DET.

Steps to upgrade qualifications of teachers who were disfranchised were formerly undertaken as from 1975 at some of the adult education centres. Teachers were able to attain the standard 8 and standard 10 certificates (Hartshorne 1992:266).

In the late 1970's various formal courses were instituted for teachers in service. These courses were:

     I. A one year primary teachers certificate for unqualified teachers with standard 8 and three year's satisfactory teaching experience.

    II. A two year part time course for teachers with a PTC and senior certificate to equip them to teach in the secondary school.

III. A part-time course leading to a diploma in special
education for teachers of the deaf and blind,
handicapped etc., who had general education
qualifications. This course dated back to 1972
(Hartshorne 1992:266).

In order to further the education and training of teachers and achieve formal
certificated qualifications, Vista university was engaged by the DET. Since 1982 the
university played a major role in the upgrading of teachers for the secondary school.

The university offered two basic courses to serving teachers. These courses are as
follows:

I.   The Secondary Teachers' Certificate, the minimum entry qualification is a senior
certificate and a Primary Teachers Certificate, followed by two years of part-time
study through distance teaching, which provides a M+2 qualification for salary
purposes.

II.   The Secondary Teachers' Diploma, the minimum entry for which is the STC or the
older JSTC, followed by two years of part-time distance study leading to the
upgrading of a M+2 to a M+3 qualification for salary purposes. This requirement
for all new teachers placed the majority of the disfranchised teaching core on
parity with their colleagues of the franchised department in terms of salary. In
1987 Vista University awarded 1997 secondary teacher's certificates and 500
diplomas to serving teachers (Hartshorne 1992:271). In addition, the Higher
Education Diploma HED, the University Education Diploma non graduate (UED)
and a four year Education degree is offered at the Vista residential campuses.

Vista University and the University of South Africa (UNISA) also offer distance tuition,
which is attractive to full-time teachers, especially these in rural areas. In addition,

distance learning and techniques overcome the problems of time, transport distance and finance (Gounden and Mkize 1991:21).

In 1988 the DET established departments of further education at four existing colleges of education. These colleges were Algoa, Daveyton, Sebokeng and Soweto. Teachers with the senior certificate and the PTC, LPTC or the HPTC were admitted to the second year of the three year Primary Teachers Diploma course (Hartshorne 1992:271).

From the above it can be clearly seen that attempts were made by the DET to provide INSET for the majority of the disfranchised. Although it is argued that the DET cannot claim all credit for the improvement of the disfranchised teacher's development, its contribution must be recognized as Hartshorne points out that between 1980 and 1990 the percentage of qualified teachers with a basic platform of a senior certificate or higher has risen from 20,6 per cent to 73,8 per cent.

Louw (1988:59) however asserts that research in 1986 indicated that although the situation in providing for the upgrading of qualifications increased slightly. This was only so in urban areas, the situation was even worse in rural areas where teachers with a standard 8 formed 87,2% of the entire teaching core. Of the 53,461 primary and secondary school teachers registered by the Department of Education and Training in 1986, it was found that:

> 9,921 (18,56%) possessed only a std 6 certificate
> 33,628 (62,90%) possessed only a std 8 certificate
> 8,601 (16,09%) possessed a standard 10 certificate
> 1,311 (2,45%) possessed a university degree

It is further remarked that the majority of the 81,56% of teachers with a standard 8 and lower qualification were in the age group of 35 - 60 years. A fair assumption would be that these teachers would be gradually phased out, as it was the policy of the DET

and other departments of education such as the Transkei, Venda, Ciskei and Bophuthatswana, to limit access to teacher training with a standard 10 certificate. However, demographic projections suggest that the black population would increase from 20,7 million in 1980 to 36,4 million in 2000 and to 65,5 million in 2020, and with the disappointing percentage of matriculation graduates, it can be predicted that the Black education would continue to employ unqualified and underqualified teachers in the future, irrespective of the sophisticated class management strategies and educational technology used (Louw 1988:59).

None the less, the demand to upgrade qualifications was so great that on the 1 September 1989 the Lovedale teacher institution was reopened after being closed in the late seventies. The college catered for Tswana, Northern Sotho, Venda, Tsonga and Sotho speaking students (Daniels 1989:18).

Amongst others, the following colleges were also operative in upgrading qualifications at second year level: Soweto College (Johannesburg), Transvaal College (Pretoria), Tivumbeni College (Gazankulu), Tshiya College (Qua Qua) and Setotolwane College (Lebowa) (Annual Report 1979:135).

3.9.3   INSET in other disfranchised Departments of Education

Although INSET in other disfranchised departments provided in some cases only for the upgrading of qualifications, it cannot be argued that the efforts made by these departments must be recognized.

a)   Department of Internal Affairs (House of Representatives)

According to Education for Life (1981:63) part-time courses for teachers serving in the House of Representatives has been introduced as early as 1965. Like the DET, a new system of teacher training was devised and introduced in 1982. In this system all

teacher training is at post - Senior Certificate level and had a duration of not less than three years. The following courses were offered at colleges of education.

i.   Diploma in Education (Junior Primary): a three year course for training teachers for the junior primary classes.

ii.   Diploma in Education (Senior Primary): a three year course for training teachers in the senior primary classes.

iii.   Diploma in Education (Practical Subjects): a three year course for training teachers specialising in Handwork, Art, Music, Physical Education, Human Ecology and Needlework. These teachers are qualified to teach the practical subjects in which they have specialised at primary and at secondary school level as well as certain academic subjects in the primary school and lower classes of the secondary school.

iv.   Higher Diploma in Education (Secondary) a four year course in academic subjects for teachers who wish to teach in the junior secondary classes.

v.   Higher Diploma in Education (Junior Primary, Senior Primary & Practical subjects): a one year course following the three year course of the Diploma in Education (Junior Primary & Senior Primary Practical Subjects).

Since then, if teachers are in possession of the entrance stipulation, i.e. a teacher's certificate and a standard 10 certificate, they are allowed to enrol at a college for the second or third year. At the end of course or when they have gained the necessary credits, they are issued with the Diploma in Education (DE). The DE is equivalent to three years of professional training after standard 10 and since 1983 no diploma requiring less than three years study after standard 10 has been issued (EDUCATION FOR LIFE 1981:63).

The House of Representatives went further in 1983 and devised another strategy to upgrade qualifications by means of establishing a College for Further Training, Roggebaai College of Education in the Cape. This college in effect offers correspondence courses for teachers in need of part-time training, but who do not live within easy reach of a college. Lecture notes are supplied and completed assignments are returned to the college. Teachers have to attend short courses during school holidays and follow the same curriculum as the teachers attending the part-time courses at other colleges. These teachers too have to accumulate credits for subjects passed, until they qualify for at least a three year diploma in education (EDUCATION FOR LIFE 1981:64).

In June 1992 the Department of Education and Culture, House of Representatives further gave the approval in an Education Circular No: 34/92 for underqualified in service teachers in possession of the LPTC, JPTC, LPTC special or a recognized equivalent teachers certificate to be admitted to the DE II course on a full time or part-time basis. These teachers could be admitted to a college of education with effect from 1 January 1993 if they had at least eight years of continued teaching experience.

b) Department of Indian Affairs (House of Delegates)

In 1976 and 1977 respectively, the then Department of Indian. Affairs, Division of Education, established teacher's centres for in-service training at Springfield College of Education and Fordsburg College of Education (Bagwandeen and Louw 1993:89).

c) Provision of INSET by Homeland Governments

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:177) reveal that research into the then Homeland INSET, revealed a strong faith in INSET as the key strategy for improving the quality of teaching and then ultimately the quality of education. They cite Hofmeyer's (1991) research which showed that many homeland departments did not have any INSET

policy, or if they did, it was a plan for only upgrading qualifications. It was also found that homelands such as the Transkei, Kwa-Zulu, Kangwane and Bophuthatswana developed INSET policies very recently and that a report from Hartshorne (1988a:14) notes that there is a "lack of cohesion, consistency and purpose in education policy and its implementation".

It is further viewed that INSET in the homelands focused mainly on secondary school teachers, but an exception to the trend was the Primary Education Upgrading Programme (PEUP) in Bophuthatswana (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:178).

The PEUP was started in 1980 and involved limiting the class size to fifty, enforcing the minimum entry age of children to five-and-a-half, improving the material resources in service teacher training and the introduction of almost automatic promotion up to and including standard 3 (Short 1991:253).

3.10   Delivery Procedure of INSET by Education Departments presently

Above all, Hofmeyer and Hall (1995:3) report the following findings by die National Teacher Education Audit on INSET by Government departments presently:

i.   Provision of INSET is still very fragmented because it is still controlled by the racially and ethnically segregated ex departments, due to the fact that provincial restructuring is not complete.

ii.   Short courses or workshops dominate the INSET programmes offered and they are presented on the whole spectrum of curriculum based subjects to teachers in primary and secondary schools. The most popular courses being mathematics or languages and only a small proportion of these courses fall outside the sphere of school subjects. Most of these are computer literacy but none of the centres give accreditation or incentives to teachers for attending these courses.

iii. Because most of the centres are under the control of the ex-education departments, they have little say in financial matters, governance and curriculum development. A major shortcoming is the limited representation of stake holders in the governing structures of these centres.

iv. Financing and staffing face many discrepancies in different departments and better facilities and more specialised equipment is needed at most centres.

Another disturbing factor they mention is that the poor quality of PRESET condemns INSET to being forever remedial rather than renewing and developmental.

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:177) point out concerns identified by Hofmeyer's (1991) research on INSET.

*   The greatest concern is that the DET provided INSET in the form of a centralised course-based projects. This process removes teachers from overcrowded classroom, 'either physically or mentally' because their own studies dominate their minds.

*   The DET has to a large extent emphasized the upgrading of qualifications. This however, does not necessarily imply that because qualifications are improved, classroom proficiency will improve, due to the fact that teachers who are under pressure take, 'easy options', subjects such as criminology, mercantile law and biblical studies which are not school subjects.

It is too viewed that certain groups of educators have hardly ever been reached such as teacher-educators, pre-school teachers and also technical teachers. The DET's concern on quantitative achievement, that is the upgrading of qualifications, has ignored the qualitative issues which are central to effect INSET. These are issues such as efficiency, classroom competence, change and empowerment (Hofmeyer and

Jaff 1992:177).

a) In-service Lecturers and Facilitators

Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:65) echo the sentiment that generally, there is a serious shortcoming in the professional qualities, aptitudes, skills and technicals which in-service lecturers and facilitators ought to possess due to limited knowledge and training. They believe that in order to learn and teach new strategies, lecturers and facilitators, should study theories, see demonstrations, have opportunities for practice with careful feedback and receive coaching. It is warned that if professional retraining, incorporating elements such as demonstrations, practice opportunities etc, is not undertaken, INSET lecturers and facilitators will be labelled "remote" and "theoreticians" with little practical knowledge of contemporary school situations.

b) Lack of Co-ordination and Planning for INSET

Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:63) and Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:181) comment on the lack of planning, co-ordination and tendency to rely on ad hoc arrangements for INSET.

Moreover there are few coherent policies for INSET in South Africa and policy-making for INSET is views as a top down process with limited consultation of interest groups which compounds the problem.

It is believed that with planning and co-ordination, conflicting messages relevant to INSET will be minimized. Prior planning of courses should be a prerequisite for INSET and if administrators "engage in routine professional growth and work collaboratively in planning and co-ordinating INSET programmes towards teacher improvement" many existing problems will be overcome (Bagwandeen and Louw 1993:63).

Furthermore, administrators and organizers fail to select appropriate activities for implementing programme plans. Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:63) claim that activities become stereotyped. The activities take the course of meetings, lectures, films followed by buzz sessions with no real structure involved. The requirements of the programme in terms of time, staff and other resources tend to be ignored.

It is however suggested, that in the co-ordination and planning of INSET activities, each activity should be distinct in serving a specific purpose. It should be chosen for use in terms of its uniqueness and moreover, it should not be rigid or over simplified. Activities should furthermore be structured for a diversity of activities, allowing for good time scheduling, flexibility and revision. With the provision of INSET, the teachers needs should be taken into account, if they are allowed to select what they require this will lead to greater effectiveness in INSET programmes (Bagwandeen and Louw 1993:63-64).

3.11   The Role played by Non Governmental Organizations

According to Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:179), INSET projects of the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) has attracted considerable local and foreign funding because they are believed to be the prime means of improving the quality of education for those who wer disfranchised. This however could not take place until the early 1970's when state regulations pertaining to black education in urban areas were relaxed (Swainson 1991:99).

Since 1976 particularly there has been a massive increase in private sector organization investment. Large firms such as the Anglo American Corporation (AAC) which by the 1970's had come to dominate the South African economy, spearheaded educational initiatives (Swainson 1991:95).

It is further pointed out that the Anglo American Corporation Chairman's Fund (AACCF)

and the Urban Foundation (UF) who are formerly independent of each other, but closely related spent millions of rands on educational projects. The motivation behind these corporate contributions to education has been to promote political and social stability and to provide both for the general and specific human resource needs for economic growth (Swainson 1991:96-97).

a) Projects initiated by Non-Government Organizations (NGO's)

Moreover, the UF and AACCF has played significant roles in the initiation of INSET projects for teachers who were disfranchised. Swainson (1991:104) cites a number of projects.

i. The UF and ACCF have funded the Science Education Project (SEP) which was begun in 1976. This major national scheme was designed to improve the quality of Science education in schools. By 1986 the project was operating in over 1 100 schools in co-operation with six educational authorities including the Transkei, Ciskei and KwaZulu. The SEP was deemed to be successful and was enthusiastically adopted by educational authorities. Its close connection, however, with state education authorities, sometimes caused problems.

ii. The Shell Centre in Durban was established in the early 1980's with the intention of becoming a 'centre of excellence in third world science and maths education'. The main thrust was to remedy what Shell saw as serious skills deficiencies which stemmed from poor science and maths education in schools of those who were disfranchised. The centre made 'long term' commitments to service training for science and maths teachers, tuition for pupils at secondary level in science and maths subjects, the development of managerial skills amongst teachers and also providing the local community with information and guidance.

iii. The UF founded a showpiece non-formal education project, the Funda Centre in

Soweto which was opened in 1984. The centre's main objective was 'the improvement of teachers and trainers and the linking of formal, non-formal and informal education' (Urban Foundation Annual Report 1984:20). Although the centre was classified as a 'non-formal' education centre it ran a wide range of activities including the Teachers' In Service Training Centre, the Adult Education Training Resource Centre, a teachers' centre and a arts centre. In 1986 it was reported that approximately 12 000 people attended the centre every month.

The UF and a group of American firms called The Sullivan Companies because they subscribe to the Sullivan Code of Conduct, initiated the Teachers Opportunity Programme (TOPS) in 1983. Tops took a long term approach to developing teacher competence. Teacher associations officially recognised by the state at the time, that is the Cape Teachers Professional Association (CTPA) and the Transvaal United African Teacher Association (TUATA) played a leading role in the TOPS scheme. By 1984 the programme had been attended by 1 000 teachers in 13 centres, but the exclusion of the more radical teacher unions became a bone of contention. Tops placed a strong emphases on school management courses, and the promotion of the professional and personal development of the teacher.

b) Numbers of present NGO's based and operating in each province

According to Hofmeyer and Hall (1995:44) 99 NGO's are presently involved in teacher development throughout South Africa. Column 1 of the table below illustrates the provincial variation of NGO INSET provision. Gauteng, the Western Cape and Kwazulu-Natal seem to be well covered and the remaining six provinces poorly serviced. However, many of the NGO's in the first three provinces also operate in other provinces. The second column illustrates the number of NGO's which are based outside the province, but operate in the province. In the third column, the total number of NGO's working in each province is provided and shows that NGO INSET provision is a little more evenly distributed than the first column suggests.

Number of NGO's based and operating in each province

Table 3.1   Hofmeyer and Hall (1995:45)

PROVINCE	BASED	OPERATING	TOTAL
Gauteng	41	8	49
Western Cape	19	13	32
KwaZulu Natal	18	18	36
Northern Province	5	17	22
Mpumalanga	2	21	23
North West	4	13	17
Eastern Cape	6	21	27
Northern Cape	1	14	15
Free State	3	20	23

c)   Numbers of present teachers participating in NGO programmes

The numbers of teachers presently participating in NGO programmes show that they vary considerably.   Some programmes reach up to 11 000 teachers per annum whereas there are those that reach less than 10 per annum.   Table 3.2 reflects the number of teachers which NGO's reportedly reach per province (Hofmeyer and Hall 1995:45).

The Number of teachers reached by NGO's per province

Table 3.2 Hofmeyer and Hall (1995:45)

Province	1993	1994
Northern Province	5 396	8 312
Mpumalanga	2 932	5 140
Gauteng	15 661	5 140
Western Cape	10 851	20 486
Eastern Cape	9 386	17 736
KwaZulu-Natal	19 210	17 806
Free State	3 266	20 587
Northern Cape	330	7 201
North West	16 077	2 721
		15 893
TOTAL	83 109	115 882

According to Hofmeyer and Hall (1995:45) the total number of teachers reached by NGO's should be treated with some caution due to the following reasons:

i.   Many organizations guessed the numbers of teachers reached, although lists

provided reflect that the estimates were fairly accurate.

ii. Many larger organizations could not distinguish between the number who attended courses and the numbers of teachers reached. It is pointed out that in some cases the numbers were substantial because one teacher could have attended many courses.

iii. There are considerable differences in the nature and content of the programmes offered. Teachers who have attended one two-hour workshop in a year cannot be compared with those who have participated in a rigorous course followed by classroom support.

d) Advantages of Independent Projects

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:179) report that research by Bot (1986) established that while most INSET programmes by the department were involved in upgrading teacher qualifications, most independent programmes that is programmes run by NGO's led to no formal qualifications. However, in general, NGO programmes were curriculum related programmes and 60 per cent of them provided follow-up for teachers in the classroom.

Research also reveal that well established projects such as the English Language Education Trust (ELET), the Science Education Project (SEP) and Teacher Opportunity Programmes (TOPS) have policies which consist of two levels:

i. A rhetorical level which focuses on the wider process of social transformation and change in the education system.

ii. An operational level directed at the teacher and change processes in the classroom.

Hence, policy making processes involve consultation and shared decision making amongst the staff and its clients, as the projects are under strong grassroots pressure to democratise all processes (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:179).

Furthermore, Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:179) attest that project documents and conference papers by (Dobie, Gardner and Prosser 1989) indicate that ELET, SEP, TOPS, the English Language Teaching Information Centre (ELTIC), the Molteno Project, the Teachers' English Language Improvement Project and the Read Educate and Develop Organization (READ) pursue strategies which involve teachers in the design and management of programmes and materials production, provide support and advice to leaders in the classroom and school and also involve principals and school staff in organisational development.

It becomes clear from the information above, that INSET projects which are supported by the private sector are school focused, innovative and curriculum-based programmes with a democratic, co-operative management style. According to Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:180) the impact which independent INSET projects had on teachers that were disfranchised is qualitative and quantative. They introduce a more participative democratic and school focused approach to INSET and even impact on the education systems in the areas in which they have worked.

e) Shortcomings of Independent INSET Projects

Despite the qualitative approach of NGO's it is suggested that INSET providers need to consider the effects of introducing new methodologies, in single short interventions and how these methodologies are translated in the classroom. This concern stems from the fact that classroom-based research suggests that the way in which many teachers interpret group work, sets up situations which conspire against improving the quality of children's learning experiences.

Hartshorne (1985:30) also draws attention to the fact that although projects are working together more closely, more than ever now, there is a lack of co-ordination between projects and all other INSET agencies. He points out that this results in the duplication of effort and a dissipation of resources which are scarce.

f)   Present Provision of INSET by NGO's

Despite these shortcomings, the National Teacher Education Audit comment that the 99 NGO's presently operative in South offer a total of 191 programmes of which the vast majority offer short courses on workshops. Six of these programmes are offered at colleges of education, 19 are accredited by higher institutions towards diplomas or degrees which are recognised by the state for salary notches and 15 of these programmes are certified by tertiary or professional institutions but are not recognised for salary purposes (Hofmeyer and Hall 1995:43).

NGO's are furthermore found to be flexible and innovative to work closely with their client communities and are well placed to ascertain needs in the areas in which they work. Hofmeyer and Jaff's (1991:80) findings that programmes are participative and innovative is confirmed (Hofmeyer and Hall 1995:43).

In the next section the research looks at the teacher education programme offered to the franchised to determine how it differed from the programmes offered to the disfranchised.

3.12   Provision of Teacher Education for the franchised

Following the enactment of the National Education Policy Act (No 39 of 1967) and the Educational Act (No 4 of 1967), a commission of inquiry into the training of White

teachers was appointed in 1968. This Commission under the chairmanship of Dr JS Gericke, concluded that changes in the existing system were necessary, but these changes had to be evolved gradually "under a new dispensation" (Behr 1978:90).

One of the main recommendations of the Commission was that existing teacher training colleges retain their identity and provincial control, but that the training of secondary school teachers be undertaken by universities, with certain exceptions. These exceptions were for those subjects which the universities did not or could not provide adequately, such as commercial subjects, technical and trade subjects. It was however stated that such training had to be done in "close co-operation with a university" (Behr 1978:90).

Behr (1978:92) continues and points out that after much deliberation and the publication of the Gericke report, the National Policy Amendment Act (No 73 of 1969) was placed on the Statute book. The Act decreed that "the training of White persons as teachers for secondary schools may be provided at university only", and that "the training of White persons as teachers for primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a college or a university," subject to the condition that the college and university work in close co-operation. Act No 73 of 1969 laid down that courses offered to teachers at secondary schools should extend over a period of not less than four years. The minimum period for training primary and pre-primary teachers would be three years.

In 1974 amended legislation (Act No 92 of 1974) was promulgated. While reiterating that secondary school teachers should be trained at a university only, it nevertheless enabled the Minister of National Education, after consultation with the council of a university or an Administrator or the council of a college for advanced technical education, to permit colleges of education and of advanced technical education to train secondary school teachers in certain subject areas and for certain courses. The training of teachers for primary and pre-primary could continue at a college or a university "in close co-operation with each other." Thus from 1976, colleges offered

three year as well as four year diploma courses for teachers of pre-primary, primary and secondary schools (Behr 1978:93).

Behr (1988:174-175) highlights further developments which took place in white teacher education in 1979, following the publication of the Van Wyk de Vries Report, which suggested that teacher education should take place under the guidance of a university, in what was termed the college idea. This would involve the following:

> a) The university would provide teacher training in its own right for degree courses.

> b) The college within the framework of the university, would train teachers for a diploma course, the diploma being awarded by the university.

> c) The training courses under a) and b) would not be completely seperate but would be interwoven. It would imply that:

> i) certain practical subjects and tecniques would be offered only at college but would also have to be taken by university graduates

> ii) certain subjects would be offered only at the university but would have to be taken by diploma students at the college as well.

Educational administrators were intent on bringing about this close-operation between colleges and universities and succeeded in finding a solution by creating a college council and a college senate for each college of education. Through this arrangements an infrastructure was created which achieved the following:

a) A guarantee of academic standards for a college by close co-operation with the university

b) Strong representation of the university in the council and senate of the college, enhancing the status of the college both internally and externally

c) The autonomy of the university remained untoouched, but its role was extended.

