

THE DEVELOPMENT OF APPROPRIATE TEACHER-TRAINING
STRUCTURES
TO TRAIN AND ACCREDIT TEACHERS AND UPGRADE EXISTING
TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS, FOR THE FOUNDATION PHASE OF
EDUCATION, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE RECEPTION CLASS
YEAR, IN KWAZULU-NATAL

by

COLLEEN BARBARA THATCHER

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the degree of
Master of Education
(Education Administration)

in the

Department of Education
University of Natal
Durban
1995

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Colleen Barbara Thatcher declare that this dissertation,
"THE DEVELOPMENT OF APPROPRIATE TEACHER-TRAINING
STRUCTURES TO TRAIN AND ACCREDIT TEACHERS AND UPGRADE
EXISTING TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS, FOR THE FOUNDATION PHASE
OF EDUCATION, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE RECEPTION CLASS
YEAR, IN KWAZULU-NATAL", is my own work and that all sources I have used
or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

C.B. THATCHER

DURBAN
January 1995

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge her sincere thanks and appreciation to the following:

1. Professor Michael Thurlow, the Supervisor of this dissertation, for his support, guidance and encouragement throughout the duration of this study.
2. Dr. Gordon Nicholls, Vice-Rector of Edgewood College of Education, for allowing me to make use of the most up-to-date reference material.
3. Mr. Barry Vosloo, Superintendent of Education: ex-Natal Education Department: Planning and Development - Teacher Training and Provision, for providing me with current teacher-training reference material.
4. My husband, Rob, for his unfailing support and encouragement throughout the duration of this study.

ABSTRACT

South Africa stands on the threshold of a new era in education. The separate and fragmented model for the provision of education, which signified a policy of apartheid, is to be replaced by a single unified system.

With the adoption of a new interim Constitution (1993), we have, for the first time, formal recognition of human rights, the application of which, will underlie all legislation and administration decisions (Dean in Neon, May 1994:9-10).

On 31 March 1994, the 'own affairs' administrations were abolished. In accordance with the interim Constitution (1993), these structures have, however, been retained and will continue until the transition to a new dispensation takes place (Neon, May 1994:20). Progress towards achieving the goal of a unified education system includes, inter alia, the creation of a Department of Education and Training at a national level, as well as the creation of provincial administrations in 9 provinces, each of which will have its own education department (Neon, June 1994:1).

The new government stands committed to early childhood development. The care and development of infants and young children is seen to be the foundation of social relations and the starting point of a national human resource development strategy. Policy proposals outlined by the

Department of Education in the Draft White Paper recommend that:

*"The care and development of infants and young children must be the foundation of social relations and the starting point of a national human resource development strategy..... The new national department is planned to have a directorate for Early Childhood Development and Lower Primary Education, in the light of continuity in developmental approaches to the young child and the need for a reshaping of curricula and teaching methodology for the early years of school.....
The year 1995 should be used mainly for planning the development of the reception year....."*
(Republic of South Africa, 1994:20).

As far back as 1981, the De Lange Commission stated that without a corps of well-trained and talented teachers, any attempts aimed at realizing the potential of a country's inhabitants, improving the quality of life of its citizens, promoting economic growth and providing an equal system of education, cannot be successful. No other single factor determines to such an extent the quality of education in a country, as the quality of the corps of its teachers (HSRC, 1981:59 & 180).

It is anticipated that the demand for teachers is likely to increase as a result of the phasing-in of compulsory education commencing with the class one child, the introduction of a reception class year, reduction of class sizes to 40 pupils and the enrolment of out-of-school children. Trained manpower will prove to be a major problem and an accelerated programme of teacher education to meet quantitative needs, without compromising quality, will be

essential, in order to successfully implement a reception class year, ensure a better distribution of qualified teachers and cater for ever-increasing numbers of school-going children. Major structural changes will, therefore, be needed in the preparation and development of teachers.

It is within the context of this background information, that this study has been conducted, namely to develop appropriate teacher-training structures for the foundation phase of education, with particular reference to the reception class year.

The specific purposes of the study were:-

- * to review pre-primary provision;
- * to review current teacher-training structures and assess priorities and needs for developing appropriate methods of professional training;
- * to compare pre-primary provision and teacher-training policy with that of developing and developed countries;
- * to develop strategies to train and accredit teachers through a shortened PRESET structure;
- * to upgrade existing teacher qualifications through an approved INSET structure;
- * to analyse the feasibility of the proposed strategies for the KwaZulu-Natal region.

The study involved an analysis of the NEPI sectoral reports on Early Childhood Educare and Teacher Education, the ERS and the KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Groups' Discussion Documents. In addition, other relevant reports and working papers have also been consulted.

Viable options for the training of teachers for the foundation phase of education which emerged from the study were:

- * the establishment of links between non-formal and formal training programmes;
- * the development of a modular career path for the coordinated training of teachers through INSET;
- * the development of a 5-year plan for the phasing in of qualified teachers through PRESET and INSET;
- * the development of an appropriate course structure;
- * an outline of governance and control.

The main recommendations made in the study include the following:-

- * the obtaining of a Reception Class Diploma which will allow experienced educare workers to obtain a formally-recognised diploma in reception class education, part-time, whilst currently employed as a teacher;
- * the recognition of such a diploma should the student not wish to study further;
- * the upgrading and revitalising of lower primary school teachers currently in service;
- * the obtaining of a 3-year diploma through an inverted '2+2' teacher-training model which will, inter alia, allow the student to obtain 'on the job' training whilst studying on a part-time basis;
- * a simplified qualifications structure;
- * the implementation of a 5-year plan for the phasing-in of qualified teachers;
- * a collaborative strategy with accredited NGOs who will assist with the training of teachers
- * a modularised curriculum
- * the establishment of a Resource and Training Centre for teachers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
ABSTRACT	ii
LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES	xviii
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
AIM AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	11
RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY	13
THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY	13
SUMMARY	16
CHAPTER 2	
PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION AND THE ROLE OF THE STATE	17
INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF TERMS	17
Pre-Primary Education	20
Early Childhood Development (ECD)	20
Early Childhood Educare (ECE)	21
Early Childhood Educators	21
Reception Classes	22
Foundation Phase of Education	22
The Education System	23
The State	23
The Apartheid System	24

EDUCATION AND THE APARTHEID ERA	24
Ex-State Departments of Education	25
BACKGROUND TO PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION AND THE ROLE OF THE STATE	29
Apartheid Policy	29
White Education	30
Coloured Education	33
Indian Education	34
Black Education	35
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CURRENT PROVISION	36
General	36
Types of Provision	39
Pre-Primary/Reception Classes attached to schools	39
The Bridging Period Programme (BPP)	40
The Bophuthatswana Pre-Primary Programme	41
State-Aided Pre-Primary Schools	43
The provincially-controlled/ salaries option	43
The per capita subsidy option	44
Educare Centres	44
Pupil/Teacher Ratios	48
State Expenditure	49
Private Funders	50
FUTURE PROVISION: THE EDUCATION RENEWAL STRATEGY (ERS)	50
NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY INVESTIGATION (NEPI) PROVISION OPTIONS	51
PREPARATION FOR FORMAL SCHOOLING	52
The Bridging Period Programme (BPP) Option	52
The Pre-Primary/Reception Class Option	53

JUNIOR PRIMARY UPGRADING

**The Junior Primary Upgrading Programme
(JP/UP) Option
The Integrated Junior Primary Option
(INTEG) Option**

BASIC PROJECTIONS

**Cost Implications
Costing Options
 Bridging Period Programme (BPP)
 Junior Primary Upgrading (JP/UP)
 The Pre-Primary (PREP) Option
 The Integrated (INTEG) Option
Discussion of Options**

THE FRAMEWORK REPORT

SUMMARY

CHAPTER 3

TEACHER EDUCATION: PROVISION AND POLICY

INTRODUCTION

CURRENT POLICY FRAMEWORK

**PRESET: Location and Control
INSET: Location and Control
INSET AND NGOs
Access to Teacher Education
Certification and Assessment
Accountability and Professional Development
of Teachers
Teacher Education Curriculum
Projected Primary School Enrolment**

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: CURRENT TEACHER- TRAINING PROVISION

Formal versus Non-Formal Training Opportunities	87
Non-Formal Training: Course Accreditation	90
Formal Training Qualifications	95
Tertiary Training Opportunities	95
Formal Secondary Level Training	97
ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT OF POLICY OPTIONS	98
The Early Childhood Stage of Development	99
Separate Education and Welfare Policies	100
Formal Training: The Bridging Period Programme	100
Formal and Non-Formal Training: The Bophuthatswana Pre-Primary Model	102
NEPI RECOMMENDATIONS	103
Upgrading of Pre-Primary and Junior Primary Courses	103
Non-formal training by NGOs	105
State-subsidized Autonomous NGOs	106
Quasi-NGOs (QUANGO) Model	106
The Community College	107
Linkages between Formal and Non-Formal Training and Accreditation	107
An Improved Education System	108
ERS POLICY PERSPECTIVE	111
SUMMARY	112
CHAPTER 4	114
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES	114
THE CONCEPT OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT	119
TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES	122
THE UNITED KINGDOM	122
Background	122

Reform of Teacher-Training: New Routes into teaching	126
Current Routes into Teaching	128
Early Years Education: Nursery Education	129
4 Year-Olds in Infant Classes:	
A Cause for Concern	132
The Rumbold Report	133
The Leeds Articled Teacher Scheme	135
From Nursery Nursing to Teaching	137
Pre-School Playgroups Association (PPA)	139
National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ)	140
Non-Graduates to Key Stage 1	143
 PRIMARY EDUCATION AND TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	 144
Background	144
Early Childhood Education	145
Teacher Qualifications and PRESET AND INSET	147
Community Colleges	150
The High/Scope Training Model	152
Teacher Certification in Early Childhood Education	154
Levels of Professionalism	155
 TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES	 157
COLUMBIA: A NEW SCHOOL PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AMERICA	157
Background	157
Programme Objectives and Components	160
Teacher-Training and Follow-up Component	160
Initiation Workshops for Teachers	161
Additional Workshops	161
Demonstrative Schools and Micro-centres	162
The Community Component	163
Evolution of the Programme	163
Evaluation of the Programme	164
 AFRICAN EDUCATION	 165
Background	165
 TEACHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE	 167
Background	167
Teacher Education	167
ZINTEC	168
 TANZANIA	 170
Teacher Education	171

Distance Learning for Teachers	172
Defects of the Distance Learning Scheme	173
KENYA	173
Background	173
Early Childhood Education	174
Role of the NACECE	175
Teacher-training Policy	176
Analysis of the Training Strategy	177
 IMPLICATIONS OF COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVES FOR SOUTH AFRICA	 178
Distance Education	178
In-service Training in Rural Colombia	179
Teachers as Fully-fledged Partners in Training	180
Patterns of Early Childhood Provision and Governance	180
The Community College Concept	183
Mapping of Training Schemes	183
 SUMMARY	 185
 CHAPTER 5	 186
DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE MODELS FOR ACCELERATED TEACHER TRAINING	186
 INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF TERMS	 186
Training Course	188
Non-formal Training	189
Formal Education and Training	
Early Childhood Profession	189
Approval or Recognition for courses and Diplomas	
Accreditation	189
Validation	191
Certification	191
Registration (Licensing)	191
Minimum Qualification for Admission to Teacher-Training	191
Required Languages	192

Active Learning	192
Certificate of Competence	192
Endorsement	193
Internship	193
GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN DEVELOPING TRAINING STRATEGIES	193
A New Qualifications Structure	195
Revised Entrance Criteria and Course Curriculum	196
Co-ordinating INSET and PRESET	197
ESTABLISHING LINKS BETWEEN NON-FORMAL AND FORMAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES	197
Linking Formal and Non-formal Programmes	197
INSET	199
INSET for the Reception Class Year	200
Establishing a Modular Career Path for Coordinated Training	201
Level 1:Reception Class Certificate	204
Target Group	204
Access	204
Course Content and Accreditation	205
Method of Training	206
Duration of Course	206
Course Evaluation	206
General:Teacher-Assistants	207
Level 2:Reception Class Diploma	207
Target Group and Access to Training	207
Course Content and Accreditation	208
Duration	209
Method of Training	209
Course Evaluation	209
General	210
Level 3:Diploma for the Foundation	
Phase	210
INSET for Junior Primary Teachers & Reception Class Teachers	210
Target Group and Access to Training	211
Course Content and Accreditation	211
Method	212
Duration	212
Course Evaluation	212

Level 4: Higher Diploma in Education with Specialist Options	212
Course Structure for Establishing Career Paths for Teachers in the Foundation Phase	213
Course Curriculum	215
Education	215
Professional Studies	215
Applied Education	216
Specific Curricular Issues	216
Remedial Education	216
Specialised Education	216
Community Education	217
Guidance and Counselling	217
Academic Subjects	217
Practice Teaching	218
A Modularised Curriculum	219
A 5 YEAR PLAN FOR THE PHASING IN OF TEACHERS IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE	219
INSET and PRESET: DIPLOMA for the Foundation Phase	219
Internship	220
Strategy for Training Teachers for the Foundation Phase	220
Year 1	222
INSET	222
Target Group	222
General	222
PRESET	222
Target Group	222
Method of Training	222
Duration of Course	222
Accreditation	223
Year 2	223
INSET	223
Target Group	223
PRESET	223
Target Group	223
Year 3	223
INSET	223
Target Group	223

PRESET	223
Target Group	224
Year 4	224
INSET	224
PRESET	224
Target Group	224
Year 5	225
PRESET	225
General	225
Internship Model	225
Advantages and Constraints of the 5-year Model	225
GOVERNANCE AND CONTROL	226
A Recommended " <i>Plan of Action</i> "	226
The Community College	231
South African Adaptation	231
Academic Transfer	231
Location	232
Course Structure and Accreditation	233
A Collegium	233
Membership	234
Advantages	233
Teacher Certification and Assessment	235
Teacher Accountability and Professional Development	235
PROJECTED PATTERN OF GOVERNANCE AND CONTROL	236
A National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)	237
Regional Committees	239
South African Council of the Accreditation of Teacher Education (SACATE)	239
General Comment	240
SUMMARY	240

KWAZULU-NATAL IN CONTEXT	240
INTRODUCTION	240
CURRENT PERSPECTIVES	243
<i>"A UNITARY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION"</i>	245
Key Principles	245
PRINCIPLE 1: <i>"EDUCATION AS A BASIC HUMAN RIGHT"</i>	246
Implications	246
The Reception Year	246
Principles of Provision	247
Financing as a Percentage of the National Budget	250
Per Capita Financing	251
Recommendations	256
Period of Compulsory and Free Schooling	257
PRINCIPLE 3: <i>"THE INSTITUTIONS OF SOCIETY SHOULD BE TRANSFORMED IN THE INTERESTS OF ALL ITS CITIZENS"</i>	259
Implications	259
Comment	260
PRINCIPLE 4: <i>"THE CULTURE OF LEARNING MUST BE PROMOTED"</i>	263
Implications	263
The Organized Teaching Profession	263
The Establishment of a Regional, Non-Racial Teachers' Organisation	266
TEACHER PROVISION	266
Current Provision of Training Facilities	268
State Responsibility	269
Full Utilization of Teacher Education Resources	269
Student Bursaries and Loans	270
Co-operation among Teacher Education Institutions	271

Teacher Education Models	271
PRESET	272
INSET	274
Professional Accountability	275
Current Teacher-training Models:	
Edgewood College of Education	276
'On-the-Job' Training:	
The Edgewood Option	277
MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES AND PROFESSIONAL AND ADMINISTRATION FUNCTIONS	278
PRINCIPLE 5: <i>"A LEAN, EFFICIENT EDUCATION BUREAUCRACY MUST BE ESTABLISHED"</i>	278
ADVISORY STRUCTURES	280
The Organised Profession	280
NGOs	281
FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS & KEY ISSUES	281
PRINCIPLE 6: <i>"THE FINANCIAL ALLOCATION FOR THE PROVINCE MUST BE EQUITABLY DETERMINED"</i>	281
Implications	281
SUMMARY	285
CHAPTER 7	286
MEETING THE DEMAND FOR TRAINED TEACHERS: IDEOLOGY VERSUS REALITY	286
INTRODUCTION	286
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	288
<i>"FIVE INTO ONE DOES GO - OR IT WILL SOON!"</i>	290

Project Task Groups (PTGs) in KwaZulu-Natal	290
IMPLICATIONS OF THE DRAFT WHITE PAPER	294
Compulsory Education	295
Teacher-Training	296
A New Qualifications Structure	297
Governance and Control	299
Financial Constraints	300
Proposed Reforms and Implications for Training	301
SOME THOUGHTS ON A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS	304
GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS: IDEOLOGY VERSUS REALITY	307
CONCLUSION	310
REFERENCES	312

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

	Page
 CHAPTER 2	
Table 2.1 The Number of Children in Reception Classes attached to Primary Schools and in Pre-Primary Schools subsidiz- ed by ex-Education Departments	38
Table 2.2 The Number and Percentages of Children between the age of 0-6 years who attended educare centres subsidized by ex-Education Departments and other Facilities (1991)	46
Table 2.3 Previous Government Expenditure on ECD, according to Race Group	49
Table 2.4 Capital and Recurrent Costs (in R Millions) for the Junior Primary Education and Total Costs for each level in the Year 2000	62
 CHAPTER 3	
Table 3.1 PRESET Provision	75
Table 3.2 Teacher Qualifications according to Population Group	83
Table 3.3 Types of Teaching Staff employed in educare centres for Black children, according to training received (1991)	90
 CHAPTER 4	
Table 4.1 Early Childhood Education: Failure and Drop-out Rates	164

CHAPTER 5

Figure 5.1

Establishing a Modular Career Path for the Co-ordinated Training of Teachers for the Foundation Phase

201

Figure 5.1.1

Level 1 and Level 2

202

Figure 5.1.2

203

Figure 5.2

INSET: 5-year Phasing in Plan for Teacher-Training

220

Figure 5.3

PRESET: FEC + 3

221

Figure 5.4

PRESET FEC + 2

221

Figure 5.5

Schematic representation of the Accreditation Structures for Teacher Education

236

Table 5.1

Course Curriculum for the Training of Teachers in the Foundation Phase

214

Table 5.2

Phasing-in of Reception Class Provision: a 5-Year Plan

227

Table 5.3

Costs of Non-Formal and Formal ECD Training

228

Table 5.4

Training Costs for the Period 1995 - 1999 in Million Rands

228

Table 5.5

Number of Classrooms required by Year

230

Table 5.6

Training and Classroom Costs for the years 1995-1999

230

CHAPTER 6

Table 6.1	
Primary Pupils & Teachers in Ordinary Public Schools	244
Table 6.2	
Primary Education for KwaZulu-Natal: 1995-2000	259
Table 6.3	
Capacity of and Actual Enrolments in Schools: 1993	261
Table 6.4	
Qualifications of Teachers	267
Table 6.5	
Number of Teacher Training Institutions	269
Table 6.6	
Comparison of Pupil Numbers and Expenditure in Public Schools in Relation of Other Regions	283

---o0o---

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Traditionally, in South Africa, and in many other countries, early childhood education has been the subject of separate education and welfare policies relating to different aspects of provision. The old constitutional framework of the Republic, which distinguished 'own affairs' and 'general affairs', has impacted markedly on the care and education of the young child. Large discrepancies, reflected in the quality of provision, extent of state financing and access to early childhood care and education programmes, have existed between the Black and White sectors of the population. The situation has been exacerbated by the fact that what provision has existed, has occurred inversely to need.

A large majority of African, Coloured and Indian children have had no access to pre-school programmes and a significant number have been cared for by untrained child-minders. Provision for children in these sectors has, therefore, been characterised as totally inadequate (Atmore, 1991:1; NEPI: Early Childhood Educare, 1992:8-9).

The most common form of education policy provision for early childhood care and education is the conventional school-type model which offers centre-based education in the form of pre-primary schools or classes and the welfare policy provision of full day care of children under 3 years and the after-school care of older children of low-income working

mothers (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:15).

In 1991, approximately 33% of White children had access to some kind of pre-school provision in comparison with approximately 7% of Black children in the same age group. Research reveals a greater proportion of White and Indian children aged 3 to 6 years as having attended pre-primary schools and classes, i.e. 33% and 13% respectively, who received some form of state subsidization, than was the case for Coloured and Black children who received 11% and 6% respectively (ibid.15-16).

The urgent need to look at what ought to be done in education and what can actually be achieved in real terms is not only a matter of priority setting, but also a matter of a system transformation, in order to receive optimal return on each rand spent and to create avenues for additional contribution from sources (Syncom, 1986: 14).

In a memorandum distributed to a broad spectrum of people, with a view to influencing educational debate and decision-making regarding the importance of pre-school education, the Natal Pre-Primary Teachers' Association (NPPTA), an Interest and Professional Support Group of the Association of Professional Educators in KwaZulu-Natal (APEK), stated the following:

" As in a building, unless the foundations of education are based on a quality formative phase education programme, the structure of formal education will be weak and ineffective,

particularly in disadvantaged communities."
(NPPTA, 1991:5)

Research indicates that childhood, up to the age of 7, is a unique period during which the child develops an estimated two thirds of his ultimate cognitive ability, as well as the core of his personality and social and emotional disposition (Bloom in Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1990:77; NPPTA, 1991:5). It has also been found that educational programmes for young children can have a positive effect on school progress and on the achievement in the early years of primary school. This is particularly so in the case of disadvantaged children who receive little cognitive stimulation at home (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:4).

The term '*pre-school education*', is a relatively modern term, although the *socio-educational* reality it represents, is not new, since '*kindergartens*' existed during the early nineteenth century. Initially, '*pre-school education*' literally meant education '*before school*' i.e. compulsory schooling. Today, the term has acquired new connotations and a broader significance. The concept of the pre-school period has been extended to cover the whole period preceding the child's admittance to primary school, i.e. from birth until the age of approximately 6. Although the word '*education*' is emphasized, its meaning has been broadened to encompass far more than just instruction. Concern not only centres on the intellectual, logical and rational aspects of development but also on the moral, aesthetic, emotional and social areas. In addition, the biological, nutritional,

verbal and other components in the education of children between the ages of 0 and 3, has also assumed importance (Mialaret, 1976:8).

Much research was conducted on early childhood programmes, during the 1960s and 1970s. In 1975, a number of researchers who had been studying the effects of early childhood programmes, since the 1960s, formed the Consortium for Longitudinal Studies. The purpose of the Consortium was to assess the long-term effects of early childhood education across different pre-school programmes. Using the whole population of large-scale early childhood intervention studies conducted in the 1960s, results from pooled data showed lasting effects of preschool in 4 areas, namely:-

- * school competence, as evidenced by retention rates and rate of placement in special education programmes;
- * developed abilities, as evidenced by achievement test scores and IQ scores;
- * children's attitudes and values;
- * impact on the family.

The researchers concluded that *"any well-designed, professionally supervised programme to stimulate and socialize infants and young children from poor minority families will be efficacious"* (Consortium for Longitudinal Studies, 1983 in Spodek, 1993:97-98).

Well known in the field of pre-school research are Dr. David Weikart and Dr. Lawrence Schweinhart, from the High/Scope

Education Foundation in Michigan (the High/Scope Perry Pre-School Programme is included in the long-term study described above). Research conducted by the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation focused on children living in poverty, 90% of whom were Black. Major findings, organized according to outcomes of participants, at each period of their lives, reveals the following:

- * improved intellectual performance during early childhood;
- * better scholastic placement and improved scholastic achievement during the elementary years;
- * a lower rate of delinquency during adolescence;
- * higher rates of graduation from high school;
- * higher rates of employment at age 19.

The most recent findings from the USA show that children who took part in the High/Scope Pre-School Programme have significantly out-performed their peers by gaining a better education, earning higher salaries and staying out of crime. The High/Scope Perry Pre-school Project which has followed the lives of 123 African-American children who are now aged 27, reveals that many social problems have been prevented, namely:

- * the prevention of school failure and, ultimately, a lower high school dropout rate;
- * the prevention of problems associated with drop-out such as, delinquency, teenage pregnancies and reliance on welfare;
- * the production of higher IQs and, therefore, a reduced need for special education placement.

In addition, an investment into this phase of education has returned into the economy a yield of 6 to 1, in savings related to educational remediation, productivity, etc. (Brandt in Educational Leadership, 1986:14-18; Schweinhart and Weikart in Phi Delta Kappan, 1985:545-551; Morgan, 1993 in Child Education, July:10).

The positive effects of pre-school programmes, notes Weikart, apply only to high quality child development programmes. He states that:

" There is no intrinsic value in a young child's leaving home for a few hours a day to join another adult and a group of children unless the quality of the programme is carefully defined and maintained." (Weikart in Educamus, 1992:15-17)

Myers (in NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:1), in a review of evaluation studies conducted in 10 less developed countries, mainly in America, states that:

" there is increasing evidence that early investments in the development of the 'whole child' can bring improvements in the life of the child and benefits to the larger society."