According to Behr (1988:176) more developments took place in 1980. While education was assigned to the Minister of Education and Culture of the House of Assembly Administration, and the National Policy Amendment Act (House of Assembly), 1986 Act (103 of 1986) was promulgated. While reaffirming the practice that evolved, the Act also lay down procedures in respect of teacher training for Whites:

a) Training of secondary school teachers may be provided for certaih subjects and under conditions such as training may be provided by a college of education or technikon.

b) For the purposes of the award of a degree or diploma, the university may, subject to an agreement between it and colleges of education and technikons, recognize examinations passed by students at these institutions.

c) Training of primary and pre-primary shall be provided by a university or a college of education, subject to such training (in terms of an arrangement approved by the Minister and from a date determined by him) being undertaken in close co-operation between the institutions concerned.

d) Control over the recruitment and selection of persons for admmission as contract students shall be rested in the head of the provincial education department.

3.12.1   Courses offered to franchised teachers

The whole pattern of teacher education was outlined by the Committee of Educational Heads in an official publication entitled "Criteria for the evaluation of South African qualifications for purposes of employment in education".   A revised edition was published in 1972 and was followed by an edition containing amendments in 1975. According to Behr (1978:98) the document outlined the structure of courses, the curricula and syllabi as well as the requirements in respect of subjects that would be taken. Two patterns of teacher education were set out:

- i) the concurrent
- ii) the consecutive

The concurrent pattern aimed to integrate personal higher education, the theory of education, and professional training throughout a three- or four year programme leading to either a diploma in education, or to an interated bachelor's degree designated as follows: BA(Ed), BA(Ed)(Mus), BA Ed)(Art), BA(Ed)(PhysEd), BSc(Ed), BSc(Ed)(H.Econ), BCom(Ed), BAgric(Ed). Some universities such as the University of Stellenbosch also offered the Bachelor in Primary Education degree.

Behr (1978:98) further explains that the integrated degree is more complex than the traditional course of a bachelor's degree followed by a one-year diploma in teaching. The reason being that the BA(Ed), BSc(Ed), etc. leads to either an honours degree in the major teaching subject taken by the candidate or to a post-graduate degree in education.

The consecutive pattern on the other hand consists of an academic course leading to

a degree followed by a second phase which concentrates on professional training. This pattern has been the customary pattern for secondary school teachers for a considerable number of years (Behr 1978:99-100).

3.12.2   Curriculum requirements for a four-year integrated bachelor's degree and the three year diploma course

According to Behr (1978:99-100) the requirements for a degree or diploma in teaching was set out as follows:

a) The four-year integrated degree

      i) an academic part which involved the study of the regular degree subjects, of which some had to be approved teaching subjects.

     ii) the professional part which was made up of courses in:

     a) Religious Instruction or Biblical Studies.

     b) Education, (Pedagogics) of at least second year university level.

     c) Audio visual education.

     d) Teaching method in two school subjects taken at not lower than second-year university level.

     e) Ten weeks of practical teaching. In addition, the candidate must have an endorsement on the degree certificate indicating the extent and ability to use the official languages as media of instruction.

b) The minimum requirements for a three-year diploma course are as follows:

    i) Religious instruction or Biblical studies

    ii) Afrikaans and English with the proviso that in one
of the official languages the standard of the academic
content must be at least comparable with the standard of
a first year degree course. The academic content of the
second official language must at least be comparable
with the standard of a university course which is recognized
as a one-year qualifying course for degree purposes (e.g.
any introductory language course).

    iii) History, Geography, Natural Science and Mathematics with
the proviso that the standard of the academic content of the
course in one of these subjects (or in Biblical Studies) must
be comparable with the standard of a first year degree course.

    iv) Health Education, Writing and Chalkboard technique.

    v) Intensive training with a standard equivalent to that of a first--year
degree course in one of the following subjects: Physical Education,
School Music, Art, Handicraft, Speech and Drama,
School Librarianship, Instrumental Music.

    vi) One further subject selected from above.

    vii) Education (Pedagogics) which must be comparable with a
first year degree course.

    viii) Twelve weeks of practical teaching. In addition, the candidate

must have an endorsement on the diploma indicating the
extent and ability to use the official languages as media of
instruction.

From the above information, it is quite clear that much development has taken place
in teacher education for the franchised. A system of uniform control was devised with
the minimum requirements set out for degree and diploma courses, by the Committee
of Educational Heads as well as the achivement of co-operation, consultation and co-
ordination between teacher education authorities.

If a comparison is made to the teacher education programmes of the disfranchised, it
is gleamed that although the senior certificate became entry requirement for all
prospective teachers in 1982, the teacher education programmes for the disfranchised
falls far short of the required academic standards set out for the franchised. It is
interesting to note however that as in the case of the disfranchised, practical teaching
is also only allotted 10 weeks in the integrated degree and 12 weeks in the diploma
course.

According to Behr (1988:162), the Transvaal Education Department Report (1967:9)
claims that much attention was paid to practice teaching in the Transvaal. As early as
1968 a system was put into place, which was designed to give students greater
opportunity to observe the principles of didactics and child psychology as taught in the
colleges ·put into practice, and to enable students to apply these by "active
participation." The traditional criticism lesson was replaced by a system in which the
visits of lecturers to schools were reduced so that schools could undertake more
responsibility for the practical training of teachers. Behr (1988:162) continues and
states that the Transvaal Education Department stayed in the fore-front as it's pattern
of in-service training of teachers served as a blue print for other provinces and also
laid the foundation of Colleges of Education for Further Training.

3.12.3   Provision of In-service Education and Training for franchised teachers

Behr (1988:162) claims that in-service education and training was placed on a regular and systematic basis as early as 1964 in the Transvaal.

Five courses were offered, namely, refresher, orientation, regional week-end and special. Refresher courses were held during school holidays and teachers attended on a voluntary basis, orientation courses however were obligatory. A regional course was intended as a follow-up of an orientation course, where all the teachers of a particular district were brought together for discussion, consultation and interchange of ideas with those who attended the orientation course. Weekend and special courses were one-day courses and restricted to a single topic of general educaational interest. Correspondence courses were offered from 1968 too primarily train teachers in subjects in which there was a shortage of teachers at the time, namely, the official languages, biology, mathematics and physical science. It is interesting to note that in 1969 it was decreed according to Ordinance 7 of 1969, section 22, that a teacher may be required "to attend such a course for teachers as the Director may determine".

Behr (1988:163) mentions other developments such as the erection of language laboratories, closed circuit television studios, audio-visual centres and child study clinics at colleges. These are scarce commodities in colleges of those who were disfranchised.

As the Transvaal Education Department's pattern of in-service education and training served as a blue-print for the other provinces, the professional development of white teachers was most likely assured.

3.13 Steps taken towards the Development and Transformation of Teacher Education in the Context of a Democratic National Policy

Although the information discussed indeed reflect that positive steps has been taken to remove glaring inequities and inequalities in departments that were disfranchised, it is argued that many problems within teacher education has not been addressed at

all, e.g. no national strategic plan existed for the production of teachers and each education department engaged primarily in training teachers for its own schools and thus determined its own student enrolments and outputs of qualified teachers (Hartshorne 1992:260).

Other problems in the ex-departments are matters regarding curriculums, qualifications and resources and as teacher education curriculums are dominated by subject content, mostly at matric level, and almost no training in research critical enquiry and curriculum development skills are provided for students, the ANC proposed in a Policy Framework for Education and Training that the present unified education department should ensure that curriculums be inclusive of issues such as "critical enquiry, critique and encourages colleges to forge developmental links with schools and communities (ANC 1994:52).

a) Committee on Teacher Education Policy (COTEP)

The Minister of Education, Professor SME Bengu declared the Norms and Standards for Teacher Education, as set out by Committee on Teacher Education Policy (COTEP), national policy on the 8 September 1995. According to COTEP (1996:1) this was an historic occasion in the history of education in South Africa as it was the first time that a national policy for teacher education had been declared.

The significance of the Norms and Standards for Teacher Education lies in the fact that it is not merely a revision of the Criteria for the Evaluation of South Africa Qualifications for Employment in Education which was drawn up by the Committee of Heads more than two decades ago, it is a radical paradigm shift. The Criteria presents a product, in-put model, whereas the Norms and Standards document presents a process, out-put approach to teach education (COTEP 1996:1).

Teacher education institutions are now able to develop its own teacher education curriculums, according to the proposed Norms and Standards described in the policy

document. The policy document asserts that teacher education institutions will now enjoy a large measure of academic and professional autonomy. It is however advised that due to the fact that many colleges of education have worked within departments which did to allow for the development of their own curricula, as departmental curricula had been imposed upon them in the past, the need arises for colleges to be assisted in the development of their own curricula. In order to do this however, COTEP is in the process of starting a national strategy to cultivate peer group support for those who need assistance in curriculum development (COTEP 1996:1).

The Committee on Teacher Education (COTEP) state that the policy document is designed to set minimum standards for the education of teachers while it also aims at "creating mechanisms which will ensure the continued pursuit of excellence". In order to realise these goals the document sets out the following:

- "formulates aims for teacher education
- specifies the outcomes of teacher education and
- drafts minimum structural criteria for teacher education
  courses based on these aims and outcomes" (COTEP 1996:5).

A brief outline of the aims and competences of teacher education as proposed by COTEP in the policy document is given below (1996:6-32).

3.13.1 Aims of Teacher Education according to COTEP

i. The fundamental aim of teacher education is to educate and train teachers so that they are able to teach effectively in order to facilitate learning, recognizing the full capacity of the South African context.

ii. Teacher education should result in the student being able to demonstrate the ability to apply, extend and synthesize various forms of knowledge meaningfully.

iii.　Teacher education should enable the prospective teacher to develop various skills such as: the interpretation and development of the curricula, the ability to use language for effective learning and thinking in order to develop proficiency in interpersonal relationships, the facilitation of learner-centred classroom practice and collaborative teaching, effective innovative classroom organization and management etc.

iv.　Teacher education should enable students to develop those values, dispositions and attitudes which advance amongst others: the development of individuals towards a cultivated intellect, respect for the individual, sensitivity towards gender issues, community involvement, promoting adaptability and tolerance in a multi-cultural society, human resource development including development in technology and entrepreneurship.

v.　Teacher education should prepare teachers to be active and reflective members of the teaching profession.

In short, the proposed teacher education policy aims at empowering teachers to become automous, flexible, creative and responsible agents of change in response to the challenges of education of the day and in relation to the envisaged aims of education in South Africa (COTEP 1996:13).

3.13.2　<u>Competence</u>

The competences based on knowledge and skills are divided into two broad categories:

1.　general competences
　　and
2.　specific competences

a) The general competences are further subdivided into:

1. Competences related to knowledge

2. Competences related to skills:
    i.   communication
    ii.   methodology
    iii. classroom management
    iv.   assessment

3. values/attitudes/dispositions:
    i.   values related to the school
    ii.   attitudes related to professionalism

b) The specific competences pertains to:

i.   Preprimary Education
ii.   Junior and Senior Primary Education
iii. Junior and Senior Secondary Education.

i. Pre-primary Education

Teacher education for the pre-primary phase should ensure that the teacher will be able to

- teach children in a selected range of competences
- structure informal learning situations through play and self-discovery methods
- command a knowledge of the areas of experience set ut below, although not necessarily as separate subjects.

* language

* pre-mathematics and pre-writing

* environmental studies / general science, social and
  human studies

* creative arts

* life orientation (religious education, guidance, economic
  education, physical education and health care)

* technology

* teaching for thinking

- integration of traditional subjects around themes or topics to demonstrate the
  interrelated, holistic nature of knowledge

- identify children with cognitive or emotional problems which require remediation

- testify to an in-depth knowledge of at least two subjects which are relevant to the
  pre-primary phase.

ii. Junior and Senior Primary Education

These teacher education programmes should prepare general classroom teachers,
although provision should be made for a degree of specialization in order to facilitate
the personal academic and professional growth and development of the teacher. The
programmes should further prepare teachers for a measure of subject teaching which
frequently occurs in the senior primary school. The programme should ensure that
teachers are able to do the following:

- teach children in a selected range of competences e.g.
  the junior primary or senior primary phase or to teach
  children in the whole of the primary age-range (All
  primary students should be given experience across the

primary school, if a student specializes in a particular
part of the primary school, practical teaching will be
concentrated in that phase,

- relate their study of the primary curriculum to professional
  studies and school experience

- demonstrate a knowledge of national and/or regional school
  curricular requirements

- command, besides general primary studies, a knowledge
  of the following areas of experience, although not
  necessarily as separate subjects.

* language
* mathematics
* environmental studies/general science
* social and human studies
* entrepreneurship
* arts education (creative activities, visual arts, language
  arts, music drama and dance)
* life orientation(religious education, guidance,
  economic education, physical education and
  health care)
* technology

- use language to facilitate learning

- integrate different traditional subjects around themes or
  topics to demonstrate the interrelated, holistic nature

of knowledge

- testify to an indepth knowledge of at least two school
  subjects for the personal academic and professional
  development of the teacher and in order to deal with
  a measure of subject specialization which occur
  frequently in the senior primary school

- display an ability to deal with topics across the curriculum
  such as multi-cultural education, technology, the world
  of work, entrepreneurship and the personal and social
  development of children

- diagnose and deal with the more common special educational
  needs.

iii. Junior and Senior Secondary Education

These programmes should ensure that teachers will be able to:

- teach learners of various academic backgrounds throughout
  the secondary school, in both the junior and senior secondary
  phases,

- take particular account of life and social skills and the
  preparation of pupils for the world of work, national communal
  and personal life,

- teach about environmental issues within the framework of
  their subjects and/or as a cross-curricular study,

- interpret and implement the secondary curriculum
  paying attention particularly to national and/or
  regional curricular requirements,

- teach at least two school subjects in an authorative
  manner having been thoroughly versed in the rigours
  of discipline

- adapt to alternative forms of secondary education which
  differ from the traditional, formal secondary school e.g.
  a familiarity with the concept and skills involved
  in distance education

- adapt to a secondary system where all pupils attend
  school up to std 7 and then many continue their schooling
  on a voluntary basis outside of the normal formal secondary
  school,

- use language in such a way to facilitate learning and
  to teach language in all subjects,

- enable those who aim to do so to prepare themselves for
  further education at a tertiary level.

3.13.3   Proposed Admission Requirements for Teacher Education:

In line with the National policy for teacher education the policy document as set out by
the Committee on Teacher Education (1996:52) proposes the following minimum
admission requirements for all initial teacher education:

a) <u>Admission Requirements</u>

A Senior Certificate or an equivalent qualification (e.g. a National Certificate III) which is awarded by the South African Certification Council or by one of the previous education departments in the Republic of South Africa or by the joint Matriculation board on the completion of a senior secondary school course, provided that:

- a candidate must have passed two of the official languages, one of which is the language used by the institution as a medium of instruction;

- the language used by the institution as a medium of instruction must have been passed on at least second language grade;

- a candidate must have passed three subjects on the higher grade, which might include the languages;

or

an un- or under-qualified teacher without a Senior Certificate may be admitted to further training if the candidate has had 5 years of teaching experience and has successfully completed a series of tests which has been administered by the senate or by the body which serves as guarantor of academic standards of the institution concerned. The tests would comprise of the following aspects:

- a language proficiency test
- a numeracy proficiency test
- a test of cognitive development.

b) The minimum duration of Teacher Education

The minimum period for education is stipulated at a period of education of three years post Senior Certificate or its required equivalent. It is however considered that there is a likelihood that a large number of teachers will be required in the immediate future in certain regions, therefore allowance has been made for an exit point after two years of full time education or its equivalent at which point the student is certificated. This will only be done on the understanding that the teacher will be recognised as fully qualified once an additional year of study or the equivalent thereof, part-time/distance education has been completed and the teacher has been certified as a fully fledged diplomate. This arrange will only hold for an interim period (COTEP 1996:55).

c) Accreditation of Courses

COTEP (1996:VIII) remarks that it is envisaged that the South African Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (SACATE) will be established under the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) which was instituted recently by the National Qualification Framework Act. SACATE will provide for external peer-group evaluation of all teacher education institutions. This implies that each teacher education institution will have to submit the courses it offers, to public scrutiny.

Scrutiny of the aspects outlined above indeed reflect that COTEP (1996:3) compiled the norms and standards of teacher education with the following issues in mind:

* Backlogs have to be addressed.

* The need for student teacher to acquire an indepth knowledge of academic subjects

* The need for class teachers to be able to handle the special needs of individual children in their classes

* The shortage of teachers in Mathematics, Science, English, Technology

* The requirements of practice teaching with a greater school focused emphasis. Instructional programmes to which might be extended to include internship on an agreed-upon bases.

3.14   **CONCLUSION**

Presently the Colleges of Education are still functioning under the ex-departments of education as new curriculums, qualifications and resources etc still differ.

Although the structure of the curriculums reflect that there is an imbalance between theory and practice, it must be acknowledged that the curriculums of the various departments since 1982 has improved drastically.

The teaching practice syllabi includes aspects such as chalkboard work, micro-teaching, and media which are vital skills for effective teaching. However, the time allocated for this important section is minimal.

In-service education and training has also been provided, but present provision is indicative of no interaction between pre-service and in-service training.

Bearing these factors in mind, and the promise by the democratically elected government that an education system will be developed "whereby the human resources and potential in society will be developed to the full" as stated in 2.4, it goes without saying that teacher education on the whole had to be reviewed.

This review gave rise to the Norms and Standards for Teacher education which was declared National Policy by the Minister of Education Professor SM Bengu as referred to in 3.12(a).

According to the Committee on Teacher Education Policy (1996:5), the intention of the policy document is "to set norms and standards which all teachers will have to achieve, thus ensuring a uniformly high quality of teacher education and eliminating current disparities".

It is hoped that with the guidelines, and constant review and revision, teacher education, both pre-service and in-service will aim at addressing the weaknesses and capitalize on strengths of the previous system. This will ensure that teachers are qualified according to an integrated education and training approach so that learners will be equipped with the necessary skills for the workplace.

3.15   Third problem formulation

In an attempt to determine how successful efforts were in providing for the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised, concerned parties in teacher education were asked for their opinions.
The next chapter will deal with the questionnaires and interviews of student teachers, teachers and lecturers, reflecting the expected shortcomings and difficulties during teaching.

CHAPTER 4

4. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE DATA OBTAINED FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEWS AND AN INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

Concerted efforts were undertaken by the segregated Education Departments to provide for the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised. This research attempts to investigate to which extent these efforts were successful thus determining if there are still shortcomings as well as determining the nature of the difficulties which teachers experience in their classrooms.

In-service teachers, student teachers and lecturers were asked to respond to questionnaires and interviews. A research sample of teachers were used from schools from the ex-DET and schools from the ex-House of Representatives. A sample of students was also taken from Perseverance College of Education as these students were more accessible. Lecturers from various departments at Perseverance College of Education were used for interviews.

Questionnaires were compiled with the intention of finding out if there are shortcomings in the present teacher education system regarding the curriculum and its implementation and if teachers experience difficulties under the present teaching and learning conditions.

4.2 Methods of Research

The methods of research used were questionnaires and interviews. As questionnaires save much time, this method was predominantly used. Relevant questions were answered through interviews, although this method involves a considerable amount of

time. Relevant information was also derived from discussions and conversations with participants in the research. Participants were promised that information retrieved would be confidential and that their identities would be protected.

4.2.1 Questionnaires

Two types of questionnaires were prepared. In-service teachers as well as student teachers were asked to respond to questionnaires designed for each respectively. The respondents were asked to respond to the questions regarding the present teacher education curriculum and implementation thereof as well as the alleged difficulties they experience under the present teaching and learning conditions.

Questions on the curriculum ranged from, the value of the contents of the subject Education, to the type of lesson presentation by lecturers.

To investigate difficulties encountered by teachers, questions were asked on classroom competency, efficiency through management training and teacher empowerment through action research.

4.2.2 Interviews

Twelve lecturers representative from each department at Perseverance College of Education availed themselves for interviews. The interviews concentrated on finding out the concerns lecturers had on the present teacher education curriculum and also the envisaged norms and standards for teacher education as adopted by COTEP.

4.3 Findings of the Research

4.3.1 Number of questionnaires returned

One hundred and seventy questionnaires were distributed to teachers at schools from

the ex-DET as well as schools from the ex-House of Representatives. One hundred and twenty questionnaires were returned. Seventy questionnaires were distributed amongst Junior Primary and Senior Primary, third year students at Perseverance College of Education. Sixty questionnaires were returned. Twelve lecturers were interviewed.

4.3.2 Responses to various questionnaires

The following discussion will be based on the responses of the student teachers teachers and lecturers. The findings on common questions will be tabulated together and discussed.

4.3.2.1   Shortcomings of the present teacher education curricula

a)   The meaningfulness of the contents of the Subject Education in the classroom

The subject Education is perceived to be the most important area of knowledge at a College of Education because College students are in the apprenticeship and formative years of a career that is crucial and critical for the development of generations of young people. Thus, the manner in which the students develop with the assistance of lecturers not only leaves its mark on the students themselves but also affects generations of children in the schools (Abrahams 1990:1).

It is therefore believed that the function of the college is not merely to "train" students to perfect the physical techniques of classroom management, correct use of the OHP and to teach students to have sound knowledge of the contents of the specific syllabi they have to teach, but also to teach students to have knowledge of the principles, theories of philosophy and psychology that underpin both teaching and learning (Abrahams 1990:1).

Precisely because of this fact, students and teachers were asked whether Education as a subject is taught in such a manner that they are able to use its contents meaningfully in the classroom. Table 4.1 shows the result.

Table 4.1 <u>**Education as a subject was taught in such a manner**</u>
<u>**that you are able to use its contents meaningfully**</u>
<u>**in your classroom**</u>

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	20	33,4	71	59,2
B: No	40	66,6	49	40,8
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

There is a difference in opinion amongst the respondents.

Only (33,4%) of students believe that Education as a subject is taught in such a manner that they are able to use its contents meaningfully in the classroom. A larger number of teachers, (59,2%) claim that they are able to use the contents of Education meaningfully. A larger percentage of students (66,6%) and (40,8%) teachers claim that it is not the case.

It is interesting to note that although a large number of teachers claim that they are able to use the contents of Education meaningfully in the classroom, they mention the contrary in comments and suggestions which will be discussed later. Amongst other things, teachers mention aspects such as:

- the difficulties of integrating with reference to thematic
work in team teaching

- difficulties with individualisation

- interesting ways to motivate and inspire pupils

- difficulties in applying the theories of Freire e.g. getting
  pupils to participate in the lesson.

b) Does teacher education place too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum?

Students as well as in-service teachers were asked whether teacher education placed too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum. Table 4.2 illustrates the response from students as well as lecturers.

Table 4.2 Teacher Education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	50	83,4	103	85,8
B: No	10	16,6	17	14,2
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

The majority of students (83,4%) undoubtedly reveal that teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum. In discussions with these students, they remark on the limited time allotted to class teaching in the present curriculum as mentioned in chapter three. They claim that the basic skills needed to

succeed in the classroom is not consolidated, resulting in them not being able to perform as expected during practice teaching.

In addition, they point out that practice teaching which they deem to be the most important aspect of their training is seriously neglected. The 10 weeks which the present curriculum stipulates over a three year course is found to be hopelessly inadequate. Students feel that they cannot get to grips with class organization, e.g. time-tables, schedules and schemes of work, etc. They find it difficult to prepare lessons as they do not know the pupils in the classes they have been assigned to, and the situation becomes more frustrating when they do become accustomed to pupils, the practice teaching session is nearing to an end.

They also remark on the fact that although they receive tuition and guidance in lesson presentation and become acquainted with different techniques and skills in the class teaching and subject didactics periods, the practice teaching sessions, during the course of the year, provides little opportunities for them to practice the skills which they had learnt at college.

The greater number of teachers (85,8%) too maintain that teacher education placed too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum. Some teachers say that their initial teaching experiences in their first teaching posts were most traumatizing. They blame it on not being equipped to manage ordinary organizational skills such as schemes of work and being ridiculed by older teachers who hesitantly offered help to the so called "qualified" teacher. One teacher remarked "it felt like being thrown into the deep end and I cannot swim".

Teachers also argue that although they are aware of the different skills and techniques which can be used during lesson presentation, they do not feel confident enough to use it as they were not provided with sufficient opportunities to practice these aspects during their initial teacher training. The teachers admit that in order to find their feet,

they resorted to talk-chalk and text-book methods. They contend that these methods at least enable them to cope with teaching the subject content but regret that they cannot be as effective as they would like to be. An interesting comment was made by another teacher who says, "What worries me the most, is that I am falling prey to making my pupils passive recipients of knowledge who operate like robots".

The overwhelming response that teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum proves that there is a serious disjunction between theory and practice in the present curriculum.

Immediately after independence, the Zimbabwean education authorities also had a re-think on their conventional Teaching Practice system which made provision for sixteen weeks of practice teaching. The Teaching Practice system proved to be inadequate as investigations too revealed an imbalance between theory and the duration of Practice Teaching. Adjustments were made and to ensure that students would have more on the job experience and more opportunities to practice teaching skills which they acquired at college, the three year course was extended to four years. Students alternated between college and school and to keep them abreast with the theoretical aspect of their training when they are practice teaching at schools, distance teaching is used. The fourth year is deemed to be some sort of internship, as students complete their final examinations at the end of the third year (Zvologo 1986:84).

c)   Teacher Education provided opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently

Students and teachers had to answer this question. They were also asked to give reasons for their answers. Table 4.3 shows the result.

Table 4.3 <u>Does Teacher education provide opportunities to
practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently?</u>

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	11	18,4	60	50
B: No	49	81,6	60	50
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

A high percentage of students (81,6%) and (50%) of teachers claim that teacher education provides insufficient time to practice the necessary teaching skills. Eighteen point four percent (18,4%) of students and (50%) teachers comment that sufficient time is provided.

Respondents say that Institute Practicum which includes aspects such as chalkboard work, the use of teaching media, micro teaching, lesson evaluation, etc, is severely neglected at colleges largely because of the time factor. They say that the four forty minute periods is hopelessly inadequate because there are so many skills which have to be demonstrated as well as practised. They list a number of skills in micro-teaching which they get to hear about or which they receive notes on but never have an opportunity to practice so that they can approach School Practicum with the necessary confidence. The following skills are mentioned:

- the skill of questioning
- the skill of establishing set
- the skill of variation
- the skill of reaction

Students stress that when micro-teaching is introduced during the first year, they

enthuse and are thoroughly motivated to get to know how to use the skills during the different phases of the lesson. However they find this enthusiasm being dampened and replaced with a feeling of frustration during the duration of the course, as lessons are prepared for School Practicum most times with minimal practice in skills, rendering them less skilful and almost fearful of the anticipated teaching session.

Students and teachers comment on the fact that boycotts and strikes also erode much of their actual lecture time. In addition, students are allowed emergency mass-meetings which also clashes with the normal run of the college programme. One student also commented on the fact that due to the breakdown in the amalgamation procedure of the two teacher education colleges in Kimberley, time-tables could not function normally. It is alleged that the one college, operated on a temporary time-table due to a lack of lecturers. For a period of approximately five months Institute Practicum was not included in this temporary college time--table, thus all students at this college was deprived of valuable time in which skills had to be practised. Students also come out strongly against the present Northern Cape Education Department for their lack of intervention to find solutions to problems. They point out that besides not receiving Institute Practicum tuition at this particular college, second year students were deprived further. The lack of sensitivity and decisiveness on the part of the department left these students without Mathematics and Biology lectures for a considerable period of time, thus they received no subject didactics tuition in the two subjects either.

Other problems experienced by respondents is the lack of not being able to use certain teaching and learning media and surprisingly also the use of the chalkboard. The respondents blame their inability on the lack of available media and the fact that sometimes lecturers take it for granted that they are able to use it. They say that because it is assumed that they are able to use e.g. the video recorder or the tape recorder, notes are handed out and no opportunities to practice is provided. The lecturer demonstrates and students listen, which is indicative of transmission teaching.

d) **Pre-service teacher education equipped teachers with skills which enables them to establish a satisfactory classroom climate by providing co-operative, well directed and purposeful activities**

This question involves students as well as teachers as illustrated by Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 **Your pre-service teacher education equipped you with skills which enables you to establish a satisfactory classroom climate by providing co-operative well directed and purposeful activities**

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	12	20	58	48
B: No	48	80	62	52
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

Eighty percent (80%) students and (52%) teachers say that their pre-service teacher education did not provide them with skills which enabled them to establish a satisfactory classroom climate. According to some respondents boycotts and unrests played a major role, resulting in them spending limited time in the lecture rooms. Some also make mention of the fact that the subject content in the syllabi of the various subjects are far too loaded, resulting in important aspects vital for effective teaching being neglected. They also say that the subject didactic component of subjects are neglected to a large extent as lecturers cram to complete the syllabi. Lecturers in subject didactics is therefore very theoretical with little or no demonstration of the skill, technique or method which is supposed to be demonstrated. One respondent remarked, "lecturers merely hand out notes, read from these notes and expect us to implement the technique or skill in our practice teaching lessons".

Some teachers too maintain that they initially lacked confidence in planning co-operative well directed and purposeful activities. They blame it on the fact that they received very little opportunities to see these methods and skills being used concretely in a real situation and not being able to practice as the time allotted to class teaching and subject didactics in the curriculums of both the (ex-DET) and the (ex-House of Representatives), was minimal.

The (20%) students and (48%) teachers who acknowledge that their pre-service teacher education equipped them with skills enabling them to establish a satisfactory classroom climate claim that they are able to design activities which contributes to active pupil participation. They maintain that co-operative, well directed and purposeful activities creates a more pleasant atmosphere in the classroom as pupils are actively busy. Pupils derive much pleasure from doing things for themselves and therefore they are motivated to do more. They become independent critical thinkers as they are dependant on their own initiative when doing things for themselves. This also results in the development of skills which enable pupils to create, sketch, listen, view, compare, develop, build, draw, etc. Avenant (1990:118) also echoes that when such activities are practised, a more pleasant classroom atmosphere is created which is less taxing on the minds of both pupil and teacher.

e) Are teachers able to manage administrative duties such as registers, recordbooks, etc. when they start to teach?

Although school management or school administration is made provision for in the present curriculum of the teachers education departments as indicated in Chapter 3, it is alleged that when teachers start to teach, they are not equipped to complete registers, draw up schemes of work, timetables etc.

The question was designed to determine if teachers were able to do so. Table 4.5 reflects the result.

Table 4.5   <u>When you started teaching you were able to manage</u>
<u>administrative duties such as registers, record books,</u>
<u>etc with ease</u>

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	54	45
B: No	66	55
TOTAL	60	100

Forty five percent (45%) teachers claim that they were able to manage registers, recordbooks, etc., while (55%) teachers admit not being able to do so.

In discussion with some of the respondents who claim that they are able to do so, they say that they spent very little time practising to manage registers, draw up schemes of work, draw up time-tables, etc at college during the appropriate period allotted to this aspect of the work.   They claim that they learnt to do so when they went out practice teaching. One respondent says, "I asked the class teacher to show me how to record the register."

The (55%) teachers who say that were not able to do so, blame their inability on a variety of factors:

-        boycotts strikes

-        no resources for practical work, no registers, syllabi
         for drawing up schemes of work at hand

-        the period was used for other "more important" subjects.

- lectures too theoretical

- periods allotted for this important facet too little.

f) **Pre-service practice--teaching provided opportunities for action research (e.g. involved in deliberation, debate and decision making, becoming aware of quality practice teaching)**

This question was directed to teachers as well as student teachers. Table 4.6 shows the results

Table 4.6 **During your pre-service practice teaching you were given opportunities for action research (e.g. involved in deliberation, debate and decision making becoming aware of quality practice teaching**

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	6	10	55	45,8
B: No	54	90	65	54,2
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

The majority of respondents (90% of the students and 54,2% of the teachers) claim

that pre-service practice teaching does not provide opportunities for action research. This implies that these students and teachers are not involved in deliberation, debate and decision making which is critical in the development of teachers. Mncwabe (1990:122) feels that due to the lack of these opportunities, these teachers will continue to "accept what is transmitted by the experts."

Conversation and discussions reveal that students and teachers feel that when they were evaluated during practice teaching, they were given very little opportunity to justify why they preferred to use one specific skill or method when presenting a lesson. They claim that lecturers prescribe too much and most times are insensitive to their plight concerning conditions prevailing in the classroom at the time.

They claim that lecturers rush off after evaluating a lesson without giving them time to question the overall mark awarded for the complete lesson or the mark awarded to some specific sub-section of the lesson.

They also comment that practice teaching report back sessions allow little time to debate issues which they regard as important. Issues such as:

- lessons which have to be written out in great length.

- disciplining pupils

- overcoming limitless resources in large overcrowded classes

- teaching styles and teaching methods

- the development of self-confidence and self esteem.

By not providing opportunities for debate and deliberation and other educators fall prey

to the old "banking approach as referred to by Paulo Freire (1987:59) who sees the whole of education and development as a common search for solutions to problems. He states that "from the beginning all participants are recognized as thinking creative people with the capacity for action."

The (45,8%) teachers and (10%) students who claim that opportunities for deliberation, debate and decision making were provided, attest to situations in which they felt that they were useful and recognized participants in their teacher education. They say that they were able to suggest, analyze, describe and plan and most of all, lecturers were sensitized to problems they encountered during their practice teaching. Report back practice teaching sessions took the form of sessions whereby common problems were sketched, thus providing a framework for discussion and together they were allowed to think create and become active participants in finding solutions to problems.

g)   **Teachers are able to link Education with Production e.g. pupils perform experiments make technical models, weigh, measure calculate**

This question was directed to students as well as teachers as illustrated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7   During your lesson presentation, you are able to link Education with Production e.g. pupils perform experiments, make technical models, weigh, measure calculate etc.

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	19	31,6	73	60,8
B: No	41	68,4	47	39,2
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

The results of this question depicts an interesting scenario. Only (31,6%) students claim that they are able to link Education with production. The majority of students (68,4%) say that they are not able to do so.

A high percentage of teachers (60,8%) claim that they are able to link Education with production which implies that pupils are provided with opportunities to experiment, make models, weigh, measure, calculate etc. A small percentage of teachers (39,2%) say that they are not able to do so.

The respondents who claim that they are able to link Education with production believe that it enables pupils to experience the subject content more intensely. As the subject content is linked with the pupils lifeworld, the school becomes a place where the pupil is able to find meaningful answers to his problems. In addition, it is claimed that useful skills and attitudes are cultivated. Pupils learn to analyze problems, predict solutions, control, develop a sense of and objectivity and receptiveness of mind and they get practice in accuracy and precision and note taking. Avenant (1990:118) also believes that these skills and attitudes are cultivated when pupils are allowed to do for themselves.

It must be mentioned however, that a few of the (60,8%) teachers claim that they approached these techniques tentatively at first, as very little practical demonstrations were given when they were at college.

The (68,4%) students and the (39,2%) teachers mention that it is practically impossible to attempt Education with production as classes are far too large and overcrowded. They also say that schools have no scientific media and syllabi will not be completed if they have to spend time on pupils solving long problems. One teacher expressed concern at the idea of pupils tending their own class gardens, remarking, "Is that not one of the aims of bantu education?"

Walker (1991:206) however, lays these fears to rest, she believes that in a different context, with a different set of aims, subjects such as woodwork, handicrafts, basic agricultural production, etc, might be an important way to introduce young pupils to technology so that they are able to apply these skills productively in a work situation. This correlates with what COTEP proposes in Technology Education (COTEP 1996:20).

h) Do lecturers present model lessons which student teachers are able to learn from?

The respondents had to say whether lecturers presented model lessons which they were able to learn from. Table 4.8 illustrates the number of responses for each choice.

Table 4.8   Lecturers present model lessons which student teachers are able to learn from

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	16	26,6	59	49,2
B: No	48	73,4	61	50,8
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

Table 4.8 reflects the feelings of the students and lecturers about lesson presentation by lecturers. Only (26,6%) of the students indicated that lecturers presented lessons using interesting techniques and strategies which they were able to learn from.

A high percentage of students (73,4%) responded negatively. They claim that lecturers most times read from the textbook, handout or transparency, seldom initiate group discussions or ask the student's opinion.

Teachers on the other hand (49,2%) of them, say that lecturers indeed presented lessons which were stimulating and encouraging. These teachers maintain that lecturers made them aware of the advantages of student-centred learning by using techniques such as class discussions, round table discussions, forums, etc. Everyday lectures too became inspiring as they were able to come to grips with the subject matter more easily and moreover, they were exposed to practical demonstrations of these techniques which they felt more free to use in their own classrooms.

Fifty point eight percent (50,8%) teachers argue that this is not the case. They maintain that their experiences of lesson presentation by lecturers was characterised by teacher-talk, drilling and the regurgation of the subject content which was taught. They say that although the different phases of lesson presentation is continuously emphasized in class teaching and subject didactics, lecturers fall far short of themselves teaching in such a manner. They therefore find it difficult to prepare lessons efficiently. Teachers list amongst others some of the difficulties they encounter:

- finding interesting ways to link new knowledge
  with existing knowledge during the introductory phase
  of the lesson.

- how to go about using "these alternative methods"

which some teachers speak about.

- how to go about problem solving teaching in large classes.

- getting pupils interested so that they are able to pose
  questions and offer explanations.

- getting pupils to be more responsible and be more
  accountable for their own learning

- how to use scientific techniques in an efficient manner e.g.
  the use of scientific apparatus

- feeling confident enough to use different types of
  questions during the control and evaluation phase
  of the lesson.

- devising learning activities according to the objectives
  which have been set for the lesson.

These difficulties or concerns suggest that teachers are aware of methods and
techniques to teach effectively but they are unable to put it into practice as they do not
know how.

i)   Methods teachers employ have social learning goals which teach democratic procedures e.g. group discussions

With our new found democracy, it is assumed that student teachers and teachers
realise that education as well as their classrooms should be organised democratically
so as to prepare young people for a life of democracy. It is alleged that most student

teachers and teachers who were disfranchised is not well equipped to implement alternative methods of teaching as their education in school and training college took the form of transmission teaching. The question in Table 4.9 was designed to determine whether they do employ these methods and why they find it necessary.

Table 4.9   **Methods which you employ have social learning goals**
                      which teach democratic procedures e.g. (group discussions)

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	48	80	116	97
B: No	12	20	4	3
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

A large amount of students (80%) and teachers (97%) claim that they are able to employ democratic procedures such as group discussions. Only (20%) students and (3%) teachers say that they are not able to do so.

Respondents claim that although they have very little didactic efficiency, they do try to employ these methods which have social learning goals. They mention that the classroom climate is very much more relaxed and pupils tend to respond much more easily. It is however mentioned that discipline becomes a problem. None the less, respondents argue that pupils are very much more interested when they discuss problems amongst their peers. Pupils are more motivated and consequently they listen more attentively.

It is also believed that discussions enable pupils to acquire positive social attitudes

such as respect, loyalty, teamwork and it encourages leadership qualities. Avenant (1990:173) echoes these sentiments.

j) Teachers are able to individualise in the classroom, thus meeting the needs of all pupils

The students as well as teachers have to say whether they are able to individualise in the classroom, meeting the needs of all pupils.

Table 4.10 Are teachers able to individualise in their classrooms, thus meeting the needs of all pupils?

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	12	20	48	40
B: No	48	80	72	60
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

It is generally assumed that this vital aspect is used by all teachers to ensure that each and every individual pupil is taught according to his ability, interests, tempo, and talent.

A large majority of students (80%) and teachers (60%) admit that they do not individualise in their classrooms. They say that classes are far too large and that individualisation is practically impossible in these overcrowded classes.

k) Do teachers make use of reflective teaching strategies?

Students and teachers were asked whether they make use of reflective teaching

strategies. Table 4.11 illustrates the result.

Table 4.11 Do you make use of reflective teaching strategies?

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	19	31,7	61	50,8
B: No	41	68,3	59	49,2
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

Much has been said about the shortcomings of the teacher training curriculum throughout Chapter three and most of the questionnaires in Chapter 4. The above question was designed to determine whether students and teachers are able to be reflective about their teacher training and their competency in their classrooms and if they are pro-active enough to overcome their shortcomings.

Only (31,7%) students and (50,8%) teachers claim that they do make use of reflective teaching strategies. A larger number of students (68,3%) and (49,2%) teachers say that they do not.

The (31,7%) students who claim that they do make use of reflective teaching strategies say that during teaching practice they invite fellow students, together with the teacher to evaluate their lessons. Their fellow students and the class teacher are asked to identify their strengths and target their shortcomings. At the end of the lesson there is usual a discussion which motivates the student to do better the next time. Rudduck (1992:168) also refers to the benefits of this strategy.

Some students also refer to micro-teaching, whereby certain skills were observed,

monitored and evaluated by fellow students. They mention the fact that occasionally the video recorder was used to record the specific skill they were practising.

Later, the evaluation of the recording, provided an opportunity to become aware of their strengths as well as their weaknesses, which in effect strengthened their teaching capabilities.

Some of the (50,8%) teachers who say that they do use reflective teaching strategies claim that the invitation extended to fellow teachers to evaluate their efforts "sustains the excitement of teaching," as Rudduck (1992:168) puts it. They point out that their teaching improves as the constructive criticism and many new ideas which are discussed after an informal feedback session makes them become more excited and enthusiastic about teaching.

Others claim that they even ask their pupils with whom they are working to evaluate them. They comment on the fact that such strategies creates a climate of openness and reflection in their classrooms in which all participants have a say in what happens.

It is surprising to note that teachers indeed use innovative strategies such as reflective teaching. Table 4.14 suggests that the stringent teaching situation inhibits their initiatives to try these advantageous, exciting and revolutionizing ideas.

i) Has teacher education empowered teachers to teach in multi-cultural classrooms?

The above question was posed in order to find out if student teachers and teachers were empowered to teach in multi-cultural classrooms. Table 4.12 illustrates the result.

Table 4.12   Has teacher education empowered teachers to teach in multi-cultural classrooms

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	--	-	23	19,2
B: No	60	100	97	80,8
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

Given the disfranchised teacher's historical past as outlined in Chapter 2, the above result which indicates that (100%) students and (80,8%) teachers are not empowered to teach in multi-cultural classrooms could be expected.

In discussion with some of the respondents they contend that the fact that they are not empowered to teach in multi-cultural classrooms, does not affect them directly as they still only teach in schools which are based on racial criteria. Thus classes reflect only one particular race.

Some of the (19,2%) teachers who claim that teacher education empowered them to teach in multi-cultural classrooms, say that this was done during everyday lecturers. In history lectures for example, opportunities arose to analyze social issues such as discrimination. They were also given the opportunity to become acquainted with the value and contributions made by different cultures, to society.

m)   Are teachers equipped to do administrative and organizational tasks in the classroom?

To determine whether teachers are able to manage administrative duties as well as organizational tasks which includes aspects such as planning, organizaing, controlling and leading as prescribed by the DET syllabus (1990:2-3), this question was asked. Table 4.13 shows the result.

Table 4.13   Are teachers equipped to do administrative and organisational tasks in the classroom

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	87	72,5
B: No	33	27,5
TOTAL	60	100

A high percentage (72,5%) teachers claim that they are able to do so. They say that the help and support which they got from the older, experienced teacher in the school equipped them in this facet. Teachers stress that the expertise of older teachers due to years of experience has played an invaluable part in their efficiency.

One respondent comments that although the college curriculum makes provision for class management, it does so very theoretically, "Now that I am actually organizing and planning myself, I am much more involved".

From the above, it is deduced that teachers only become equipped once they start working in the field. The college curriculum does however provide the theoretical aspect which serves as background.

Some teachers (27,5%) argue that they are not equipped. They blame this inadequacy solely at the doorstep of the teacher education institutions. Lack of time, lecturer inefficiency and theoretical knowledge and college interruptions such as boycotts are reasons named.

4.3.2.2   Difficulties teachers encounter under the present teaching and learning conditions

a)   The stringent teaching situation inhibits the teacher's initiatives

The question was directed solely to teachers as Table 4.14 shows.

Table 4.14   Does the stringent teaching situation inhibit the teacher's initiates?

TEACHER'S RESPONSE		%
A: Yes	104	86,7
B: No	16	13,3
TOTAL	120	100

The majority of teachers (86,7%) regard the present teaching situation as stifling. Teachers say they are not consulted on many issues such as:

-       addition and interpretation of the interim syllabi - the selection of relevant content

-       ordering of textbooks, relevant material such as film strips, films, maps etc

-       methods of evaluation etc

-       the drawing up of the school programme for the year, which includes fundraising, sports and cultural activities.

Teachers alledge that they are unable to experiment with techniques and methods as they are continuously under scrutiny by heads of departments or principals who

regularly inspect the pupils books, their recordbooks and daily preparation books. To ensure that they stay "up to date" many teachers say that they resort to the one method which they are offay with, the teacher centred method.

The present format of evaluation is also deemed to be restrictive. Teachers feel that continuous evaluation throughout the year is more effective as pupils are tested continuously. Remedial work can then be done almost immediately.

The (13,3%) respondents who claim that the stringent teaching situation does not inhibit their initiatives, say that it is entirely up to the individual teacher if he or she wants to be dictated to. One respondent remarked, "I question all and sundry, I make my presence felt, they have to sit up take notice of me and listen to my suggestions and motivations".

One gets the impression that if more teachers are able to be pro-active as the teacher above, the sooner the shackles of stringency in schools will be broken.

However, Walker (1991:209) and Sachs (1987:91) remind us of the fact that teacher behaviour is learnt through the teacher's own school days which in turn has a profound influence on teaching practice. Teachers experienced education through a process dominated by teacher talk and the transmission of "prescribed" knowledge. Their schooling was characterised by passiveness whereby they were restricted to receiving, memorising and regurgitating textbooks, thus by the end of twelve years of schooling and a further two or three years of fundamental pedagogic, most teachers who were disfranchised internalized a specific understanding of teacher behaviour which they act out in their own classrooms. Thus, the eminence of oppressive education relations still continue. Teachers, heads of departments and principals struggle to think creatively, thus teacher-talk, drill and practice, corporal punishment and rote learning is perpetuated.

Gwala (1988:1772) points out that while bantu education has failed politically, "it has been relatively successful educationally by suppressing the intellectual and analytical abilities of black students".

b)   Teacher involvement in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula

This question was included to find out how involved are teachers in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula.

Table 4.15   Are teachers involved in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula

	TEACHER'S RESPONSES	%
A: Yes	28	23
B: No	92	77
TOTAL	120	100

A large percentage of teachers (77%) claim that they were not involved or consulted at all. They remark that only heads of departments or school principals are involved. Some respondents however blame their non-involvement due to the fact that they had very little guidance on this aspect of the work at college.

This situation suggests reason for concern as Mncwabe (1990:177) reminds us that as South Africans are living through a period in which democratic consultation is becoming obligatory amongst all, it is no longer acceptable that important stakeholders are left out of the process of curriculum development.

It is Mncwabe's (1990:117) feeling too that teachers who were disfranchised, should be given free hand in the choice of books and materials which they use in their classrooms. He further asserts that in order to anticipate the objection that this could lead to chaos and to the lowering of standards, subject-teacher associations must be established to monitor standards.

This suggestion implies that the disfranchised teacher will then be part and parcel of an educational system which indeed encourages the integration of relevant academic and vocational skills.

c) The present school year allows sufficient time for effective completion of the syllabi

This question was directed only to teachers. Table 4.16 reflects the feelings of teachers presently in schools.