In South Africa, between 25% and 35% of Coloured and African children repeat or drop-out of Sub A. Due to repetition and under-age and over-age school enrolments, for every 100 children anticipated in Sub A, there are actual enrolments of 150 African and 100 Coloured children. An estimated 25% of African children, each year, are likely to leave school illiterate (without passing standard 3). This would appear

to be an enormous waste of human and financial (an estimated R600 million per year in African education, in addition to the costs of children repeating standards) (ibid.3).

Two sets of factors contribute to poor scholastic performance namely:

- * The 'unreadiness' of schools for children due to the unavailability of schools, poor quality of schooling i.e. overcrowded classrooms, lack of material resources, inadequately trained teachers and lack of responsiveness to local needs and circumstances.
- * The 'unreadiness' of children for formal school and for life, due to the problem of under-age enrolment in certain communities, as well as the child's condition and family attitudes and practices (ibid.3).

This evidence suggests that adverse structural conditions and poor quality primary schooling can negate the effects of pre-primary programmes. Consequently, before any substantial improvement can be made in the general level of scholastic progress, particularly among Black and Coloured children, primary schools need to be transformed to make them ready for children by providing appropriate learning environments. Myers concludes that any attempts to strengthen primary schools must include interventions developed for the pre-school years, through a combined approach to early childhood and the early years of primary school education. Programmes should, therefore, focus on improving the child's readiness for school and on improving the school's readiness for the child (ibid.3-5).

Derbyshire (in Kapp, 1991:185 -187), states that a child's readiness for formal learning forms the basis in which he gives meaning to the formal learning situation and exercises an important influence on the future course of his learning and becoming. The child who is not yet ready for school entry is already at a disadvantage. This in itself can have far-reaching effects for his total growing up into adulthood. He defines school readiness as:-

" ... a preparation for undertaking new activities such as those which feature in the school situation. Different circumstances, experiences, events and factors intrinsic and extrinsic to the child himself, play a role in school readiness. In this regard, there are intrinsic factors such as interest, motivation, experience, personality and intelligence and extrinsic factors such as family background and environmental factors."

Conversely, 'non-school readiness' indicates that the child has not reached the developmental level at which he can effectively meet the demands of the school situation as a whole, without tension and necessary effort (ibid.187).

As far back as 1981, the de Lange Commission, in their Report on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, acknowledged that the need for pre-primary education and proposed a state-funded year as a prerequisite for success at school, particularly during the initial period of formal education. Environmental deprivation was cited as the main reason for the child not being school-ready at the normal school-going age. In addition, the Report stated that:

" No other single factor determines to such an extent the quality of education in a country as the quality of the corps of teachers.

..... Without a corps of well-trained and talented teachers, any attempt aimed at realizing the potential of a country's inhabitants, improving the quality of life of its citizens, promoting economic growth and providing an equal system of education, cannot be successful." (HSRC, 1981:27 & 59)

In a Discussion Document entitled "*A Regional Perspective on Reconstructing Education*", the Natal KwaZulu Inter-departmental Working Group, suggest as one of their key principles, that a school readiness programme of one year's duration, immediately prior to formal school entry, be regarded as a matter of the highest priority for all children in the region (1992:1). With the introduction of compulsory education at the primary school level and the introduction of a state-funded pre-school/reception class year, the numbers of Black and Coloured pupils can be expected to increase considerably, with resultant implications for the demand for qualified teachers in these population groups.

The critical shortage of professionally-qualified teachers in South Africa is a well-documented fact. With regard to the quality and quantity of teachers, a serious shortage exists in schools for Black and Coloured children (HSRC, 1981:59-60). Approximately, 30 000 teachers are unqualified, whilst a further 45 000 teachers have no matric (standard 10 leaving certificate) (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:66). A move towards parity, in respect of 'pupil density', at a ratio of 30 pupils per teacher, by the year

2020, will necessitate the training of approximately 245 405 Black teachers and 22 798 Coloured teachers (Vos and Brits, 1990:57).

With the introduction of a school readiness/ reception class year for 80% of 5 year-olds, at a pupil teacher ratio of 25 pupils per teacher, an additional 39 300 teachers, will be required in the year 2000 (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:88). Appropriate, economical and accredited teacher-training courses, without compromising standards of quality, are, therefore, urgently needed, in order to meet the demand for qualified staff.

The present rate of pre-service education has improved slightly with the opening up of certain colleges of education for all race groups. Courses offered, however, take at least 4 years to complete and, at present, do not take into account the urgent need for the upgrading of qualifications by means of in-service training. It is important that upgrading programmes are offered to raise the effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom, as this will also contribute towards eliminating the present gap between the salaries of underqualified teachers and those who meet the minimum qualification requirements (HSRC, 1981:60-66).

The ideal of achieving parity of educational provision for all children in the country needs to be assessed in terms of present budgetary realities. Key issues which emerge and which must be taken into account, are the provision of a

school readiness/reception class programme, class size, the provision of sufficiently trained teachers and the need for financial assistance from private sources. Expected reality is that trained manpower is going to prove to be a major problem and that additional capital, from the state, will be necessary, in order to redress historical imbalances.

For the first time in South Africa's history, a government has the mandate to plan the reconstruction and development of an education and training system which will benefit the country as a whole and all its people. The challenge which faces the government is to create an education and training system that will fulfil the vision to *'open the doors of learning and culture to all.'* (Republic of South Africa, 1994: 2)

THE AIM AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is within the context of this background information, that the present research, namely to develop appropriate teacher-training structures for the initial/foundation phase of education, in the KwaZulu-Natal area, is proposed.

The foundation phase (initially named the formative phase) of education may be defined as:

" a four-year educational module resulting in elementary literacy (encompassing reading writing oral communication skills) and numeracy (including a basic grasp of number, mathematical and science concepts), as well as life-skills (e.g. independence, confidence and cooperation)."
(NPPTA, 1991:7)

This phase of education will be seen to commence essentially with the pre-school year, i.e. the 5-6 year age group of early childhood education, and extend up to the end of the junior primary phase i.e. standard one. More specifically, the study will investigate:

- * present access to pre-school education;
- * present non-formal training structures;
- * present formal teacher-training structures and the assessment of priorities and needs for developing appropriate methods of professional training;
- * the establishment of links between non-formal and formal training programmes;
- * the development of strategies to train and accredit teachers;
- * the upgrading of existing teacher qualifications through an approved in-service and pre-service structure;
- * intensifying pre-service teacher education (PRESET) to ensure sufficient supply of teachers;
- * intensifying in-service teacher education and training (INSET) to ensure the quality and effectiveness of practising teachers;
- * the feasibility of incorporating the reception class year as part of the continuum in the first/foundation phase of education;
- * the establishment of a five year plan for the phasing-in of qualified teachers;
- * the use of alternative training models as a means of accreditation;
- * developing an appropriate and modular curriculum structure with flexible entry and exit points;
- * developing a collegium as a central body for course and institutional validation and accreditation;
- * creating horizontal mobility between

institutions, including schools;

- * a projected pattern of governance for teacher-training courses;
- * the viability of extension to all, i.e. the assessment of physical, financial and human resources constraints in the light of the above-mentioned issues.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) Reports on Early Childhood Educare and Teacher Education, the Department of National Education's Educational Renewal Strategy Discussion Document and the KwaZulu-Natal Inter-departmental Education Working Groups' Discussion Documents entitled "*A Regional Perspective on Reconstructing Education*" and "*A Unitary Department of Education: Discussion Document for Geographic Natal.*", will be used as a basis for research.

A critical examination of other relevant reports, working papers and discussion documents, will be used by the writer in an attempt to develop viable and appropriate teacher-training policy options for the foundation/initial phase of education, with special reference to the reception class year, in the KwaZulu-Natal region.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

This section provides a background to the study. It briefly outlines the value of pre-primary education in reducing drop-out rates and repetition of standards in the primary

school and introduces the concept of foundation/initial phase education. The urgent need to train and accredit teachers is highlighted.

The aim and purpose of the study and the research methods to be employed, are explained, followed by a brief synopsis of each section.

CHAPTER 2: PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION AND THE ROLE OF THE STATE

This chapter contextualises current provision of pre-school education and includes background information on previous state policy regarding the provision of 'own affairs' education and a comparative analysis. Implications for teacher-training are briefly alluded to. ~

A definition of terms is included for clarifying a few important concepts and the NEPI and ERS future policy options regarding pre-school education, conclude the section.

CHAPTER 3: TEACHER EDUCATION: PROVISION AND POLICY

The focus shifts to past and current, formal teacher-training provision and policy and non-formal teacher-training opportunities. Priorities for developing appropriate training structures are assessed in the light of real needs.

CHAPTER 4: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN

CHAPTER 4: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

This section describes and analyses teacher education policies and programmes in selected African states. It also investigates teacher education policy in the more industrialized countries such as England, Wales and America.

CHAPTER 5: DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE TRAINING MODELS FOR ACCELERATED TEACHER-TRAINING

This section commences with guiding principles to be considered in developing appropriate teacher-training strategies. Proposals to establish links between non-formal and formal training programmes and a 5-year plan for the phasing-in of qualified teachers for the first/foundation phase of education, are proposed as viable options.

Alternative training models are explored and discussed as a means of accreditation. A modular curriculum structure with flexible entry and exit points and horizontal transfer of courses between institutions are also included. A projected pattern of governance for teacher-training courses, which includes a collegiate structure, as a central body for and institutional validation and accreditation the is proposed.

CHAPTER 6: KWAZULU-NATAL IN CONTEXT

This section critically examines the KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Groups' Discussion Documents based on the regional perspectives for the

reconstruction of education, under a single unified system. Proposals outlined in Chapter 5 are analysed against the findings of the 2 reports. Proposed teacher education models for the region, are briefly outlined. The chapter concludes with financial considerations and key issues for the region.

CHAPTER 7: MEETING THE DEMAND FOR TRAINED TEACHERS: IDEOLOGY VERSUS REALITY?

This section summarises the main findings of the study and concludes with general recommendations and feasible projections for effective and accelerated teacher-training, for the initial/foundation phase of education, in KwaZulu-Natal. Resource constraints and the financial feasibility of the proposal, conclude the section.

SUMMARY

This first chapter has provided a brief background to the study and an outline of the aim and purpose of the research. A description of the research methodology to be employed and an outline of the structure of the study have also been included.

The next chapter will focus on pre-primary provision and will include a historical analysis, current provision and future policy options.

CHAPTER 2

PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION AND THE ROLE OF THE STATE

INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

There are approximately 6,5 million South African infants and children between 0 and 6 years of age, i.e. 17% of the total population. Approximately 5,5 million are African (Black) and more than 3 million of these infants and children reside in metropolitan and urban areas. Another 2 million reside in rural homelands, whilst three quarters of a million reside in farm and forest areas (ANC Education Department, 1994:91).

The families of more than half of the infant population live in extreme poverty and children are particularly vulnerable to malnutrition, disease and premature death. A high proportion of these parents have had very little or no schooling and are not able to prepare their own children to learn the skills of reading and formal learning (ibid.2).

The previous education system that evolved in South Africa may be described as one of extraordinary complexity, i.e. it was characterized by a mixture of centralized and decentralized forms of control. The system which was fragmented along racial and ethnic lines, resulted in the duplication of structures and committees for the provision of education across all population groups (c/f NEPI: Governance and Administration, 1992).

Previous government have adopted the view that the care of infants and young children is mainly the responsibility of families, communities and the private sector, i.e. it is not a priority for the state. There has, therefore, been no national policy for early childhood education and no state department with the overall responsibility for national educare needs. Instead, funding has been fragmented across the apartheid education, health and welfare departments and local government structures, without planning, uniformity or coordination (ANC Education Department, 1994:91-92).

Only 9% of all South African children in the 0-6 age cohort, have access to public or private educare. Within this low level of provision, severe disparities, relating to age, race, class, location and special needs, exist (ibid. 92). This disparate provision reflects fundamental differences in the ways of educating and caring for young children, all of which have major cost implications. Programmes of different duration ranging along a continuum from 2 to 12 hours a day exist, with the most common form of provision being community-based and mainly privatized i.e. run on a commercial, profit-making basis (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:11).

It is clearly apparent that early childhood education, particularly the provision of educare, in certain sectors, has been neglected and the realities of apartheid have had a marked impact on the education and care of the young child. Van den Berg and Vergnani (in NEPI:Early Childhood

Educare, 1992:11) describe the former state's role as follows:-

" The South African state has not given tangible recognition to the importance of the early years of life, has not displayed a comprehensive understanding of an integrated approach to the problem, and it has yet revealed little evidence of a willingness to move towards the prioritization of services on the basis of need. Rather, state provision for pre-school education and care in South African can be characterised as what state provision there is, occurs inversely to need. State provision can further be characterised as segregated, fragmented, uncoordinated, and as lacking in both a comprehensive vision and a commitment to democratic involvement."

The schooling system in the twentieth century South Africa has not only been segregated, but schools have varied greatly in terms of quality due to an unequal funding system based on race. In 1976, for every R640 spent on a white child, only R42 was spent on an African child (Morrell in Mentor 76 (2), 1994:23).

In order to understand the situation more fully, a background of the apartheid area and a brief history of pre-school state provision will be outlined. The main focus of this section, will be to examine and compare pre-school education under the previous 'own affairs' and 'general affairs' constitutional framework, with particular reference to the pre-school/reception class year. It should be noted that, in accordance with the new (1993) Constitution, present structures have been retained and will continue to operate until full transition to a new dispensation has

taken place. Teacher-training provision, which will form the main focus of the third section, will be briefly alluded to. A few selected terms are clarified below.

Pre-Primary Education

Pre-Primary Education usually refers to institution-based programmes for children from 3 years of age to school entry. Programmes have a strong educational slant and are presented by trained and qualified teachers. Most pre-primary schools are registered with education departments (Natal Working Group, 1994:1).

Early Childhood Development (ECD)

While the term 'educare' is commonly used in South Africa to refer to programming for young children, there is a shift to use the phrase '*early childhood development*' (ECD). Whilst it still conveys the importance of a holistic approach to child development, it is consistent with the international definition of the importance of support for young children. In addition, the importance of understanding the needs of children from birth to age 9, is consistent with an understanding of children's stages of development within this age cohort (CEPD/World Bank, 1994:3).

The early childhood stage of development may be defined as extending from before birth until the end of the junior primary phase of education i.e. standard one (when the child is approximately 9 years of age (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:7; South African Association for Early

Childhood Educare, 1994:4).

Early Childhood Educare (ECE)

In South Africa, the term 'educare' is used to refer to all programmes providing for the care and education of young children from birth until formal school entry, i.e. the 0-6 age cohort. Educare programmes may or may not have a significant education emphasis and are either home or institution-based. Children may or may not be under the supervision of trained and/or qualified staff. The importance of combining health, nutrition and educational services for young children in poor communities, is seen as essential, particularly for the mental development of the young child which can be adversely affect by undernourishment (NEPI: Early Childhood Educare, 1992:7). Increasingly, ECE programmes are including children in the lower grades in primary school, thereby extending the ECE age cohort to 0-9 years. Pre-school programmes are seen as part of ECE (ANC Education Department, 1994:91).

Early Childhood Educators

Early childhood educators include, but are not limited to:

- * pre-primary and junior primary teachers; educare teachers, assistants or workers; playgroup assistants or leaders and baby caregivers;
- * home educare mothers, childminders or day mothers and nannies;
- * parent educators and home visitors;
- * pre-primary school principals, educare centre supervisors, early learning centre directors and programme coordinators;

- * community pre-school motivators, fieldworkers, community educare developers, advisory staff and inspectors;
- * teacher educators, college or university lecturers and non-formal trainers and facilitators and specialist curriculum developers, researchers and consultants (SAEECE,1994:4)

Reception Classes

Reception classes are classes that cater for children who turn 5 years of age (on or before, 30 June) and are attached to primary or pre-primary schools registered with the education department. These classes are taught by qualified/trained teachers who use developmentally-appropriate methodology. Curriculum content includes '*school readiness*' concepts (Natal Working Group, 1994:1).

Foundation/Initial Phase of Education

The junior primary phase is recognized as a single phase of learning. It is envisaged that this phase consists of the first 4 years of schooling, i.e. from the reception year/grade 0 to the end of standard 1. It has been recommended that this phase be called the '*foundation phase*' of education (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Group:Junior Primary Education, 1994: 6-7).

The Education System

The education system is an instrument created by a community to provide education for its members, in a planned, systema-

tic and purposeful way. It represents an interwovenness of different social structures such as state, family, school, Church, political party, trade union etc. When these structures function in unison to make education possible, a system is created in which each element fulfils a certain predetermined role in public education. Central to this cohesion of social structures, is the educationally qualified institution, namely the school (the term 'school' includes colleges, universities etc.). The education system includes the entire spectrum of educational activities which are carried out on both the formal (school) and non-formal (planned to interact with, and supplement the provision of, formal education) level, in order to realise the aspirations of the community (HRSC, 1981:91-93; Van Schalkwyk, 1988:6; Vos & Brits, 1990: 34-35).

The State

The state, i.e. the government, is the controlling body in the education system and juridically harmonises and integrates the interests of the different societal structures, including the education system, by legislation. It has particular responsibilities and interests with respect to education. A state may be defined as:-

" ... an institutional community of government and subject, organized in terms of public law, which has the monopoly to rule by the exercise of power."

(Van Schalkwyk, 1988: 144)

In South Africa, the new democratic government, elected by the people, under the new (1993) Constitution, which guarantees *"equality and non-discrimination, cultural freedom and diversity, the right to basic education for all and equal access to educational institutions"* propose a restructuring of education and training in the country (Republic of South Africa, 1994:4).

The Apartheid System

According to Vos and Brits (1990:52), the policy of apartheid stems from a philosophy of life (ideology) which emphasizes the particular (differences) and neglects the general (common). Under the apartheid system, people in South Africa were divided into 4 racial groups, namely Blacks, Coloureds, Indians and Whites. Blacks refer to the indigenous Black South African population, Coloureds refer to people from mixed racial groups, Indians refer to descendants of Asians, whilst Whites refer those people of Afrikaner or British descent (CEPD/World Bank, 1994:1; Vos & Brits, 1992:49).

EDUCATION AND THE APARTHEID ERA

It is recognised that, as education and politics cannot be separated, it is necessary to have some understanding of the political dispensation operative in the apartheid era.

The heterogeneous population of the former Republic of South Africa (RSA) was separated and segregated on ethnic, cultural and language grounds, according to the country's

1948 Constitution (Vos & Brits, 1992:52). Separate development of the different population groups formed a cornerstone of national education policy, with each population group being served by its own subsystem of education with little, or no, co-ordination and co-operation.

The education policy for each of these subsystems was embodied in an Act or Acts, which formed the legal basis of the subsystem concerned. The National Policy for General Education Affairs Act 1984 (Act 76 of 1984) concerned itself with general policy with regard to formal, non-formal and informal education for all people in the RSA. The RSA Constitution Act 1983 (Act 110 of 1983), made provision for '*own affairs*' education, namely Whites, Indians and Coloureds, whilst Black education, outside the national states, was considered to be a '*general affair*', controlled by the ex-Department of Education and Training (DET) (ibid. 62-63).

Ex-State Departments of Education

The creation of Departments of Education were managerial and administrative in nature. These infrastructures assisted the state in its educational task. Departments were concerned with the determining of educational policy, with regard to '*own affair education*' within the framework of general education policy and provision.

The 4 state departments, who were responsible for the

provision of education to the 4 cultural groups in South Africa, were as follows:-

- * the Department of Education and Culture, Administration: House of Assembly (HoA) (White education);
- * the Department of Education and Culture, Administration, House of Delegates (HoD) (Indian education);
- * the Department of Education and Culture, Administration, House of Representatives (HoR) (Coloured education);
- * the Department of Education and Training (DET) (Black education).

In addition, 4 provincial education departments for the provision of White education, also existed to facilitate the management, administration and execution of education, in accordance with regional needs, namely the Cape Education Department (CED), the Natal Education Department (NED), the Orange Free State Education Department (OFSED) and the Transvaal Education Department (TED). Furthermore, a Department of National Education (DNE) was established to undertake a particular managerial task, namely national policy-making within the political framework of the 'general' and 'own' education affairs. This body was instituted to ensure that more objective, equal education opportunities and standards of education became more viable, without restricting the independence of the various subsystems (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:68;76;90) (All aforementioned departments are now referred to as 'ex' departments of education, until the new structures, under a

unitary system of education, come into full effect).

BACKGROUND TO PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION AND THE ROLE OF THE STATE

The provision and care of education of young children, outside the home, was initially initiated by the community, parents and welfare organizations and included some municipal involvement. By 1940, per capita subsidies were available from the Union Department of Social Welfare for full-day care centres and were introduced by the provincial education departments for approved nursery schools (with the exception of the OFSED who paid the salaries of teachers and an equipment subsidy). Standards were laid down by the Nursery School Association of South Africa (now known as the South African Congress for Early Childhood Development) (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:12).

In 1940, the Committee of Heads of Education Departments (CHED) gave recognition to nursery schools as being *"adjunct to the national system of education."* Nursery schools were acknowledged as being primarily educational in nature and were seen to supplement the home, whilst creches were differentiated on the grounds of being primarily custodial in nature. The CHED defined nursery schools as follows:-

"Unlike the creche, the nursery school supplements the home and is not a substitute for the home. Where the role of the creche is custodial, that of the nursery school is primarily educational."
(Webber in Short, 1992b:6)

All race groups, except Blacks, were eligible for nursery school subsidies, whilst welfare subsidies were available to all. These subsidies, which were initially calculated to cover half of the running costs of the programme, remained limited and resulted in centres having to rely on school fees to keep in line with rising costs. Nursery schools staffed by trained teachers, became the privileged '*middle-class*' institutions, whilst creches, who catered for the working class parent, could only afford to provide custodial care (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare 1992:12).

The term '*middle class*' refers to a life-style which requires a certain standard of education such that it allows a person to earn sufficient income to be able to attain a certain standard of housing, nourishment etc. This in contrast to the term '*working-class*', where the standards of facilities are scaled down to correspond with income and with the level of formal schooling of the breadwinner (Van der Ross in Van den Berg and Vergnani, 1987:18).

The state took no responsibility for setting up early childhood services or teacher-training centres, although it was prepared to subsidise facilities set-up by others. By 1940, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) had established teacher-training courses for prospective teachers at 4 institutions, one of which included Ekutuleni, run by the Anglican Mission, for Africans (including Coloureds), in Sophiatown. These organizations were recognized and subsidised by provincial education departments. Courses for

Whites, which required a standard ten entrance certificate, commenced at 3 institutions and included a 3-year certificate and a 1 year post-graduate diploma. By 1947, courses for Africans were extended to Durban (Enkuliso in Lamontville) and Pietermaritzburg (Edenvale). These courses required a standard 8 entrance certificate, and resulted in a 3-year teachers' certificate (Cape) and a 2-year teachers' certificate (Natal) (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:13; Short, 1992b:6).

Apartheid Policy

A policy of apartheid, instituted by the National Party in 1948, constituted to a large extent, to the formalization and continuation of existing practice. This feature of National Party rule has, inevitably, had a marked impact on the lives of young children (Van den Berg and Vergnani, 1987:1; Vos and Brits, 1990:52).

From 1948 until 1969, the Nationalist Government, who was not in favour of any form of provision for young children, discouraged further development and accepted limited responsibility for providing provision for 'poor white' children.

Differential per capita education subsidies, based on parental income, were allocated and income limits for welfare subsidies were introduced. In addition, the welfare policy for Black children ceased, although local authorities continued to support a few centres (NEPI:Early Childhood

Educare, 1992:13).

Consequently, by the end of 1958, teacher-training centres for prospective African teachers were terminated, as part of the new policy to eliminate the mission schools. The eighteen-month Athlone course for '*nursery assistants*', started by Barkly House, in the Cape, closed in 1957, as there were too few students to justify expenses in running a course of that nature. The same course was reintroduced for African '*nursery assistants*', at the Athlone Training Centre, in 1962, whilst a similar one-year course for African '*pre-school assistants*' was set up in Soweto, in 1969. Teacher-training on a small scale, continued for Whites only, at Barkly House in the Cape, a few Johannesburg Colleges and at a Pretoria University. (ibid. 1992:13; Short, 1992:6). Specialist pre-primary teacher-training courses never existed for Indian teachers. A standard 8 plus a 2-year '*assistants*' course which commenced at the ML Sultan Technical College, in Durban, in 1977, has since been phased out (Short, 1992b:6-7).