Table 4.16 Does the present school year allow sufficient time effective completion of the syllabi?

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	14	11,7
B: No	106	88,3
TOTAL	120	100

Eleven point seven percent (11,7%) of the teachers claim that the present school year allows sufficient time for effective completion of the syllabi.

Eighty eight point three percent (88,3%) say that they do not have time to effectively complete the syllabi. They give reasons such as the following:

- Classes are too large, there is no time for individual attention.

- Administrative duties.

- Interruptions such as too many public holidays, meetings, etc.

- Classes have to be left unattended, when they attend in-service courses.

- Syllabi are crammed with irrelevant subject matter, leaving little time for consolidating what is relevant.

- Large classes results in much marking, resulting in little time for remedial work.

One of the respondents also mentioned that they have to fit in fundraising efforts into the school calendar. This results in teachers having to prepare and run errands during school time, which erodes much of the time which should be used for effective teaching. The responses gives an indication that teachers lack managerial skills, an aspect which is vital for effective classroom management.

d) Are teachers satisfied with the help and support of heads of departments and inspectors of education?

This question was particularly directed to teachers, to determine whether they received any help and support from heads of departments and inspectors of education or subject advisers. Table 4.17 reflects the result.

Table 4.17 **Are you satisfied with the help and support of**
heads of departments and inspectors of education?

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	41	34,2
B: No	79	65,8
TOTAL	120	100

A high percentage of teachers (65,8%) emphatically claim that heads of departments, inspectors of education or subject heads do not provide them with the necessary help and support they need. Teachers feel that when heads of department visit their classrooms, they usually talk down to them in an authoritative, dictatorial manner. Most times, the heads of departments do not offer support or guide but "keep check" on what teachers are supposed to be doing. Teachers further claim that heads of departments are often not open to change as they have stagnated in their old ideas of what is right and what is wrong. They thus frown upon new suggestions and teaching methods. Some of the younger respondents claim that they are ridiculed when they try these new innovations and in order to keep the peace, they conform and do as told. Inspectors of education or subject advisers as they are now referred to, seldom visit schools unless they are invited.

Thirty four point two percent teachers (34,2%) argue that heads of departments do offer guidance and support. They mention aspects which are dealt with in great depth and in which heads of departments make a concerted effort to help with:

- interpretation of the syllabi - helping to select content relevant to the needs of the pupils and the community.

- drawing up schemes of work and the record book.

-     guidance with regard to constructing time-tables, completing registers etc. (especially the neophyte teacher).

-     helping with the organization of teaching aids and media which is needed so that it is available when a particular teacher needs it.

-     plays a supportive role in coordinating themes and assignments so that pupils do not have to hand in three or four assignments on the same day.

-     encourages innovation with regard to non-conventional teaching methods.

The respondents do not however mention how inspectors or subject advisers offer help and support, but it is deduced that they are not commented on, as they presently do not visit schools, unless invited as mentioned previously.

e)   <u>**Guidance and supervision is necessary for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers**</u>

To determine whether teachers were of the opinion that they needed some sort of guidance supervision and support the following question was asked. Table 4.18 reflects the result.

Table 4.18   <u>**Is guidance necessary for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers?**</u>

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	114	95
B: No	6	5
TOTAL	120	100

The majority of teachers (95%) teachers say that guidance and supervision is necessary. They comment on aspects such as the difficulties of change and the deadening effects of routinization. One teacher remarks that guidance and support when supervised "makes me maintain enthusiasm".

Teachers acknowledge that they need guidance and supervision to find out if they are doing the right thing, as some say that they are very unsure of themselves.

Others comment on the fact that their teacher training did not equip them with skills to operate in the real world of schools. Another teacher remarked, "We were loaded with too many subjects and subject content which was already done in school". They also mention aspects such as lack of model demonstration lessons during teacher training.

Teachers too believe that guidance and support is necessary as they feel that they do not have the correct background of lesson technique as well as classroom management skills.

It is also mentioned that the inability to use English as medium of instruction competently, hinders efficiency as well as confidence.

Moreover, inexperienced teachers claim that the minimal amount of time allotted to practice teaching during teacher education rendered them ill-equipped to confidently

teach so that pupils are able to understand, discover, interpret and question.

In short they are ill-equipped to teach creatively.

f)   Are teachers able to employ strategies which contribute to an integrated approach to learning

Working from the premise that teacher education programmes should promote human resource development so that learners will be equipped with the necessary skills for the workplace, the following question was asked. Table 4.19 illustrates the result.

Table 4.19   Teachers are able to employ strategies which contribute to an integrated approach to learning

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	107	89,2
B: No	13	10,8
TOTAL	120	100

The above result suggests that teachers employ strategies which contribute to an integrated approach to learning. This suggests that teachers are aware of the needs of the country within the context of the Reconstruction and Development Programme and are able to see links between different subjects and the skills they want to teach. Walker (1991:205) gives an example, "History teachers might want to teach the skill of evaluating evidence. They then find that the science teachers are already teaching similar skills of looking at evidence and drawing conclusions". Thus, this particular skill, through integration can be improved upon.

To determine whether the teaching situation allowed for team teaching or paired teaching which is characteristic of an integrated approach, the following question was posed. Teachers were also asked to give reasons for their answers. Table 4.20 illustrates the result.

Table 4.20 **Your teaching situation allows you to employ strategies, such as team teaching or paired teaching?**

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	98	81,6
B: No	22	18,4
TOTAL	120	100

A large number of teachers (81,6%) claim that their teaching situation allows for team teaching, although they do complain about stringency which inhibits their teaching ability in question 4.16. Only (18,4%) teachers say that their situation does not allow for team teaching.

Although a large number of respondents say that they are able to use this strategy and their teaching situation allows it, their responses gives one the impression that some are not quite sure of what the concept meant. Responses such as the following are listed.

- pupils become more knowledgeable.

- pupils are disciplined.

- lesson presentation is interesting

- pupils engage in discussion while the teacher eradicates

misconceptions.

-       subject matter is consolidated.

On the other hand, some of the (18,4%) respondents who claim that their teaching situation does not allow them to employ team teaching argue that the present structure of the school time-table does not allow for an integrated approach where pairs of teachers are able to attempt cross-curricular work.   Subjects are still compartmentalised and requires a special type of competence as the work has to be co-ordinated into one large theme. Piek (1991:138) also remarks on the co-ordination and special competence of the teachers involved.

g)   The necessity for teachers to confer regularly with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom

Table 4.21 reflects how teachers feel about conferring regularly with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom.

Table 4.21   Is it necessary to confer with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom?

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	119	99,2
B: No	1	0,8
TOTAL	120	100

Most of the teachers (99,2%) believe that it is necessary for them to confer regularly with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom. Only (0,8%) teachers felt that this was not necessary.

In discussions teachers were frank in saying that most times they were not sure if they were doing the right thing. Sometimes lack of confidence deterred them from venturing outside the parameters of the syllabi even if it was obvious that what they were doing would benefit the pupil as pupils would be able to apply the acquired knowledge and skills in their life-world.

Teachers also remarked on the fact that these conferences or meetings ensured uniformity and enabled teachers to maintain standards. They too think that such meetings enable them to gain insight into what really is expected of them as teachers. Valuable expertise can be learnt from the older and more experienced teacher and the younger ones are able to share their knowledge on the latest technological teaching aids as well as new methods which they learnt at college.

Teachers regard these conferences a necessity too, as they believe that it provides them with opportunities whereby they are able to close ranks with their fellow colleagues. They are able to discuss their common problems and shortcomings and together they find solutions to problems. This helps the teacher to improve on his mistakes and ensures the development of his professional growth.

Some teachers however also comment that although these conferences or meetings are held it is often done in a very dictatorial authoritative manner. The subject head or head of department usually delegates and unilateraly decides on when exam question papers and memorandums have to be handed in.

They feel that these conferences are absolutely necessary, but would prefer spontaneous, informal meetings whereby they are able to feel free to voice their opinions and discuss their problems without the fear of victimization.

When asked what key aspects they would like to discuss at these meetings, the following was mentioned.

-       Lesson planning and preparation

-       Schemes of work and interpretation of the syllabi

-       The use of resources, e.g. library facilities, resource
        persons, films, etc.

-       Continuous evaluation, setting of questions and memorandums.

-       Themes and assignments - due dates.

In the light of the above discussion, it becomes apparent that teachers feel the need for collaboration and interdependency amongst themselves. The aspects which they comment upon, is an indication of their lack of confidence in their competency, due to the inadequacy of the present teacher-education programme. The authoritarian teaching culture which still prevails may also be attributed to the teaching styles of the teacher educators.

Teachers were then asked to suggest how often these conferences should be held as Table 4.22 reflects.

**h)   Table 4.22   How often should teachers hold these
                         conferences**

	TEACHERS RESPONSE	%
A. After each theme is completed	10	8,3
B. Every other day	1	0,8
C. Once a week	69	57,5
D. When problems arise	40	33,4
TOTAL	120	100

Although one respondent in Table 4.21 feels that it is not necessary to confer regularly with fellow colleagues, Table 4.22 reflects otherwise. Although teachers do not agree on the number of times they should meet, they all agree that these meetings should take place some or other time.

Eight point three percent (8,3%) teachers think that conferences should be held after each theme is completed while only (0,8%) feel that teachers should meet every other day. Fifty seven point five percent (57,5%) teachers believe that once a week is sufficient while (33,4%) recommend that teachers should only meet when problems arise.

The teachers who suggest once a week say that it is not only an ideal situation but also a practical one. It provides the teachers with an opportunity to discuss the presentation of lessons during the week, with reference to difficulties encountered with resources, teaching aids, strategies and techniques when teaching abstract concepts and general difficulties in the classroom. One teacher remarked, "I am able to remedy my errors and overcome my shortcomings when I teach the very next lesson in that

particular subject".

It is also felt that because meetings are held regularly, they are much shorter and concise which is more advantageous than long drawn out meetings which are held when teachers are tired anyway and moreover rushed for time as some extra-mural activity has to be attended to.

Teachers were then confronted with the question whether there was time for these conferences.

i)   **Table 4.23**   **Is there often time for these conferences?**

	TEACHERS RESPONSE	%
A: Yes	40	33,4
B: No	80	66,6
TOTAL	120	100

Although suggesting that meetings or conferences should be held once a week, a large percentage (66,6%) of teachers claim that there is often no time for these conferences. They blame it on the organization of the school time-table. It is suggested that one fixed period structured into the time-table should be set aside for a weekly meeting in a particular subject.

The problem with this arrangement is the fact that some teachers teach all the subjects in their classrooms, which implies that they will have to attend five meetings or more per week and in addition rush off to attend to extra-mural activities which takes the form of coaching, umpiring or attending further meetings, leaving little time for actual

research reading and preparation of lessons which would facilitate their lesson presentation.

The norm at most of the surrounding schools is that schools dismiss at twelve thirty on Fridays to accommodate pupils and teachers who attend mosques. The shortening of the school day further adds to the limited time available for these conferences.

The teachers (33,4%) who claim that there is time for these conferences are mainly those who recommend that these conferences should be held when problems arise.

The dilemma however is, teachers comment on the fact that they continuously experience problems in their classrooms. Be it problematic pupils, problems with teaching aids, limited subject knowledge on specific aspects, problems with colleagues, limited textbooks or large uncontrollable classes, problems they do have.

j)   Do teachers attend orientation courses in their teaching subjects regularly?

Teachers generally believe that the attendance of orientation courses in the subjects they teach will enable them to stay abreast of new developments in their subjects, as well as improve their performance in their classrooms. This sentiment is echoed by Joyce (1981:117) , Dillon-Peterson (1981:3) and Bradley (1987:192).

Thus, a question to determine whether they do attend subject orientation courses regularly was designed. Table 4.24 shows the result.

Table 4.24   Do you attend orientation courses in your teaching subjects regularly?

	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	75	62,5
B: No	45	37,5
TOTAL	120	100

A large number of teachers (62,5%) claimed that they indeed attend orientation courses regularly. During discussion and conversation it came to light that they regarded these courses vital as they say that it helped them develop new ideas, overcome difficulties and made them feel more competent in their classrooms. One respondent remarked, "I am now motivated to try new techniques as I was given the opportunity to see them being practically demonstrated, and I saw the merits".

Another commented that he saw it as enhancing his professional growth.

Teachers also mention that they feel more confident in interpreting the curriculum and moreover they are able to develop more effective teaching strategies which in turn creates a favourable learning atmosphere.

Teachers however find it difficult in sharing these ideas with colleagues who have not attended the course. They say that on their return to schools, it is expected of them to report to fellow colleagues in a report back session or a meeting.

They claim that they report most enthusiastically about the new idea, technique or activity, but their enthusiasm is dampened by the reluctance of some teachers to listen to them or the cynicism displayed by others. Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:64) also refer to these problems and further declare that although these innovations are accepted, there could be an unwillingness on the part of teachers to reorganize so that these changes can be accommodated.

A further problem highlighted by teachers was that they needed follow up courses. They maintain that they attend one course, learn a specific technique or skill, return to school, tries it in the classroom, experiences problems and has no one to turn to, to help them overcome these problems.

Teachers too blame in-service tutors and facilitators employed by the departments of education as being out of touch with reality. They claim that the planning and preparation done by these facilitators are of poor quality. One teacher remarked, "Every third word the facilitator wrote on the board she spelt incorrectly and she was trying to explain to us how to use a specific technique for English spelling." Teachers also say that themes used are old fashioned and boring, but moreover these "facilitators forget that most of our children do not live in fancy houses and their parents do not drive fancy cars".

Interesting though, the respondents held courses initiated by non-governmental organizations in high esteem. It is claimed that the methods used were interesting and inspiring.

Teachers are impressed and comment that courses run by the non-governmental organizations taught them how to initiate debates, speeches, groupwork, buzz sessions, storytelling, simulation, dramatization, production of newsletters, pamphlets, research work etc.

The (37,5%) teachers who say that they do not attend orientation courses were asked to say how it affected their teaching ability.

The responses were varied. Some teachers blame their non attendance on the fact that only heads of departments attend, who very often do not make an effort to report back. They say they felt cheated as they do not have first hand information on new ideas and innovations which should be used. "I am continuously in the dark," was one

response.

Another respondent complained that they are expected to use problem posing teaching in Mathematics at a particular school, yet no guidance knowledge or skills have been exposed to them so that they are able to apply this "new method".

Teachers say that without these courses they stagnate, they are unable to extend their knowledge, advance their careers, change outdated methodology, and upgrade their teaching and management skills, to be efficient teachers. It is deduced from the above that although there are problems related to these orientation courses, teachers regard in-service education and training as vital for efficiency as well as development and growth.

k) Are teaching and learning aids adequate in schools?

This question was directed to students as well as teachers to determine whether teaching and learning aids were adequate in schools and the respondents were engaged in discussion to determine how they try to overcome this inadequacy.

Table 4.25   Teaching and learning aids in your school is adequate

	STUDENTS	%	TEACHERS	%
A: Yes	-	-	-	-
B: No	60	100	120	100
TOTAL	60	100	120	100

Students (100%) and teachers (100%) unequivocally maintain that teaching and learning aids in schools are inadequate.

As it is assumed that the lack of teaching and learning aids affect the quality of lesson presentation enormously students and teachers were asked how they try to overcome these problems.

Some respondents (15%) claim that they borrow media from the two surrounding teacher training colleges, but that it causes much inconvenience as media such as scientific apparatus can only be borrowed for a very short period of time.

The DET Syllabus (1990:3) for Teaching Practice, prescribes that students are introduced to equipment and material so that they can master skills and techniques which will enable them to make educational media. However, many respondents claim that the 28 periods allotted for three years of training to this specific aspect of their teaching training, they regarded as inadequate. Teachers therefore claim that they are not sufficiently skilled in techniques to be able to make their own media. Teachers therefore borrow from other colleagues or just do without.

The insufficiency of text books also hinders effective teaching. Teachers complain that it is difficult to give mastering activities, such as homework exercises, but they say that they try to overcome the problem by providing pupils with activity sheets and worksheets, which they design on paper which is just such an expensive and scarce commodity.

Teachers claim that overhead projectors, transparencies, the radio, sound projector, video and television, etc are teaching and learning aids which are most times totally out of the question. They say that the chalkboard remains the basic medium because of its availability in almost all classes.

4.3 Problems encountered by teachers during their teaching experience (Teacher questionnaire (Section B 2.1

Teachers list a number of problems. Some teachers (65,8%) complain about the

attitudes of principals, heads of departments and departmental officials. Teachers claim that these authorities frustrate them as most of the decisions is still done in a very authoritarian manner.

Seventy percent (70%) of the teachers have difficulty with the organization of participatory activities. They claim that much time is lost during the school year due to interruptions of some sort or the other, therefore they resort to the teacher-centred approach.

Ninety percent of the teachers claim that their classes are far too large. They make mention of the fact that many of the pupils come from underprivileged homes which renders them deprived in more ways than one. This situation poses greater challenges and they find it difficult to provide for the needs and interests of all the pupils in their classes. The lack of resources in the schools adds to their problems and renders their teaching ineffective.

Thirion (1989:386) confirms these claims. He asserts that teachers and students from developing communities experience unique and specific problems which originate from their socio-economic life world. As the life-world penetrates the teaching-learning situation, it places enormous pressure and demands upon the teachers to make their lessons successful. Although it is agreed that teachers cannot control factors from the life-world of the pupils, they have to consider them in the teaching learning situation, which will thereby contribute to the unloading of the field of tension, hereby counteracting the negative perceptions of pupils.

A large percentage (52,3%) complain about their inability to express themselves in good English. Teachers say that the lack of competence in English makes them resort to merely transmitting knowledge. Hawes (1979:26) also makes mention of this difficulty and refers to this kind of teaching as "survival teaching".

Teachers (33%) mention the lack of continued support and guidance from subject advisers in matters such as continuous evaluation and assessment, explanation of changes to parents and the community, the implementation of new plans, methods and materials etc.

A large percentage of teachers (68,3%) alledge that they find it difficult to motivate pupils and instil a culture of learning as the schools which they find themselves in are in a poor condition. The condition of the school building, insufficient furniture and working facilities, no laboratories and very few libraries deter them from establishing a successful and encouraging climate of learning. Mary Metcalf confirms these allegations in the Sunday Times July 7 (1996:22) when she refers to findings of an investigation conducted by the University of the Witwatersrand Policy Unit in 1995.

4.4 Comments and suggestions on teacher education or the teacher's teaching experience

4.4.1 Suggestions and comments made on teacher education

Teachers and students made varied comments and suggestions on teacher education.

a) The meaningfulness of the contents of the subject Education in the classroom

Teachers (79,1%) say that the subject Education should be taught in such a manner that they are able to use the different theories principles and methods effectively when preparing lessons. They say that this will ensure them the necessary confidence when dealing with their own classes for the very first time. One teacher responded by saying, "I will be absolutely sure which subject matter to select and how much I should teach when preparing for my standard five class." It is assumed that the respondent is referring to selecting subject matter according to the pupils intellectual stage of

development as referred to by the theories of Piaget.

b) Teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum

There is a general feeling amongst teachers (85,8%) that teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum. They suggest that subject didactics should receive more prominence at colleges of education and comment that more time should be allotted to class teaching as well as practice teaching. Teachers comment on the fact that they feel absolutely insecure and as one teacher remarks "green" when entering the field of teaching.

Teachers say that the academic subjects which they spend much time swotting up, does not benefit them in any way as they are expected to be equipped with skills methods and techniques to teach efficiently.

Teachers (55,8%) mention that teacher education should especially give attention to the practical implementation of classroom management, teacher competency through the observation of more demonstration lessons on various subjects by lecturers during class teaching and more time for practising skills such as questioning etc.

Twenty five percent of teachers also suggest that curriculum development should be included in teacher education as well as techniques and procedures to equip teachers with the knowledge of how to initiate social awareness programmes.

c) Teacher education does not provide opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills

A large percentage (61,6%) of teachers suggest that subject didactics as well as Institute Practicum and School Practicum should be given more prominence in the

teacher education curriculum. They comment on their inability and lack of confidence to work with a overhead projector. One respondent mentions that "if I do use the overhead projector, it is usually the simple way, reading from the transparency".

Fifty five percent (55%) teachers say that they need to see group methods such as the forum, brain storming, simulation and buzz groups, etc, being demonstrated before they will have the courage to attempt these methods in their own overcrowded classrooms. They comment that these alternate methods were discussed at college but due to insufficient time no practical demonstrations could take place.

Teachers (55%) also claim that they were not able to manage registers, recordbooks, time-tables when they started teaching. It is suggested that students be given practical assignments when going out practice teaching. Student teachers should be allowed to mark the register and tally it for that particular period of practice teaching. Teachers believe that this practical involvement enables students to get to grips with the real world of teaching.

Teachers (60%) suggest full leadership courses as well as complete involvement of student teachers in the organizational procedure at schools, during practice teaching.

d) The presentation of model lessons by lecturers which student teachers are able to learn from

The majority of students (73,4%) and teachers (50,8%) claim that lecturers do not present model lessons which they are able to learn from. Respondents suggest if this is done, they will be able to employ these methods and strategies during practice teaching and when teaching in their own classroom. "Group discussions and the problem posing approach will become second nature to one" remarked a student teacher.

e) The necessity of In-service Education and Training

Teachers strongly feel that INSET is a necessity in schools. More than (79,1%) of teachers suggest that INSET should occur on a regular basis with sustained follow up. Some teachers (20,8%) suggest that college staff should play an active role in providing INSET to teachers in the schools. Teachers (8,3%) also suggest that INSET become part of a teachers conditions of service required of teachers occupying departmental posts.

4.4.2   Comments and suggestions by teachers on difficulties they encounter in schools

a) Non-involvement in the compilation and interpretation of the curriculum

Many teachers (43,3%) comment on the fact that they are not consulted on the compilation and interpretation of the curricular. They say that interim syllabi were scrutinized by heads of department and principals. Teachers suggest that they be part of the process of curriculum development as this will enable them to truly select subject content according to the needs of the pupils they teach.

b) Stringent teaching conditions in schools

A large majority of teachers (81,6%) comment on the nature of the present society. They mention that although South Africa is deemed to be democratic, principals still persist in autocratic ways of doing things. Teachers comment on not being consulted in many aspects of the school programme as well as being inhibited to teach alternatively as books are checked to see if they are "filled".

Teachers also suggest that the present time-tables of schools have to be examined as it leaves little room for integrated teaching which allows for cross-curricula work.

Other teachers (29,2%) comment on examinations which relies heavily on a quantative method of assessment, i.e. adopting one mark per fact. They say students approach learning in a rigid way. Swartz (1991:144) also makes mention of this fact.

Teachers (48,3%) also suggest regular meetings with heads of departments and fellow colleagues as well as pupils to encourage a relationship of trust and camaraderie. It is felt that this will not only lead to the sharing of ideas, but teachers will be' given the opportunity to partake in participatory activities which will in turn enable them to use the same procedures in their own classrooms. Walker (1991:219) suggests a similar procedure.

4.4.3 Student Teacher comments and suggestions on teacher education

a) Help and support from subject lecturers when preparing lessons for practice teaching

Eighty percent (80%) of students comment on the fact that they receive very little help and support from lecturers when preparing lessons for practice teaching. They suggest that a group of students be assigned to a particular lecturer. This lecturer should be competent enough to guide pupils in the .correct lesson procedure and technique of most of the lessons which the student has to prepare.