White Education

In 1969 (following the National Education Policy Act of 1967), the provincial education departments for Whites, were legally empowered to take over nursery school (pre-primary) education and set-up teacher training courses. The previous National Education Policy Amendment Act No. 92 of 1974, for Whites, gave recognition to pre-primary education in its definition of a school as:

" ... as any educational institution, or that part of an institution, at which education, including pre-primary education, is provided which is maintained, managed and controlled or subsidised by the Department or a Provincial Administration."
(Atmore, 1991:1)

The involvement of the provincial education departments in pre-primary education resulted in considerable expansion during the 1970s. Policy differed between the provinces and it was only in the Transvaal, that pre-primary schools were fully set-up and financed by the TED (Short, 1992b:6).

Generally, policies included the payment of salaries of qualified teaching staff or better subsidies to nursery schools which elected to remain private and the establishment of pre-primary (reception) classes at primary schools.

Teacher-training i.e. fourth year specialization courses, were introduced at many colleges, whilst UNISA introduced a 3-year, as well as a post-graduate diploma course, on a correspondence basis in 1974. By the early 1980s training for White prospective teachers was available at 11 colleges and 3 universities (Reilly and Hofmeyr in Short, 1992b:6-7).

In the mid-1980s pre-primary education went 'on hold' and training-courses began to be phased out. 2 specialist pre-primary colleges were repeatedly threatened with closure and, finally, the Nursery School College in Johannesburg, was closed in 1985 (ibid.7). The 'official' reason for this course of action was the exclusion of pre-primary education

from the new funding formula for calculating provincial education department budgets, with the introduction of the new tricameral 'own affairs' dispensation, in 1983 (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:13-14). As a result, specialist pre-primary training courses were phased out and instead, have been included as a minor component in the lower primary courses (ibid.30).

Provincial education departments were not compelled to begin pre-primary schools and, although, general policy criteria were adopted by the regions, 4 different types of provision may be still be distinguished, namely government pre-primary schools, departmentally-controlled pre-primary schools, private-subsidised pre-primary schools and private pre-primary schools. Funding and registration of these schools have been at the discretion of the ex-education departments concerned and have varied according to the type of provision provided. Funding which ranges on a continuum has included the payment of salaries of all teachers who hold approved posts, the payment of salary subsidies for 1 or 2 teaching posts and the payment of a grant-in-aid. Schools eligible for registration have included those schools established and maintained by the provinces themselves, registered welfare organizations, local authorities and bodies recognised by the ex-education departments. Schools which operate for gain, such as private pre-primary schools, have received no funding. Schools who continue to receive either full or partial salary subsidies conduct programmes which have been approved by the ex-education department concerned (Atmore,

1991:5-6).

Coloured Education

The former Coloureds Persons Educare Amendment Act No. 85 of 1983, defines a pre-primary school as:-

" ... a school for the education of Coloured Persons above the age of 3 years who have not yet attained the age at which regular attendance at an ordinary school is compulsory and includes a class which is attached to an ordinary school in which Coloured persons receive education in the year preceding the year in which regular attendance by them at an ordinary school is compulsory." (ibid.1)

The Amendment Act made provision for the payment of grants-in-aid and loans to pre-primary schools (ibid.1).

The ex-Administration HoR: Department of Education and Culture (DEC), did not establish pre-primary schools. Policy included the establishment of pre-primary classes in primary schools. Funding was made through the paying of salaries of approved teaching posts, or via a grant-in-aid in some cases. Centres who qualified for a grant-in-aid, were subject to Departmental inspection and building and educational programme criteria. No funding, as such has been made available for pre-primary buildings or other rented premises.

Initially, a standard 8 plus a 2-year teacher-training course was established at the Athlone Training Centre, in 1972. The course was later converted to a standard 10 plus

a 3-year teacher-training course in the early 1990's. To date, this has been the only course provided, at a college, which has been approved and accredited by the ex-Department (ibid.6-7).

Indian Education

The former Indian Education Amendment Act of 1979 defined a pre-primary school as:

" ... a school for the education of Indians above the age of two who have not yet attained the age at which they may be admitted to an ordinary school." (ibid.2)

The Act made provision for the establishment, creation and maintenance of pre-primary schools, from school funds and for the award of subsidies or grants-in-aid and loans, to governing bodies of schools, subject to conditions as determined by the Minister (ibid.2).

Pre-school education for Indian children has been under the control of the ex-Administration: HoD:DEC. The ex-Department has not made provision for pre-primary schools and has relied on the establishment of services organized by private initiatives and welfare organisations.

2 categories of schools have existed, namely private and grant-aided, both of which have been required to register with the ex-Department. School readiness has been encouraged by allowing the use of school premises for pre-school education. Schools registered and established by

welfare and religious organizations have received a grants-in-aid subject to certain conditions (ibid.7).

Black Education

The previous Education and Training Amendment Act No. 74 of 1984, included in its definition of education, education provided in a pre-primary school. A pre-primary school is defined as:

" ... as a school for the education of children of the age of 3 years and above, but below the age at which they are admitted to any school other than a pre-primary school". (ibid.2)

Section 5 of the amended Act allowed for the establishment, erection and maintenance of pre-primary schools. Such schools had to be registered and were subject to conditions and regulations determined by the Minister. Provision was also made for the payment of grants-in-aid or subsidies and loans to schools, subject to conditions set by the Minister (ibid.2).

In 1978, teacher-training courses were set up by the ex-DET at the Soweto College, in the Transvaal and the St. Francis Adult Education Centre at Langa, in Cape Town. Training commenced with a standard 8 entry and a 2-year training course. These were later converted to a standard 10 plus 3 year training course, in the early 1980s (Short, 1992b:7).

In terms of the previous DET Act No. 90 of 1979, any person or organization who wished to provide pre-school education

to Black children, except at a State school, needed to apply for registration with the Department, according to certain stringent conditions. Although bridging classes existed at certain primary schools, the ex-Department did not provide any pre-primary schools as such. An education subsidy was payable to those pre-primary schools whose buildings did not belong to, or were not maintained by, the ex-Department of Education. Furthermore, the subsidy was which was subject to the approval of the ex-Department, was payable quarterly and was determined by the actual number of pupils enrolled, who attend school daily. Directives stipulated what portion of the subsidy was payable to educational apparatus, teacher salaries and consummables i.e. paint, paper, etc.

An amendment to this policy, in 1988, resulted in subsidies for institutions not presently registered, being withheld, until such time as greater clarity regarding the financing of pre-primary education, was obtained (Atmore, 1991:7-9). By the end of 1990, with the exception of the Sallie Davies College (formerly Athlone) and 2 colleges in Bophuthatswana, all teacher-training courses had been phased out (Short, 1992b:7).

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CURRENT PROVISION

General

The Oxford Dictionary defines "*disadvantaged*" as:

" placed in unfavourable conditions, especially of person lacking normal social opportunities."

In 1991, an estimated 33% of White children in the under-sevens age-group had some form of pre-school provision in comparison with approximately 7% of Black children in the same age category. Research reveals a greater proportion of white and Indian children aged 3 to 6 years as having attended pre-primary schools and reception classes (grade 0) attached to primary schools, which receive some form of state subsidization, than is the case for Coloured and Black children (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:15-16).

Table 2.1 shows the number of children in pre-primary (reception) classes attached to primary schools and pre-primary schools which have been subsidized by ex-education departments, as well as the pupil/teacher ratio (special education figures have been omitted).

Table 2.1 : The Number of Children in Reception Classes attached to Primary Schools and in Pre-Primary Schools subsidized by ex-Education Departments.

Ex-Dept.	Classes	Centres	Total	% 3-6 yrs.	P/T rat- io
HoA	4 752	43 609	49 409	20	n/a
HoD	12 668	2 567	15 239	24	n/a
HoR	7 350	17 909	25 519	11	21
* Other (African)	4 786	102 573	108 062	4	32
DET	64	16 606	16 670	2	24
Gazankulu	-	3 861	3 861	5	23
KaNcwane	-	292	292	0.5	41
KwaNde- bele	-	679	679	1.3	49
KwaZulu	-	2 095	2 095	0.4	41
Lebowa	50	35 565	35 715	14	59
QwaQwa	4 672	382	5 054	12	24
Bophutha- tswana	-	32 349	32 349	13	22
Ciskei	-	2 622	2 622	3	35
Transkei	-	6 372	6 372	2	47
Venda	-	1 750	1 750	3	35

* Represents the total of figures below, i.e. DET etc.
(Lategan in NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:18)

Although somewhat limited and considerably varied, all 19 ex-education departments reflect some degree of responsibility for "pre-primary education", within their own policy perspective. Some ex-education departments within the ex-HoA have reviewed their commitment to the phase and have reduced their involvement considerably (ibid.22).

Among the 11 ex-Departments responsible for African children, only 2, namely Bophuthatswana and Lebowa, have provided support for substantial numbers of pre-school children since the mid-1980s. KwaZulu withdrew support from pre-primary schools in 1992. The ex-education departments of QwaQwa and the HoD have focused support on pre-primary classes for 5 year olds. This represents 10% of the total number of children in this age group (ibid.18).

Pre-Primary/Reception Classes attached to Primary Schools

This form of provision seems to be the favoured option since the De Lange Report in 1981, which introduced the idea of a bridging year to 'bridge the gap' between the pre-school year and formal schooling. Classes of this nature have been established by the ex-Departments of Education namely the Cape, Transvaal, HoR, HoD and Qwa-Qwa Departments. The ex-DET also commenced classes of this nature (108 in 1988), but by 1990, only 1 class was left (ibid.22).

The ex-HoD have permitted the use of its Sub A (class one) classrooms to be used after normal school hours for a 2-hour school readiness session per day. Teachers are often not formally trained and the ex-department has provided a small 'wage subsidy'. As a result of this type of provision, approximately 66% of Indian 5 year-olds have attended some form of pre-primary schooling (ibid. 22-23).

The ex-NED introduced the reception classes, on an experimental basis, at existing primary schools, in 1983

(Natal Education Department, 1983:2). Experienced, qualified teaching staff were employed or seconded to these reception classes. Due to the deteriorated economy towards the end of the 1980's, pre-primary teachers were made redundant and reception classes were 'frozen'. The establishment of further classes then became the concern of school management councils and teachers were, and still continue to be, employed privately.

The Bridging Period Programme (BPP)

The ex-DET opted in favour of this type of pre-primary provision, which explained, but did not justify, the phasing out of pre-primary teacher-training. The BPP was initiated as an attempt to find an affordable alternative to a full-scale pre-school programme, in response to the lack of school readiness amongst school entrants in the ex-DET.

In 1988, legislation lowering the minimum age for school entry to 5.5 years, was approved. A pilot project was launched in the same year and by 1990 the programme had been introduced into all 1 340 primary schools, with 3 or more grade 1 classes. The main features of the programme include grade 1 entrants taking part in a 3-week orientation programme, during which time, they are tested for school readiness. On the basis of this testing, they are divided into 3 groups, as follows:-

- * a school-ready group;
- * a group that will be geared for readiness in

10-12 weeks;

- * a group that will require a longer period of training.

Where the size of the school warrants it, the 3 groups are accommodated in separate classes or, alternatively, the 3 groups are taught within the same classroom. Whilst the first group commences with formal grade 1 work, the second group proceeds with a school readiness programme for a certain time period, whilst the third group engage in an extended enriched school readiness programme and are further subdivided according to reading, writing and mathematical ability. It is this extended programme which is referred to as the '*bridging class*' and which provides for a second year at the first grade level, for children who would otherwise have failed grade one under the old system.

The programme has not been without its problems, the main one being the inadequacy of teacher-training (this will be discussed in the next section). A complete evaluation of the programme will only be feasible once a thorough longitudinal study is undertaken to assess the long-term affects of this approach to mediating the lower boundary of primary schooling (Taylor, 1992:1-8).

The Bophuthatswana Pre-Primary Programme

Alongside the Bophuthatswana Primary Educational Upgrading Programme (PEUP) initiative to upgrade the quality of primary schooling, in order to reduce inefficiency and waste

in the system, there arose a departmental commitment to support an early intervention programme for 3-6 year-olds and to incorporate early childhood education as part of the education system. Thus, in many primary schools, a pre-primary component was incorporated in conjunction with the PEUP.

Unlike the BPP, the Bophuthatswana model is state-supported rather than state-controlled. It has involved various individuals, private institutions and the government, with an effective private/government partnership serving as an important element. Whilst government infrastructure has provided support for the programme, NGOs have provided the curriculum and training expertise.

Generally, the model has been regarded as successful, although it is acknowledged that there is a need for formal evaluation of the programme. Its success is seen to rest on the assumption that it has spread the government load, involves parents, provides an improved pre-primary pupil/teacher ratio and has a high quality programme which focuses on life skills.

Unlike other ex-department models, this pre-primary model does not focus on school readiness as its main aim. Rather, the aim of the programme is to ensure that all 3-6 year-olds acquire adequate life and social skills which will equip children for responsible adulthood and community leadership roles (CEPD/World Bank, 1994:27-29).

State-Aided Pre-Primary Schools

The provincially-controlled/salaries option

A common department initiative has been to support community projects in the establishment of pre-primary schools for 3 to 6 year-olds, once certain criteria have been met. Once again, various options have existed between the ex-departments as to how support would be maintained and certain departments have played a more proactive role than others. 2 forms of state-aid have existed, namely the white 'provincially-controlled' or 'salaries' option, which has been favoured by the ex-Cape, Orange Free State and Natal Education Departments (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:23).

The ex-CED announced that it would only pay the salaries of 5 year-old teachers. This option had already existed in the ex-HoR and had been the only form of support adopted by all former homeland departments. In 1990, the ex-KZED withdrew this form of support, and the introduction of a new funding formula for White education resulted in a reduction of teaching posts across the educational spectrum.

By 1992, ex-NED provincially-controlled pre-primary schools had lost two-thirds of government-paid posts, whilst government pre-primary schools were able to retain an additional teaching post. In order to retain qualified staff in the phase, parent management councils were compelled to privately-employ and pay teachers. Only the ex-TED has continued to take full responsibility for

establishing and financing a significant number of free-standing pre-primary schools for children aged 3 to 6 years. These schools have been given the same options for future governance as ordinary primary schools (ibid.23).

The per capita subsidy option

The second option offered by the former provincial education Departments to private pre-primary schools (except for White schools who operate for gain) is the '*per capita education subsidy*' and grants for buildings and equipment. The ex-Departments of Education, namely the HoR, HoD and DET, provided per capita subsidies for approved pre-primary schools. These, however, have been very low i.e. R144, R144 and R100, per annum, respectively. In the ex-DET, new subsidies ceased to be granted and the number of children benefitting from them decreased, in 1989, from 19 546 to 15 938 (ibid.24).

In general, it would appear that the ex-education departments have made legal provision for the registration of pre-primary schools, provided that certain standards have been met. Strict quality control has not been enforced in black communities where very few private and unsubsidized schools have been registered (ibid.24).

Educare Centres

Clearly, it is apparent that, pre-school children in South Africa have not had equal access to early childhood programmes. Government expenditure has favoured early

childhood provision for the white sector, mainly in high cost, high quality pre-schools (CEPD/World Bank, 1994b:1). Short aptly summarises the history of government support as follows:-

"The pattern set in the 1940's for teacher-training and per capita subsidies from social welfare for full-day centres (all race groups) and from Education for nursery schools (not available for African children until the 1980s) has remained the predominant pattern of state preschool provision. The government has never been prepared to actively encourage and support financially, the growth of early childhood services. After the initial positive growth of early childhood education in the 1940s, its history has been characterised by cycles of retrenchment and growth." (Short in CEPD/World Bank, 1994:12-13).

Historically, the government and the early childhood community have operated parallel to one another. Over the past 2 decades, the early childhood sector has grown dramatically. It has a history of targeting disadvantaged communities and in particular, isolated and marginalised women and children. The vast majority of early childhood programmes are grassroots initiatives which have originated from communities. Whilst the previous government may not have been proactive in supporting ECD, models of early childhood provision have been developed by NGOs. In addition, these organizations have developed extensive training systems that equip staff with appropriate skills and knowledge to work with young children and their families and which enable communities to take ownership of ECD programmes and sustain them over time (CEPD/World Bank, 1994: Executive Summary).

As already noted, 'educare' is an all-embracing term used to describe the care and education of children from birth to school-going age and which may or may not have a significant education emphasis.

Table 2.2 reveals the numbers and percentages of children between the ages of 0-6 years, who attended educare centres subsidized by ex-education departments, and other facilities, in 1991.

Table 2.2: The Number and Percentages of Children between the age of 0-6 years who attended educare centres subsidized by ex-Education Departments and other Facilities (1991)

Race Group	Subsidised by ex- Department of Educat.	Other	Total	%
African	108 062	226 688	334 750	6
Coloured	25 519	28 481	54 000	11
Indian	15 239	1 761	17 000	13
White	49 409	110 519	160 000	33
Total	198 229	367 521	565 750	9

(Lategan, 1992 and Biersteker, 1992 in NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:16).

A total of 9% of children who attend educare services are in the 3 to 6 year age-group, although some full-day services in Coloured and African communities enrol children from the age of two. There are approximately 14% of the 3 to 6 year age group and 2% of the under-3's who have some form of access to educare services.

The distribution of children attending educare services in the metropolitan areas compared with those attending in the rural areas reveals that access rates are lowest in the most heavily populated rural areas of the Transkei, Natal/KwaZulu and the Northern Transvaal (less than 4% of children aged below seven). The most neglected group are those children living on farms with less than 2% being provided for.

Furthermore, Table 2.2 reveals that the majority of children i.e. 65% receive no state support from education departments. Although some centres receive a welfare subsidy, this covers no more than 45% of costs and usually ranges from 15-20%. Communities have, therefore, played a major role in initiating and financing pre-school services of some kind (ibid.16-17).

Since 1991, the percentages of children in ECD provision has shifted slightly. In 1993, an estimated 30% of white children in the under 7 age group had access to some form of pre-school provision compared with 10.7% of Black children (including Coloureds and Indians), in the same age group.

As a result of a study conducted by the National Education Forum (NETF), 1994 statistics indicate that approximately 575 476 children of pre-school age are being served in 10 786 programmes of variable quality. These programmes, together with the private, unregistered and increased non-formal educare efforts, provide early childhood services to approximately 11% of the total of under-6 population

For a large majority of children, this implies that the introduction to formal learning is an abrupt one, which can result in frustration, poor learning, school failure, repetition and dropout (Biersteker in CEPD/World Bank, 1994:8).

Pupil/Teacher Ratios

With reference to Table 2.1, pre-primary schools controlled by the ex-White provincial education departments have a staffing ratio ranging from 1:13 to 1:23, whilst pre-primary schools registered with the 11 ex-departments responsible for African/Black education, have pupil/teacher ratios ranging from 1:22 in Bophuthatswana in 1990, to 1:59 in Lebowa in 1991. The overall pupil/teacher ratio for the 1 108 African schools serving 102 573 children is 1:32.

By comparison, as shown in Table 2.2, educare services for black children, across the regions depict adult/pupil ratios ranging from 1:19 in the Western Cape to 1:39.5 in rural Transvaal, which gives an adult/pupil average of 1:27. Although the table would seem to indicate a more favourable adult/child ratio, in unregistered community-based centres compared with those serving centres registered with ex-education departments, account must be taken of factors such as the full day care centres and educare centres for coloured and indian children and farm schools who may have better i.e. smaller, adult/pupil ratios (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare 1992: 20-21).

State expenditure

In addition to the variation of previous state provision for ECD, it follows that wide variation in the amount of money spent on children in pre-primary settings is also evident. Table 2.3 indicates previous government expenditure on ECD, according to race group.

Table 2.3: Previous Government Expenditure on ECD, according to Race Group

Race Group	Amount/child (rands)
White	1 684
Indian	118
Coloured	752
African:ex- DET	38
Former Homelands	538

(Lategan in CEPD/World Bank, 1994:8)

The range of expenditure for white children is R3 107 to R1 146 per child compared to R38 per african child.

Government sources of funds have been mainly the ex-departments of education, health services and welfare. The total expenditure by the government on pre-primary education in 1990 was R130 million, or .8% of total education spending, 69% of which was spent on white pre-primary education (Donaldson and Biersteker in CEPD/World Bank, 1994:9). State contribution has been in the form of subsidies for children in the 3-6 age cohort, welfare subsidies for children needing full-day services and the funding of pre-primary training courses.

In 1991, in response to initiatives from the early childhood community, the government channelled R70 million for ECD through the Independent Development Trust (IDT). 85% of this allocation was directly targeted at children described as the '*poorest of the poor*' (ibid. 9).

Private funders

Government has not been the only funder of ECD programmes. The private sector, foundations and international donor agencies have also been supportive of ECD projects. In african communities, parents pay approximately 80% of the ongoing operational expenses of community-based services (ibid.9).

FUTURE PROVISION: THE EDUCATION RENEWAL STRATEGY (ERS)

In May 1990, the former Minister of National Education announced the development of an Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) for education in South Africa. The strategy was carried out under the auspices of the CHED, with the intention of seeking short and medium-term managerial solutions for the future provision of education in the RSA. It represented policy standpoints regarding the most pressing problems and issues confronting education in the RSA (DNE, 1992:Foreword).

In the financial analysis of the report, the ERS considers different models of state-funded, compulsory and general education scenarios. Included as one scenario is a compulsory pre-school year (grade 0) which assumes a

learner:educator ratio of 35:1 in the primary phase, followed by 7 years of compulsory education, after which further education is subsidised on a sliding scale.

Whilst it acknowledges the value of pre-primary education, particularly for children from disadvantaged backgrounds who are frequently not ready for school on reaching school-going age (ibid.64), it refutes the model as "*wishful thinking*" on the grounds of future economic realities. The model is further discounted as being educationally unviable in terms of the high learner:educator ratio for children in this age cohort. According to the report, a more favourable ratio merely make the scenario even more unaffordable (ibid. 124-127).

At the time, the ERS envisaged that pre-school education will be provided within the private sector and by community initiatives. Distance education directed towards parents and pre-schoolers was also envisaged (ERS:Questions & Answers, 1992: 10).

NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY INVESTIGATION (NEPI) :

PROVISION OPTIONS

This section has attempted to analyse both past and present provision of pre-school education in the South Africa. The Research Group Report entitled "*Early Childhood Care and Education*" , the various Working Papers and the more recent South African Study on Early Childhood Development, have been consulted for this purpose.

Four potentially effective programmes/strategies are identified by the NEPI Research Group as being viable and economic options for implementation within the primary school system. 2 of these strategies relate to preparation for formal instruction and two relate to the upgrading of the junior primary school as a whole (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:66).

The essential difference between the two school preparation programmes is that one is designed for implementation within the first year of school, commencing with the child who is 5 and a half years old, who is not ready for formal schooling, while the other is a preparatory year for 5 year-olds (Atmore, Biersteker & Short, 1992:1).

PREPARATION FOR FORMAL SCHOOLING

The Bridging Period Programme (BPP) Option

The first is based on the "*Bridging Period Programme*" (BPP) (discussed earlier) and is seen as a short-term, 'stop-gap' and low cost strategy to enable schools to become more responsive to the needs of children. It was implemented by the ex-DET to serve approximately 30% of children who fail and repeat sub-standard A (SSA). Its value has been in preparing teachers for children so that they are better able to cope with children not yet ready for formal instruction, provided that the curriculum is thoroughly reviewed in favour of a more child-centred approach based on 'progressive' early literacy and numeracy teaching methods, rather than inappropriate remedial methods. Teachers should

also be offered ongoing in-service training in the new methodology.

As it is play-based, the concept is only viable if at least one classroom is used for the programme. The main disadvantage in this case, is that the BPP has not addressed the problems of congestion, inadequate facilities, inappropriate teaching methods, the junior primary curriculum as a whole and under-age enrolment (ibid.5-6).

The Pre-Primary/Reception Class Option

The second option, namely the "*pre-primary/reception class*" is seen to be a cost-effective and easily-phased in approach (ibid. 1). This option addresses the need to provide early learning opportunities before school entry age and is essentially an alternative to the BPP option which gives children of all race groups equal advantage, in terms of age, to prepare for school, i.e. instead of starting a year or more later. Costing is for a fully subsidised (salaries and equipment) 1-year pre-primary programme for all 5 year-olds provided in primary schools. An increase in capital costs could be offset by using only available classrooms, existing pre-primary schools, community halls, etc. Due to reduced repetition rates, more classroom space could become available in the primary schools (ibid.9).

Generally, pre-primary classes are seen to equalise and increase access to early educational opportunities, particularly for African and Coloured children, within a

reasonable period and at a reasonable cost. Classes could greatly relieve congestion in SSA classroom, as children would only be accepted into class one at the age of 6. The pre-primary year would not be compulsory and not all parents would choose to send their children. Transition to formal schooling would be facilitated to promote continuity.