One student suggested that a resource file had to be built up with "skeleton" lessons for each subject. Students could then build around the basic aspects of these lessons.

b) Empowerment in compiling, interpreting and evaluating a curriculum

Students (73,4%) suggested that curriculum development should make up an integral part of teacher education courses. Students comment on the fact that at the end of the third year, some of them still do not know the difference between a syllabus and

a curriculum.

c) Guidance to teach in multi-cultural classrooms

Thirty six point six percent (36,6%) students comment on not being equipped to teach in multi-cultural classrooms. They suggest that clear guidance be given and that issues of racism should be discussed and debated to find strategies and approaches which students can use to overcome problems in their classes.

d) Teacher Education should place more emphasis on the practical side of the curriculum

Eighty six point six percent (86,6%) students feel that more time should be devoted to Institute Practicum as well as School Practicum. They too suggest that subject didactics should make up the greater portion of the exam mark, thus more emphasis will be put on skilling teachers.

4.5 Comments and Suggestions made by lecturers during interviews

4.5.1 Is sufficient emphasis placed on the practical side of the curriculum. If no, please elaborate

All (100%) of the lecturers interviewed believe that the present curriculum places insufficient emphasis on the practical side of the curriculum. They stress that the present curriculum is loaded with theory as the syllabi of the academic subjects is a repetition of secondary school work. Sïeborger and Kenyon (1992:149) also refer to this problem as noted in Chapter 2.

4.5.2 To what extent do you see the subject Education playing an overarching or overbridging role in the curriculum?

All the lecturers (100%) claim that the subject Education, plays a crucial role as the philosophies, theories and methodologies which are learnt in Education should be used in lessons if effective learning and teaching is to take place. Lecturers say that because of this reason Education lecturers should guard against the approach being too theoretical. They should practically demonstrate these theories in their lectures. Specific mention was made of the theories of Paulo Freire, which is indicative of the problem solving approach. Lecturers too believe that there should be close interaction and collaboration between lecturers of the Education Department and the lecturers of the academic subjects to ensure that there is a practical implementation of theories and principles of Education in the subject didactic lectures.

4.5.3   Is it necessary for lecturers to present their normal day to day lectures in the form of model lessons which students can learn from? Please elaborate on your answers

All interviewees deemed it necessary for lecturers to present their normal day to day lectures in the form of model lessons. They say that it is difficult at times because most of their training was also dominated by transmission teaching. It is however felt that students benefit to a large extent as they see the lesson phases being implemented practically. Students also come to grips with the theories and principles of education much easier as they actually see the implementation of strategies and techniques. Lectures believe that if this kind of lesson presentation takes place, students will internalize this kind of behaviour. Lesson presentation will become more spontaneous and much more pleasant for the student as well as for the pupils they are teaching.

4.5.4   Do you think that practice teaching is allotted sufficient time during the duration of the courses offered at Colleges of Education?

All lecturers felt that the 10 weeks of practice teaching which is prescribed per course

presently is hopelessly insufficient. They claim that students are not able to get to grips with the real world of teaching in such a short time and therefore lack confidence when they start teaching.

4.5.5 The amount of time which should be spent on practice teaching per course

Recommendations were varied. Twenty five percent (25%) of the lecturers recommend a duration of at least one school term. Some lecturers (41,6%) suggest (10-12) weeks per year and (16,7%) lecturers recommend an internship of at least one year. They claim that this will enable aspirant teachers to sort out their difficulties and in turn help them approach their careers with the necessary confidence. The remaining (16,7%) lecturers say that the course should take the form of students attending college for one term and going practice teaching the following term. They will thus alternate between the college and the school. On the students return to college, the didactical aspect of teacher education should be re-inforced.

4.5.6 Do lecturers find the opportunity for action research? (e.g. deliberation and debate)

Fifty percent (50%)lecturers claim that they do not find opportunity for deliberation and debate in their lecture-rooms, although they deem it necessary and vital as it encourages participation and stimulates critical thinking. They blame the loaded syllabi and the fact that there are too many interruptions such as boycotts and mass-meetings. The remaining six lecturers say that they find opportunity for continuous deliberation and debate as most of their lectures are of such a nature that it automatically induces discussion and debate.

4.5.7 What role should In-service Education and Training play in the whole teacher education spectrum?

All lecturers are of the opinion that there should be a clear interaction between pre-service and in-service education and training. It is felt that INSET should not only upgrade teacher qualifications but play a major role in improving classroom proficiency and empowering teachers with the necessary democratic co-operative management styles. INSET should also be a continuous process which facilitates the professional development of the teacher throughout his career.

4.5.8 Does the present curriculum provide sufficient time for the effective teaching of classroom management and school administration? Please elaborate

All lecturers claim that insufficient time is allotted to this aspect of teacher education. They comment that managerial tasks such as planning, organization, control and leadership are key aspects which is essential for the aspirant teacher, but most times students get to know the nature of these aspects only through theory and very little practice.

4.5.9 Are you familiar with the curricula changes made in the norms and standards document as suggested by COTEP?

Seventy five percent (75%) lecturers claim that they are familiar with curricular changes. Twenty five percent (25%) lecturers say that they are not familiar with the curricular changes and would value some sort of workshop.

Twenty five percent (25%) of the lecturers who claim that they are familiar with COTEP say that although institutions have the freedom to create their own curriculum in terms of the agreed upon aims and competences, much of the adopted programme still resembles the old. Institutions however, have the autonomy to pursue their vision of education as creatively as possible, as only the essential aspects of the curriculum are

prescribed.

4.5.10   <u>What improvements regarding teacher education in general would you suggest?</u>

Lecturers comment on a variety of aspects listed below.

- Radical shifts with regard to how teacher education institutions function. There should be greater collaboration between management staff, students and the community at large, which will make individuals responsible and also accountable e.g. decisions on curriculum planning and development.

- The practice teaching aspect of teacher education should be schoolbased, thus students should spend far longer periods teaching in classrooms, becoming accustomed to the school and pupils.

- Teachers should return to teacher education institutions regularly for periods of approximately three months after a number of years.

- The selection and admission criteria for students should be re-examined.

- With the view to improve or change existing teaching practice, teachers and students should be tutored in becoming reflective practioners so that they are able to find help and accept criticism open mindedly.

- Curriculum development and design should be included in courses.

- Some form of internship is suggested after students have qualified for their teacher's diploma.

- Bridging classes in English for aspirant teachers should be seriously considered.

- Unloading the academic side of the curriculum, so that time can be found whereby students are skilled with innovative and creative approaches to teaching and learning. Greater emphasis on subject didactics.

4.5.11   What role will Colleges of Education have to play in the future?

Lecturers contend that if Colleges of Education wish to be successful in South Africa, they will have to transform in order to meet the needs and requirements for reconstruction and development. This implies that a democratic and productive system of education and training will have to be induced to produce the necessary skills for the country.

4.6 Shortcomings elucidated in Questionnaires

Although teacher education courses were revised and implemented after 1979 by the respective Departments of Education as referred to in Chapter 3, the questionnaires used in the research reflect that there are still serious shortcomings in teacher education. Respondents mention the following:

-       The subject Education is not taught in such a manner that
        its contents can be used meaningfully. Instead of e.g. Method
        or Didactics being taught so that students are able to integrate
        the content and the skill, it is taught separately and becomes
        merely "tips for teachers" (Siebörger and Kenyon 1992:151).

-       Teacher education places too much emphasis on the
        academic side of the curriculum, whereas according to COTEP
        (1996:35) teaching practice should being theory and practice

into close juxtaposition, one should inform the other, so
that both are enhanced.

- The present teacher education curriculi does not differ[']
from the curriculi prior to 1979. Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:149)
confirm that the present curriculi are still loaded with theory.
Due to this shortcoming, practice teaching is seriously
hampered due to limited time. The DET teaching practice
syllabus (1985 and 1990) and the House of Representative
(1982) syllabus recommends a mere 10 weeks of School
Practicum for a 3 year course and four 40 minute periods
of Institute Practicum. In chapter 4, (Table 4.4) (80%) of
students and (62%) of teachers claim that pre-service teacher
education did not provide them with opportunities to establish
a satisfactory classroom climate.

- Efficiency of teachers is also seriously hampered due to
the theoretical nature of courses offered in management training
and administration. Refer to Chapter 4 (Table 4.5).

- Very little provision is made for teacher empowerment
through action research. This shortcoming seriously inhibits
teacher-led initiatives as shown in the discussion of
(Table 4.6).

- Teacher Incompetence. Teachers are unable to employ
methods and strategies such as Education with production
(Table 4.7), methods with social learning goals such as
group discussions (Table 4.9), individualisation meeting the
needs of pupils (Table 4.10) etc.

- Lecturer incompetency. Table 4.8 reflects that teachers and students teachers view lecturers incompetency problematic. This is confirmed by Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163).

- Non-involvement in curricula development is another major drawback. The curricula of colleges of education makes no provision for this important aspect which is vital for teachers becoming aware of changes which is taking place in society so that learning content can be relevant (Table 4.15).

- INSET for upgrading academic and professional qualifications. Although courses are provided, many teachers do not benefit. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:193) suggest that INSET should become part of the normal conditions of service.

- Inability to teach in multi-cultural classrooms. COTEP (1996:26) also highlights this shortcomings and proposes the inclusion of this aspect in teacher education programmes.

In short, from the above discussion it is quite clear that the major shortcomings impact on teachers in the following way:

- classroom incompetence
- Inefficiency to manage and administer in classrooms
- Inability to change
- Non-empowerment
- Not much professional development.

These shortcomings inhibit the teacher in many ways. The discussions on difficulties which teacher encounter in (4.2.3.2) is an indication that effective teaching is not possible.

4.7 <u>Conclusion</u>

The majority of responses articulate the serious shortcomings in the present teacher education system. The participants express their concern about their inadequacies due .to the present teacher education curriculum, which render them inefficient and incompetent in their classrooms. There is also a general feeling of dissatisfaction with the prevailing stringent, authoritarian teaching culture in schools. Respondents complain profusely about the inhibitive nature of schools and state that it's very nature stunts the creativity and innovation of teachers.

4.8 <u>Problem Formulation</u>

The analysis of the questionnaires reveal that student teachers, teachers and lecturers who were disfranchised are of the opinion that there are still many shortcomings in the present teacher education programme, although efforts were made to make provision for their development and transformation. In the following chapter, suggestions and ideas will be given to try and improve the quality of teacher education in the future.

CHAPTER 5

5. SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A REVISED TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME WHICH WILL FACILITATE THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION OF DISFRANCHISED TEACHERS

5.1 Introduction

The problems regarding teacher education programmes for teachers who were disfranchised is formulated in 1.3 and elucidated in 4.6. The research is based on the major shortcomings in the current teacher education programmes and the difficulties which teachers encounter due to these shortcomings. Students, teachers and lecturers from the Departments of Education which were disfranchised, expressed their views on current teacher education programmes.

The opinions expressed by the participants and the suggestions offered are worthy of further investigation. Chapter 5 will deal with these suggestions and recommendations based on the results of these views and opinions. The suggestions and recommendations could be included in a revised teacher education programme, which will facilitate the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised.

5.2 Recommendations based on key questions in the questionnaires

Due to the fact that the theoretical aspect of the current teacher education programme dominates the practical aspect, most of the disfranchised teaching corpse find themselves rendered incompetent and efficient. It is therefore crucial to find a way of enhancing the teachers competency and efficiency in a teacher education programme which will facilitate development and transformation.

5.2.1 Shortcomings in the present teacher education programme

(a)   The meaningfulness of the contents of the Subject Education

Education is deemed to be the overarching or bridging subject in the teacher education curriculum, yet a large percentage of students (66%) and (40,8%) teachers say that Education is taught in such a manner that its contents cannot be used meaningfully in the classroom.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:150) echo this sentiment. They maintain that although the curricula of Education in both colleges and faculties of education have concerned the foundation disciplines of education, notably educational psychology, the methods and skills of teaching and an induction into activities associated with schooling, the approach adopted towards the disciplines is found not to be favourable. They say that it often depended on fashion and is often led by psychology, philosophy, sociology or more recently curriculum theory. They go on further and mention that in some cases, the integrated approach held sway as the disciplines of Education were not presented separately.

Moreover, methodology has not been fitted comfortably into the curriculum. Sieörger and Kenyon say that it is neither direct classroom experience, nor a subject to be studied, but ought to be more than simply "tips for teachers". Methods or didactics has been a component of each curriculum subject studied. It has been examined separately and often in the most inconsequential manner, e.g. "give five points which a teacher should remember when planning a lesson."

Sieörger and Kenyon (1992:151) however, concede that there is a reversal of this phenomenon in some institutions. It is claimed that the false dichotomy between method and content is being acknowledged and students are required to work with new content knowledge and the challenge of teaching it at the same time. They believe that there is potential for the development of a new and alternative emphasis within the teacher education curriculum which can challenge to gap between theory

and practice.

Abrahams (1990:1) suggests that Education should be taught so that students and teachers are inculcated with a living awareness of the theories of learning. He says that this awareness should be acquired at College, which would enable the student or teacher to constantly monitor pupils reactions to questions, to information presented and to answers given. He believes that this awareness, which is indicative of an alert perceptiveness of the dynamics of both the teaching and learning situation will then be acquired.

On the comments of students not being able to use the theories of Paulo Freire, he suggests a simple approach. After being exposed to the theories student teachers should be guided so that these theories are applied. Lessons will then be alive, intensely meaningful and purposeful.

Abrahams (1990:4) continues and further explains this "living awareness". He refers to the theories of Piaget, which remain theories because they are taught in isolation. Students teach lessons such as the adverb or adjective to a standard two class in the same way as they would to a standard five class. He stresses that students should be made aware of the intellectual, experiential and affective growth differences that occur in children not only in educational psychology but also during Institute and Field Practicum so that they can adapt lesson content and lesson presentation accordingly.

In effect Abrahams (1991:4) maintains that every lecturer should have knowledge of the basic didactic principles of education, such as planning, purposefulness, pupil self-activity, planning in context, experience, motivation, socialisation, individualisation, evaluation and mastering. Because of the very nature of Colleges of Education, all lecturers should have this "living awareness", as it is not possible for members of the Education Department at colleges to be in charge of all groups of students in weekly criticism lessons. The fact of the matter is, all lecturers evaluate students' lessons

during practice teaching across the curriculum.

(b) Teacher Education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum

The majority of students (83,4%) and teachers (85,8%) claim that teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum. They comment on the fact that although they are acquainted with the practical side of teacher education, very little time is spent on vital aspects such as the practical necessities needed for effective teaching.

When lecturers were asked the same question during interviews as mentioned in (Chapter 4.5.1) (100%) unequivocally stated that the present curriculum places insufficient emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum.

As mentioned in (Chapter 2.1.3) Siebörger and Kenyon claim that the academic part of the college curriculum had long been confused with the high school curriculum. As it was not necessary for prospective students to complete the secondary school in the past, the college education had to compensate for this. The influence of this view is still apparent in the academic syllabi of colleges of education today.

The question arises, how can this shortcoming be overcome. As mentioned in the discussion of (Table 4.2) Zvologo (1986:84) and Sibanda (1983:271) give an account of how Zimbabwe addressed the problem of unqualified teachers, after independence. The scheme known as Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (Zintec) was an attempt of school based and institution based approaches to teacher education. Students spent 16 weeks of training attending a residential course in a teacher training institution. The remaining four years was spent at a school under the guidance of qualified teachers where they were visited by a team of mobile tutors.

Johnson (1991:96) suggests the development of partnerships in order to make provision for rapid skilling. He makes mention of a partnership system in Britain which is cited by Hargreaves (1989). This partnership places the responsibility of teacher training institutions with schools. Parallels are drawn between a school specialising in teacher training and a teaching hospital which produces doctors. The advantages of the system centres around the continuous exposure to the practice of teaching as the student teacher is constantly in the classroom.

Another interesting option cited by Johnson (1991:196) approach "is the teaching outpost" in New Zealand. He states that a number of these outposts have been established where students are trained in what to expect in school. This model stresses practice rather than theory and research. It is however mentioned that in the short term this may not be a viable option in the South African situation as there is only a minority of schools which is particularly well resourced.

From this research it is gathered that there is an imbalance between practice and theory, but it is optimistic to note that COTEP (1996:93) proposes the extension of the practice teaching period to fifteen weeks for the junior primary and senior primary courses. For the four-year Higher Diploma in Education, junior and senior primary, at least 20 weeks of teaching practice is recommended.

COTEP (1996:35) also gives serious consideration to theory and practice. It states that when teacher education programmes are appraised the following aspects will be considered:

i)   How does the programme deal with the theoretical
        aspects of teaching and education generally, and with
        the complex relationship between theory and practice?

ii)   As teaching practice brings theory and practice into
        close juxtaposition, one informs the other and both are

enhanced. How does the experience in schools set a
context for theoretical studies?

(iii)   Is provision made at the teacher training institutions for the
bringing together of theory and practice, through micro-
teaching and mini lessons?

The idea of the theoretical aspect of teacher education and the practical aspect being
balanced is supported, as prospective teachers will most certainly be granted the
opportunity to practice the necessary skills required for competency.

(c)   Teacher Education provision for opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently

The survey (Table 4.3) shows that (50%) of teachers and a large majority of students
(81,6%) maintain that teacher education does not provide sufficient time to practice the
necessary teaching skills sufficiently. The acquisition of teaching skills is regarded as
a crucial aspect of teacher education, yet this research finds that teacher education
does not do justice to this important aspect. The findings of (Table 4.3) verifies claims
made in (Table 4.2).

From the discussion in (Table 4.2) and the above discussion (Table 4.3) it becomes
apparent that alternative programmes of teacher education has to be found which will
improve the professional quality of new teachers as well as those already qualified.

In addition to the models of teacher education which is suggested in the discussion of
(Table 4.2), Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:195) also recommend that schools should make
provision for support staff. This support staff should be teacher-tutors with reduced
teaching loads whose task it is to supervise trainee teachers and play a role in school-
focused INSET activities. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:196) go on further and mention the

present climate of massive retrenchments of lecturers and teachers. They suggest that these qualified educators should be encouraged to contribute their names to a national register of educators. In this way a pool of expertise could be identified which could be tapped for INSET programmes at all levels, and in this way teachers who need rapid skilling can be accommodated.

(d) **Pre-service teacher education does not equip teachers with skills to establish a satisfactory classroom climate by providing co-operative, well directed and purposeful activities**

An overwhelming majority of students (80%) and (52%) teachers (vide Table 4.4) emphatically state that they are not provided with skills to establish a satisfactory classroom climate. They say that they are not able to do so, as subject content of the various subjects are far too loaded, resulting in important aspects vital for effective teaching being neglected and the tuition of subject didactics being too theoretical.

This implies that students suggest that subject content being reduced, thus more time being allotted to practice teaching as well as lecturers changing their methods of teaching from a teacher centred approach to a student centred approach.

Thirion and Fourie (1993:203) say that co-operative teaching activities are necessary as:

> "leerlinge meer aktief in die onderrigleersituasie sal wees
> en so groter insig en leerstof sal kry, dat hulle bewus sal
> word van die positiewe gevolge van samewerking, en dat
> hul behoeftes beter bevredig sal word omdat hulle 'n groter
> besluitnemingsrol ten opsigte van hulle eie onderrigleersituasie
> kan speel. Die ontwikkeling van demokratiese waardes en
> sosiale vaardighede is 'n verdere belangrike voordeel van
> hierdie onderrigleerstrategie, veral in die lig van die

"ingrypende politieke en sosiaal-maatskaplike veranderinge
wat tans in Suid Afrika plaasvind."

Thirion and Fourie (1993:203) go on further and quote Van Staden (1991) who
suggests how a co-operative teaching situation can be established. The learning
situation should be structured in the following way:

-       group members should have a common goal (objective
        interdependence)

-       tasks are spread amongst group members (task
        interdependence)

-       material, resources and information should be shared amongst
        group members (resource interdependence)

-       different roles should be assigned to different pupils
        (role interdependence)

-       common rewards should be given (reward interdependence)

Thirion and Fourie (1993:204) cite Chung (1991) who mentions the different methods
which can be used for co-operative teaching, viz. team-games tournament, student
teams and achievement divisions, jigsaw learning together, group investigation, team
accelerated instruction and co-operative integrated reading and discussion.

Cawood and Gibbon (1985:205) also recommend group work as it encourages pupils
to participate or contribute. They say that through class discussions, forum
discussions, round table discussion, buzz groups etc, a two-directional communication
of varied intensity and quality occur which should give rise to the following:

-       maximum opportunity for discussion of lesson material

-       gaining insight and understanding and the promotion of critical thinking

-       achievement of maximum learner interaction and teacher -
        learner interaction

-       creation of a supportive function for the group with respect
        to each individual

-       development of verbal skills

-       promotion of leadership development

As early as 1991, the National Education coordinating committee, the NECC, also
stated their belief in a participatory approach to, teaching. As quoted from Nkomo
(1991:425) they see education as:

> "...education.... that encourages collective input and active
> participation by all, as well as stimulating critical thinking
> and analysis, equips and trains all sectors of our people to
> participate actively and creatively in the struggle to attain
> people's power in order to establish a non-racial and
> democratic South Africa."

From the above discussion, it is quite clear that the advantages of a participatory, co-
operative approach outweighs the traditional teacher-centred   or lecturer-centred
approach. Methodology in teacher educational programmes should therefore give
careful consideration to this aspect.

(e) The Management of administrative duties such as registers, record books, etc.

Many teachers (55%: Table 4.5) used in this study claim that they were unable to manage administrative duties when they started teaching. Table 4.13 reflects an even higher percentage (72,5%) of teachers who claim that they were unable to do administrative and organizational tasks in the classroom.

The fact that they blame their incompetence on the theoretical nature of the course offered at college as well as insufficient time and lack of resources is more proof of the major shortcoming in the practical aspect of teacher education.

As respondents remark that they only got to grips with the realities of classroom organization and management, once they were in the field, it is suggested that student teachers be exposed to the real situation more often. In this way they will be gaining invaluable experience, not only in teaching, but managing and organising as well.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:162) therefore point out the important role that schools ought to play. They comment on the fact that American graduate schools are finding themselves alienated from the teaching profession because they do not have close links with schools. It is believed that in South Africa, links should be strengthened between Colleges of Education, and schools, if opportunities are to be optimised whereby teacher efficiency will be upgraded and schools will be provided with teaching resources from teacher institution faculties.

(f) Pre-service practice-teaching provided opportunities for action-research (e.g. involved in deliberation, debate and decision making, becoming aware of quality practice teaching

To investigate the problem students and teachers were asked if they were involved in opportunities for action research (vide student and teacher questionnaire no 5 and 6

respectively and no 10 and 11 respectively). This research (Table 4.6: 90% of students and 54,2% of lecturers) shows that pre-service practice teaching does not provide opportunities for action research. (Table 4.11: 68,3% of students and 49,2% of teachers) show that they do not make use of reflective teaching strategies, as many of them do not know what it entails. McIlvain (1993:2) recommends action research as she believes that the notion of action research and as termed by others, reflective action, enables teachers to monitor their practice. She says action research or reflective practice, guards against the dangers of approaching teaching in a routinised fixed way. Action research enables teachers to adopt a problem solving enquiring attitude which broadens understanding and insight.

Russel and Munby (1992:164) say that,

> "the likelihood of teachers opting to learn from the
> thoughtful and critical study of their own practice
> is greater if such activity has been legitimized
> during initial training."

McIlvain (1993:4) suggests a facilitative approach during action research. She describes a model developed by Egan (1990) in modified form. This model is represented as follows:

Current Scenario   Preferred Scenario   How to get there

The first stage is to listen to the students interpretation of the lesson and his or her identification of the strengths. At this stage, the lecturer or tutor should listen with attention, probe when necessary and add points that is considered worthy of consideration. Talking things through in this way helps the student to clarify the experience and learn to see it in a more objective way. This however, can only happen in a warm supportive atmosphere in which the student does not feel

threatened in any way, but sees the lecturer or tutor as a comrade.