Although not fully recommended, the programme could be phased in rapidly by introducing double session classes (2-3 hour programmes) and the use of SSA classrooms after hours. Shortened programmes would reduce salary costs and non-formally trained, less expensive teachers could be used. Children participating in the bridging programme would form part of the pre-primary class and would be enrolled from the age of 5. The junior primary year would last 4 years (pre-primary up to standard 1) (ibid. 8-10).

Enrolment patterns indicate that an estimated 20% of 5 year-olds (or younger) are already entering SSA. The BPP option includes an additional 30% of 5 year-olds in the junior primary phase and a junior primary upgrading option (discussed below) targets 50% of children from 5 and a half years. The pre-primary class option, would only add, at the most, approximately 50 -60% of the 5 year-old age cohort to the school system (ibid. 10).

Intake rates indicate that by 2000, pre-primary classes will be available for 80% of 5 year-olds, as it is assumed that the remaining 20% are either in SSA or are at home (parental choice). The intake of 5 year-olds would effectively reduce

the intake of 6 year-olds to 100% by the year 2000, for all race groups, except in the case of African children where there would have to be a parallel intake of 6 year-olds into SSA up to the year 2000, in order to equalize access (ibid. 11).

The automatic promotion policy would now become more viable with survival rates improving throughout the whole system. It is suggested that ratios would not exceed 25:1, which implies a ratio of 29:1 for all schools, except in the case of African schools where the ratio would be 30:1 (ibid.11).

JUNIOR PRIMARY UPGRADING

In order to address the problems of overcrowding, poor teacher-pupil ratios, upgrading the physical environment and material resources, improving teaching competence in the junior primary school and the introduction of compulsory schooling for African children, 2 possible models are proposed, namely the "*Primary Education Upgrading Programme*" (PEUP), which includes automatic promotion to ease congestion in the early grades and the "*British Infant School*" model, which would absorb the pre-primary class and include early school entry at 5 years and a flexible promotion policy to enable children to progress to standard one in either 3 or 4 years. Children would work at their own pace and commence reading, writing and maths, as soon as they are ready (ibid.1).

The Junior Primary Upgrading Programme (JP/UP) Option

The JP/UP Programme option, which is a systematically planned and coordinated programme, would be introduced to upgrade and transform junior primary schools where necessary, commencing with the most deprived schools. The model is based on the PEUP upgrading primary school programme developed in Bophuthatswana which according to Donaldson (in Atmore, Biersteker and Short, 1992:7), as a locally-tested model, appears to have achieved considerable success. Briefly, this model includes:-

- * enforcement of minimum school entry at age of 5 and a half;
- * reduction in class size;
- * improvement pupil/teacher ratios;
- * improved physical environment and educational materials;
- * automatic promotion to standard 4 to ease congestion;
- * parental involvement;
- * in-service training of teachers.

Like the BPP model, this option also assumes that children are not school-ready on entry to school, although the teaching methodology is more child-centred and activity-based. A key element is the cost reduction factor due to the automatic promotion policy. Enrolment patterns would concur with the BPP and by combining upgrading with the bridging class option, allowances would be made for approximately 30% of children who would not be school-ready (In PEUP there was no bridging option). After spending two

years in SSA, the bridging class would automatically proceed to SSB (class 2), with the rest of the pupils (this would allay some concern about the automatic promotion policy).

Survival rates assume the automatic progression through the junior primary grades into the senior primary phase up to standard 3, when a fair number would fail and repeat. The vast majority of children would complete primary school and an increased number of African and Coloured children would complete secondary school (In Bophuthatswana, where the programme has had high success rates, 75% of children attained standard 7 in 1990 and 35% attained Std. 10).

Recurrent costs are substantial due to the upgrading and improvement necessary in junior primary and senior primary schools. These costs relate to staff (in-service training) and physical costs (upgrading of facilities) (ibid.7-8).

The Integrated Junior Primary (INTEG) Option

The Integrated Junior Primary (INTEG) Option based on the British Infant School Model, involves the gradual conversion to an integrated 3-4 junior primary school programme for children from the age of 5 years, as teachers become sufficiently trained and physical facilities are improved. The integrated infant school model for 5-9 year-olds is seen to be compatible with all the aforementioned models, but has the advantage of flexible promotion, where children learn the 3r's (reading, writing and arithmetic), as and when they are ready. Children can complete their junior primary

education in either 3 or 4 years.

In contrast with the other models, this option has been costed to equalise standards across all race groups by the year 2000. Rates of progression indicated that 70% of African children, 50% of Coloured children and 30% of Indian and White children will complete the junior primary phase in 4 years, whilst the rest will take only 3 years, resulting in fewer children in the system.

Recurrent costs, would include making provision for a teacher and a teacher assistant at a pupil/teacher ratio of 40:1 per classroom. Thus, the need for more classrooms is reduced, whilst the employment of more teaching staff (20:1), is increased. At other levels pupil/teacher ratios is equalized at 30:1 and the pupil/classroom ratio at 35:1 (ibid.12-13).

BASIC PROJECTIONS

In an attempt to assess the effect on the total school costs of introducing preparatory and upgrading programmes outlined above, Atmore, Biersteker and Short (1992:1) state that it has been assumed that any new programme would be phased in over time and would only be fully operational after 10 years. The costs of different junior primary options in relation to the whole school system are considered in relation to the whole school system, due to the attempt to move children into the secondary school, in order that costs increases do not only occur at the junior primary level

(ibid.1).

The Assessing Policies for Educational Excellence (APEX) Computer Model is used to give a general indication of possible projected costs in the year 2000. Difficult projections regarding future enrolment patterns for each option are made and it is realised that projections could well prove to be unrealistic.

The basic projection scenario assumes that compulsory schooling for all children would be introduced and that some progress would be made towards equalising resource allocation between schools that have been governed by different education departments.

The introduction of compulsory schooling alone will increase the proportion of the school budget spent on the junior primary phase, as 30% of 6 year-olds and a number of older children are not yet in school. Although drop out rates will be reduced, repetition rates will initially remain high. In addition, the enrolment of African children in the junior primary phase is likely to increase by over a million by the year 2000 (this is 36% against a population increase of 28%) (ibid.2).

Enrolment patterns by the year 2000, indicate that African enrolments will be affected by the incorporation of almost all children from 6 -13 years of age into the school system, through the institution of compulsory schooling, which will

maintain the junior primary bulge and an improvement in real numbers, in secondary school enrolment. Changes for White and Indian children will be minimal and Coloured enrolments will slightly improve, with more children progressing through the system due to a reduction in repetition rates.

Intake rates for African children will increase to effect compulsory schooling by bringing in all 6 year-olds and implications for more classrooms are considerable.

Repetition rates in SSA are currently 30% and 28% for African and Coloured children respectively and will only decrease marginally for the former and slightly for the latter, due to 'non-school' factors such as 'lack of readiness' (partly due to lack of pre-primary provision) (ibid.3).

The basic projection brings all children in the 6-13 age cohort, although 73% of the school population are in the primary school. The BPP option increases the total school population by allowing the intake of some 5 year-olds who are not school ready, and it does slightly improve progress through the system. The JP/UP options considerably improves the number of Coloured and African children who reach secondary school. Neither of the two options admit children before 5 and a half.

The addition of a pre-primary (PREP) year brings children into the school system at the age of 5 years and as a

result, there is a sharp increase in the school population. This would benefit the progress of Coloured children in particular (most White and Indian children already have some access to pre-school provision).

The integrated (INTEG) option with better quality schooling for African children, would have a considerable impact on overall school progress and efficiency within the system (school enrolment decreases) (ibid.13-15).

Cost Implications

The APEX model estimates an available education budget in the year 2000 of R20 871 000. Table 2.3 shows a comparison between the different models outlined.

Table 2.4: Capital and Recurrent Costs (in R millions) for the Junior Primary Education and Total Costs for each level in the Year 2000

Costs	Basic Proj.	BPP	JP/UP	PREP	INTEG
Capital					
Train.	111.4	88.9	108.6	119.3	107
Build.	116.1	91.3	65.1	104.3	92
Recurr.					
Staff	5 522.8	5 630.1	7 105.8	7 758.7	9 083
Mater.	1 115.4	1 343.5	1 816.9	1 189.0	1 887
Nutrit.	-	-	-	-	297
Sub-Tot					
P-St.1	6 866	7 154	9 126	9 972	11 467
St.2-5	6 856	6 901	7 433	7 529	10 062
St.6-8	6 024	6 248	6 473	6 627	6 742
St.9-10	2 700	2 824	3 402	3 465	3 503
Total	22 466	23 127	26 435	27 593	31 774
% Total	30.6	30.9	34.5	36.1	36.0
Per capita					
JP	1 474	1 540	2 017	2 013	2 500
Overall	1 802	1 834	2 098	2 105	2 518

(Note: The INTEG model figures have been taken to the nearest rand) (Atmore, Biersteker and Short, 1992:16)

Costing Options

Bridging Period Programme (BPP)

As shown in table 2.3, the introduction of a preparatory programme within the first year of school would have a minimal effect on cost and the proportion of the school budget spent on the junior primary phase would increase from 30.6 to 30.9 %. There is an actual increase in the total school costs of only 3% in the year 2000 (ibid.16).

Junior Primary Upgrading (JP/UP)

If junior primary schools were to be upgraded in terms of the Bophuthatswana model (PEUP), the school budget would increase to approximately 34.5%. Although this represents a marked increase in the junior primary costs, it is 14.3% higher than the BPP option (or 18% above the basic projection) on the whole school budget. The gain here is that more African and Coloured children would achieve a secondary education which represents a significant attempt to redress inequalities within the system. It is foreseen that parents would cover 20% and 25% of primary and secondary school costs, respectively with contributions made on a differential basis according to income (ibid.17).

The Pre-Primary (PREP) Option

The introduction of separate classes for 80% of all 5 year-olds, together with junior primary upgrading increases enrolment by 425 000 and the proportion of the budget to 36.1 %. Overall costs are not significantly changed and it is suggested that additional funds could be generated by reducing 'non-school' costs from 20% to 17.5% (this non-school budget currently includes existing pre-primary expenses which amount to almost 1% of the total education budget)

Although several options have been put forward for reducing the cost of classes in the short-term i.e. double sessions, it is important that planning with constructive long-term goals be taken into account. Per capita costing of double

sessions would range from R429 to R943, depending on teacher qualifications (ibid.17).

The Integrated Option (INTEG)

This option includes a pre-primary programme, but not as a separate year. The proportion of junior primary school costs does not increase in relation to the pre-primary option i.e. 36%, although overall costs escalate considerably, due to high junior primary staffing costs. A major increase at the senior primary level is due to the reduced teacher/pupil ratio in African schools and teachers with higher qualifications.

Although overall enrolment is reduced by approximately 500 000 and there is an expected reduction of costs, the 'equalisation' of standards across the board means that this option cannot be directly compared with others. This option would, therefore, be difficult to finance at this standard. One of the trade-offs has been the high pupil/teacher ratio of 35:1 at all levels except the junior primary (ibid.17).

School feeding schemes have only been provided for in the Integrated option and could also be provided for in other options. Other options to consider would be subsidies for before and after school care and enrichment programmes organised by the school or community. Active parent and community involvement in children's education is also recommended (ibid.17-18).

Discussion of Options

Programmes such as the BPP are short-term options and, although, they attempt to directly address the Sub A failure rate, they do not reduce the length of time the child spends in the phase, due to the inability of the school to upgrade the quality of schooling throughout. An implication of this option is that inequality is perpetuated due to the admission of children who are 5 and a half years of age, but not yet ready for formal school (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:67).

In contrast, pre-primary classes will equalize access for all groups, at a reasonable cost and within a reasonable period. This class would act as a transition to formal school and could promote continuity if teachers were trained in progressive pre-primary methods.

Local research has shown that for less disadvantaged children, 1 year of pre-primary education can have significant long-term scholastic benefits, whilst adverse structural conditions and poor quality primary schooling can negate the effects of pre-primary programmes.

The PEUP appears to have achieved considerable success in Bophuthatswana and has the added advantage of being a locally tested model. Redress can be built in by initially targeting the most deprived schools.

The integrated British Infant School Model for 5 to 8 year-

olds, is compatible with, and incorporates, all the programmes mentioned. It also has the additional advantage of a flexible promotion policy which would accommodate the different learning rates of children who would be able to progress at their own pace without failure and repetition.

The disadvantages of extending formal group instruction downwards to include all 5 year-olds is, generally, not favoured by practitioners, as it acknowledged that children learn best through active, participatory learning experiences.

Double sessions either in pre-primary classes or after hours in Sub A classes may be conceived as a potential solution to the rapid phasing in of preparatory programmes. One should, however, guard against phasing in programmes which do not take into account day-care and health and nutritional needs.

In the formal school set-up, education is often the main focus at the expense of the health and welfare of the child. In addition, commencing a second pre-school session at midday, is not seen to be a particularly good time for learning, particularly in the case of children who do not receive adequate food or sleep. In addition, the sharing of resources such as equipment and other materials, could prove problematic (ibid.67-68).

THE FRAMEWORK REPORT

The NEPI Framework Report (1993) which represents a

culmination of all research reports states that the basis of a future education reconstructed education system is that of quality basic education, which is an end in itself and a necessary condition, in order to achieve higher skills, i.e. it is necessary for both equity which is defined as "*improved distribution of educational resources to disadvantaged communities*" and development (ibid.11).

Before considering strategies for quality basic education, constraints such as, low levels of well-trained teachers etc. and above all financial constraints and the continuing low levels of attainment, will act as curbs on any reconstruction programme (ibid.25).

According to the Report, the '*early learning*' option, like all other policy options described in the different sectoral reports, is placed on a continuum, one end being described as "*ends-based*" and the other "*means-based*".

An ends-based view of early learning, i.e. where the emphasis is long-term and on the end goal and growth, rather than initial conditions, and assumes participation through growth, would be inclined to leave pre-schooling to the private sector, as is generally the case at present. On the otherhand, a means-and-equity driven model which focuses on initial conditions, a shorter-term perspective, equity and assumes growth through participation, would look to the expansion and provision of pre-primary education by integrating it with formal education. Financial feasibility

would constrain the latter and it is, therefore, dismissed on these grounds (ibid.26 & 29).

A *"flexible bridging phase built into Sub A"*, as a *"minimum first step"*, is proposed with specialized pre-school programmes designed as a means of redress for severely disadvantaged pupils. This phase would be instituted in all schools and would run for the first 6 weeks, a full year, or continue in a *"mixed-mode"* to accommodate diversity. The programme would be financed and regulated by the state and coordinated at a national level within statutory regulations linked to those of compulsory schooling, in the interests of *"articulation"*, defined as a facilitator of equity that improves access and freedom of movement (ibid. 22).

Central state involvement in policy development and the co-ordination of provision is suggested as a means of optimizing the use of resources across the field. The prioritizing of community services through partnerships involving the relevant state departments, the community, the private sector and donor bodies linked with consultatory and monitoring boards and a national curriculum board, is suggested (ibid.30).

The NEPI: Education Planning, Systems and Structure Report (1992:62), in a discussion of options for education system change, are in favour of a state-subsidized pre-school year and the training of teachers in this field. They suggest that support for costs and staffing of pre-school facilities

is an element of education provision which is, generally, within the means of local communities and which could be mobilised through partnerships brokered by NGOs or upgrading projects.

SUMMARY

This section has attempted to provide an introduction and background to pre-primary provision and teacher-training in South Africa, with special reference to former state provision.

A comparative analysis of the different types of pre-school provision, including those in the former self-governing states and independent homelands, have also been included to highlight existing differences between the ex-education departments.

The Education Renewal Strategy (ERS), which is an outline of former state provision in its attempt to propose a broad framework for the development of future policy for the restructuring of education in the pre-primary phase of education, has been briefly alluded to.

Finally, an analysis of different policy options for future pre-school provision, as outlined by NEPI Research Group on Early Childhood Educare and a final proposal towards the development of a feasible and cost-effective for pre-school provision as advocated by the NEPI Framework Report, concludes the section.

The next section will attempt to assess current formal and non-formal teacher-training policy and provision, as provided by the former government and NGOs, respectively, in the light of developing appropriate teacher-training structures, in the foundation phase of education, with particular reference to the reception class year.

CHAPTER 3

TEACHER EDUCATION: PROVISION AND POLICY

INTRODUCTION

In an address entitled "Affirmative Action in the Field of Education", Judge Olivier (1992 in Mentor 74(3):14), states that the slow progress of Black children in South African schools lies not in his/her abilities, but in past and present disparities in teacher ability. He quotes Chris Heese in this regard (ibid.14-15):-

"More often than not excellence in education is directly related to the ability of the teacher to stimulate the involvement of his/her pupils. No alternative exists to dedicated, disciplined and inspired teaching by committed teachers. Two factors play a dominant role in influencing excellence of school education. They are: the quality of the principal and the quality of teachers."
(Chris Heese: *The Education Equation*)

Teacher education in South Africa is characterized by extensive disparities in the duration and quality of pre-service preparation and in teacher supply on a regional basis, at different levels and for different subject areas. This is particularly so in the case of Black schools.

Shortcomings in the quality and provision of teacher education are exacerbated by the conditions under which the majority of teachers work i.e. under-resourced schools, poor management, and limited in-service support. Political conflict and a consequent breakdown of the learning culture

have undermined the motivation and morale of teachers and has led to widespread rejection of self-evaluation in the classroom.

Generally, no account has been taken of national needs and, as a result, a fragmented system characterized by duplications and wastage in human and material resources has developed.

The total education budget for South Africa presently allocates 3.4% to teacher education compared with an average of 5% to 15% spent in other developing countries. There is no agreement about teacher education needs and, therefore, no knowledge of the number of teachers required

Teachers are the lifeblood of an education system. As primary agents of education, a teaching corps of quality and substance who possess the necessary knowledge, skills and commitment, will be necessary for successful education transformation in the country. Teachers need to be provided with both pre-service education and training (PRESET) and in-service education and training (INSET). A new teacher education policy incorporating the principles of democracy, equality, non-racism, non-sexism and redress should ensure the development of competent, flexible and resilient teachers, capable of revitalizing schools and responding to the changing demands of practice. New teachers will be needed to initiate change whilst experienced teachers will

need to be assisted to move away from outdated subject matter and methods. Teacher education should, therefore, be seen to be an ongoing process.

The challenge of future policy and practice will, therefore, be to develop a set of procedures for teacher evaluation compatible with democratic principles and with professional accountability.

Whilst the focus of future teacher education policy should be to develop a quality teaching corps, future policy-makers should not ignore the demand of teacher supply. The introduction of compulsory universal primary education with the possible incorporation of a state-funded reception class/pre-school year, will necessitate an increase in teachers. Policy-makers will, thus, need to address the question of how best to meet quantitative needs without compromising the aims of quality (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:1-2 & 8; NEPI:Summary of Research Group Reports, 1992:49-50).

The purpose of this section will be to assess priorities and needs in developing appropriate teacher-training policy for the foundation/initial phase of education. The section will commence with a review of general teacher education policy in the formal and non-formal sectors, followed by an analysis of formal and non-formal training opportunities in early childhood care and education. Teacher-training implications

for junior primary upgrading programmes will be discussed and the section will conclude with viable policy options as identified by the ERS and NEPI.

CURRENT POLICY FRAMEWORK

There has been no coherent teacher education policy or plan for national development. As already mentioned in the previous section, the provision of education and thus, teacher education, has been '*own affair*'. During past 2 years, however, important developments have occurred and students from different race groups are now admitted to '*other*' colleges (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:4-5).

PRESET: Location and Control

PRESET is essentially provided by the state. Each one of the 17 employing authorities has provided PRESET through colleges of education, universities and technikons (CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:10). The fragmented system of teacher education has been organized broadly along ethnic lines and controlled by different ex-departments, is clear from the table below which depicts formal pre-service teacher-training institutions in the country (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:5).

Table 3.1: PRESET Provision

ex-Depts.	Teachers' Colleges	Universities	Technikons	No. of students in Colleges
DEC:HoA	11	11	8	9 037
DEC:HoD	2	1	1	2 125
DEC:HoR	11	1	1	4 850
DET	13	4	1	10 240
SGTs	33	-	1	28 935
TBVC States	28	4	3	18 803
Private	0	-	-	-
TOTAL	98	21	15	73 990

(Education Realities in South Africa, 1991 in NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:5; DNE and Transkei Department Report (1991) compiled by Education Foundation, Policy Support Unit Data for 1992 (African, except Transkei (1991) and White, Indian and Coloured (1993) in CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:14)

(Note: The above table taken from the NEPI: Teacher Education Report (1992) has been modified to include more recent statistics. The number of students enrolled for teacher education only includes students enrolled at teacher training colleges.

With the rationalization of the ex-HoA, ex-HoD and ex-HoR colleges and the closing of PROMAT (formerly an independent and private institution, which in association with WITS, offered a 4-year diploma in senior primary education. Teachers in service, who had not matriculated were also offered the opportunity to complete a 1-year full-time matric course, under the direction of full-time, qualified teachers) (Le Roux in CORDTEK, 1991:2), the current number of colleges of education has decreased and figures are, therefore, approximate. Despite closures, however, the number of college students has increased annually at the rate of 6%,

during the past few years (CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:11).

Generally, teacher education is institutionally located within colleges of education which offer a range of qualifications, mainly in primary education. Approximately 21 universities, all except 1 and 15 technikons, offer teacher education courses. In the technikon sector, qualifications are governed by the Certification Council for Technikon Education (SERTEC), whilst universities have been governed by broad regulations through the ex-DNE. Structural isolation for technikon students makes it difficult for students to transfer courses to universities or colleges. Universities are empowered by statute to award teaching diplomas and degrees, within the constraints of the national criteria, for teacher-education qualifications and they have the autonomy to shape their own programmes. This has resulted in many maintaining conservative programmes.

Within the college sector, there is considerable disparity in the decision-making powers. Colleges under the ex-HoA and the ex-HoD have had a fair measure of autonomy, whereas those of the ex-HoR and ex-DET have had little academic or administrative autonomy. All ex-HoA colleges and 2 ex-HOD colleges have had the added advantage, which facilitates mobility between universities and colleges through credit or exemption. The ex-HOR and the ex-DET have had little formal co-operation with these institutions, the exception being

UNISA. All colleges of education in the former homelands and in the TBVC states, with the exception of Giyani (which is affiliated to WITS) and the colleges in Bophuthatswana and the Transkei, which are affiliated to their own universities, have followed the syllabi of the ex-DET (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:14).

Many of the remote rural colleges have experienced inadequate physical plant, i.e. poor infrastructure and lack of media resources - library books and audio and visual resources. Isolation from centres of debate on various issues, compounded by the quality of teacher educators has impeded their academic development and professional proficiency (CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:16).

All PRESET teacher education diploma courses, except the Higher Education Diploma (HDE) offered by UNISA (which is a correspondence university), are full-time 4-year courses, with various periods of practice teaching (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:14).

Generally, teacher education institutions, at the 3 levels identified, have been structurally isolated from one another and in most cases the transfer of credits from one institution to another has been difficult. While statistics about cost differ, all agree that colleges of education are amongst the most expensive education institutions in the country. The average student-lecturer ratio for colleges is

10.47:1 as apposed to the 19.83:1 and 19.26:1 for universities and technikons, respectively (Jaffe (1992) in NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:14).

INSET: Location and Control

In the case of INSET, no coordinated INSET teacher education programme with proper budgetary provision has existed in the country. Formal INSET courses have been offered by the different ex-education departments through various colleges, universities and subject advisory services. Each ex-'own affair' education department of the former Tricameral House has had its own distance education institution, catering for its 'own' teachers. The ex-HoA has provided teacher centres which focus on short courses, as well as institutions for further education (Transvaal) and distance education colleges, for the upgrading of qualifications (ibid.15).

Although the ex-DET has emphasized and improved the upgrading of teacher qualifications, further qualifications have not, however, resulted in improved classroom proficiency. Teachers under pressure to improve their qualifications have often taken the 'easy options' such as *Criminology, Biblical Studies, which are not school subjects and which cannot be directly linked to improved classroom teaching. The end result has been an inflation of qualifications with implications for the salary bill* (CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:20). In addition, certain groups of educators such as teacher-educators, adult educators in non-

formal projects and pre-school teachers, however, have received very little INSET (Hofmeyr in CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994: 20).

In the former homeland departments, INSET has focused mainly on secondary school teachers, with the notable exception being the PEUP in Bophuthatswana, reportedly one of the most successful INSET programmes in the country.

The most need group of teachers are the young, mostly female underqualified primary school teachers who work in overcrowded classrooms in the former homelands and self-governing territories such as Lebowa, Kangwane and KwaZulu (ibid. 20).

INSET and NGOs

NGOs are also involved in INSET. Due to the fact that many of these agencies have '*gone to scale*' their influence has become increasingly quantitative. In terms of scale, NGOs service as many teacher clients as the ex-education departments (Hartshorne 1985 and Hofmeyr 1991 in CEPD/The Education Foundation, 1994:19). Programmes focus on classroom competence compared with the ex-education departments' focus on upgrading qualifications, as well as INSET for curriculum change.

The proliferation of INSET NGOs have attracted considerable foreign and local funding, as they are seen as the prime

means of improving the quality of Black education in the country. Strategies include the involvement of teachers in the design and management of programmes and materials production, the provision of advice and support to teachers in the classroom and the involvement of principals and staff in organizational development. Projects are essentially national in structure, with strong regional structures. The implementation of strategies are more democratic and 'bottoms-up' rather than 'top-down' and relationships have been established with universities, colleges technikons and certain teacher associations (ibid.19-21).

Access to Teacher Education

For most teacher education institutions, matriculation results form the main criteria for access to complete teacher-training courses. In all ex-departments, except those concerned with African education, there has been no consistent pattern of increased admissions to teacher education courses. In Coloured and Indian education, authorities have employed deliberate strategies to reduce the number of teachers trained, whilst the ex-HoR and the ex-HoA have considered closing down smaller training colleges. The ex-DET has attempted to stabilize the number of students entering teacher education institutions.

General admission requirements for PRESET courses may be outlined as follows:-

- * Colleges: Senior Certificate with 1 additional higher grade subject and with school subjects appropriate to the primary school curriculum;
- * Technikons: Senior Certificate with 1 additional higher grade subject and with school subjects appropriate to the specialization offered;
- * Universities: Non-graduate diplomas: Senior Certificate with 1 additional higher grade subject and with appropriate school subjects
Graduate Diplomas: Degree.

In order to qualify as a teacher, students should be able to teach through the medium of both official languages i.e. English and Afrikaans. The ex-DET, former TBVC states and many of the former homelands have either excluded Afrikaans as a subject or have offered it at second or third language level. When seeking access to teacher education under the authority of the ex-tricameral i.e. HoA, HoR and HoD, students from these institutions have been disadvantaged, in addition some institutions have not offered mathematics and science in their programmes and Africans are, consequently, denied access to high-level occupations where Mathematics and Science are prerequisites (NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:19-20).

Certification and Assessment

The official norm, as established by the government in 1983, for teacher education courses has been matriculation plus 3 years professional training (M + 3). Although there has been a dramatic increase of professionally qualified teachers in

Black and Coloured schools in the past few years, the majority of teachers, especially in the ex-DET system, have fallen well below this norm i.e. 57% according to 1991 statistics.

At primary school level this rises to approximately 74.9% with the majority of underqualified teachers being women. An analysis of 1989 statistics reveal that women constituted 71% of the underqualified teachers in the ex-DET, with 61% employed in the former homelands and 85% in the HoR.

The norm for white education is M + 4 years. Should this norm be extended to African education, then more than 75% of all teachers would be considered underqualified (Jaffe, 1992:5-6; NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992;23). Teacher qualifications according to population group, in 1990, are tabled as follows:-

Table 3.2: Teacher Qualifications according to Population Group

Pop. Group	Phase	Without Profess. Qualif.	With Prof. Qualif.	Total
Blacks	Primary	19 819	105 659	125 478
	Secondary	5 112	59 651	64 763
	Total	24 931	165 310	190 241
Whites	Primary	-	25 912	25 912
	Secondary	-	27 189	27 189
	Total	-	53 101	53 101
Coloureds	Primary	921	23 150	24 071
	Secondary	650	11 633	12 283
	Total	1 571	34 783	36 354
Indians	Primary	61	5 872	5 933
	Secondary	115	5 474	5 589
	Total	176	11 346	11 522

(Source: Education and Manpower Development (1990); RIEP; UOFS in NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:21).

From the above table, it may be deduced that many of South Africa's teachers, as a result of their lack of qualifications, are not recognised as professionals.

Accountability and Professional Development of Teachers

The term "profession" may be defined as a "vocation or calling, especially one that involves some branch of advanced learning" (The Concise Oxford Dictionary).

The teacher is a professional person and a key figure in formal education (Van Wyk, 1987:54) who holds a particular status (ibid.75). The term 'status' refers to a person's legal position in the eyes of the law, i.e. his competence

to obtain rights and obligations and execute juridical acts.

The teacher has formal status which is determined by his training, skill and appointment to a particular school, whilst his material status refers to the fact that he acts on behalf of the parent (ibid.81), i.e. '*in loco parentis*' (ibid.24). The teacher's professional status is manifested in his relationships with other educational partners such as the education department, the teaching profession, the parent community and the pupil (ibid.43).

All teachers and college lectures are, therefore, accountable to the ex-departments that employ them and are classified as '*civil servants*' who have a bureaucratic relationship with the state. This severely constrains their capacity for autonomous professional activity and despite fact that schools and colleges have committees and councils, these bodies lack credibility and power (NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:25).

The professional conduct of the teacher is a comprehensive concept which includes inter alia, commitment, responsibility, allegiance and loyalty towards the profession, expertise in teaching, knowledge and understanding of the child (Van Wyk, 1987:63).

Teacher Education Curriculum

The National Criteria for Qualifications for Education compel institutions to comply with certain conditions, thereby

ensuring the sharing of common course content. Generally, syllabi stress content with the emphasis focusing on rote memorization of facts, with little attempt to match students' learning with educational needs in the Republic. The nature of teaching as essentially a linguistic activity, which demands a good command of the medium of instruction employed in the classroom, is not focused upon and the link between language and cognition is not pursued (NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:16-18).

In a document on language policy considerations released by the ANC, it is stated that *'rigorous attention needs to be given to the language proficiencies of teachers, both in training and those in service.'* Bi- and multi-lingual teachers who are proficient in an African language with either English or Afrikaans are seen to be essentially germane to policy formulation (Gardiner, 1992:14).

In teacher education institutions, there appears to be no relationship between PRESET and INSET and both proceed without any reference plan for reconstruction. The needs of certain groups of educators i.e. pre-school teachers, managers of education institutions, non-formal projects etc. all seem to have received little attention in this regard. Generally, outside organizations are responsible for INSET and there has been little co-ordination amongst these organizations (NEPI:Teacher Education. 1992:18).

Projected Primary School Enrolment

Hartshorne (in NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:10), in an attempt to project the number of primary school teachers required for universal primary education (UPE), from 1993, based on the forecasts of the Research Institute for Education and Planning (RIEP) concerning primary and secondary pupil numbers, concludes that if all primary level teacher education institutions were already operating at maximum level and produced 16 000 teacher per year, they would have been able to produce sufficient teachers for UPE until 1994. The capacity for teachers would, however, need to increase by 3 000 to 4 000 teachers per year, in order to peak at 34 000 teachers by the year 2000. Thereafter, with UPE fully implemented, the number of teachers would stabilize at approximately 20 000 per year.

Orbach's research (in NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:10-11) supports Hartshorne's conclusions but he also includes the 1-2 million primary school pupils who have dropped out of the system. Should 60% of primary school drop-outs return to school, an estimated additional 25 000 teachers would be required (Donaldson in NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:11).

Orbach also highlights the problem of the regional disparity in teacher supply. His research reveals that with a pupil/teacher ratio of 40:1, regions such as Qwa-Qwa are already oversupplied. This will also apply to teacher supply in Lebowa, Ciskei, Venda, Bophuthatswana and large parts of the DET system, by the year 2000. On the otherhand areas

such as Transkei, Gazankulu, KaNgwane, KwaNdebele and especially KwaZulu, will have considerable shortages.

Regional distribution of teachers will prove to be problematic due to teachers being reluctant to relocate, whilst others will lack the linguistic capacity or the subject specialization to make redistribution feasible.

Pre-primary education is excluded from the above research. Although, it is interesting to note that Hartshorne, in Biersteker (1992:6), ascertains that in a new education dispensation, early childhood education should gain some state support. He further adds, that attaching it to any part of the formal system could, however, stifle the creativity and flexibility that has developed as a result of its independence from the formal system (this partly explains, although does not justify, his omission of pre-primary education from the projection model).

The current state investment in this phase is currently 0.8% of the education budget and 69% of this is allocated to Whites (ibid.11-12).

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION:CURRENT TEACHER-TRAINING PROVISION

Formal versus Non-formal Training Opportunities

The most obvious differentiation in the early childhood field is between formal teacher-training at colleges of education and universities and a variety of non-formal courses for '*educare workers*' offered by a large number of NGOs and

Resource and Training Agencies (RTAs). This may be partially attributed to the formal pre-primary training sector which is small in relation to teacher education as a whole and which meets a fraction of the need in the educare field, compared with the relatively developed non-formal training sector.

'*Formal education and training*' may be defined as that which takes place in a recognised educational institutions such as schools, colleges technikons and universities, whereas '*non-formal education and training*' refers to organised courses set-up to meeting specific learning needs, usually within the private sector. ('*informal*' education and training refers to that which takes placed informally, in the home, through the media, or on the job). The primary difference relates to who provides the training and where it takes place. Other important differences relate to academic entrance qualifications and certification - nonformal courses usually have neither. In practice, however, differences relate to the length of courses offered, goals, curriculum content, training methods and management and control. Recent developments suggest that these differences are beginning to become more indistinct in both non-formal and formal training methods.

The term '*non-formal*' lacks a positive definition and has tended to acquire an inferior status in professional education circles. It has been dismissed as an '*alternative*

system' which does not equate with the formal system, due to the lack of formal recognition of certification of courses passed and is, thus seen as having a limited exchange value. (Short, 1992b,1992:3-4)

The main focus of teacher-training has been PRESET, which prepares students for teaching in contrast to INSET, which has focused on the upgrading of formal qualifications and the improvement of competence and development of school administration skills. Course participants for INSET are usually teachers in service who study part-time through distance education or attend short intensive programmes. INSET has tended to be based on a '*deficit*' model, i.e. needed only in situations where qualifications or competence are regarded as being deficient. The current trend now is to see it as an essential aspect of ongoing professional development (ibid.4-5).

Pre-primary (reception) classes and schools which are supported by provincial education ex-departments are largely staffed by tertiary-trained teachers i.e. those who have undertaken studies after completing secondary education. This does not, however, apply to private pre-primary schools and full day care centres and is distinct from centres serving Black children where the majority of staff are untrained. Table 3.2 shows the estimated number of teaching staff, employed in educare centres for Black children, according to the type of training received. in 1991.

Table 3.3: Types of Teaching Staff employed in educare centres for Black children, according to training received (1991).

Type of training	No. of Staff	%
Formal pre-primary training	589	4
Formal primary training	1 333	8
Non-formal educare training	2 882	17
Untrained	11 926	71
Total	16 730	100

(Short in NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:20)

In 1991, the majority of teaching and care-giving staff represented in the above table, were untrained. More than half of the remainder had received their training through non-formal courses. Furthermore, 8% of primary school teachers were employed in pre-primary programmes, many of whom have the secondary Primary Training Certificate (PTC), with a standard 8 entrance requirement. Available evidence suggests that 40% of these teachers have received some form of non-formal educare training. The small percentage of staff with formal pre-primary qualifications i.e. 4% have received training at the secondary level, i.e. standard eight. The table also shows that training opportunities, particularly in the formal sector, need to be increased and broadened (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:20).

Non-formal Training: Course Accreditation

Due to the lack of formal training opportunities in Black communities and the poor quality of educare programmes offered, a network of NGOs have developed to provide non-formal training opportunities and support, to early childhood

education programmes, including those for Sub A (class one) teachers. These agencies are non-racial although they cater mainly for the Black communities. Support includes, inter alia, advice and information, development of educational materials etc. Non-formal training opportunities are most extensive in the Western and Eastern Cape and least developed in relation to need in the Transvaal, particularly in the rural areas. In 1991, approximately 5 058 educare staff participated in some form of training.

Many courses offer certificates of competence and an accreditation system has been worked out by the South African Association for Early Childhood Educare (SAAECE), for 4 levels of training (ibid.31-32). SAAECE has since combined with the National Interim Working Committee (NIWC) to form the SA Congress for Early Childhood Development, at an official launch held in March 1994 (SA Congress for Early Childhood Development in Soundwaves, September 1994:1).

Commencing in 1986, guidelines, under the auspices of SAAECE, have been developed by a committee of practitioners experienced in both formal and non-formal training of pre-primary educare staff and trainers at all levels. To date, 4 training agencies have had their courses fully evaluated and accredited, namely the Early Learning Resource Unit (ELRU), in Landsdowne, Western Cape Foundation for Community Work (FCW), in Kewtown, Port Elizabeth Early Learning Centre, in Port Elizabeth and Khululeka Community Education

Development Centre (Queenstown Early Learning Centre), in Queenstown (Short and Appelbaum, 1994:3;6;18;20).

A wide range of training needs have been identified at 4 different levels of development and job responsibility. Each level provides more depth and breadth of education and training moving from an informal to a more formal curriculum as follows:-

- * **Level 1: Introductory Courses**
Short courses are designed to equip the participant with specific practical skills needed to carry out clearly defined duties, usually under supervision, in a specific type of educare programme;
- * **Level 2: Foundation Courses**
Substantial practically-oriented training courses are designed to equip participants with the knowledge and skills required to facilitate all-round, age-appropriate pupil development. Duties include planning and implementing programmes according to clearly defined aims and objectives;
- * **Level 3: Development Courses**
Further training courses, are designed to extend participants' theoretical knowledge and understanding of issues in the early childhood field. Additional skills required to plan and implement high quality services for young children and/or adults who care for children, are developed. Relevant basic training is a prerequisite. Courses include community development and training skills, administration and managerial skills, parent education, as well as early childhood development and health care work. Skill development may focus on 1 of these areas.
- * **Level 4: Specialist Course**
Further advanced training courses are designed to enrich and further extend participants' theoretical knowledge in a particular area and develop high level skills related to programme development, research

and evaluation, project design and management.

Courses at this level are designed for high level leadership positions (ibid.3).

Generally, the 4 levels of non-formal training are designed to facilitate access to training for all early childhood educators, progression of training opportunities from one level of training to the next and establish equivalence between non-formal and formal qualifications, as well as transfer from one to the other. Extension courses within each level are also offered to increase opportunities for development. Courses of this nature may also be offered as bridging courses to the next level (SAAECE,1994:17).

Participants may enter at different levels depending on their educational background and relevant experience. It provides for continuing education and development and permits the introduction of a modular system to facilitate entry and exit at different points (Biersteker, 1992:37-38; Rickards, 1991:53-55;).

Non-formal course accreditation services have 5 specific objectives as follows:-

- * to involve non-formal training organizations and trainers in a process of improving the quality of educare training offered to early childhood educators, thereby improving ECD programmes;
- * to introduce a system of evaluation and reassessment in order to determine whether courses meet and maintain accepted standards thereby providing some form of protection for course participants, employers and parents;

- * to recognize and equate independent courses according to different levels of training and, thereby, provide mobility or early childhood educators from one area to another;
- * to gain national recognition for non-formal certificates in terms of qualifications, salaries and conditions of service, thereby improving employment practices and service conditions of early childhood educators;
- * to develop career development paths and links between formal and non-formal training, thereby promoting a flexible and coherent system of high quality training which will meet real needs in the field.

Training agencies are not compelled to apply for accreditation. As a non-statutory accrediting body, which recognizes the initiatives and autonomy of NGOs providing training courses according to local needs, the former body states its intention to seek state recognition for approved non-formal courses (SAAECE, 1994:9-10). The provision of access to training for all through non-formal courses and equivalence with formal courses at the same level is regarded as essential to redress imbalances in the country (Short, 1992b:20). Generally, the non-formal training method has proved to be a cost-effective means of meeting the demand for training among a large number of educate workers. The practical nature of the courses, directly relating theory to practice and run on an in-service basis, with support provided by regular visits to the different centres, has attracted a number of participants. A major problem is the high-turnover of staff due to poor working conditions. Other provision of services include private centres, a few of which are subsidized by the Department of Manpower, 2 courses offered

by universities and a large number of NGOs who depend on funds from private companies and foreign aid. The only government bodies which provide non-formal training are the Bophuthatswana Education Department and 1 local authority (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare,1992:32).

Formal Training Qualifications

Tertiary Training Opportunities

Formal training opportunities have been available at the tertiary (post standard 10) level. Courses designed almost exclusively to train teachers of children in the 3-6 age cohort have been systematically eroded (Short, 1992a:6).

In 1991, there were 4 universities and 4~teacher-training colleges which offered tertiary pre-primary training, i.e. post standard 10. Of these, 6 served predominantly White students, 1 served Coloured students and 1 served African students. In addition, 3 colleges incorporate a pre-primary module as part of a junior primary diploma. This is interesting to note, as 1990 statistics reveal that there were 100 teacher-training colleges, with a combined enrolment of 67 266 students, i.e. 73%, 11% Coloured, 1% Indian and 14% White (Short in CEPD/World Bank, 1994:61).

Formal training qualifications in early childhood care and education may be gained as follows:-

*** University Degree Courses**

Bachelor of Primary Education (B Prim Ed Pre-Primary)

This is a 4-year, full-time, integrated course consisting of general education subjects in the first 2 years, followed by pre-primary specialization in the third and fourth years of training.

It is offered by the University of Pretoria.

Bachelor of Education (B Ed Pre-Primary)

A higher education degree which requires the approval of a 3-year degree approved for teaching, plus a Higher Diploma in Pre-Primary Education or the Bachelor of Primary Education (Pre-Primary) qualification for entrance, offered by UNISA.

Master of Education (M Ed), Doctor of Philosophy (PHD or Doctor of Education (D Ed)
Advanced degrees based on a thesis.

*** College of Education/University Diploma Courses**

Certificate in Primary Education (Pre-Primary) (1995)

Standard 10 entrance and 2-years' distance learning, offered by CESA;

Diploma in Education (Pre-Primary) and the University Diploma in Early Learning (Bophuthatswana).

Standard 10 entrance and 3-years' full-time training, offered at teacher-training courses;

Higher Diploma in Education (HDE Pre-Primary)

Standard 10 (with 3 higher grade subjects) and 4 years' full-time training.

Course structures differ from college to college.

A joint qualification in pre-primary and junior primary education offered by JCE,

or

a 1-year pre-primary specialization, following a 3-year degree approved for teaching or a 3-year teaching diploma, offered by UNISA and Cape Town College of Education.

(Short & Appelbaum, 1994:4)

Higher Diploma in Education (HDE Junior Primary)

Standard 10 entrance and 4 years' full-time training.

Pre-primary specialization offered as a minor

component at Durban Training College, Edgewood College and Springfield College (Short & Appelbaum, 1994:26; Short, 1992a:6).

Formal Secondary Level Training

Although the standard 8 pre-primary teachers' training course was phased out in the early 1980s, many Black teachers were trained at this level. INSET opportunities for formal upgrading have been limited and requirements to be met have proved difficult for married women with families. Many of those who have remained in the field hold leadership positions as principals of educare centres and as trainers and advisors, employed by NGOs.

Technical training colleges, introduced an eighteen month, N3 (technical equivalent to standard 10) Certificate in Educare for teacher assistants with a standard 7 education. In 1991, this course was offered in 10 technical colleges and by correspondence through Technisa.

Concern has, however, been expressed regarding the quality of the course offered which has since been replaced with a 2-year, post standard 8 full-time course. Students have the opportunity to complete their Senior Certificate which includes 4 subjects relating to educare (NEPI: Early Childhood Educare 1992:31). According to Short, (1992b:11), the educare courses offered at technical colleges i.e. (N1 - N3 - standard eight to standard 10), cannot be regarded as a substitute for tertiary-level courses in teacher-training

colleges due to the wide acceptance that the quality of early childhood care and education is closely associated with the type and quality of training teachers have received. Formal training qualifications at the secondary level may be outlined as follows:-

- * **N1-N3 (Educare) Course.**
Standard 7 entrance. 3 X 6 month courses (a total of 18 months full-time). 4 educare subjects cover the care and education of children from birth to 6 years.
The N3 course is more relevant to students who enter with a standard 10 certificate.
From 1993, the course was replaced, in most colleges, with the 2 courses listed below.
- * **National Intermediate Certificate (NIC Educare)**
Standard 8 entrance. 1 year full-time. Course content consists of 4 educare subjects covering the development of children from birth to 6 years.
Certificate equivalent to standard 9.
- * **National Senior Certificate (NSC Educare)**
NIC entrance. 1 year full-time. Subjects as above.
Certificate equivalent to standard 10.
(Short & Appelbaum, 1994:4).

ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT OF POLICY OPTIONS

In the previous section various policy options, regarding programme provision, within the school system, for 5 to 9 year-olds, was discussed. Analysis of provision options reveal a real need to merge pre-primary and junior primary training at the formal tertiary level.

The Early Childhood Stage of Development

Future teacher-training policy should, therefore, take account of the age-range that is covered by the term '*early childhood education*' i.e. from birth to 9 years, a period which, particularly in English-speaking countries, is regarded as an integrated whole due to the educational approach required during the early childhood period, which focuses on the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy and which is fundamentally different from the middle childhood, senior primary school stage i.e. from 10 to 12 years of age (standard 2 to standard 5) (Short, 1992b:15).

For the purpose of this research, early childhood care and education will be divided as follows:-

- * **0 - 4 years of age: Pre-Foundation Phase of Education**
This would include partial state-subsidisation;
- * **5 -8/9 years of age: Foundation/initial Phase of Education**
This would include a state-funded pre-school/reception class year which would form part of UPE.

Although the period of 0 -4 years of age is regarded as crucial in early childhood care and education, the scope and nature of the research undertaken by the writer does not permit a detailed exposition of future policy options regarding appropriate teacher-training strategies in this phase.

Separate Education and Welfare Policies

According to Short (1992b:9), it is not possible to discuss teacher-training policy without referring to general policy of early childhood care and education.

The traditionally separate education and welfare policies relating to early childhood provision need to be addressed due to the different power groups involved in policy decision-making within these 2 fields. Early childhood provision straddles the separate policies and often '*falls between 2 stools*'. A development policy perspective which attempts to synthesize education and welfare policies and integrate health and housing, education and economic development in order to meet the holistic developmental needs of young children, recognises the need to develop the potential of those in the community through non-formal training programmes.

The '*pre-foundation phase of education*', identified by the writer, could be serviced by non-formally trained teachers in charge of children in the 0 - 4 age cohort, whilst formal teacher-training opportunities could meet the need for qualified teachers in the foundation phase, i.e. the 5-9 age cohort.

Formal Training: The Bridging Period Programme

Taylor, in a NEPI Working Paper entitled "*The Bridging Period Programme: An Early Assessment*" (1992), states that one of

the largest drawbacks of the BPP project is that it expects grade 1 teachers to 'switch' to the pre-school level with little or no pre-service training and minimal in-service support. The pedagogy of the BPP is group-centred and play-based, which is in strong contrast to the more authoritarian, teacher-centred methods which predominate in ex-DET schools. Often, it is the older, less qualified teachers who teach at the lower end of the primary school and who, thus, experience the greatest difficulty in adapting their skills to meet the requirements of the programme. In the smaller schools, 1 teacher may be responsible for 5 groups of children within a classroom, ranging from those busy with formal grade 1 work, to those suffering from learning problems. It has also been noted that the size of the grade 1 classrooms are inadequate to accommodate play-based methods. In the smaller farm schools, the situation may be further exacerbated where 1 teacher is responsible for many children spread over a number of grades. Inadequate in-service training, which occurs at all levels in ex-DET schools and the resultant inability of teachers to cope with the demands of the programme are acknowledged and, as previously mentioned, the long-term effects of this approach in mediating the lower boundary of primary schooling, can only be evaluated after a thorough longitudinal study has been undertaken.

Although a bridging programme within the first year of the junior primary phase would undoubtedly help in promoting a measure of school readiness, it can in no way equate with a

full pre-school/reception class year due to the fact that it is conducted within the 'formal' classroom and would, of necessity, have to be less active and less verbal than an effectively organised, experientially-based pre-primary/reception class programme in a relevant venue.

In the event of the state being not being able to afford the provision of pre-school education to a significant proportion of children, the programme offers to appease the absence of such facilities for the most underprivileged children. It is, therefore, essential to implement some form of INSET, as soon as possible (ibid.1-11).

Formal and Non-formal Training: The Bophuthatswana Pre-Primary Model

The Bophuthatswana Department of education Early childhood Programme supports some 530 early learning centres for 32 000 children. It provides initial non-formal teacher-training, as well as continuing support and in-service training to all teaching staff. This model is working toward a goal where formally-trained teachers (matric plus a 3-year specialized early education diploma) will be extensively used. In order to have a cost-effective mix of staff and to achieve a target ratio of 1:12, the model has been designed for 1 group of 25 children to have a formally-trained teacher, assisted by a non-formally trained assistant. At present, however, despite 2 training colleges offering a pre-primary diploma, there are still too few formally trained teachers to implement the desired staffing ratio and there is a heavy reliance on non-

formally trained staff and assistants. Where they are available and affordable, NGOs have been used to provide initial training (CEPD/World Bank, 1994:65).