The second stage is where, the student is probed, "where do we go from here". "Is there anything that you would do differently next time?" "Why?" "How?" "Which areas do you think you need to work on?" It is believed that since the student him or herself identifies the key targets there is a strong feeling of commitment and ownership therefore the student is much more likely to work on the targets set than if it is imposed on them. As Elliot (1977:102) says,

> "The best way to improve practice lies not so much
> in trying to control people's behaviours as in helping
> them control their own by becoming more aware
> of what they are doing."

The next stage is where the student's thinking is challenged, as challenge and support is needed to help one develop. Questions such as the following are asked: What about...? Can you explain...? Can you think of other way to do...? It is also emphasized that teaching aspects are also related to the course work that has been studied thus the student is helped to bridge theory and practice.

In the final stage, the question arises "How do we get there", as indicated in the model. Here the tutor should offer practical help, and advice, which may involve resources, ideas, demonstration, modelling etc. It is however stressed that the targets set should be realistic in order to develop confidence and that the practicalities are carefully considered.

Although not many, there are students and teachers (Vide discussion: Table 4.6 and Table 4.11) who confirm that action research or reflective teaching provides opportunities for development and growth. Rudduck (1992:168) echoes this sentiment as methods are shared, monitored, evaluated and practised.

This leads to openness, reflection and a critical approach to teaching.

Moreover, Davidoff and Van den Berg (1990:52-53) maintain that action research helps to develop skills which opens up an understanding of the situations in which people find themselves. This critical understanding provides possibilities for creating alternatives to the passive acceptance of circumstances at school and in the broader society. In this way, teachers will be empowered, so that they are able to make real choices, even though constraints may exist.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:165) also recommend reflective teaching as they believe the challenge is to:

> "find the means and resources to transcend the mundane
> in our practice and to inject into the classrooms of tomorrow
> a spirit of hope and possibility."

Action-research is essentially seen to be democratic. The above discussion reflects aspects such as ongoing consultation, involvement, critical comment and development of skills which opens up understanding and empowerment. Teachers and their pupils therefore cannot be denied this process which facilitates growth and development.

(g) Teachers are able to link Education with Production, e.g. pupils perform experiments make technical models, weight, measure calculate

Teachers and students were asked whether they were able to link Education with production. A high percentage of teachers (60,8%) claim that they are able to do so, while the majority of students (68,4%) say that they are not able to link Education with Production. The general feeling amongst those who do not link Education with Production, claim that classes are too large, there is no media and that it is time consuming.

Education with Production or technical education is proposed in the Norms and Standards document for teacher education (COTEP 1996:20).

Walker (1991:206) too recommends that the principles of polytechnic education is worth considering. She states that although Education with production is not a simple panacea, it claims to link school and work with the aim of creating people who are as quoted in Education with Production (1988) "are able to make new production rather than to produce narrow specialists or technicians with no real initiative." For Walker (1991:206), linking real life and school learning can occur in the simplest of ways, for example by talking to all sorts of people about their lives, work and problems. Her suggestion is strengthened by Castles and Wustenberg (1979:182) who describes a classroom in which polytechnic education is practised:

> "Children carry out experiments with electricity, look at
> plants and insects under the microscope, make useful
> objects, toys or technical models. Their daily experiences
> provides the topics for their research: a boy has helped
> his father repair a car - how does a car motor work?
> Children have seen a demonstration against a nuclear
> power station - how can energy by produced, what is it
> needed for? To carry out their projects children have to
> weigh, measure calculate, write down results, read
> instructions - they learn these intellectual techniques
> because they are useful and necessary, and therefore they
> learn them more quickly and easily than children for whom
> these things are an abstract compulsion."

Walker (1991: 208) however emphasizes that although this new approach to the curriculum aims at developing polytechnic education and critical literacy, teachers with confidence and skills, underpinned by a teaching culture which supports

experimentation and innovation are needed. The fact that a large majority of students say that they are unable to link Education with Production, gives an indication of another shortcoming in the present teacher education programme.

(h)   Lecturers present model lessons which student teachers are able to learn from

Seventy three point four percent (73,4%) of the students and fifty point eight percent (50,8%) of the teachers (Vide: Table 4.8) say that lecturers do not present model lessons which student teachers are able to learn from.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163) highlight the fact that the established pattern of appointing lecturers on a specialised higher degree has not served education well at all. They say that if most lecturers at primary colleges do not have a suitable balance of grounded experience in primary school work and access to theoretical frameworks and research findings that realistically inform primary education practice, then primary schools will continue to look more and more like secondary schools. It is further emphasized that when teacher educators are not familiar with the realities of the situation which will meet their students in the classroom. They fall easily into traps of promoting methods and approaches at a level of "nice sounding ideas" borrowed from books. These ideas are often not appropriate and the direct consequence is that student teachers are then blamed.

If a meaningful attempt is to be made to address his problem, Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:165) suggest that lecturers find ways of transcending the mechanical and the prescriptive in their own work. They say that part of the process of evolving new patterns of approach at pre-service level requires the development of a reflective-mind set. This will enable teachers to articulate the purposes that underlie their practice so that they can come to grips with the implicit theories about education and teaching that inform their work with learners. To emphasize the point they quote a British educator who states:

> "The distinctive contribution of higher education tutors is to
> help both new and experienced teachers develop ways of
> seeing that will help them to keep professional curiosity
> alive. Most importantly they have to ensure that student
> teachers experience the excitement of learning through
> critical reflection of practice."

Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:65) also refer to the serious shortcoming in adequately equipped lecturers and facilitators. They point out the fact that especially in-service lecturers and facilitators have limited training and knowledge. It is therefore recommended that, in order for them to learn to and teach new strategies, they need to study theories, see demonstrations, have opportunities for feedback and receive coaching.

Due to the type of schooling and professional training which all lecturers who were disfranchised experienced, retraining is thus suggested.

(i)   Methods teachers employ have social learning goals which teach democratic procedures e.g. group discussions

The majority of respondents involved in this research (Table 4.9) (students 80% and teachers 97%) claim that they employ methods which have social learning goals.

They emphasize that although they have very little didactic efficiency, groupwork is utilized in one or other form. As mentioned in the discussion No 9 of the teacher and No 8 of the student questionnaires, the respondents say that although discipline becomes a problem, pupils are very much more interested and motivated.

Walker's (1991:212) view that education must itself be organised democratically in schools and classrooms if it is to prepare young people for life in a democracy, must

be seriously considered. She points out forms of classroom organisation in primary schools associated with the Freinet movement which provides a concrete example of democratic practice, which is in striking contrast to patterns of classroom interaction in schools, of our country. In Freinet schools, apart from participatory group work, classes discuss what is to be done during the coming week and Monday. They make a large wall chart listing organisational and work tasks. Teachers do not dominate meetings. They encourage the class to elect a pupil to act as chairperson or to write down class decisions on a poster. Tasks such as cleaning the chalkboard are allocated in rotation and at the end of each school day, the class members report to each other on the day's work, sharing, reading and discussing written texts. During the week pupils might write down complaints, conflicts with other pupils, criticism of the teacher and so on, on a large wall chart. This wall chart is then discussed at the final meeting of the week and solutions sought to the problems which have arisen.

For Walker (1991:213) these children learn about control and responsibility by creating their own means for exercising them. Skills of this kind cannot be developed by simply telling children how to run their lives. Castles and Wustenberg (1979:53) cite Krupskaya (1985) who believes that such knowledge, skills and attitudes where pupil participation is more than 'just a game with democratic principles' seem essential for full participation in a democracy.

This participatory approach encourages pupils to work collectively and to enter into educative relationships with one another.

Furthermore, Galton and Williamson (1992:15) believe that groupwork enables a greater degree of flexibility, if children can be persuaded to co-operate together, independently of the teacher. They say that according to Reid et al (1982:5) who quotes a report compiled by the Education Department of Western Australia.

"Not only does the small group provide a secure supportive

> base from which the students can venture out and return
> as they need but it also provides a manageable and flexible
> bases from which the teacher can work to provide the best
> learning experience for the class."

Reid et al (1982:5) goes and asserts that there are also social emotional and cognitive outcomes as pupils will become actively involved in the learning process, improved teacher/student relationships will develop and teachers will find that "the quality of classroom learning will improve".

From the above discussion it is seen that the merits of group activities outweigh the merits of traditional teaching. It not only minimises the drawbacks of a one side learning and teaching situation as stated by Cawood and Gibbon (1985:206), it encourages participation which is a vital necessity for democracy.

(j)   Teachers are able to individualise in their classrooms thus meeting the needs of all pupils

The survey (Table 4.10) shows that this crucial aspect is severely neglected in the classrooms. Eighty percent (80%) of students and teachers (60%) say that they do not individualise in their classrooms as classes are far too large and overcrowded. The above mentioned situation gives one the impression, that a good deal of passive learning is taking place.

In an effort to overcome the problems connected with large classes, Farrant (1988:142) recommends small group learning in large classes. He contends that small groups can be used with children of similar ability or with children of mixed ability. In the former case, the slower pupil is able to proceed at his or her own pace without hindering the progress of the bright. In the latter the brighter child will be able to assist the slower children in the group and free the teacher for other teaching duties.

Farrant (1988:144) adds that in order to implement learning meaningfully, the teacher needs to use methods of teaching that frees him from his traditional role of dispensing knowledge to the whole class and which gives him opportunity to attend to his pupils individually. He states that individualisation can take place through a wide range of alternatives which includes activities such as free investigation, play methods, team teaching etc.

Duminy (1975:27-29) affirms that the principle of individualization is based on the idea that every child must be assisted to develop according to his own capabilities. He acknowledges that there are problems which inhibit the teacher from doing so, but maintains that provision for individual differences must be made within the boundaries of class education.

He recommends a synthesis of class and individual education. This would imply that the class would be continued to be taught as a whole, but opportunities should be created for more individually orientated projects.

These forms of teaching a class in a more flexible class relationship is recommended if provision is to be made for the individual differences of all pupils. Therefore, strategies such as these should be explained and practised explicity in the methodologies of teacher education.

(k)   Has teacher education empowered teachers to teach in multi-cultural classroom?

To investigate this problem teachers and students were asked if they were empowered to teach in multi-cultural classrooms. As mentioned in Chapter 2 and in the discussion of Table 4.12, the result which reflects that (80,8%) teachers and (100%) students were not empowered to do so, is not surprising, given the segregated policy of the past.

The (19,2%) of teachers who claim that they are empowered to teach in multi-cultural classrooms say that this was done during everyday lectures. The fact that the majority of teachers (80%) and (100%) students are not able to teach in multi-cultural classrooms, reflect another serious shortcoming in teacher education.

Coutts (1992:86) suggests three approaches to teaching multi cultural classes, namely:

    (a)   the teacher-centred approach

    (b)   socialised approaches

    (c)   the pupil-centred approach

He explains that the best way to use the teacher-centred approach is to develop effective techniques of questioning, as pupils are store-houses of opinions, attitudes, insights and experiences which can be tapped, to the potential benefit of all.

The socialised approach implies that pupils will experience learning while working in pairs or larger collaborating groups.

The strategies for a socialised approach might include the following:

    i)   interactive pairs, where pupils assist each other with mutual instruction

    ii)   peer group tutoring, where a capable pupil instructs the others throughout the activity

    iii)   monitoring, where a pupil simply keeps control and regulates group activity

    iv)   unstructured tutoring, where a pupil assists others only

when the need arises.

Coutts (1992:86) goes on further and explains that the child-centred approach is used by teachers who consciously shift emphasis from their act of imparting knowledge to the pupil's actions in the process of learning. The pupil's active experience of learning, gaining skills, making personal discoveries, creating and enhancing personal growth is essential. The teacher tends to take on the role of a guide, catalyst and facilitator who poses problems and creates an environment within which learning can take place.

Woodbridge (1994:67) sees multi-cultural education as an ongoing process, since it involves the gradual dismantling of school policies and practices that disadvantaged some students. He suggests teacher-education programmes, which focus on awareness of cultural influences on learning, the persistence of racism and discrimination in society and curricular strategies that encourage learning amongst a wide variety of students. In essence, a complete restructuring of the curriculum and the organisation of schools, is called for.

COTEP (1996:26) also proposes the inclusion of the above mentioned aspects in future teacher education programmes.

5.2.2 Difficulties teachers encounter under the present teaching and learning conditions

(a) The stringent teaching situation inhibits the teacher's initiatives

Teachers (86,7%) (Vide Table 4.14) regard the present teaching situation as stifling and inhibiting. They list factors such as not being consulted on important matters, methods of evaluation, involvement of planning and organizing the school.

Walker (1991:209) and Sachs (1987:91) highlight the background to these stifling

conditions. Buchel (1995:73) however, implies that these problems can be overcome, if relationships between the principal and staff members are adequate. He recommends that as teaching staff are professional people, they should be treated as such by the school principal. The principal in turn will be treated politely, fairly and with respect and will enjoy the support and respect of the staff.

When duties are delegated, it should be done in a well-planned, meaningful and systematic action. Buchel (1995:87) points out three steps which could be followed

- analysing the needs and problems of the school

- delegation of duties according to abilities

- division of work amongst teachers, so that the needs of the school is met.

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:192) once again recommend INSET which should be focused on the needs of teachers as well as principals. They suggest that ongoing active--social learning processes and issues which address the job-related needs of teachers and principals should be considered.

On the question of authoritarian principals and heads of departments Cawood and Gibbon (1985:46), suggest group decision by consensus. Every member of the team in this case the staff, makes a contribution to the final decision. Members of the group who do not agree with the majority are given the opportunity to state their case on the understanding that they will give the group's final decision a fair chance even if it did not accommodate their wishes.

They recommend guidelines for decision making by consensus as follows:

- Give your opinion as clearly and logically as you can, listen
  attentively and avoid the tendency to limit your contribution
  to arguments in favour of your point of view.

- If the discussion reaches a deadlock, do not assume that
  someone must win or someone must lose. Join in the search
  for an alternative solution.

- Do not change or hold back your point of view merely to
  avoid conflict or to achieve unanimity. Yield to opinions
  based on facts and sound logical reasoning.

- Avoid techniques designed to rule or repress conflict, such
  as the drawing of lots.

- Differences of opinion are natural, they should not be
  covered up but brought out into the open as part of the
  effort to get every member to participate. (Cawood and Gibbon
  1985:46)

Suggestions and recommendations such as the above are imperative if positive attitudes and democratic values are to be developed. As stressed by Mncwabe (1990:177) in the discussion of (Table 4.15) "democratic consultation is becoming obligatory." Thus teacher training institutions should be reflective of democratic procedures in areas of management as well as in the lecture rooms.

(b) Are teachers involved in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula?

The majority of teachers 77% (Table 4.15) claim that they were not consulted or involved in the compilation of the curricula at all. Some respondents blame their non-

involvement due to the fact that they had very little exposure to this aspect of the work. It is therefore suggested that the inclusion of curriculum design be considered for a revised teacher education programme.

On the same question (73,4%) student teachers in 4.4.3b suggest that curriculum development should form an integral part of teacher education.

Mncwabe (1990:177) (Vide discussion: Table 4.15) advocates that teachers who have been disfranchised, should be given the opportunity to choose their own books and materials they use in their classrooms. He suggests that subject teacher associations be established to monitor standards.

Powell and Solity (1990:32) on the other hand quote White (1982) who argues that in a democratic society, curriculum decisions should not be left solely to teachers. It is felt that it is a matter of common concern and that it should be opened up for public debate.

Be that as it may, a curriculum should be relevant, useful and based on the children's needs and interests. Van Der Stoep and Louw (1987:207-212) list considerations which should be taken into account when curriculums are constructed:

-   The age of automatization e.g. the influence of the computer on the child's life.

-   Active pupil involvement, pupils becoming independent learners, becoming responsible for his or her education, the changing role of the school and the relationship between teacher and pupil.

-   Variations in teaching strategies e.g. textbooks which have

become a focus of criticism. Powerful teaching media e.g. video, television, radio programmes etc.

- Education outside the formal school system.

- Creativity-learning content must be problem orientated. Integrated content in syllabi.

- Syllabi should make provision for control, -evaluation.

- Assessment
 This implies evaluation, examinations.

- The level of readiness of the learner and his general disposition.

To be able to do this, teachers should be confident and secure, in what they are doing. In effect they would be in a process of empowerment which is so vital in a democracy (Davidoff and Van den Berg 1990:52).

(c) The present school year does not allow for effective completion of the syllabi

The research (Table 4.16) shows that a large majority of teachers (88,3%) claim that the present school year does not allow for effective completion of the syllabi. Amongst other factors, teachers blame it on the fact that classes are too large.

Thirion and Fourie (1993:196) as referred to in 5.2.1d suggest a co-operative teaching learning situation which will facilitate effective teaching in large classes. A brief description of a strategy to implement co-operative teaching in large classes is as follows:

- <u>Planning by the teacher</u>

  The lesson planning, and preparation teacher should
  formulate his teaching objectives in such a manner, so
  that it can be reached through a co-operative teaching learning
  situation. The teacher should carefully consider the size and
  combination of groups, activities which go before groupwork
  is started and how evaluation will take place. The content should
  be also carefully consider the content.

- <u>Introduction and presentation</u>

  The lesson should be introduced in a stimulating matter.
  Pupils must be aware of the problem and the introduction
  should inform pupils what they are to do in their groups.
  Instructions have to be clear and unambiguous. In a lesson
  on punctuation, pupils will be exposed to the value of punctuation,
  and then a paragraph which they will have to punctuate.

- <u>Grouping and Classroom Organization</u>

  After the introduction, pupils will be divided into groups of
  three to seven. Groups may vary. classrooms will be
  reorganized to form groups physically. In a class of forty
  there will be ten groups.

- <u>Individual studying of subject content</u>

  Each member of a group is given subject content to study.
  Each group as a whole will be in possession of the total
  content of a particular aspect. In a lesson on punctuation
  marks, a description and examples of the comma, question
  mark, exclamation mark, etc will be given to one particular
  pupil of one particular group. Thus in a class of forty, the

teacher would have prepared ten identical activity sheets for
each punctuation mark. Pupils study the information for a few
minutes.

- ### Formation of expert groups
  Pupils now form expert groups. These expert groups discuss
  the particular subject content and help each other to prepare so
  that they may be able to teach it to his or her own initial group.
  The teacher gives guidance during this phase. In the lesson
  on punctuation marks 4 groups of ten pupils were thus formed.

- ### Teaching of initial groups
  Pupils now go back and teach the initial group the newly
  acquired knowledge. During the report back session, each
  group member is expected to listen attentively. Each pupil will
  thus have the opportunity to teach one punctuation mark.

- ### Evaluation of acquired knowledge
  For group cohesion and to promote problemsolving, tasks are
  given to each group to complete. Each group member is
  expected to contribute. To ensure that each pupil did his or
  her share, a short individual evaluation session can be arranged.
  A short test can be given and pupils can evaluate. The group
  task e.g. a paragraph which should be punctuated is marked
  by teacher to compile a test mark. The pupil's individual mark
  as well as the group mark is taken into account.

Thirion and Fourie (1993:207) point out that this is but one strategy suggested for
coping with large classes, there are however many other.

Buchel (1995:102,103) suggests the following managerial skills which will facilitate the effective completion of the syllabi:

- Establish healthy pupil teacher-relationships.

  Know pupils, their interests, study habits and learning tempo in order to get the best results.

- Goals should be flexible

  The teacher should make adjustments in the learning - teaching situation without lhwarting the actual goal. Various methods can be used to achieve the same goal.

- Realistic Expectations

  Pupils should not be made to dependent on the teacher for instruction. Pupils should be self-reliant and accept responsibility for their learning activities.

- Responsibility

  Pupils should be made to feel responsible towards subject matter and they should make full use of learning opportunities.

- Maintaining a leadership role

  The teacher should give special attention to individual pupils and keep class under control when dealing with small groups. Pupils questions should be answered and all pupils should be involved in discussion.

- Variation of tempo

  Tempo should be varied in order to use teaching time effectively.

- Managerial skills

The teacher should be able to employ managerial skills such as administrative duties, creation of learning opportunities, solving problems etc.

The above discussion shows that different teaching strategies and managerial skills can be employed to overcome some of the shortcomings which teachers listed in (Table 4.16). If teachers are equipped with these methods and strategies it is believed that they will be able to complete the syllabi effectively.

(d) Dissatisfaction with the help and support of heads of departments and subject advisers

The research (Table 4.17) shows that a large percentage of teachers (65,8%) are not provided with guidance and support. Given the interrupted college programme and curriculum shortcomings as mentioned in Chapter 2, this situation should be eradicated if there is to be positive change and development in education as a whole.

This seems a difficult task, as these heads of departments and subject advisers cannot . be blamed for their authoritarian dictatorial manner, as referred to by comments of teachers in the discussion of (Table 4.17). Many of them were schooled through an authoritarian teaching culture where teachers were seen as instruments of policy and together with pupils and parents were excluded from decision making (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:153).

As early as 1992, Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:153) emphasized that the democratisation of society requires teachers to be democratic and enabling in nature. It is stressed that unless teacher education institutions changed to become accountable to their students and communities, the present situation would continue, as many teacher trainees would have filtered into the schools and would later become heads of

department, providing the same disservice to his or her colleagues. Change in formal education as Thompson (1981:159) emphasizes, must, "in the end mean changes in what goes on in the classroom, or they mean nothing".

Peters (interview 1996) recommends participative decision making and collaboration amongst the principal, heads of department and the rest of the staff as it lends itself towards the principles of democracy and moreover an atmosphere which engenders positive human relations.

Nias, Southworth and Yeomans (1989:105) mention that a collaborative environment at schools is characteristic of positive reinforcement. It is said that when heads put much faith in praise as a strategy for developing a supportive climate, the teachers self confidence and self esteem is developed. The frequency, consistency and quality of these acts of appreciation, demonstrated that mutual consideration amongst colleagues stemmed from and was reinforced by the behaviour of the head. Moreover, it fostered teamwork and a positive climate which was infused with consideration for others. To highlight this collaboration, a comment from a teacher is quoted:

"She doesn't see herself as the head, and we're the staff, we're a team working together she just happens to have a title... I think it's a team working situation which is why everybody's aware of what's going on."

Cawood and Gibbon (1985:138) suggest that when subject heads, heads of departments, principals or inspectors of education, visit the classroom, they should make the teacher feel that it is his or her domain and that the subject head, head of department, principal or inspector is a visitor. They contend that it is more likely that these visits will be welcomed. The visit should be preceded by an agreement between the visitor and the teacher on educational principles, and methods and prior planning as to when the visit will take place. Another desirable idea, is that the visit should occur at the invitation of the teacher.

According to Piek (1991:132) heads of department should amongst other responsibilities, consider the work division of teachers, while making optimum use of the teachers' qualifications and abilities. In this way teachers will feel that they are needed, respected and valued.

(e) Lack of guidance and supervision for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers

The importance of guidance and support for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers is strengthened in Table 4.18. Ninety five percent (95%) of teachers have the conviction that guidance and supervision is necessary.

Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:84) recommend guidance and support in the form of refresher courses. They argue that some teachers need updating in methodology and subject matter, if they return to the classroom after an absence of a long time.

Given the historical background of teachers who were disfranchised in Chapter 2, it stands to reason that they need guidance and support as suggested. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:192) agree that sustained support for teachers must be provided.

The present teacher training programme which was implemented after 1979, as outlined in Chapter 3, has not proved to diminish the difficulties of teachers who were disfranchised as, comments stress that the minimal time allotted to practice teaching, did an injustice. They felt incompetent in teaching confidently and the inability of using English as medium of instruction hindered efficiency.