Although schools are run by the communities, teachers receive a salary-subsidy, on a sliding scale, according to their education, from the state. Teachers with a specialized matric plus 3 years of training are remunerated according to the departmental salary scale (ibid. 133).

NEPI RECOMMENDATIONS

Upgrading of Pre-Primary and Junior Primary Courses

Pre-primary and junior primary courses need to be thoroughly reviewed and integrated and teacher educators need to be trained in progressive teaching methods. Revised courses need to be introduced as soon as possible to prepare teachers for a new education system.

Training needs are extensive for an upgraded junior primary school and for compulsory schooling for all children. This will substantially increase enrolment by the year 2000. The introduction of a pre-primary/reception class year for 80% of 5 year-olds at a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:25 will require approximately 39 300 teachers in the year 2000. Qualified pre-primary teachers are mainly White and are a fraction of the amount of teachers required in the future.

The introduction of the integrated '*infant school*' model at

a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40, with a teacher-assistant and an established teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40 in the primary school, will require a doubling of primary school teachers by the year 2000. This would entail the training of approximately 200 000 new teachers by the year 2000.

Formal training at the tertiary level is expensive and options for meeting training needs and keeping staff costs down relate to reducing the length of full-time training, using less expensive training formats such as distance learning, utilizing team-teaching arrangements consisting of trained teachers at different levels. Formal (and non-formal) training needs will need to provide for initial teacher training.

The writer believes that educate workers in charge of pre-school children, i.e. 5 year-olds, will need formal training as well as leadership training in order to assist others less qualified than themselves. Initial teacher-training could be a minimum of 2-years pre-service education which would allow a person to qualify as an assistant teacher. Essential practical experience would be gained using a team-teaching approach. Upgrading of this M+2 qualification to a M+3 would be required within a specialized period of time. Specialization options would accommodate different training needs in the field. An optional M+4 could lead to further upgrading.

A reduced pre-service teacher-training programme would allow colleges of education to produce sufficiently trained teachers for the field with a view to upgrading professional expertise.

Formal training at the secondary level will also be needed, with an entrance requirement of standard eight plus 2 year's pre-service training and the possibility of upgrading to M+2 and further. Teachers could work as assistants in junior primary schools and in pre-primary classes and costs could be reduced considerably (NEPI:Early Childhood Care and Education, 1992:88-89).

Non-formal training by NGOs

INSET training of teachers within the school system, as a means of upgrading qualifications would be needed in the upgrading programmes proposed for the junior primary, and in the writer's case the foundation/initial phase of education. NGOs with the necessary expertise and state subsidization, could assist with the upgrading of qualifications and teachers would have the right to recognition through appropriate certification (ibid. 89-90).

The writer wishes to emphasize that the concept of teacher-training in the foundation/initial phase should not be seen to include only those who wish to teach in reception classes or bridging classes attached to primary schools, but to all teachers of 5 year-olds whether they teach in state-

registered pre-primary schools, private pre-primary schools or in play-centres, educare centres etc.

In accordance with the NEPI:Early Childhood Educare policy option, tertiary training for the development of a leadership cadre, particularly for educare services should also be focused upon, as teaching skills and experience are needed as a basis for further training appropriate to leadership positions (ibid.88). In addition, assistant teachers would, under the supervision of a qualified teacher, need only a level one training in basic skills, as is currently being implemented by the SA Congress for Early Childhood Development (previously discussed).

State Subsidized Autonomous NGOs

The NEPI Educare Research Group propose that certain aspects of the work of NGOs would be state-funded, whilst other functions could be supported by the private sector and community. This would allow for considerable independence in programming in a decentralized system, which could result in coordination problems and problems in developing a unified approach to education. A variation of this option proposes that NGOs become associated with community colleges for the purposes of subsidization and certification. This model would rest on a central system of course accreditation (ibid.90).

Quasi-NGOs (QUANGO) Model

Non-formal training systems funded by the state and other

partners are found in countries such as Kenya. This model would involve a higher degree of centralized control by appointed state officials. A national unit could ensure coordination, accreditation, monitoring and research and development functions, whilst at regional level specialist training courses and development would be facilitated and local agencies would be responsible for basic training and community support. The risk is, however, that non-formal training could become less flexible and less responsive to local needs (ibid. 91).

The Community College

The community college concept is described by Le Roux (1991:55-56) as *"a post school college"*, where a student might attend for 2 years in order to prepare himself/herself for a job or learn to read and write etc. In short, *"everyone has access"*. Furthermore, *"the community college has flexibility ... it allows for mobility between courses."*

Linkages between Formal and Non-Formal Training and Accreditation

The NEPI Early Childhood Care and Education Research Group see community colleges as the facilitators of transference between non-formal and formal training and from secondary to tertiary levels. It is suggested that training be offered at different levels, with progression from one level to another, through modularization of course content and a course accreditation system which will facilitate transfer between formal and non-formal training. The Research Group

suggest that it is important to separate tensions over funding and control from professional issues such as accreditation, the monitoring and maintaining of standards and curriculum development (usually universities). It is suggested that non-formal training agencies could be used in this regard (ibid.92-93).

The writer believes that "*A Collegium*", as proposed by the former Natal Teachers' Society, be instituted as the central body for course and institutional validation and accreditation of teacher-training courses (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:47). The Collegium Model will be expounded more fully in the KwaZulu-Natal Teacher Training proposal for the foundation/initial phase of education.

An Improved Education System

The NEPI Teacher Education Research Group state that the challenge of establishing an improved teacher education system for South Africa is compounded by the unfavourable economic situation within which policy options will need to be developed and implemented. An analysis of the current situation reveals the following priority needs of which only those pertaining to the writer's research, are listed:-

- * the upgrading of teacher qualifications and the development of teacher quality;
- * the provision of teachers for UPE;
- * the development of rural areas;
- * an improvement in the status of women.

It may be argued that the greatest challenge lies in INSET in addressing the current teaching corps' capacity to render service of the highest quality. If that is the case, then the challenge of PRESET will be to develop teachers who are secure within their own disciplines and who have a good understanding of the relationship between theory and practice.

There appears to be little likelihood of the state increasing the education budget in excess of 2% per annum, unless significant economic growth is experienced. Teacher remuneration, including benefits, forms the largest component of the overall expenditure of education i.e. 70%. A significant increase in the number of qualified teachers and in the number of teachers who have upgraded their qualifications, will increase the education budget proportionally. Given the extent of the present inequalities in the system, the challenge will be to redistribute resources to give effect to the principles of equality and redress, while bearing in mind the need to develop the country's human resources.

The biggest problem facing teacher education is the crisis in rural schools where enrolment exceeds over 60% of all South African pupils. Lack of empirical evidence on rural education makes generalization difficult, although it may be generally conceded that there are insufficient schools and that these lack equipment and often the qualified staff to render quality education to pupils. Future policy will,

therefore, need to address the problem of access and quality of education in these areas.

Current programmes at teacher-training institutions do not fully equip teachers on how to adapt and respond to rural problems and these will need to be reformulated to accommodate appropriate practice both in teacher education courses and in schools (ibid.31-33).

In the Framework Report (1993:246-247), respondents to the NEPI Teacher Education questionnaire cited the poor quality of teacher educators as one of the main weaknesses inherent in the present system. Options for addressing the problem are cited as being used singly or in combination, as follows:-

- * INSET for teacher educators;
- * redistribution of qualified and experienced staff for a more equitable distribution thereof;
- * institutional partnerships to facilitate shared expertise and temporary exchange of lecturers.

Teacher appraisal and accountability, is also cited as an aim of improving the quality of the teaching corps and the importance of balancing professional autonomy, with appropriate forms of democratic accountability through parent-teacher-student associations (student involvement not relevant in the context of the foundation phase of

education), community involvement in school governance and teachers' professional reporting on students' progress.

ERS POLICY PERSPECTIVE

The Discussion Document of the ERS (1992:6) states that present teacher education programmes have to be 'drastically' reviewed. It identifies several areas which need investigation. Only those pertaining to the foundation phase of education are mentioned below, namely:-

- * a simplified qualification structure for teacher-training consisting of:-
 - 3-year teaching diplomas for pre-primary, primary and secondary schools (ibid.45)
It is acknowledged that although the level of qualification obtained cannot be regarded as the only criterion for assessing the quality of teachers, it does, nevertheless give a reasonable indication of the quality of teachers. Other criteria such as commitment, skill, etc should also be seen as important contributors towards effectiveness (ibid.5);
- * an initial education period of 3 years for non-graduate teachers as general policy;
- * the role of colleges of education in offering different types of programmes as mentioned above;
- * a remunerated internship for teacher-trainees which would include a practical teaching component during which the student-teacher is salaried at a lower level than would apply once he/she qualified.
An 'internship' model could possibly include a 2-year, pre-service course at a recognised institution, followed by a third year of internship completed through distance education.

Education theory would be meaningfully linked to practice using so-called 'mentor' teachers in the field;

- * a national distance teacher-training model which, together with maximum utilisation of present training facilities, could ensure the sufficient training of teachers in the last training year of a teacher education programme, during which the largest part of the internship is served. Distance education is seen to be important for both PRESET and INSET and as warranting immediate implementation;
- * mobility structures within a national framework are seen to be essential in allowing students to retain and transfer credits should they wish to move from one institution to another. Programmes, based on approved criteria, will need to be validated;
- * it is recommended that access to teacher education namely, a standard 10 certificate, be retained as the basic entrance requirement. It is also noted that standard 10 'status' could be granted to students who have 'proven competence' and, who as practising teachers, have the potential benefit from further studies. This is, however, only seen as 'bridging measure'.
(ibid. 1992 41-46)

SUMMARY

This section has attempted to analyse the broad policy regarding teacher education, with special reference to the foundation/initial phase of education. The suggested policy options of the NEPI and the ERS have been acknowledged as guidelines for developing teacher-training structures in the KwaZulu-Natal region.

In the next section, a brief review of research conducted in other countries regarding teacher-training policies, will be appraised.

CHAPTER 4

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

INTRODUCTION

A majority of developing countries world-wide are facing serious challenges in advancing the education of their population. The standard model of educational development, reflected to a certain degree in many countries during the 1960s and 1970s, assumed that as nations developed, enrolments as a proportion of each age-group would expand, educational resources for each student would increase and the quality of education would rise. By the 1980s, while enrolments as a proportion of each age group continued to increase, per capita pupil expenditure decreased and the quality and effectiveness of schooling were seen to deteriorate, particularly in the poorer countries where schooling completion rates began to decline (Levin in Levin & Lockheed, 1993:159).

Developing countries experience a number of related problems pertaining to the provision of high quality education for their youth. Pressing problems relate to relatively low school participation i.e. appropriate age group enrolments, low levels of achievement and school completion, as well as school effectiveness and available resources. High birth rates stretch national fiscal and organizational capacity to provide even the most basic resources for effective education

such as qualified teachers, facilities and text-books.

Although a high proportion of students commence primary schooling, the majority often obtain only 2 to 3 years of schooling, with little mastery of technical skills required for being productive in an industrialized society. In addition, those children that do complete primary education often lack the necessary cognitive skills which determine their subsequent productivity in the labour force. It is, possible to conclude that schools in developing countries are, therefore, ineffective (Levin & Lockheed, 1993:1-3).

The role of teachers has long been recognized as central to the quality of education. It is usually assumed that the academic and professional training of teachers has a direct and positive bearing on the quality of teaching performance and, consequently, on the achievement of students (ibid.28). Research conducted more than 2 decades ago, namely the Coleman Study (1966) based on the equality of educational opportunity in the United States of America (USA), the commissioned study by the Plowden Commission (1967) in England and the 20-country study conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA, 1975), raised doubts as to whether teacher qualifications and, particularly, teacher-training made any difference to student achievement.

In view of the fact that provision of qualified teachers has

been, and continues to be, a major constraint faced by less developed countries (LDCs), and in the light of the previously conducted research mentioned above, a study commissioned by the World Bank and conducted by Husen et.al. (1978), shed further light on the issue. 32 Studies conducted mainly in the United States and Europe took into consideration the difficulties that beset the measurement of teacher classroom performance, and focused on formal credentials such as length of formal schooling, training certificates and length of service, as proxies of teacher competence. Results, although regarded as tentative, showed that teacher education does make a difference in student achievement in both developed and in less developed countries, particularly in the latter. (Husen et al.1978:Introduction). Policy recommendations which conclude the report and which have implications for developing appropriate strategies in the writer's study, will be briefly outlined later in the section.

In the African context, a study commissioned by the World Bank, an international aid agency and lending institution to developing countries for the purpose of economic growth, carries significant implications for teacher education in the Republic (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:52-53). According to Craig (1990:50-53), teacher-training is a major problem. 2 of the major obstacles relating to the implementation of educational policies in African countries, are the poor quality of pre-service training that teachers receive and the

lack of attention given to in-service training. Where training is offered, it is often inappropriate and conducted by teacher educators who themselves are inadequately trained. In addition, the profession is characterized by a low level of commitment and low morale.

Early childhood education has traditionally been aligned with social and educational reform efforts. From the first pioneers who championed early intervention for the poor, to present-day advocates of quality pre-school programmes for students '*at risk*', the connection between early schooling and social intervention has been made. Generally, pre-school education is operated by multiple sponsors, including churches, public schools, private schools and profit and non-profit making day care centres and, at present, has little legal, provisional, or guaranteed financial foundation, within different educational systems (Karweit in Spodek, 1993:385). Whilst it is not necessary to demonstrate measurable long-term benefits in order to justify the value of pre-school education, the cost-benefit argument, in a world of scarce and competitive resources, inevitably carries weight and will, in most circumstances, aid the child's development, increase his educational potential and in the long run, his overall performance (Osborn & Millbank, 1987:242).

Research conducted in the more industrialized countries and in the less-developed countries reveal 3 general patterns of

early childhood provision, namely state-supported systems, state and community provision and community self-help. There is a strong correlation between the degree of access to educare, the degree of industrialization of a country, the extent of government financial support and the need for women to participate in the industrial labour force (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare,1992:49-51).

Comparison of early years provision, including the training and status of teachers in a number of European countries, reveals that unprecedented attention and radical reform is being given to their education systems. The emphasis on early years education i.e. from birth until approximately 7 years of age, is being acknowledged by politicians, albeit for economic rather than educational reasons, as the key role in laying the foundation for an effective system of education in their country. In many countries, the training of early years teachers is different, and often inferior, to that of other age-range teachers. Courses for early years teachers are shorter, less academic, non-university based and the qualifications are below graduate level. Where this is the case, moves are being made to raise the level of training to that required of higher grade teachers, increase the academic level and length of courses offered and raise entrance requirements. In countries where there is parity of salary between the early years and higher grades, training courses are at graduate level. There are some countries, however, where early years graduates earn less than their teaching

colleagues in the higher grades. Generally, all countries but one, are aspiring to an all graduate profession with a substantial period of academic training. The notable exception is the UK, which has maintained this standard for a considerable period of time and has considered a move towards shorter, less academically focused and more school-based training, to expand the number of routes into the profession and, in some cases, to lower the entrance requirements to the training courses provided (Pascal et al in Child Education, September 1992:20).

In the context of formulating policy for developing appropriate teacher-training structures in the foundation/initial phase of education, this section will examine selected models of early years teacher training policy in the UK, the USA and Africa, with a view to developing appropriate teacher-training policy options within the South African context. Before commencing with the comparative analysis, a brief comment on the relationship between teaching and student achievement is provided as a point of departure.

THE CONCEPT OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Effective teaching is determined by both subject matter and pedagogical skills. Teaching as a complex enterprise requires that teachers have a command of a wide range of instructional strategies for classroom management and for

teaching specific subjects. According to Lockheed (in Levin & Lockheed, 1993: 28-29), effective teaching, at a bare minimum, involves the presentation of materials in a rational and orderly fashion, at a pace conducive to the child's age level, active student participation, application in practice by students to apply what they have learned and the monitoring and evaluating of student performance by giving appropriate feedback.

Generally, much teaching in developing countries is characterized by teaching practice that is not conducive to student learning i.e. whole class teacher lectures, students copying from the blackboard, rote memorization of facts with little active participation and minimal monitoring and assessing of student learning through homework, quizzes or tests (ibid.31).

The search for efficiency and effectiveness has focused on low-cost and cost-effective means of expanding schools and raising their quality. For some observers, however, it would appear that a quality education cannot be provided to all primary school children within existing resource constraints, unless there is a radical reform against the present trend of educational deterioration (Levin in Levin & Lockheed, 1993:159).

As far back as 1978, Husen et al (1978:45-47), in a paper reviewing major research findings pertaining to the

relationship of teacher characteristics, including the level of educational attainment and pedagogical training, with student performance in developing countries, list by way of conclusion that:-

- * no programme for teacher-training and teacher allocation should be designed and initiated in LDCs without acquiring firsthand knowledge of the demographic, structural and cultural context within which the programme is to function. These factors are seen to affect even the success of even the best qualified and trained teachers. Important considerations must be given to the differences between LDCs which may be greater than those between LDCs and developed countries. Research conducted in one country cannot be readily extrapolated into another;
- * efforts should be made to increase and improve teacher-training programmes in LDCs and should include short-term and long-term upgrading programmes for those in service who have not had extensive training;
- * selection and recruitment should be made with the knowledge of their most effective use i.e. age group allocations;
- * a major focus of teacher-training should be on the development of teacher knowledge and ability in specific subject areas;
- * emphasis in training programmes should be on developing favourable teacher attitudes towards students and on an awareness of the impact of teacher expectations on students' subsequent performance.
- * where programmed teaching (to assist untrained teachers) and relatively untrained teachers are used, use should be restricted to the early primary grades and for subjects linked with cultural activities;
- * attention should be given to experienced teachers, especially those with less training, for effective deployment in the primary grades;
- * further research should be directed to the

location of "threshold effects" of teacher competence, i.e. at what point does additional training cease to be effective, and for what grade levels. In addition, critical lower limits also need to be investigated (ibid.44-47).

The researchers also recommend the need to develop alternative programmes for teacher-training e.g. the use of up-grading or in-service training schemes, especially for poorly-trained teachers and the retraining of teachers for new curricula. Husen et al, further suggest that pre-service training of short-term duration might be feasible for primary education and could provide a rapid and plentiful supply of teachers (ibid.44).

TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

THE UNITED KINGDOM (UK)

Background

In recent years, England and Wales have experienced radical reform to their education system and still more changes are underway. As a well-established industrial society, the UK is characterized by a national system of education which is operates on the basis of distribution of responsibility between central government, the local education authorities (LEAs) and the teaching profession (Vos & Brits, 1990:144).

In the past, with the ultimate aim of achieving an all graduate profession, initial teacher-training has been conducted in one of 3 types of higher education institutions,

namely university departments of education, polytechnics and colleges of education. In addition, these institutions have also been involved in a wide range of INSET activities for qualified teachers seeking further qualifications, or those wishing to extend their expertise. Long and short courses tended to be provided without taking into account the needs of teachers or schools and lacked the importance of matching provision to needs and theory to practice. A small-scale survey of LEAs, revealed that higher education institutions need to demonstrate greater flexibility adaptability and collaboration in responding to the training needs of schools and teachers. A modular programme in which course credits could be accumulated and, if necessary, transferred between different institutions and shorter, intensive courses which linked pedagogy and research to classroom practice were perceived as being imperative. In addition, the LEAs training priorities reflected changes emanating from the Education Reform Act (1988) where specific areas of the Act e.g. the National Curriculum and assessment and testing, would require additional training (Mortimore & Mortimore, 1989: 133-139).

In 1990, the introduction of the National Curriculum for 5 - 16 year-olds, based on the premise of a balanced and broadly-based curriculum, introduced 9 curriculum subjects to 5 year-olds. Whilst the principal task of the teacher at this level (Key Stage 1) is to ensure that pupils effectively master the basic skills of reading, writing and number, importance has

also been placed on the introduction of history, geography, the arts, technology, science, religious education and physical education (Moore, 1993 in *Child Education*, October:5). For some early years educators, the National Curriculum is viewed as *"downward pressure" to teach a diluted form of content and knowledge, which equates curriculum and content, defined only in terms of subjects and skills* (Wilson, 1994 in *Forum* 36(2):44-45).

The new Education Act (1993), although now law, has not yet come into full effect and implementation dates for various sections of the Act, are still awaited. The White Paper, introduced in July 1992, to pave the way for the new legislation, has been described as an *'evolutionary framework'* for education over the next 25 years. It builds on 5 main themes of the 1980s, namely improving quality, encouraging diversity, increasing parental choice, granting more autonomy to schools and demanding greater accountability, which it will achieve by investing greater power in the Secretary of State in order to ensure that schools meet requirements. The new Department of Education (formerly Department of Education and Science) will continue to press ahead and carry out government reform. It would appear that the new Act will, *inter alia*, affect changes to the role of the LEA (slimmed-down and refocussed schools inspectorate), introduce a new Funding Agency for Schools (FAS) and establish a Teacher Training Agency (TTA) to administer new routes into teacher-training. In October 1993, the National

Curriculum Council and the School Examination and Assessment Council merged to become the School Assessment Authority (SCAA) and the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) has since ceased. (Moore, 1993 in Child Education, November:5; Henson, 1993 in Child Education, November:64; Moore, 1992 in Child Education, October:6; Moore, 1992 in Child Education, July:7).

A focal element of pre-service education has been the continual dissent between those who are sceptical about the value of professional training and who place great emphasis on academic qualifications, and those who see professional training as playing a vital and innovative role in teaching. A set of regulations promulgated by the former Department of Education and Science in 1989, specified that the employment of teachers in England and Wales be restricted to qualified teachers i.e. those teachers who held a post graduate certificate of education or a Bachelor of Education, although allowances would be made for undergraduates to apply for qualified teacher status (QTS). New teachers are required to serve a year of probation before qualifying status is granted (NEPI: Teacher Education, 1992:60).

Compulsory education begins at 5 years of age and the minimum school-leaving age for pupils is 16. Education with the school system consists of 2 phases namely, primary (5 to 11 years of age) and secondary (12 to 16 years of age), or in many areas, 3 phases, namely first, middle and upper. Both

arrangements are sometimes preceded by nursery education on a voluntary basis. Primary education is further divided into an infant phase for 5 to 7 year-olds and a junior phase (for 7 to 11 year-olds. It is not uncommon that the nursery phase for 3 - 4 year-olds, the infant phase and the junior phase are accommodated in the same school building (Vos & Brits, 1990:144-145).

Reform of Teacher-Training: New Routes into Teaching

In July 1991, John Major, Prime Minister of Britain, in a speech to the Centre for Policy Studies (in Child Education, October 1991:25), announced that teachers ought to "have the training they need, not what the colleges think they ought to have." He also stressed the need to make it easier for older people to qualify as teachers, through part-time and full-time training courses which would build on their life experiences rather than being identical to courses offered to school-leavers.

Experimental schemes, such as the Articled Teacher Scheme and Licensed Teacher Scheme, as new routes into teacher-training, have been introduced. The new routes, i.e. the articulated teacher and licensed teacher routes, involve the following:-

- * the assignment of trainees to a school where they are supervised by an established member of staff (mentor);
- * additional off-site training, usually delivered by professional teacher-trainers;

- * the setting-up of schemes through a partnership between LEA, teacher-training institution and host schools.

Advantages of the schemes are:-

- * the provision of more practical and relevant 'on the job' training i.e. 80% of training time would be spent in the classroom whilst 20% would be spent at college or university;
- * to enable graduates to move straight into teaching;
- * to provide the opportunity for those people wishing to change careers;
- * a quick way of providing teachers 'up front' in times of staff shortages.

Whilst the articulated teacher scheme is a 2-year, post graduate entry leading to a Post-Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE), presently controlled by CATE and supported by training institutions, the licensed teacher route is open to local variation, with LEAs determining their own quality control and support systems. Present constraints are seen to be the cost of the new courses and the vast numbers of teacher mentors who would be needed if the school-based training scheme were to become the norm (Moore, 1991 in Child Education, October:25-26).

In 1992, changes in initial training were introduced to all secondary PGCE students with the intention of extending training to include all primary schools, in the future. Briefly, changes relevant to this study include:-

- * greater school-based initial teacher-

training, with teachers having increased autonomy in the overall training programme. 80% of the 1 year post-graduate diploma and a full year of the 4-year B.Ed Degree are to take place in schools. In effect, schools now have to apply to become partners in PRESET.

Partner schools will have primary responsibility for the monitoring and training of students and assessing their competence. Preparation for becoming a teacher is seen to be the practical experience derived from school-based work under the supervision of teachers in service.

- * procedures for the accreditation of institutions to undertake initial teacher-training have been in operation for some time under the auspices of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) (soon to change). New procedures place greater emphasis on institutions having cordial relationship agreements with schools and require the submitting of a 5-year plan;

- * areas of competence specified for initial training are classified under headings of subject knowledge, subject application, class management, assessment and recording of pupils' progress and further professional development.

(It is noted that personal qualities are omitted as are teachers acquiring a broad overview of education and the general functioning and organization of a school. The notion of further professional development may be based on the premise that initial teacher-training is only the commencement of becoming a teacher and that professional development should be the responsibility of members of the teaching profession).
(NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:60-62)

Current Routes into Teaching

Current routes into teaching are as follows:-

- * **Initial Training**
 - **Bachelor of Education (B Ed) Degree**
Usually a 4-year course which leads to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS).
Students receive a grant.

- **2-year B Ed Degree**
Available where there is a shortage of subjects e.g. maths, sciences, etc., for mature entrants who hold appropriate technical or professional qualifications.
 - * **Post-graduate Training**
 - **PGCE**
A post-graduate 1-year course;
 - **Articled Teacher Scheme**
For mature graduates, as an alternative to the PGCE. It is of 2-years' duration, is largely school-based and students receive a bursary;.
 - * **Mature Entry.**
 - **Licensed Teacher Route**
For mature entrants who have successfully completed 2 years, full-time higher education or who have a recognised teacher qualification from countries outside the European Community (EC).
Trainees receive remuneration at the discretion of the LEA who may award QTS on completion of the licensed period;.
 - * **Teachers Trained Elsewhere**
 - Teachers trained in Scotland, Northern or EC nationals trained in a member state may apply to the Department of Education for QTS.
- (Moore, 1991 in Child Education, October:26)

Early Years Education: Nursery Education

Britain has a long history of nursery education, and successive governments, despite acknowledging its value, have been reluctant to make major investments in the expansion of nursery schools and nursery classes (Osborn & Millbank, 1987:26. The involvement of pre-school is seen to be in response to parental demand rather than as a consequence of properly formulated and sustained educational and day care policy. This has resulted in inequalities in the

utilization of facilities between the different social groups, no integrated policy or co-ordination between the education authorities responsible for the education of the under-5s and social services department responsible for day care which is reflective of early childhood care and education in S.A.

A major British survey of pre-school education, namely the Child Health and Education Study (CHES) followed the progress of 15,000 children in England, Wales and Scotland who were all born during 1 week in April 1970. The children were studied at birth, and follow-up studies were carried out at the ages of 5 and 10 years. The survey offered a unique opportunity to look at the long-term effects of early educational experience on children's school achievement and social behaviour. The findings authored by Osborn and Millbank (1987), revealed a strong correlation between different types of pre-school experience and increased cognitive and educational test performance. According to the study, different types of provision and staffing details are as follows:-

- * **LEA nursery schools and classes (2 separate groups)**
Staffed by teachers who hold nursery/primary teacher qualifications and assisted by trained nursery nurses who hold a Nursery Nursing Examination Board (NNEB) Certificate. More than 33% of staff are qualified teachers, whilst 40-45% are qualified nursery nurses;
- * **Independent/private nursery schools**
Privately run on a fee-paying basis with 48% of staff holding teaching or nursery nursing

qualifications;

- * **Voluntary playgroups (home & hall-based)**
Run by the community on a non-profit basis. Only 14% of staff have teaching, nursing or NNEB qualifications, whilst 33% of hall playgroup staff had attended playgroup courses;
- * **LA day nurseries**
Run by Local Authority Social Services Department with a strong emphasis on care. Staffed mainly by NNEB-trained nursery nurses;
- * **Independent day nurseries**
Privately run on a fee-paying basis with state-registered nurses (SRN) or NNEB-trained staff.

Facilities differ from each other in many ways i.e. geographical location, type of premises and facilities, staffing arrangements and qualifications, child-staff ratios, hours and periods of opening and degree of parental involvement (Osborn, 1987 in Child Education, July:10; Osborn & Millbank, 1987:30-33 and 44-47).

A summary of findings revealed that children from the most deprived backgrounds attend local authority facilities whilst children from middle class backgrounds are likely to attend playgroups and private nursery schools. Test score findings showed that children who attended playgroups or LEA nursery schools scored significantly higher despite their differences in organization, staff qualifications and other characteristics. Clark (1989:251-252), cautions against the optimistic results yielded by the playgroups, stating that it is important to appreciate the success of the maintained

nursery schools in view of the higher proportion of children from socially-disadvantaged homes with behaviour problems and special needs.

The lack of a positive result for LEA nursery classes was a cause of concern, as since the study, this type of provision has expanded significantly. Implications of which suggest that if there are real and significant differences in favour of separate pre-school provision, in terms of staff, approach or resources, nursery classes should be modified and brought into line with those of the LEA nursery schools (Clark, 1989:252; Osborn & Millbank, 1987:240).

4 Year-Olds in Infant Classes: A cause for concern

Children start school earlier in Britain than in most of Europe and the USA, where statutory admissions age is anything from 5 and a half to 7 years old. In Britain, children are required to start school in the term following their fifth birthday, although, in reality, as a result of the demand for nursery places and falling rolls in primary schools, these children are being enrolled into infant classes at the age of 4. Research carried out at the National Foundation for Education Research (NFER) revealed that although LEA policies across the country ranged from termly to biennial and annual admission, more authorities were adopting the policy of admitting new entrants annually, near the beginning of the school year in which they turn 5. In effect, this implies that some children are embarking on

their formal careers when they are 4 years of age and that there has been a lowering of the school starting age in practice, if not in statute.

A cause for concern is the fact that children who should be in nursery education are entering a system traditionally designed for children of 5 and above. In addition, reception classes are rarely resourced as generously as nursery classes i.e. they tend to be larger, have little additional help and the teacher often has to work single-handed with a class of 30 or more. Moreover, teachers are not necessarily trained or experienced in working with this age group and the need has, therefore, been highlighted for appropriate staffing (Cleave & Brown, 1993 in Child Education, April:25).

It is realised that consequent upon the admission policy remaining, there is an urgent need to close the gap between rhetoric i.e. recommending that LEAs take no further steps in introducing 3 and 4 year-olds into inappropriate primary school settings, ensuring that appropriate staffing ratios (26:1) are introduced and employing ancillary workers with at least an NNEB qualifications and the reality of developing a commitment to quality provision (Pascal, 1990 in Child Education, June:13-15).

The Rumbold Report

The commissioned government report of the Rumbold Committee of Inquiry entitled, *"Starting with Quality"*, set out

parameters of high quality, appropriate early years provision and the need to safeguard the relevance of initial training for teachers of young children. The report, commissioned to analyse the quality of early childhood services being provided to 3 and 4 year-olds, revealed an urgent need to address the issue of access to provision of early care and education. It was found that 1 child in every 9 was reaching statutory school age with no experience of pre-school institutional provision and that within this group, the most needy were likely to be found. In addition, concern was raised about the quality of education offered to the 252 000 4 year-olds currently in reception classes of infant schools. It was found that existing provision ranged from reception classes with an adult/pupil ratio of 1:30 to day nurseries where the ratio was 1:5. Increased adult:child ratios of 2:26, where 1 adult was a qualified teacher and the other a qualified nursery nurse was called for in these classes. Whilst acknowledging the need for continuity with the National Curriculum (implemented at Key Stage 1), the Committee argued that it should not be introduced to children under 5. The report emphasised the inseparableness of care and education and stressed the need for coordination and continuity between the different types of provision. Attention was also drawn to the poor status of under-5 workers, mainly attributed to low levels of pay, limited career opportunities and the 'muddle' of training available in the different sectors. The introduction of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) was welcomed as a means of

offering coordinated training and career structures across the board and the need to bridge the gap between the competency-based NVQs and graduate levels of training was highlighted. The government was, therefore, urged to devise a central policy for the education of under-5s due to inadequate provision and standards of quality (Morgan, 1991 in Child Education, March:11).

The Leeds Articled Teacher Scheme

In early years education, the 4-year Bed was the traditional route into teaching young children but, increasingly, initial teacher-training has switched to a 1-year, intensive curriculum training PGCE course where students, regardless of their degree subjects, have to learn to teach all aspects of the curriculum, as well as cover professional and educational studies and complete a minimum of 75 days school-based training. The stringent time factor criteria required by CATE called for requests for a 2-year Bachelor of Education training scheme which posed the problem of extending the traditional grant system, to another funded year for graduates, in higher education. The articulated teacher scheme has been designed to address this and various other training issues.

After inviting local authorities and training institutions to submit proposals to pilot a 2-year post graduate school-based training scheme, the Leeds authority, committed to an expansion of nursery education in the city, and concerned

about the quality of the curriculum being offered to many 4 year-olds in reception classes, piloted a 2-phase training scheme for early years educators as follows:-

- * school-based training with 3 to 5 year-olds;
- * a final qualification based on a 'normal' primary certificate with 3 to 7 specialism.

The procedure is as follows:-

- * 2 articled teachers are assigned to each of the 10 schools identified as offering good models in early years education;
- * articled teachers are based for a year in a nursery class and a year in a reception class;
- * a trained mentor is released for 1 day a week throughout the 2-year period to organise the school-based aspects of their training and to liaise closely regarding specialist studies involving complementary work on key aspects of the early years curriculum in the training schools;
- * a bursary of 5000 pounds in the first year and 6000 pounds in the second year is paid to articled teachers;
- * until qualified teacher status is received at the end of their 2-year training, trainees are regarded as teachers in training;
- * articled teachers are required to do 2, 5 week assessed school practices with infants in schools other than their mentor school, in each of their 2 years of training;
- * the same written work as 1-year PGCE students, spread over 2 years is required;
- * the scheme hopes should attract mature students with wide range of experiences e.g. child rearing, voluntary work etc, who want a change of career and who are attracted by a 2-year bursary and the philosophy of practical school-based training.

A collaborative working relationship has been established between the university tutors, primary advisers and mentor school staffs in the LEA and mentor teachers are given basic training in giving and receiving positive feedback, working with small groups, communicating with colleagues, negotiating profiling statements and techniques of classroom observation and analysis. Visits to the schools are shared between tutor and adviser who continue to work on the design of mentor training and cooperate on school placements. The close working relationship has brought about an improved understanding of the needs of training agencies, prospective employers, as well as opening up debate about the training needs of university-based trainers. As a newly-piloted scheme, however, those involved have recognised the need for even greater participation of teachers in the mentor schools with whom the articulated teachers are based, in mentor training sessions (Anning, 1991 in *Child Education*, October:26-29; Moore, 1991 in *Child Education*, October:25-26).

From Nursery Nursing to Teaching

Early years tutors in the field of initial and in-service training have been approached by experienced nursery nurses seeking a part-time route into teaching. Confident of their experience and knowledge gained, plus a feeling of their parallel role with formally qualified teachers, many nursery nurses wish to pursue further study. At present, the only route into teaching for nursery nurses remains a full-time Bed course or 3-year degree plus PGCE with a loss of income

during training.

Licensed teacher routes appear to be unable to offer any viable alternative, since they depend on recognised higher education qualifications and do not recognise the present nursery nursing qualifications as equivalent to higher education. In an attempt to co-ordinate training between the informal and formal sectors and develop career paths in order to offer a better framework to nursery nurses wanting to become teachers, the Care Sector Consortium has done much in its attempt to co-ordinate matters by setting up a new body, The Council for Early Years Awards (CEYA), comprising the Nursery Nurses Examination Board, the Pre-School Playgroups Association (PPA), the National Childminding Association and others. CEYA has gained accreditation for the first National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) in Child Care and Education. (David & Moyles, 1992 in Child Education, April:11).

A new modular scheme of training nursery nurses has recently been implemented on an experimental basis to include employment-based and part-time courses. Students may either obtain a Preliminary Diploma in Nursery Nursing or a Diploma in Nursery Nursing. The courses cover common ground with certain aspects such as the early years curriculum, being covered in greater depth by the latter course. NNEB considers that the knowledge contained in the modules for the Preliminary Diploma is at least equivalent to the underpinning knowledge and understanding (UKU), supporting

competence in Child Care and Education at NVQ 2, whilst the Diploma is equivalent to the UKU at NVQ Level 3. Assessment is competence-based with both courses requiring 1,260 hours of college-based study and 140 days of practical work training with registration lasting for 5 years. Regulations are currently being planned to allow colleges to assess and credit previous experience and learning and to give curriculum remission where appropriate (Thompson, 1993 in Child Education, April:11).

Pre-School Playgroups Association (PPA)

The PPA comprises a membership of 15,000 groups and 600,00 children in England. Annually more than 40,000 adults enrol on PPA training courses which include the following:-

- * introductory courses for parents on basic play and child development;
- * short specialised courses such as child abuse, The Children Act, etc;.
- * longer foundation (120) and further fieldwork and tutor courses.

In the light of The Children Act (1991) and the NVQ, the PPA Foundation Course has been extended to a 200-hour diploma course and aims to provide students with the necessary underpinning knowledge to be assessed for Levels 1 and 2 of the NVQs. Both The Children Act and NVQs demand on-going review of practice in individual childcare settings in order to improve the quality of experience in playgroups. Funding comes mainly from Local Authorities, although training is not

available in some areas due to financial and/or geographic constraints (Shaw, 1991 in Child Education, December:11). Recommendations have been made that at least half of the staff working in playgroups should complete the PPA Diploma in Playgroup Practice (formerly the Foundation Course). Concern has, however, been raised as to the cost of the course which is not covered by local authority grant. It is felt that the partnership recommended in the Act between parents, Local Authorities and voluntary organizations should include matching funds to add to the main contribution by parents (Morgan, 1991 in Child Education, December:10). In 1992, the Department of Education and Science, in order to create training courses in areas of need, doubled the grant to playgroups, thus providing the opportunity for the provision of Branch Tutor Organiser posts to train unqualified teachers (Morgan, 1992 in Child Education, March:10).

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ)

With the introduction of the NVQ, childcare workers and nursery nurses have the opportunity to build up nationally-recognised qualifications whilst in service. Skills are assessed by means of observation in the workplace and experience is recognised. The award is not tied to a college course and, therefore, a greater number of people are able to improve and build upon their qualifications (Morgan, 1991 in Child Education, December:10; Moore, 1992 in Child Education, August:11).

Accredited Assessment Centres for NVQs are presently been set up in areas and may be formed from partnerships including voluntary organizations, Local Authorities, Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) and colleges of further education registered with CATE or the Joint Awarding Bodies (O'Hagan, 1992 in Child Education, August:11; O'Hagan, 1992 in Child Education, September:11).

A brief outline of the course made available in January 1992, based on National Standards outline what the trainee is expected to accomplish in the workplace and what standard is to be reached to be assessed as competent. Each standard is divided into units of competence which are further subdivided into elements of competence and performance criteria. The course may be outlined as follows:-

- * Level 1
PPA Diploma in Playgroup Practice
Candidate to show competence to perform a wide range of work activities mainly routine and predictable in nature, under constant supervision.
This level is not appropriate for Child Care and Education qualifications;
- * Level 2
Child Care and Education Qualification (CCE)
 - CCE (Work with babies)
 - CCE (Work in support of others)
 - CCE (Work in a pre-school group)
 - CCE (Work in a community-run group)
 Each Level 2 qualification is made up of 8 core units common to all and 2 endorsement units which relate to the title in brackets. The candidate must complete all 10 units to qualify and will need to show competence in a broader and more demanding range of work activities which involve greater responsibility;
- * Level 3

Child Care and Education Qualification

- CCE (Group care and education)
- CCE (Family day care)
- CCE (Pre-school provision)

Each level 3 qualification is made up of 11 core units common to all qualifications and 4 endorsement units;

Candidates must successfully complete all 15 units to gain the qualification 4 of the core units are the same for both Levels 2 and 3. If successfully completed at Level 2, candidates will not be re-assessed.

Competence in skilled areas that involve performance in a wide range of complex and non-routine activities.

Supervision of candidates at a lower level may be required.

* Level 4

The Level 4 qualification is still being developed.

Competence in the performance of complex, technical specialised and professional work activities which include design, planning and problem-solving activities which comprise a certain degree of accountability and as well as competence in supervision and management, will be a requirement.

The onus is on candidates to register with the awarding body and to call on her assessor for guidance and negotiate suitable evidence for assessment purposes. The date of assessment is based on the candidates readiness to be assessed. Should further underpinning knowledge for the course be required, the candidate will enrol at a local Further Education college, well versed in NVQs on a part-time basis. Registration with the Awarding Body lasts for 5 years. (Moore, 1992 in Child Education, 1992:11; O' Hagan, 1992 in Child Education, September:11).

It is acknowledged that there is a need to '*bridge the gap*' at the top of the NVQ ladder, at Level 4 which is intended

to provide the link between vocational and professional qualifications (since 1992, there has been no further development at Level 4) (Morgan, 1992 in Child Education, May:11).

Non-Graduates to Key Stage 1

The recent proposal by the Minister for Education which considers allowing people with relevant experiences, such as nursery nurses and classroom assistants, to take a 1-year, non-graduate course leading to QTS to teach under-eights, has caused a negative reaction in the teaching profession. Fears have been expressed by teachers and teacher educators, that the status of early years teachers will be undermined and the quality of teaching at the foundations stages, will suffer. Whilst it is recognised that a number of people who work with young children have the experience but no teaching qualification, to allow people into the teaching profession with less rigorous training to work with the youngest children is seen to underestimate the work of an infant or nursery teacher. The greatest concern expressed by teachers and teacher educators, is that those schools looking to cost-saving measures will be tempted to employ less well-qualified people to teach the youngest children, without having the expertise in child development, literacy teaching and class management. As a result of opposition, the government withdrew its proposal (Blake, 1994 in Forum 36(2):54)

What would be welcomed is the opening up of alternative

routes into teaching for trained and experienced professionals such as nursery nurses, through a qualification spine which would allow them access to build on experience to reach graduate level (Moore, 1993 in Child Education, May:7).

PRIMARY EDUCATION AND TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Background

Individual freedom and equality of all under the law constitute the basic democratic American way of life. These principles are extended to include local communities, cities, counties districts and the individual states. Each state has its own budget and system of education. America's strong sense of nationhood is reinforced in the classroom and in their quest to build a nation out of a plurality of immigrant peoples, the original '*melting pot*' philosophy has given way to a '*fruit salad*' approach. Consequently, diverse minority groups and their cultural heritages remain visible and preserved (Vos & Brits, 1990:149).

There is no national system of education in the USA, as each of the 50 states is responsible for its own education system. In practice there are as many different education systems as there are individual states. As a result of the decentralised system of education, great differences exist between the states, as regards compulsory school attendance, school structures and financial provision for educational

purposes. Differences in financial provision lead, inter alia, to a variation in quality of service conditions for teachers, teacher-training programmes, etc. (ibid.150-151).

In the last few decades, the federal government has become increasingly involved in education through various titled programmes for the disadvantaged and the handicapped. In many school communities, local school boards, with little or no expertise, dictate educational policy, whilst in the large cities, educational systems may be heavily bureaucratized (Elkind in Kagan, 1991:1).

Free, compulsory elementary school attendance normally begins at 6 years of age, the duration of which, differs from state to state, or from school district to school district within a state and may last until the child is 14 years of age (Vos & Brits, 1990:156).

Early Childhood Education

In America, a number of early childhood curriculum models have been developed in the States to achieve specific goals or meet the needs of a particular population of children namely, bilingual children, migrant children, minority children, children with special developmental needs and (more recently) programmes for children identified as at risk for school failure (Spodek & Brown in Spodek, 1993:100). The best known model is the constructivist approach of the "*High/Scope Cognitively Oriented Curriculum*", adopted by many

of the pre-kindergarten programmes for children considered to educationally "at risk" (ibid.96 & 99).

Kindergarten/infant school education, commonly for 4-5 year olds, has become essentially universal throughout the states, with a vast majority of kindergarten children enrolled in public schools. At present, 27 states support pre-kindergarten programmes for 3-4 year olds, in the public schools. This move towards public school programmes for 3 and 4 year-olds, led to the publishing of a position paper by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) which outlined developmentally-appropriate practice, i.e. where the curriculum is matched to the child's level of developmental ability, for children of different age levels in early childhood education (ibid.101). With controversy centring primarily on the accelerating 'downward shift' of what were next-grade expectations into lower grades, i.e. the 'push down' of the primary curriculum, appropriateness for the younger children has become an issue (Katz in Kagan, 1991:51). Criticisms of the guidelines established by the NAEYC, has led Spodek (1991) to suggest that the developmental dimension is only one of the 3 dimensions that need to be focused on, with the other 2 including the cultural dimension i.e. the need to consider society's values and reflect upon what we want children to be and become and the knowledge dimension i.e. what we believe children ought to be familiar with in order to cope and survive in the outside world (ibid.101).

In a survey conducted by the National Centre for Educational Statistics, estimates from different states suggest that 87-93% of all first graders attended kindergarten. Kindergarten experiences are diverse and may be operated by public or private schools and may be academic or developmental in focus. 84% of the kindergarten programmes are provided by the public schools and there is increasing activity by the states to make the kindergarten year mandatory (Karweit in Spodek, 1993: 394-396).

Teacher Qualifications and PRESET and INSET

Teachers are trained at approximately 1 200 universities and colleges in the US with the demand for teachers greater than that of any other profession. Teacher certification requirements are delegated by the state legislatures to their respective State Education Departments. The result is a proliferation of training programmes, certificates, methods of appointment, salary scales, service conditions, etc.. The status of the profession varies from state to state and from school district to school district. At universities and colleges, great emphasis is placed on professional and academic training of student teachers. All states require a bachelor's degree for teaching elementary grades, whilst 47 states require a bachelor's degree as the minimum preparation for teaching in secondary schools..

The majority of teachers are trained at teacher-training colleges which offer a 4-year course (state college) or

college of education on a university campus. Teachers' colleges are recognised as being of university level and award university-style degrees, although this recognition is not willingly given by the more reputable universities.

Many local education systems set standards that are higher than the minimum state requirements and often require that teachers earn additional academic credits every few years or that they participate in-service courses. As an incentive, some school boards offer salary increments to teachers for additional academic effort (Vos & Brits, 1990:163-164).

Generally, the US teacher work force appears highly qualified with 99.6% of public school teachers possessing a 4-year college degree. The model teacher usually has 17 years of formal schooling.

With the number of significant increases in early childhood education programmes in the US there has been a simultaneous increase in the number of people who staff them, including teachers, assistants and teacher-aides. Personnel are prepared in 2 types of programmes namely, teachers who are hired in public schools, pre-kindergartens, kindergartens and primary classes who are prepared in 4 and 5-year programmes in colleges and universities and teachers in child-care programmes, assistants and aides who are prepared in 1 and 2-year programmes in community colleges and in vocational programmes in high schools. 4-year institutions also support the continued professional development of teachers by

offering graduate degree and in-service programmes. Generally, teacher education programmes for all phases, plan experiences designed to allow teacher candidates to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes to teach and are based on research, theory and practice and include ethical considerations. With reference to early childhood education, a framework comprising 6 components characterise teacher education (applicable to all levels of education), namely:-

*** Recruitment and Selection**

The need to improve the quality of teachers is seen as essential to improve American education at all levels.

The main purpose of selection is to determine an individual's ability to succeed in teaching.

Grade point average (GPA) is the most widely used criterion.

In applying selection criteria, colleges make judgements on the candidate's attitude, personal qualities, interest, etc. A greater need to build ethnic diversity within the profession is perceived as American teachers continue to be selected from the majority (White) population;

*** General Education**

This is basic to all teacher education since teachers should be seen as well-educated individuals. Early childhood education, is drawn from various disciplines such as language, social studies, mathematics, science, aesthetics and humanities, in short general education;

*** Professional Foundations**

Today, theory is presented through foundation courses, often eclectic in orientation, which broaden the base of teachers' decision and actions. Teachers in early childhood education are required to know about the principles of child growth, development and learning theory, as well as the cultural, social and political contexts in which they will be working.

This knowledge goes beyond general knowledge, since it is applied in a professional context.

The purpose of professional education is to prepare competent teachers, reinforce the improvement of general practice and link theory to practice;

*** Instructional Knowledge**

Instructional knowledge refers to the knowledge that teachers require in planning, implementing and evaluating classroom practice as well as subject knowledge. An apprenticeship structure is implemented, where the student teacher learns the primary curriculum in the public schools and the method of instruction as an apprentice in the teacher's classroom;

*** Practice**

Practical concepts as they apply theory to practice are best learnt in a practice situation with the assistance of cooperating teachers and supervisors. Recognised problems include inappropriate role models, lack of feedback on students' classroom performance and the inability of the supervisor to affect the feedback process by working with the teacher and student.

It is, therefore, necessary for schools to adopt a reflective and self-renewing role where students can become socialized into their settings.

The roles of college supervisor and co-operating teacher are generic to college-based teacher education programmes that depend on schools to provide and supervise a variety of field experiences;

*** Programme Modification**

Programme modification is seen to be an essential component for any teacher education programme as it provides a vehicle for improvement. The demand for improved teacher quality requires that evaluation focus on teachers and various behavioral systems are used to assess their competence. (Saracho in Spodek, 1993:412-424).