In 4.5.10, lecturers suggest practice teaching being school based so that student teachers spend more time on the practical aspect of teaching. They also suggest some bridging courses so that problems with English may be overcome.

It is apparent that this guidance and support is indicative of another aspect of INSET. Walker (1991:218) recommends that teachers should feel that they "own" INSET. She suggests that involvement by teachers in defining their own needs and participating in shaping a project, builds commitment. To highlight this point Marlene Rousseau, an INSET provider is quoted.

> "our approach is to say try it, test it: What do you like?
> What don't you like? The teachers ultimately make the
> decisions about what works. We work in a way that
> encourages teachers to be upfront about their decisions and
> integrity."

Buchel (1995:63) emphasizes that guidance should also be given by heads of department. He states that the head of department should not only have leadership qualities, but he has to have the ability to give sound subject advice. Staff members should be advised on the matters such as the following:

- the syllabus and written work
- preparation of work
- teaching aids
- evaluation-compilation of tests, memoranda, marking of tests and mark allocation
- follow-up remedial work
- guidance in the interpretation of test results

With regard to supervision and control, Buchel (1995:65) says that the head of department must pay attention to:

- the quantity and quality of work
- standard and level of tests

- workshops
- syllabus coverage
- pupil progress and performance standards
- control and evaluation of teacher's written preparation
- classroom visits as method of subject control and guidance
- written report on teacher's performance standards

The findings of this research stresses the need for the guidance, and support for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers. The sentiment of Walker (1991:219) is echoed, whereby advisory support staff should do precisely that, advise and support, rather than the present situation where surveillance seems to dominate their interaction with teachers.

(f)   Teachers are unable to employ strategies which contribute to an integrated approach to learning

As outlined in the discussion of (Table 4.19) the majority of teachers (89,2%) claim that they employ strategies which contribute to an integrated approach.

Walker (1991:205) recommends the integrated approach as it facilitates Education with Production (Vide: discussion Table 4.7). Although teachers find it difficult, as time-tables are not structured to accommodate cross-curricular work, teachers should be helped to identify content and the skills which can be taught. Walker (1991:205) says teachers will be able to see the links they want to teach.

Avenant (1988:104-107) views that discovery is an aspect of integration and points out that the principle of discovery is operative in problem posing teaching.

He continues and points out that problem solving behaviour involves two types of reactions, viz. investigation and discovery. An investigation comprises of the following:

-     Defining the problem

-     Drawing up ways to solve the problem

-     Collecting facts which apply to the problem

-     Reasoning over the facts and rejecting the irrelevant

-     Formulating hypotheses by subjecting them to experimentation

-     Testing hypotheses by subjecting them to experimentation

-     Synthesising knowledge

-     Developing attitudes:
  * objectivity
  * receptiveness of mind
  * awe and respect for scientific methods
  * responsibility
  * control

A   Discovery would comprise of:

-     Perception
-     Comparison
-     Contrasting
-     Prediction
-     Description

This approach clearly serves the principal of integration as knowledge and skills are

linked, and moreover it develops critical enquiring minds. The merits of an integrated approach is further outlined by Walker (1991:207). She refers to (Graves, 1983 and Smith 1982) who suggest that teachers need to explore new approaches in writing. Children should write about the things which interest them and learn to communicate with others. As part of the process they would be encouraged to read, discuss, rehearse and revise drafts of their writings with their peers and the teacher redrafting their stories, summaries or "whatever" publication for the classroom wall or in a newsletter for parents and friends. In this way children practice not only writing correctly, but also learn the excitement of what it means to be writers and readers.

The above discussion shows that the employment of strategies which contribute to an integrated approach to learning, enhances and promotes educational development. It therefore becomes necessary to include integrated teaching methodology in teacher education programmes.

(g) Inability to employ strategies such as team teaching or paired teaching

Although teachers complain about their stifling teaching situation as reflected in (Table 4.14), a large majority of teachers (81,6%) say that their teaching situation allows for team teaching.

Team teaching or paired teaching implies that two teachers or a group of teachers are involved in teaching one specific class. According to Piek (1991:138) team teaching is a type of instructional organizational activity involving two or more teachers. This pair or team of teachers are given the responsibility of working together, teaching the same group of pupils. Team teaching requires much co-ordination of the work and much use should be made of the special competence of individual teachers as referred to in the discussion of (Table 4.20).

Farrant (1988:220) views team teaching as a method by which teaching tasks are shared between the members of a team of teachers so that qualifications and qualities are used in the best possible way. He states that the difference between team teaching and normal teaching is that in the former, lesson planning is a team process and teaching is a co-operative effort. It requires more time and trouble from teachers than conventional teaching, but when well done, better results are achieved.

It is further explained that one of the assumptions that underlie team teaching is that:

> "every teacher has particular gifts which are generally different
> from those of his colleagues and can therefore complement,
> those they possess."

From the above discussion, it is gleamed that team teaching creates a climate of co-operation and interaction as teachers share the responsibilities for a group of pupils.

It is therefore suggested that innovative strategies such as team teaching which is indicative of responsibility, co-operation, interaction and democracy should be included in the practical component of teacher education. This is essential if teachers are to be well equipped to teach in a rapidly changing world.

(h)   The necessity for teachers to confer with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom

A large majority of teachers (99,2%) believe that it is necessary to confer with colleagues on issues in the classroom. In the discussion of (Table 4.21) teachers recommend these conferences as they feel it provides opportunities to find solutions to problems. Competency and professional growth is also ensured. Walker (1991:219) cites Gitlin and Smyth (1989) who suggest that teachers should be encouraged to work collectively and to enter into educative relationships. She continues and cites an example by Barnes (1982) whereby collective work was

encouraged in Mozambique. Teachers met once a week to discuss their work and spent at least one period a week watching another teacher at work. Walker (1991:219) points out a contrast in Tanzania. While teachers were seen as "apostles" of Education for Self Reliance, their own personal and professional education had been acquired in the context of values which rewarded individual initiative and competitive behaviour. This militated against these teachers adopting more democratic classroom practices.

However, Walker (1991:219) like the respondents above, is of the opinion that primary school teachers welcome the opportunity to share experiences with other teachers. She quotes a teacher who described the positive shift in her working relations with colleagues as follows:

> "This project introduced something new to me because now
> I can go to another teacher and ask them: How can I tackle
> this? I can go to other schools and ask: How do you do this?
> I was just a self-centred somebody. I just go to my classroom.
> I teach. I go out, I go home. Now I have discovered that, no!
> You must go to other people, to other teachers. And you must
> also give help to other teachers."

She however emphasises that teachers who are not themselves critical and creative thinkers, committed to collective work and building a participatory democracy, find it difficult to facilitate these processes in their classrooms. On the other hand, teachers who do not experience democratic and participatory activities in their own pre- and inservice education will hardly be well prepared to work in this way.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:153) also recommend greater collaboration. They say that this collaborative action has the potential to change the pattern of teachers working in isolation. The syndrome of individual effort and working alone, denies teachers the opportunity to develop a sense of involvement, solidarity and the power

that is possible through joint responsibility. Moreover, the hierarchical mechanisms of control operate more effectively when teachers withdraw into their private territory, negating the ideals of democracy.

Nias, Southworth and Yeomans (1994:262) point out the value of this type of interdependence amongst staff members. Reference is made to staff members of schools in London, viz, Greenfields, Lowmeadow and Sedgemoor. Although individual staff members valued each other as people, each with his or her own identity, personality, interests, experiences, skills and potential, they also appreciated the diversity brought to the school. This collaborative culture not only proved a sense of belonging, but at the same time, collective responsibility for the work of the school was accepted, thus creating strong teams in which people, helped, encouraged and substituted for one another.

Interdependency and collaboration amongst staff members is suggested, as the above discussion reflects that it equips teachers with confidence as they become competent teachers. The authoritarian teaching culture gives way to a democratic culture whereby principals, subject heads or heads of department, realise that collective participation produces much more inspired and committed teachers.

In (Table 4.22) teachers were asked to suggest how often these conferences should be held. The survey reflects a slight discrepancy, as (Table 4.21) suggests that (0,8%) teachers do not feel that it necessary to confer regularly with fellow colleagues, yet (Table 4.22) suggests otherwise. Although all do not agree on the number of times teachers should meet, all respondents agree that meetings should take place at some or other time.

Teachers (57,5%) suggest once a week as they feel it not only ideal but also practical. This suggestion is based on the fact that it provides opportunities to discuss difficulties encountered so that solutions can be found before a long period has elapsed. As meetings are held regularly, they are shorter and concise. Teachers pay more

attention when discussions are shorter and time is used more efficiently too. Many teachers have to attend to extra-mural activities as well.

In (Table 4.23) teachers were asked to respond to whether there was time for these conferences. An interesting scenario develops as (Table 4.22) shows that (57,5%) teachers suggest that teachers should confer at least once a week, yet (Table 4.23) reflects that (66,6%) claim there is not time for these conferences.

Be this as it may, (Vide discussion: Table 4.23) teachers suggest that a fixed period should be structured into the time-table which should be set aside for a weekly meeting in a particular subject. This arrangement may however have many practical difficulties as pointed out in the discussion of (Table 4.23).

From the above recommendations and suggestions it is thus concluded that conferences which are held often are deemed necessary to induce collaboration and team work as well as to ensure the professional development of the teacher. With effective time management, these conferences can take place regularly.

(i)   The non-attendance of orientation courses

On the question whether teachers attend orientation courses regularly, the research reveals that teaching is unthinkable without in-service education. The teachers (65%) who claim that they do attend orientation courses regard these courses as invaluable as it not only helped them overcome difficulties, but it enhanced professional growth (Vide Table 4.24). Others say that they are not provided with these opportunities as only subject heads and departmental heads attend.

Cawood and Gibbon (1985:15) hold the view that systematic in-service education through orientation courses, guidance and staff development programmes are educational necessities for the continuing professional growth of teachers. Bradley (1987:192) contends that these courses comprise of activities which provides for:

a)   "the teachers' improved performance in the present job-developing new ideas, solving problems, overcoming difficulties - thus ensuring continued job satisfaction;

b)   the enhancement of the teacher's prospects of career development - preparation for the perceived next stage;

c)   the teacher being able to help the school its present performance in a situation where the school, but not the teacher, is perceived to be deficient;

d)   the school being able to prepare to meet future demands on it."

Kapp (1987:54-55) says that continuing professional education provides opportunities for qualified professionals to update their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to remain competent professionals.

Cropley and Dave (1978:41) recommend recurring education which they refer to as an aspect of INSET whereby teachers alternate periods of teaching service with periods of further training. They argue that this aspect of INSET not only ensures personal enrichment but also individuality in a rapidly changing world. For Ballock (1974:553) these teachers

> "... could serve as a model and an encouragement for the
> wider population and thus begin the pursuit of a much broader
> educational target - the development of a "learning society"

As teaching is deemed a dynamic science, teachers who do not keep up with new developments, improved teaching methods and technology run the risk of stagnating. Buchel (1995:123) emphasizes the need for in-service education and training. He maintains that teachers, especially a beginner teacher should constantly be given assistance, advice, encouragement and support from the entire staff, not only the

principal, deputy-principal and departmental head, thus INSET can start at school level. The following methods are recommended:

- "Any teacher with potential must be given additional duties (and support in carrying out the duties) to train him.her for promotion.

- Official circulars which deal with the conduct and work of teachers have to be circulated. Teachers have to initial these circulars after they have been seen and studied them. The contents of important circular letters should be thoroughly discussed during staff or subject meetings.

- A teacher has to be disciplined, it is the principal's responsibility to help the staff to become self-disciplined. He/she has to be an example of a self-disciplined person, which means for example that he/she may not leave the school during school hours except for urgent or unavoidable reasons, in which case he/she has to note this in the school journal.

- Teachers should assemble every morning to discuss the important events of the day.

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:193,194) is of the opinion that INSET indeed can solve the problems of teachers who were disfranchised if the following strategies are implemented:

1. INSET should be institutionalised
   INSET should become part of the normal conditions of service required for practising teachers. There should be a time-tabled professional development day set aside for INSET.

2.	Support staff

Subject advisors or INSET trainers should be sent out to work in the schools.

3.	Incentives

Teachers who participate in INSET should be given recognition in the form of salary increments, awards, special grants or promotion. It is however emphasized that although it is necessary to reward work and motivate teachers, it is equally important to minimise disincentives, such as time-consuming travel and lack of accreditation.

4.	Decentralised INSET

The links between PRESET and INSET could be strengthened if teachers could return to their alma maters for renewal. This will however depend upon the increasing professional autonomy of the colleges and the expertise of the lecturers in the INSET divisions of colleges of education.

5.	The training of teacher educators

Given the historical background of the teacher educator's professional training, there is a need to train adequate numbers of teachers.

6.	Management Training

Management Training is advocated as it is a prerequisite for school improvement and effective school focused INSET. "If the bossman isn't trained the schools don't run.

From the above suggestions and recommendations, it is clear that INSET is regarded as crucial for the professional development of teachers.

(j)   Inadequacy in developing own teaching and learning aids

Mbiti (1974:113) asserts that just as well trained teachers are important for successful teaching, so are equipment and supplies.   He remarks that teachers cannot be expected to teach well, no matter how qualified they are without the necessary teaching and learning aids.

The fact that all students (100%) and all teachers (100%) in (Table 4.25) say that teaching and learning aids in schools are inadequate, is no surprise, given the unequal education system of the past outlined in Chapter 2.

Respondents, however do mention borrowing from teacher training colleges and designing worksheets, to overcome the shortage of text books, although paper is such an expensive commodity.

As referred to in the discussion of (Table 4.25) the DET Syllabus (1990:3) for Teaching Practice does make provision for students, to master skills and techniques which will enable them to make educational media.   Students believe that the 28 periods allotted to this aspect over three year of training is insufficient.   This is another indication of the practical side of teacher education being neglected.

Schulze (1994:166) acknowledges that teachers and students may be severely handicapped by unavailability of resources.   She specifically refers to environmental education in this case and suggests the acquision of material developed by Share-Net of South Africa.   Students and teachers need to be knowledgeable on how to acquire these resources and how to adapt it to their own local needs.   Teachers also need to be motivated to develop their own resources with special reference to low-cost material.

To facilitate teachers in developing their own resources Schulze (1994:166) quotes Hunger et al (1988) who recommends that teachers should be educated in making

inventories of resources and to develop their own resource manuals. The following kinds of resources in environmental education can be inventoried: whereabouts of people such as game wardens, fishermen, botanists, insect and rodent control specialists, farmers etc. Physical resources include the following: wild life reserves, farms, airports, mines, local parks, industries etc. It is also suggested that resource manuals developed by student teachers could be evaluated and credits can be earned.

This research concludes that teaching and learning aids are not adequate in schools. It is therefore recommended that attention should be given to this vital aspect of teacher education, so that teachers will be skilled to become resourceful enough, to create their own resources for effective teaching.

Other recommendations which may become an integral part of a teacher education programme which promotes development and transformation is discussed below.

5.3   General Recommendations

The recommendations given are concerned with facilitating competency, efficiency, change, empowerment and the professional development of teachers.

Thus, the introduction of a school-based teaching practice experience and the implementation of continuous staff development for lecturers as well as In-service Education and Training as conditions of service for teachers, is recommended.

5.3.1 The introduction of an intensely school-based teaching practice experience

This school based teaching practice takes on two forms. The concept which Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:156) proposes, bases the student teacher in schools and withdraw them for tuition or personal tutoring, after school hours or on certain days of the week when they return to the teaching institution for tuition. It has attractive aspects as

students are exposed to the actual teaching situation from the very beginning and is cost effective, because of the restricted contact with lecturing staff.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:156) however draw attention to the fact that this type of initial teacher education will be limited to schools in South Africa which are well resourced and have enough enthusiastic and experienced staff, who view their classroom teaching as their prime concern. They point out that if teachers in schools and lecturers working in the teaching institutions are resourceful, have the time, the expertise and the mind set that is forward-looking and responsive, students are likely to benefit enormously.

On the other hand, the introduction of an internship is another viable alternative. The very nature of such a model reduces the risk of theory dominating practice as reflected in the current teacher education programmes. Students will be provided with ample opportunity to integrate theory with practice and will thus become competent and efficient teachers.

Lecturers (16,7%) who were interviewed in this research, strongly recommend an internship of at least one year.

In research conducted by Hofmeyer (1991:383) many interviewees favoured this model on the grounds that it would provide superior training for teachers: "if doctors and lawyers have internships, why can't teachers?"

Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:186) favour internship and recommend that instead of a continuous period of three or four years of training, a 2 + 2 model should be considered which is common in most developing countries. It would imply that after two years of initial training, teacher trainees would serve an internship in schools for

two years during which time they would be guided and supported by lecturers and distance education, so that at the end of four years, they could be evaluated for a four year qualification.

Liebenberg (1991:44-51) refers to a model of internship which was implemented as a form of teaching practice at the Windhoek College of Education in 1989. He explains that the internship stretches over a period of four years of training. This model is organised in three distinct stages, viz the pre-active stage, active stage and a post-active stage. The pre-active stage involves identifying and stating the intern's responsibilities, while the active stage includes the visits of the lecturers to the school to arrange for the evaluation of the intern. The post-active stage involves the final evaluation of the intern by a panel under the chairmanship of the lecturer who the intern was assigned to, the didactics lecturer the tutor, the school principal and the teacher.

Internship is further justified as research reflects that although students and teachers have knowledge on the teaching skills, methods and strategies, they have to employ, they feel incompetent in doing so. The reason being that the current teacher education programmes provide insufficient time for the practical aspects of teacher education.

It is therefore suggested that some form of intense school based practice teaching experience be implemented.

5.3.2 Continuous staff development as condition of service for lecturers

A large majority of students (73,4%) and teachers (50,8%) (Vide: Table 4.8) claim that lecturers do not present model lessons which they can learn from.

If a restructured teacher education programme is to break away from the old transmission model of teaching and moves towards a model which encourages active participation and critical enquiry, it goes without saying that lecturers themselves have to be active learners.

Continuous staff development should therefore be a priority. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:196) (refer to 5.2.2.b) maintain that there is an urgent need to train adequate numbers of teacher educators for PRESET and INSET. They stress that without these teacher educators, it will be impossible to train or upgrade adequate numbers of teachers.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163) highlight the importance of the quality of teacher educators. They argue that if the task of colleges is to provide or basic initial teaching qualification, it is less essential that they offer academic courses at higher levels and more important that their professional courses be of the highest possible standard.

Given the established pattern of appointing lecturers as referred to by Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163) and pointed out in 5.2.1h, then "most lecturers at primary colleges do not have a suitable balance of grounded experience in primary school work".

To be able "to come to grips with the implicit theories of education and learning" and the "development of a reflective mind set", as suggested by Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163), the implementation of continuous staff development as a condition of service is recommended.

5.3.3 In-service Education and Training as condition of service for teachers

In view of the academic background and professional training of teachers who were disfranchised as referred to by Kinley (1981:5-6) in Chapter 2.16, and Mncwabe (1990:101) in 2.3, it stands to reason that INSET should become a vital aspect to facilitate the development of teachers who were disfranchised.

According to Thompson (1982:4) in-service education and training of teachers refers to the whole range of activities by which serving teachers and other categories of teachers within formal school systems may extend and develop their personal qualities, professional competence, and the general understanding of the role which school sare expected to play in changing societies.

Cawood and Gibbon (1981:15), Yule (1987:64) supported by Thembela and Walters (1984:112) go further and assert that pre-service training is not enough to ensure the personal and professional growth of the teacher in a career which lasts as long as 45 years. They deem in-service education and training as crucial in any education system to remedy the ills of poor pre-service teacher training and other problems which may arise while the teacher is practising his or her profession. Pre-service training should therefore be supplemented by INSET to make the teacher a complete professional.

Johnson (1991:196) is also of the opinion that teacher education must be a continuous process. He cites Hexall et al (1991) who suggests that:

> "Teacher education must be seen as being a continuous
> process which encompass initial teacher training, induction,
> INSET through to long term career development..."

Mutshekwana (1995:156) points out that in-service education and training is indispensable in developing countries because of the vast numbers of unqualified and

underqualified teachers.

In the South African context, the above mentioned situation exists due to the inequalities of the past. Throughout the responses of the questionnaires in 4.3.2.2 dealing with difficulties which teachers encounter under the present teaching and learning conditions, INSET is believed to be a solution to overcome these difficulties. INSET is deemed necessary to enhance lesson presentation with regard to rapid skilling for competency and efficiency and change which will induce a participatory teaching climate as well as empowerment.

This study echoes the conviction of Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:197) that INSET is an important strategy for educational reconstruction in South Africa. Hofmeyer and Jaff's (1992:194-195) belief that the links between INSET and PRESET should be strengthened and moreover the implication that INSET become part of the normal conditions of service required for practising teachers is strongly recommended.

CONCLUSION

The research concludes that there are major shortcomings in the teacher education programmes which have served teachers who were disfranchised.

Serious consideration has to be given to the teacher's classroom competency, ability to change, efficiency, teacher empowerment as well as the professional development of the teachers involved.

The practical aspects and the theoretical aspects of teacher education should be well balanced so that prospective teachers are afforded the opportunity to equip themselves with the necessary skills which are vital for effective teaching and learning. It is suggested that the practical side of teacher education should be school based (vide 5.2.1b). Prospective teachers will then be afforded sufficient time to practise the

necessary teaching skills sufficiently under the guidance of the experienced class teacher as well as the lecturer. The College and the school should thus be engaged in a partnership. Another strong recommendation is some form of internship.

Attention should also be given to the subject Education. The contents of the subject Education should be taught so that students and teachers are able to use its contents, as well as master the art of teaching. In short, the theory should be integrated with the practice so that students and teachers develop a "living awareness" (Vide: 5.2.1a).

The practical side of teacher education should be enabling in nature. Strategies and methods employed should facilitate participation, co-operation and collaboration. This is necessary as this type of teaching engages pupils in effective learning. Apart from gaining knowledge, insight and developing skills, the pupil's urges drives and urges are channelled in the right direction and they develop their creative abilities accordingly. Pupils become responsible for their learning, and values such as loyalty, solidarity and team-work are cultivated. Moreover democratic and social values are instilled.

The practical component of teacher education, should also allow students and teachers to develop through action-research, as this component "will encourage teachers to reflect critically on their own practice and empower them to become active innovators" (Hofmeyer and Jaff 1992:192).

Due to the fact that teachers have to manage and administer their classrooms, it becomes necessary for them to be skilled in this regard as well. More time should be allotted to this aspect during teacher education, as many teachers and students argue that insufficient time is allotted to this aspect, rendering them inefficient classroom managers.

As students and teachers learn from the lesson presentation of lecturers it is vital that these lecturers and teacher-tutors be retrained. They too have to break the shackles

of transmission teaching, if they are to succeed in producing quality teachers.

Students and teachers have to employ teaching principles such as differentiation integration, group discussions, etc.

An effective way of internalizing these vital educational principles, is to see it being presented in practice. The presentation of model lessons by lecturers is thus essential, therefore it is suggested that staff development courses for lecturers become a necessity.

The research results clearly reflect that the practical component of teacher education needs much more consideration. Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:155) assert that although a suitable alternative model for teacher education is unlikely to be ever found, it is suggested that longer periods of practice teaching in schools help the teacher in training to become accustomed to the nature of a school.

COTEP (1996:35) proposes that future teacher programmes should give serious consideration to the complex relationship between theory and practice. Practice teaching is afforded much attention as teacher education programmes will be appraised according to, amongst other aspects, the effectiveness of teaching practice, staff development courses for lecturers, preparation of students before practice teaching and the way in which each student will be monitored to evaluate progress.

To accommodate practising teachers, In-service Education and Training (INSET) is strongly recommended as it will facilitate practising teachers in overcoming difficulties which has its origin in the shortcomings of the current teacher education programmes. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:193,194) maintain that INSET should become part of the normal conditions of service required for practising teachers. This would imply that INSET would be institutionalized. Practising teachers will return to their alma maters for renewal, thus enhancing the professional development of teachers throughout their

careers.

INSET should also serve the needs of principals, heads of departments and subject heads. This is a necessity as teachers still complain about the stifling teaching situation. It is therefore suggested that principles, heads of department and subject heads undergo in-service education and training as they too suffered the effects of segregated education as well as the stifling authoritarian teaching culture. Change is likely to occur, once principals and heads of departments are able to see that the principles of democracy is more effective. Involvement, decisionmaking and participating in the actual running of the school, encourages teachers to be more productive and motivated. In effect a teacher education model which makes provision for continuous professional development through INSET and the professional help and expertise of principals, heads of department and subject heads is recommended. This survey supports Rudduck's view (1987:129) quoted in 1.2.2a that professional growth is an absolute necessity as it leads to:

> "...the capacity of a teacher to remain curious about the classroom,
> to identify significant concerns in the process of teaching and
> learning, to value and seek dialogue with experienced colleagues
> as support in the analysis of data, and to adjust patterns of
> classroom action in the light of new understanding."

Moreover, the development of a collaborative teaching culture which encourages team teaching regular conferences amongst teachers and participatory decision making is recommended. This however, can only be achieved if the nature of the teacher education programme is adapted so that a climate of collaboration and interdependence is offered at pre-service level already.

The above mentioned recommendations and suggestions highlight the prominence and importance which is attached to the practical aspect of a teacher education

programme. The research therefore concludes that the present teacher education programmes should be reviewed so that a model can be developed whereby the theoretical aspect does not dominate the practical. The need for INSET to form an integral part of a teacher education programme is also deemed to be a critical issue which needs to be addressed.

CHAPTER 6

6. **SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH, FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

6.1 Introduction

The objectives of this study (1.5.1) were to investigate the current situation of teachers who were disfranchised in terms of shortcomings which could exist, as well as the difficulties which teachers may experience due to these shortcomings. The investigation would also find possible suggestions and proposals which could be included in a programme to facilitate the development and transformation of these teachers.

The questions which were included in the investigation to see if shortcomings indeed existed, were varied. Questions were asked on the meaningfulness of the contents of the subject Education (4.3.2.1a), emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum (4.3.2.1b) insufficient opportunities to practice skills (4.3.2.1c), ability to provide co-operative well directed and purposeful activities (4.3.2.1e), provision of opportunities for action research (4.3.2.1f), linking Education with production (4.3.2.1g) model lesson presentation by lecturers (4.3.2.1h), ability to teach democratic procedures (4.3.2.1i), ability to individualise int he classroom (4.3.2.1j), and empowerment of teachers to teach in multi cultural classrooms (4.3.2.1l).

The anticipated difficulties encountered by teachers were asked in questions which ranged from the stringent teaching situation (4.2.3.2a), non-involvement in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula (4.2.3.2b) inability to effectively complete syllabi (4.2.3.2c), dissatisfaction with help and support from heads of departments (4.2.3.2d), lack of guidance for experienced as well as inexperienced teachers (4.2.3.2e), inability to employ integrated strategies (4.2.3.2f), teaching situation allowing

team teaching (4.2.3.2g), regular conferences with fellow colleagues (4.2.3.2h), the non-attendance of orientation courses (4.2.3.2k), to the inadequacy of developing own teaching and learning aids (4.2.3.2l).

During interviews lecturers were asked similar questions which dealt with the key shortcomings in teacher education programmes. The questions included if sufficient emphasis was placed on the practical side of the curriculum (4.5.1), the extent of the subject Education playing an overarching role in the curriculum (4.5.2), the necessity of model lessons by lecturers (4.5.3), sufficient time for practice teaching (4.5.4), opportunities for action research (4.5.6), the role that should be played by Inset (4.5.7) and sufficient time for effective teaching of classroom management and school admin (4.5.8). Lecturers were also asked to comment on the norms and standards document as suggested by COTEP.

A historical background of teachers who were disfranchised was investigated in (2.1). It gives an account of the reorganization of the education of the disfranchised with the enactment of the Bantu Education Act which was passed in 1953. It becomes clear that this act which ensured complete control of Black education by Central Government, set the tone for the development of Black schooling to be curtailed as well as the segregation of whites and blacks in political, social and economic spheres.

A brief overview of major legislation which impacted on the lives of the disfranchised people as well as the disfranchised teacher as they were part of these communities, gives an indication of the hardships and indignity which had to be endured (2.2).

Moreover, the content of education for the disfranchised was designed to control the direction of thought, restrict lines of communication and in so doing curtail contact and delimit the boundaries of knowledge. The very nature of the education system equipped the disfranchised with limited skills and knowledge, conditioning them to servitude (Molteno 1990:94).

It has been shown that after much unrest and upheaval, in schools, the government was forced to review educational policy of the time (2.1.4). There were visible changes in administrative control, physical improvements and courses were implemented in teacher training institutions for the upgrading of teachers' qualifications (2.1.5).

Although these changes occurred the academic and professional background of teachers who were disfranchised as shown in (2.1.6), clearly leaves them ill equipped to teach effectively. In (2.2.4f) it is shown that the entrance requirement for teachers in the Department of Bantu Education was as low as form 1. In (2.2.4f) it is pointed out that this low entrance qualification was justified by Dr Verwoerd when he commented that "it was wrong to utilize expensive teacher staff to supervise large classes of bored pupils" (Tabata 1990:43). This marks a deterioration in qualification levels of disfranchised teachers without a matriculation certificate. According to Christie and Collins (1990:179) it no doubtedly affected the quality of education offered, especially when compared with that of whites. Enslin (1988:73) remarks that in addition, the disfranchised teacher suffered the effects of fundamental pedagogic in teacher training institutions. Fundamental Pedagogic supported authoritarian practices and the ideology of segregation which offered "little hope of fostering a discourse offering a language of critique and of possibility."

6.2   Research investigation into the development and transformation of disfranchised teachers

In Chapter 3, it is shown that in 1982 efforts were undertaken to facilitate the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised. The entrance requirement for disfranchised teachers was set at matriculation and new courses were introduced.   However, it is clearly seen, that the curriculi of the segregated departments are loaded with theory (5.2.1b). Only 10 weeks of practical teaching is allocated to this crucial aspect of teacher education.   These factors resulted in disfranchised teachers lacking competency and efficiency.

6.2.1 Methods used for the investigation

A literature study was made of the historical background of disfranchised teachers as well as the efforts undertaken by the segregated education departments to provide for the development and transformation of these teachers.

In an effort to determine if development and transformation indeed occurred it became necessary to enlist the views of people who are directly involved in teacher education. They are teachers, student teachers and lecturers.

6.2.2 Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were used which were completed by teachers and student teachers. The questionnaires were based on anticipated shortcomings and difficulties experienced by teachers and student teachers. There was a slight difference in the 2 questionnaires. The questions for student teachers concentrated mainly on the anticipated shortcomings in the existing teacher education programmes as their pre-service education is their main frame of reference. The responses to common questions on shortcomings were tabulated together to arrive at common deductions.

6.2.3 Interviews

It was possible to conduct interviews with the 12 lecturers at Perseverance College of Education, as most of them were easily accessible. As lecturers are directly involved with teacher education, invaluable comments and suggestions were offered which could play a role in revising a teacher education programme which would ensure the development and transformation of all teachers.

6.2.3 Research findings and recommendations

The aim of this research was to determine if the efforts which were undertaken by education departments indeed provided for the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised. Therefore, questions were asked on anticipated shortcomings and difficulties which teachers experience which in turn impacts on competency, efficiency and empowerment to bring about change. The findings from the questionnaires will finally be summarized.

6.3.1 Shortcomings in the present teacher education programme

a) The meaningfulness of the contents of the subject Education

This research results supports the view that the subject Education should be an overarching or bridging subject in the curriculum (5.2.1a). As emphasized by Abrahams (1990:4), Education should be taught in such a manner that student teachers and teachers develop a living awareness of the theories of learning.

b) Teacher education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum

Serious consideration has to be given to this crucial aspect of teacher education. The majority of respondents are of the opinion that insufficient time is allotted to the practical side of teacher education, rendering them incompetent and inefficient (4.3.2.2). Several suggestions are offered in (5.2.1b), but what comes out clearly in all the suggestions, is that teacher education programmes should be school based. According to Sibanda (1983:271) student teachers in Zimbabwe spent the better part of four years in schools under the guidance of qualified teachers.

Johnson (1991:96) recommends a partnership between a college and school. Responsibility of teacher training institutions are placed with schools thus student teachers will be exposed to the real situation more often.

Another suggestion offered by Johnson (1991:196) is the "teaching outpost approach" in New Zealand. Student get first hand experience in what to expect at schools as the model stresses theory and research.

It is however welcoming to note that COTEP (1996:3) gives consideration to this disjunction between theory and practice. New teacher education programmes will be appraised amongst other aspects in terms of the "bringing together of theory and practice".

It is the researcher's strong conviction and that of lecturers interviewed (5.3.1) that teacher education should be school based. Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:156) also suggest a school based approach, as students are exposed to the actual teaching situation from the very beginning. Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:186) also strongly recommend some form of internship. This recommendation is echoed by Liebenberg (1991:44-51) who cites such a model which is being implemented at the Windhoek College of Education.

It is the researcher's view that school based teacher education programmes would play a role in the promotion of competency and efficiency of all teachers.

c)   Insufficient opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills

In (5.2.1c) it is emphasized that teacher education does not provide sufficient time to practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently. In chapter 3 it is shown that the DET 1985 and 1990 syllabi as well as the ex-House of Representatives 1982 syllabi prescribe only 10 weeks of practice teaching for a three year course. As shown in (Table 4.3) respondents say that this arrangement is hopelessly inadequate. Class

teaching or Institute practicum also falls short of what students expect. Student complain that the 4 forty minute periods which is allocated to this aspect of the work does not afford sufficient time for the practice of these skills and competency is further hampered by the theoretical nature of lectures (4.3.2.1c).

As reflected in (6.3.1b) many authors suggest that teacher education should be school based in order to give the prospective teacher ample opportunity to get first hand experience of the classroom situation.

To further enhance classroom competency, Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:195) in (5.2.1c) recommend that schools should make provision for support staff, i.e. teacher tutors with reduced teaching loads to supervise trainee teachers as well as to lend support and guidance to practising teachers in the form of school-focused INSET activities.

A school based teacher education programme will imply that the curriculum content of subjects will be unloaded and attention will be paid to the practical side of teacher education, resulting in lecturers focusing on student centred approaches as recommended by Thirion and Fourie (1993:203) in (5.2.1d)

It is therefore suggested that in order to ensure that co-operative, well directed purposeful activities which induce a satisfactory climate, such as that recommended by Thirion and Fourie (1993:204), takes place, attention should be given to the practical aspect of teacher education.

d)   Lack of teacher efficiency in terms of management of administrative duties

Respondents blame their inefficiency mainly on the theoretical nature of the course offered at college as well as insufficient time allocated to this important aspect of the work (5.2.1e). This is more proof of the major shortcoming in the practical aspect of teacher education.

Once again, a school based teacher education programme is suggested as this will expose student teachers to the real situation, not only gaining experience in teaching but in managing and organising as well.

Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:162) recommend that links should be strengthened between Colleges of Education and schools so that opportunities may be optimised whereby teacher efficiency will be upgraded and schools in turn will be provided with teaching resources from teacher institution faculties (5.2.1e).

e)   Very little provision for teacher empowerment through action research

It is disturbing to note that (68,4%) students and (50,8%) teachers in (Table 4.11) do not make use of reflective teaching strategies as they do not know what it entails. This is another serious shortcoming in the nature of the present teacher education programme.

In (5.2.1f) M^{c}llvain (1993:2) recommends action research forming an integral part of teacher education. She gives a detailed account of how it can be implemented to enhance class teaching as well as practice teaching. As confirmed by Russel and Munby (1992:164) reflective teaching strategies enable teachers to learn from the "thoughtful and critical study of their own practice if such activity has been legitimized during initial training".

Action research is therefore strongly recommended as it leads to the development of problem solving enquiring attitudes which broadens understanding and insight (M^{c}llvain 1993:2).

f)   Teacher incompetency

This entails the inability of teachers to employ teaching strategies which link Education

with Production, employing methods which teach democratic procedures as well as individualising in classrooms etc. Once again, teachers and students say that they are unable to employ these strategies due to large classes as well as minimal didactic inefficiency (Table 4.7) (Table 4.9) (Table 4.10).

Suggestions and recommendations outlined in (5.2.1g) (5.2.1i) and (5.2.1j) however, reveal how these strategies can be employed so that effective teaching may take pace. Once again, the importance of paying more attention to the practical side of teacher education is highlighted.

g) Lecturer incompetency

The research results (Table 4.8) supports Siebörger and Kenyon (1992:163) and Bagwandeen and Louw's (1993:165) view that lecturers do not present lessons which student teachers are able to learn from.

As lecturers themselves are the products of the segregated education systems, retraining in the form of INSET is recommended.

The research in curriculum development (5.2.2b) shows that respondents blame their non-involvement in the compilation of the curricula on the fact that they were not exposed to curriculum design in their teacher education.

Mncwabe (1990:177) recommends that teachers should be given the opportunity to choose their own books and materials which they use in their classrooms. He does however suggest that subject associations be established to monitor standards.

As a curriculum should be based on the needs and interests of the learners the research agrees that teachers should be empowered to participate in the compilation of the curricula as teachers have first hand information on the needs and interests of their pupils.

It is thus recommended that curriculum design should be included in the teacher education programme so that teachers may partake in a process of democracy which is vital in a democracy (Davidoff and Van den Berg 1990:52).

h)   In-service Education and Training

In (5.2.2i), orientation courses in terms of in-service education and training is strongly recommended. Respondents in (4.4.1e) suggest that INSET should occur on a regular basis with sustained follow up. The researcher agrees with teachers in (4.4.1e) that INSET should become part of a teachers conditions of service.

In (5.2.2i) Hofmeyer and Jaff (1992:193,194) believe that INSET is able to solve the problems experienced by teachers who were disfranchised if INSET is institutionalised, support staff is utilized in schools, incentives are provided for teachers and the links between PRESET and INSET is strengthened. Cawood and Gibbon (1985:15), Kapp (1987:54,55) Cropley and Dave (1978:41) and Bullock (1974:553) emphasize that INSET is crucial as it facilitates the professional development of teachers.

Buchel (1995:123) suggests that INSET should start at school level as teachers, especially the beginner teacher needs constant advice, encouragement and support.

This research stresses that INSET is crucial as it not only helps teachers who were disfranchised to overcome problems, but ensures professional growth which is vital for efficient classroom practice.

i)   Inability to teach in multi-cultural classrooms

Given the segregated education policy of the past most respondents in (Table 4.12) reflect that they were not empowered to teach in multi-cultural classes.

Suggestions is offered by Coutts (1992:86) in (5.2.2k). What is quite clear from the approaches offered by Coutts is the fact that teachers should be skilled in questioning techniques and pupil centred approaches. The importance of the practical side of teacher education is once again highlighted.

Woodbridge (1994:67) says that multi-cultural education involves an ongoing process. He recommends teacher education programmes which focus on awareness of discrimination, the restructuring of the curriculum and the reorganization of the school.

COTEP (1996:26) also strongly recommends that future teacher education programmes should focus on the above mentioned aspects which will empower teachers to teach in multi-cultural classes, so that the values of democracy, non-racialism collective work and active participation is promoted.

j)   Inadequacy in developing own learning and teaching aids

Although provision is made in syllabi (DET syllabus 1990:3) for students to manage skills and techniques which will enable them to make their own educational media, students believe that the 28 periods allotted to this aspect of the work is insufficient (5.2.2j).

Schulze (1994:166) recommends that teachers should be educated in making inventories of resources. The development of these resource manuals could be evaluated and students could earn credits which would motivate them to develop their own resource material. In addition students and teachers should be knowledgeable on how to acquire resources from companies and how to adapt it to their own needs (5.2.2j).

As teachers cannot be expected to teach well, without the necessary teaching and learning aids, it is suggested that consideration should be given to this practical aspect as well.

6.4   Conclusion

This study has shown that Education for those who were disfranchised has improved much, but Hartshorne (1990:172) warned as early as 1990, that radical change in the political dispensation in South Africa would not guarantee a positive learning environment.

Teachers who were disfranchised suffered the effects of a fundamentally divisive education system, as well as the authoritarian influence of the ideology of fundamental pedagogics. In addition teacher education syllabi are dominated by subject content mostly at matric level, as it was initially intended to fill in the gaps for students who might nog have taken certain subjects for the Senior Certificate (Siebörger and Kenyon 1992:149).

The imbalance between theory and the duration of practice teaching seriously hampered the development and transformation of teachers who were disfranchised. Therefore an intense school based teacher education programme is recommended in (5.3.1).

There is no doubt that a revised teacher education should also make provision for clear interaction between pre-service and in-service training. This will conform to the approach of an integrated education and training system which will conform to an integrated approach which will equip learners with the necessary skills for the work place (5.3.3).

It is encouraging to note that the norms and standards as proposed by COTEP (1996:35) proposes that serious consideration indeed be given to the above mentioned aspects, in future teacher education programmes.

It is suggested that the shortcomings highlighted in the study should be seriously looked into, as education in a democracy demands teaching methods and strategies which give rise to creative learning, active pupil participation, discussion, problem solving, questioning, collaborative working and self study.

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QUESTIONNAIRE 1

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

MARK YOUR RELEVANT RESPONSE WITH AN X.

1.1   Education as a subject was taught in such a manner that you are able to use its contents meaningfully in your classroom.

A	B
Yes	No

1.2   Teacher Education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer

_____

_____

1.3   During your teacher education you were provided with opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently.

A	B
Yes	No

If no, please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

1.4   Your pre-service teacher education equipped you with skills which enables you to establish a satisfactory classroom climate by providing co-operative, well directed and purposeful activities.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answers _____

_____

1.5   When you started teaching you were able to manage administrative duties such
      as registers, record books, etc. with ease.

A	B
Yes	No

If no, please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

1.6   During your pre-service practice teaching, you were given opportunities for
      action research (e.g. involved in deliberation, debate and decision making,
      becoming aware of quality practice teaching).

A	B
Yes	No

1.7   During your lesson presentation, you are able to link Education with Production
      e.g. pupils perform experiments, make technical models, weigh, measure,
      calculate, etc.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answers

_____

_____

_____

1.8   During your teacher education, your education lecturers presented
      demonstration lessons which you were able to learn from.

A	B
Yes	No

1.9   Methods which you employ have social learning goals which teach democratic
      procedures e.g. group discussions.

A	B
Yes	No

      Please give reason(s) for your answers _____

      _____

      _____

1.10 Are you able to individualise in your classroom, thus meeting the needs of all
      your pupils?

A	B
Yes	No

      If yes, how do you individualise? _____

      _____

      _____

1.11 Do you make use of reflective teaching strategies?

A	B
Yes	No

      If yes, how does it improve your teaching? _____

      _____

      _____

1.12 Has your teacher education empowered you to teach in a multi-cultural
      classroom situation?

A	B
Yes	No

1.13 Are you equipped to do administrative and organizational tasks in the classroom?

A	B
Yes	No

1.14 Does the stringent teaching situation inhibit your initiatives?

A	B
Yes	No

1.15 You are involved in the compilation and interpretation of the curricula

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer

_____

_____

1.16 Does the present school year allow sufficient time for effective completion of the syllabi?

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

1.17 Are you satisfied with the help and support of heads of departments and inspectors of education?

A	B
Yes	No

1.18 Is guidance necessary for experienced as well as inexperienced teacher?

A	B
Yes	No

1.19 Your teaching strategies contribute to an integrated approach to learning.

A	B
Yes	No

1.20 Your teaching situation allows you to employ strategies such as team teaching or paired teaching.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

1.21 Is it necessary for teachers to confer regularly with fellow colleagues on issues in the classroom?

A	B
Yes	No

1.22 If yes, how often should colleagues have these conferences?

A	B	C	D
After each theme is completed	Every other day	Once a week	When problems arise

1.23 Is there often time for these conferences?

A	B
Yes	No

1.24 Do you attend orientation courses in your teaching subjects regularly?

A	B
Yes	No

If no, how does this inhibit your teaching ability?_____

_____

_____

      .

1.25   Teaching and learning aids in your school is adequate.

A	B
Yes	No

SECTION B

2.1   List any other problems you have encountered during your teaching experience.

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.2   If you have any other suggestions or comments on your teacher education or teaching experience, please write them down.

_____

_____

_____

_____

      .

STUDENT TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

MARK YOUR RELEVANT RESPONSE WITH AN X

2.1   Education as a subject was taught in such a manner that you are able to use its contents meaningfully in your classroom.

A	B
Yes	No

2.2   Teacher Education places too much emphasis on the academic side of the curriculum

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

2.3   During your teacher education you were provided with opportunities to practice the necessary teaching skills sufficiently.

A	B
Yes	No

If no, please give reasons for your answer _____

_____

_____

2.4 Your pre-service teacher education equipped you with skills which enables you to establish a satisfactory classroom climate by providing co-operative, well directed and purposeful activities.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

2.5 During your pre-service practice teaching, you were given opportunities for action research (e.g. involved in deliberation, debate and decision making, becoming aware of quality practice teaching).

A	B
Yes	No

2.6 During your lesson presentation, you are able to link Education with Production e.g. pupils perform experiments, make technical models, weigh, measure, calculate, etc.

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

2.7 During your teacher education, your education lecturers presented demonstration lessons which you were able to learn from

A	B
Yes	No

2.8 Methods which you employ have social learning goals which teach democratic procedures e.g. group discussions

A	B
Yes	No

Please give reason(s) for your answer _____

_____

_____

2.9 Are you able to individualise in your classroom, thus meeting the needs of all pupils?

A	B
Yes	No

If yes, how do you individualise? _____

_____

2.10 Do you make use of reflective teaching strategies?

A	B
Yes	No

If yes, how does it improve your teaching? _____

_____

2.11 Has your teacher education empowered you to teach in a multi-cultural classroom situation?

A	B
Yes	No

2.12 Are teaching and learning aids adequate in schools?

A	B
Yes	No

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS: LECTURERS

3.1   Is sufficient emphasis placed on the practical side of the curriculum? If no, please elaborate.

3.2   To what extent do you see the subject Education playing an overarching or overbridging role in the curriculum?

3.3   Is it necessary for lecturers to present their normal day to day lectures in the form of model lessons which students can learn from? Please elaborate on your answers.

3.4   Do you think that practice teaching is allotted sufficient time during the duration of the courses offered at Colleges of Education?

3.5   The amount of time which should be spent on practice teaching per course.

3.6   Do lecturers find the opportunity for action research? (e.g. deliberation and debate)

3.7   What role should In-service Education and Training play in the whole teacher education spectrum?

3.8   Does the present curriculum provide sufficient time for the effective teaching of classroom management and school administration? Please elaborate.

3.9   Are you familiar with the curricula changes made in the norms and standards document as suggested by COTEP?

3.10   What improvements regarding teacher education in general would you suggest?

SECTION B

2.1.1 List any other problems you have encountered during your practice teaching or class teaching.

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.1.2 If you have any other suggestions or comments on your teacher education or teaching experience, please write them down.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____