Community Colleges

The success of the model depends on a good teacher model, as well as an open relationship between the trainer/supervisor

of the programme and the trainee.

Some state systems maintain junior/community colleges in which grades 13 and 14, provide 2 post-secondary years of education and/or training. For those students who are academically oriented, these can be credited as the first 2 years of university or college work (Vos & Brits, 1990:159).

The ERS Report proposes the establishment of "*Edukons*", which, according to Le Roux (1992 in Cordtek:55), are universally understood as "*community colleges*". A community college which he defines as a post-school college, allows any individual access, i.e. those who are taking associate degrees, those who are preparing for a job or those who are engaged in remedial education.

The American community college is seen to be an appropriate model for S.A., i.e. as a means of:-

- * providing access to those for whom the university are unsuitable;.
- * preparing individuals for a job;.
- * providing the opportunity for the illiterate to learn to read and write;
- * providing the opportunity to give the lost generation a "*second chance*".
- * providing greater mobility for different courses which could ultimately allow individuals to proceed to an associate degree at a university;
- * providing equal access to all and the opportunity to transfer from 1 course to another;

- * providing for diversity of interests.
(ibid.55-56.)

According to Robinson Pippins of Westchester Community College, New York (1992 in Cordtek:62-63), most community colleges are financed by the government and, in fact, a guaranteed student loan is the major source of funding. Most students at the college are engaged in credit education, either full-time or part-time, whilst an equal number are involved either in adult and continuing education.

The High/Scope Training Model

The continued popularity of this approach is partly due to the rapid expansion of pre-kindergarten programmes in the public schools where new teachers find the necessity to implement programmes without school district guidelines and the fact that the availability of written materials and training provided by the High/Scope educators makes the adoption of the curriculum viable. The role of the teacher is to supply children with experiences and to develop their thinking skills through pertinent and challenging techniques (Spodek & Brown, 1993 in Spodek:97).

This model offers an acceptable and highly successful approach to the training of unqualified and underqualified pre-school teachers. The Ypsilanti Perry Pre-School Project, the results of which were highlighted in the writers' introduction to the study highlights the need of the

educational system to adjust to the needs of the child. (Moore, 1993 in Child Education, July:10).

The Commission of European Communities (EC) (1980) in a report based on pre-school education in the European community identified 2 opposing trends to the training of school teachers with 1 demanding more advanced training for teachers in pre-primary establishments, equivalent to teacher-training programmes for primary school candidates and the other suggesting the deprofessionalization of pre-school education. As a realistic method in bringing high quality pre-school education to the masses and by providing a balance between deprofessionalization and overprofessionalization the High/ Scope would appear to offer such a balance (Termorshuizen, 1987 in van den Berg & Vergnani :114).

As a training course that provides goals and strategies, rather than specific classroom materials, the approach cannot be learnt quickly. Principles and developmental norms need to be comprehended and internalized and repetition and reinforcement in training are, therefore, necessary.

The INSET course, consists of a minimum contact time of 70 hours, consisting of seven weekend sessions held at monthly intervals (these can be held in the afternoons, during the week). Attendance is compulsory for certification purposes and a strict system of monitor-

ing in the classroom situation, on a regular basis, is essential. Active participation, experiential learning and problem-solving skills are practised within small groups, at the weekly sessions and are repeated in the classroom situation of the immediate benefit of the children. Practical problems encountered are discussed in feedback sessions, at consequent workshops.

The model is successfully implemented in a variety of settings, although it is recommended that a teacher/pupil ratio not exceeding 1:30 is met (ibid.114-121).

Teacher Certification in Early Childhood Education

In America, a professional licence to teach takes the form of a state teaching certificate. While many states offer such certificates in early childhood education, others provide some form of early childhood endorsement on an elementary teaching certificate. Not only does the type of certificate vary, but the age and/or grade range of the certificate or endorsement vary as follows:-

- * certificate holders are permitted to teach classes from kindergarten to grade 3;
- * certificate holders are permitted to teach children from pre-school i.e. aged 3 and 4 through grade 3, or from birth to age 8;
- * kindergarten endorsement to teach the above (Spodek in Kagan,1991:113).

Levels of Professionalism

Entry into the nonpublic sector of the field of early childhood education is more accessible than public school teaching and, in most states, the licensing and supervision of pre-schools remains outside the domains of state departments of education and requirements for teaching is different to those laid down for public school teachers. Completion of a 1 or 2-year post secondary programme, or the accumulation of a minimum number of credits in child care courses, is acceptable and, in some cases, experience may serve in lieu of teacher preparation.

Many practitioners in the field of early childhood education, i.e. those who teach the 3-4 year olds, have neither a teaching certificate nor a Child Development Associate (CDA) credential. Due to no teaching certificate being available for pre-school or childcare practitioners, the CDA credential has been proposed as an alternative. The CDA has been rooted in an ideology of competency-based teacher education movement and assessment is based on the combined judgements of an evaluation team who observe the candidate in practice. A number of community colleges have based the content of their programmes on the CDA competency requirements, the credential of which undergone modification in order to become more accessible to practitioners at a national level.

The NAEYC have developed a conceptual framework that identifies key principles of an effective development system

which facilitates the professional development of individuals working for and with young children from birth through to age 8. In the NAEYC Position Statement entitled "*A conceptual Framework for Early Childhood Professional Development*" (adopted November 1993), 6 levels of early professional development, commencing with those just starting on a career path, are identified (NAEYC, 1994 in *Young Children* 49(3):68-77).

The system of levels is based on the expected outcomes of the various levels of preparation programmes and is designed to reflect a continuum of professional development and are as follows:-

- * **Level 1**
These would be entry level practitioners who work under the direct supervision of professionals.
Access is a high school diploma or its equivalent.
Participation in professional development activities designed to lead to the assessment of individual competencies or the acquisition of a degree.
- * **Level 2**
Successful completion of a 1-year early childhood certificate programme.
Successful completion of the CDA Professional Preparation Programme OR completion of a systematic, comprehensive training programme which leads to the acquisition of a CDA credential through direct assessment;
- * **Level 3**
Successful completion of an associate degree which conforms to NAEYC guidelines; OR
Successful completion of an associate degree in a related field plus 30 units of professional duties in ECD which includes 300 hours of supervised teaching experience in an

ECD programme; OR
 Successful demonstration of knowledge, performance and dispositions, expected as outcomes of an associate degree programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines;

* **Level 4**

Successful completion of a baccalaureate degree from a programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines; OR
 State certificate meeting NAEYC/ATE certification guidelines; OR
 Successful completion of a baccalaureate degree in another field with a specified number of units and hours of teaching experience.
 Successful demonstration of the knowledge, performance and dispositions, expected as outcomes of a baccalaureate degree programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines;

* **Level 5**

Successful completion of a master's degree in a programme that conforms to NAEYC guidelines; OR
 Successful demonstration of the knowledge, performance and dispositions, expected as outcomes of a master's degree programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines;

* **Level 6**

Successful completion of a Ph.D. or Ed.D. in a programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines; OR
 Successful demonstrating of the knowledge, performance and dispositions, expected as outcomes of a doctoral degree programme conforming to NAEYC guidelines.
 (ibid. 74)

TEACHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

COLUMBIA: A NEW SCHOOL PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AMERICA

Background

In a review of international case studies which describe independent initiatives undertaken by different countries in order to create more effective schools for children of poverty, particularly in the third world, it was noted that

all countries share a common set of features, the main feature of that of flexibility, i.e. developing initiatives adapted to local circumstances, as the key to effectiveness. Areas of agreement for developing effective schools include, inter alia, a central philosophy, overall strategy, community involvement, empowerment of staff, students and parents, an active learning approach, focusing on a set of narrow objectives, higher teacher expectations, the systematic addressing of resource shortages by eliciting assistance from parents and the community and freeing and reallocating resources to meet more pressing needs (Levin & Lockheed, 1993:1;15-16).

Columbia has 4,160,000 children currently enrolled in primary education, although distribution of coverage reveals regional, as well as urban/rural zonal differences, with 81% of pupils in rural schools. During the 1980s only 1 out of every 5 children entering the first grade repeated all 5 years of primary education (Colbert et al in Levin & Lockheed, 1993:53).

In rural Colombia, students have an average of 1.7 years of schooling compared with 3.8 years of schooling for those students enrolled in the urban sector. Promotion and repetition rates are unsatisfactory, particularly in the early grades. In 1985, promotion rates with respect to transition from grade 1 to grade 2 was 65% in the urban areas and 45% in the rural areas. The highest repetition rates

were also recorded in these grades, i.e. 17% and 20%, respectively. In addition, the qualitative deficiencies of traditional rural education system include: passive pedagogical methods; use of inappropriate urban-biased curricula; lack of special training in multi-grade techniques (where the teachers are trained to teach more than 1 grade, simultaneously), lack of educational materials to support the learning process for teachers and students; lack of parental and community involvement; failure of the school to provide leadership in the community and rigidity of schedules and calendar. After an unsuccessful attempt by the Unitary School Programme address the educational problems in the rural areas, the New School Programme was organized in 1975, in response to the unsuccessful attempts of the Unitary School Approach.

Highlights of the programme which include implications for teacher-training in S.A, include the following:-

- * the integration of curricular, community, administrative, financial and training strategies;
- * the development of curriculum, training, administration and community components which feature concrete strategies for children, teachers administrative agents and the community;
- * the development of replicable, decentralized, and technically, politically and financially viable mechanisms, i.e. designs that include plans for going to scale (ibid.53-55).

Programme Objectives and Components

The curriculum component promotes active and reflective learning, the ability to think, apply knowledge etc. and emphasizes concrete, active learning experiences.

Study guides which contain a sequence of objectives and activities to be developed at the student's own pace, assist with the flexible promotions policy which replaces grade repetition and develops flexibly paced learning. The core national curriculum provides the opportunity for regional and local adaptation. Adoption of self-instructional teacher manuals, assist teachers who have to handle more than 1 grade simultaneously (ibid.55).

Teacher-Training and Follow-up Component

This component views teachers in a guiding and orienting role as opposed to a mere transmitter of knowledge. Teachers are trained to adapt their teaching schedule/timetable to correspond with the flexible promotion policy, to adapt the study guides to suit the child's level of development and to teach several grades simultaneously

Active in-service, training workshops, as opposed to informative courses provide training and follow-up for teachers and administrative agents. The key to promoting positive attitudes of change and strengthening commitment are motivating group discussions. The process of teacher-training is based on the premise which corresponds with that of teaching children, i.e. active, co-operative, discovery-

oriented and linked with the community. Consequently, teacher-training materials use an approach and process similar to those used in the children's study guides. In addition, the training approach establishes a sequence which permits gradual innovation and corresponding changes of attitude in children, teachers, administrative agents and the community.

The interrelated nature of training and implementation comprises a series of 4 workshops, 1 for administrative agents/supervisors and 3 for teachers (ibid.56-57).

Initiation Workshops for Teachers

An 8-day initiation workshop for teachers assist in, inter alia, developing the teachers' abilities to apply basic concepts and methodological principles of the Programme and mobilize the human and material resources of the community. Furthermore, the teacher is encouraged to create a climate for innovation among community members before change is introduced in the school (ibid.57).

Additional Workshops

Workshops which assist teachers on the use and adaptation of children's study guides, and follow-up workshops which provide the opportunity for teachers to exchange ideas, analyse problems and discuss results, developed gradually on demand and once the Programme was adopted as the National Strategy to Universalize Primary Education in rural areas in

Colombia in 1985, the local non-formal workshops acquired a more regular and systematic character and become known as '*micro-centres*' (ibid.58).

Demonstrative Schools and Micro-centres

Formal visits to schools who set a good example of the New School Programme became part of the initiation workshops. Visits to '*demonstrative schools*', characterized for their effectiveness by their application of methodology and their operation as effective community centres, became a vital role of the training process. In addition, visits motivated teachers to apply what they had learned in practice at the workshops. During the expansion phase of the programme, the micro-centre became a participatory experience where teachers could evaluate, create, innovate, etc. and carry out projects for improvement in their own schools in the community.

To date, these demonstrative schools and micro-centres still provide indispensable elements of a training strategy that has gone to scale and that needs to consistently maintain the correct implementation and educational effectiveness achieved through the original New School Model and methodological principles. The elements of the training strategy have assisted with the development and maintenance of an ongoing horizontal training network where continuous evaluation provides a feedback to the system.

The approach represents a decentralized, in-service, low-cost mechanism to maintain quality in the process of going to scale. In contrast to past teacher-training studies, where it is suggested that teacher-training has little impact on student learning, the New School Programme focuses directly on encouraging teachers to adopt and initiate innovations. The training programme familiarises teachers with new methodology and facilitates application in a real situation. In the traditional Colombian system, teachers' training typically involves theoretical courses which focus on different areas of primary education (ibid.58-59).

The Community Component

This component encourages mobilization of parents and community members for involvement in school activities and promotes cooperation with school activities (ibid. 1993:59-60).

Evolution of the Programme

The programme went through 3 steps, namely local and departmental innovation, national implementation and universal application to all rural schools. Funding came from various sources such as the World Bank, private organizations, Agency for International Development etc., with the average cost structure for the curriculum and training determined on the basis of 1 teacher manual per teacher, 1 set of self-instructional guides for 3 children, 1 library per school and 3 series of training events (ibid.

60-61).

Evaluation of the Programme

Compared with the traditional schools, the impact of the New School's Approach has received a positive reaction from participating teachers, administrative agents and communities with a growing demand for implementation in other areas. Apart from more pupils completing primary schooling, the equalled increase in self-esteem of girls and boys is noteworthy and the level of creativity amongst students in multi-grade classrooms did not differ from those students in single grades. In tests of socio-civic behaviour, self-esteem and selected subjects such as Mathematics and Spanish (national language), New School children scored considerably higher than those in the traditional rural schools (ibid. 1993:63-64).

Early Childhood Education

In terms of child-related criteria, South Africa reveals certain similarities with LDCs such as Columbia as follows:-

Table 4.1 : Early Childhood Education: Failure and Drop-out Rates: Primary School: Year 1

ECE Provision	Failure and/or drop-out rate: Year 1	Urbanization
SA 13%	26%	59%
Columbia 5%	30%	69%

(Liddell, 1992:14;25;37) Sources: UNICEF (1991) Pollitt (1990); Taylor (1989);Lategan (1990)

A comparative investigation of pre-school provision revealed that 2 pre-school approaches, namely the mother-child programme where the family is the child's key educational resource and nursery school programmes, were seen to be equally effective in promoting intellectual development and more cost-effective i.e. an estimated 10% of pre-primary school programmes. As a Eurocentric scheme formerly associated with more affluent countries, the mother-child scheme in LDCs, can be relatively difficult to implement with organizers encountering resentment from parents, the need for substantial resources for training programmes and limited access to modern technological aids such as radio, comprehensive postal systems etc. (Liddell, 1992:53-54).

AFRICAN EDUCATION

Background

In the immediate post-colonial decades of the 1960s and 1970s, many African countries announced their intentions to implement major educational reforms designed, inter alia, to affect access to educational opportunity and the length of the school cycles. With population expansion ranking amongst the highest in the world, combined with adverse economic conditions, education enrolment stalled and the quality of education at all levels deteriorated (Psacharopoulos, 1990: Foreword).

A paper commissioned by the World Bank (1990) to review

education policy in East African countries, revealed that policy outcomes "*fall far short of matching expectations*" (ibid.Abstract) and indicated the central importance of the development of sound and realistic policies based on research-proved cause and effect relationships, as the basis for reform (ibid.21).

A policy, as a plan or course of action is enacted by people and required by people to implement them (Thurlow, 1992:3). In education, the key facilitators or inhibitors of policy are likely to be the teachers (ibid.7), which the literature suggests are major obstacles to policy implementation due to the poor quality of pre-service and lack of in-service training that they receive (Craig, 1990:51).

In order to assess this statement more fully, aspects of primary school teacher-training policies which have implications for developing appropriate policy in South Africa, will be discussed, namely those of Zimbabwe and Tanzania.

Research based on comprehensive documentation of early childhood education has been difficult to gather in many of the LDCs, particularly in the case of Africa. Generally, documentation appears to be haphazard and uncoordinated with government investment failing to reach designated targets (Liddell 1992:11). This section will , therefore, be limited

to include potentially-appropriate, comparative policy models or aspects of such models which have implications for early childhood education in South Africa, in a country other than those discussed under the teacher education sections, namely Kenya.

TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY: ZIMBABWE

Background

Since its independence in 1980, Zimbabwe has attempted to significantly change the educational policies it inherited from the colonial area (Maranvanyika, 1990:1). Influenced by socialist ideology, the new education policy stated by the government, included free primary school education for all and the launching and expansion of Teacher Education at all levels. As a result, unprecedented expansion in education at all levels, including, inter alia, pre-school, primary (elementary) and teacher education, occurred (Nziramasa, 1992:12-13).

Teacher Education

In 1984, 49% of teachers in Zimbabwe were untrained. In new rural secondary schools, formerly primary schools, upgraded to accommodate secondary schools classes through double sessioning, 24% of the teachers were trained primary specialists. In 1989, the provision of primary schools had nearly doubled and enrolment was in excess of 2,274,178 pupils. The resultant impact of primary school expansion weighed heavily upon the teaching force and teacher education

colleges throughout the country with teacher demand exceeding supply. As a result, innovative strategies to overcome the massive shortage of qualified teachers were pursued, 1 of these being the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teachers' Education Course (ZINTEC) (1992:13 & 16-17).

ZINTEC

ZINTEC, a teacher preparation programme was launched by the Ministry of Education, in 1982. For the first time, untrained teachers were brought to a college for the first and last 16 weeks of a 4-year programme, inbetween which, they were taught through distance education methods and by field tutors (Maravanyika, 1992:17). The programme was designed to provide teacher trainees with opportunities to integrate theory and practice during training and teaching, whilst the main objectives of the innovation aimed to provide schools with semi-qualified teachers without expanding the number of training colleges, in the face of the drastic shortage of finance for training teachers in the conventional manner. In addition, the programme was designed to employ teacher trainees as agents of general, social and political change.

The ZINTEC innovation was elaboratively organized and mainly run from a national centre. Entry qualifications were the same as for the conventional training method, i.e. a Cambridge School Certificate (Form IV 'O' Level), one of which included a language. An additional entry requirement

was that of experience in employment, military service or any other related work experience (ibid.16-17).

Training in ZINTEC was divided into 3 segments as follows:-

- * **16 week residential course at college**
The course covered the theory of education and applied education;
- * **The Distance Learning Phase**
Students were deployed as full-time salaried teachers in the classroom for 4 years whilst furthering their professional studies through distance education (defined by World Bank (1988:40) as a method of correspondence education supplemented by radio and tutorial sessions).
During their vacations, students attend a minimum of 2 weeks at their 'parent' college where they discussed new teaching trends, problems etc., with their lecturer. This was particularly useful to teachers in rural schools who had no access to library facilities;
- * **Last Residential Course Component**
During the latter half of the fourth year, students returned to complete a final 16 week training programme leading to certification, at their 'parent' college.
Certification was granted by the University of Zimbabwe (Zvobgo, 1986:89-93).

The biggest weakness in the programme was that during training, there were no guidelines in the curricula to determine the subject content level of the student teachers, that was taught or upgraded. The innovation, however, had far reaching results on the provision of professionally qualified teachers in primary schools. In 1987, ZINTEC had supplied 10% of the teaching force, with 3151 ZINTEC graduates in primary schools and 2051 ZINTEC trainees manning primary school classes. In some cases primary graduates and

teacher-trainees, due to the continued teacher shortage were employed in secondary schools in rural areas (Nziramanga, 1992:18-19).

By 1988, Zintec and the more conventional colleges had yet to supply the number of professionally-qualified teachers needed for the ever-expanding elementary school population. A further upgrading in-service course (UGISC), was introduced, whereby selected untrained teachers in the field were enrolled for a 2-year in-service course, supplemented by a distance education programme, at conventional colleges. The course, however, did not last long, as it attracted far fewer teachers. With expansion at primary schools logically affecting teacher supply at secondary schools, further innovations were introduced to meet the demand for secondary teachers. A significant innovation followed namely, the "*Associateship Programme*", launched in 1990, between universities and training colleges and yet to be evaluated (ibid.20-25).

TANZANIA

In economic terms, Tanzania has been described as one of the poorest countries in the world with a low capacity for the provision of education resources (Galabawa, 1990:1). The situation of Tanzania at the attainment of political independence in 1961, was the absence of schools to provide basic education, only a few colleges to provide the required teachers and a number of social and economic imbalances from

the colonial area. Like Zimbabwe, Tanzania aimed for the distribution and equalization of educational opportunities and the expansion of the education system at all levels, including the attainment of universal primary education. The Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) policy which became the basis for all major educational policy changes from 1969 - 1978, stressed that education should help to promote a socialist transformation of society and should emphasize preparation for rural and community life over theoretical knowledge, particularly at the primary level. In addition, the emphasis on achieving universal primary education has led to a system where there are school places for only 4% of primary school graduates (ibid.Abstract)

Teacher Education

In 1974, Tanzania introduced a scheme to achieve universal primary school enrolments by 1977, despite serious resource constraints. Approximately 40,000 teachers needed to be trained other than the conventional teacher training methods which offered a 2-year residential course (post Form VI and post Form IV school-leavers) at a National Education College. With the pool of secondary school graduates who might enter primary teacher being small, owing to the governments emphasis on primary and adult education, a new teacher-training strategy needed to be devised to fill the primary school ranks (Gultig, 1992:5-6); World Bank, 1988:41).

Distance Learning for Teachers

Primary school graduates with some adult education experience were chosen to be trained as primary school teachers. Trainees had to be between 17 and 28 years of age, live in an area of short supply and have taught adult literacy for at least 2 years. Training consisted of an initial 6-week residential period followed by supervised primary school teaching. Deployed in schools and teaching 22 periods a week, under the supervision of heads and senior teachers, trainees followed correspondence courses, radio education programmes and met with fellow trainees and supervising heads/senior teachers, in tutorial groups, to discuss their work. Quarterly examinations were administered, followed by a final examination at the end of a 3-year period. A total of 82% of trainees completed the course, whilst 77% qualified as teachers.

Comparison of trainees with a control group of residentially teacher trainees showed that the distance education students fared *"slightly worse on academic knowledge"*, yet scored better on *"measures of classroom behaviour"*. Local recruitment was sighted as the reason for their higher motivation. Generally, the combination of the practical classroom apprenticeship with distance learning appeared to be an effective way to respond to the critical shortage of primary teachers. With trainees working during their training period, this strategy was seen to be a cost-saving exercise, reducing the cost of residential training. The distance

teaching strategy was calculated to be approximately one quarter the cost of conventional teacher-training (World Bank, 1988:41).

Defects of the Distance Learning Scheme

Hasty planning, haphazard enrolments, curriculum overload and overlap (15 subjects), unattainment of practical mastery of the necessary teaching methods, poorly furnished teaching centres, 'out of touch' tutors and a diluted curricula context that did not extend the interns beyond their previous academic levels, have been sighted as defects of the scheme (Gultig: 1992:7), which tended to produce "*half-cooked*" primary school teachers (Galabawa, 1990:18).

KENYA

Background

Kenya received independence, after 80 years of British rule, in December 1963 and precisely a year later, became a Republic. After independence, education became not only a significant tool for social justice and rapid development, but was also used to promote a sense of unity and '*nationhood*'.

Its education system has expanded dramatically and free primary education has been achieved. Like other Sub-Saharan countries, it has, however, experienced a number of educational problems which include, inter alia, the lack of resources due to poor economic conditions, a high rate of

population growth and teacher shortages (Eshiwani, 1990: Abstract & 1).

Early Childhood Education

The first early childhood centres that served African children commenced in the Kenyan locations in urban areas and on tea and sugar plantations. To date, access to pre-school education, compared with other African states, seems to be the highest in Kenya, with a boom in the creation of community-based pre-schools, during the last 15 years.

Factors contributing to the rapid and continuous growth of pre-school institutions for children under-6 include, inter alia, increased access to formal schooling, rural-urban migration, socio-economic forces, increased employment for females and, most significant, governmental participation in areas of need (Lenyai, 1992:10).

Pressures of rapid population growth are evident in the lack of primary school space for children who are age-eligible. Recognising that pre-school education might give children greater success in competing for scarce primary school places, parents have created their own pre-schools. Within the 'harambee' tradition, these schools have been built by the community, staffed by untrained parent-paid teachers and are operated using sparse equipment and materials. (Evans in Spodek, 1993:434-435; Lenyai, 1992:10).

Pre-School Provision

The realization by the government that over 80% of pre-school institutions were privately run and financed, led to the establishment of a professional body, the National Centre for Early Childhood Education (NACECE), to implement government policy, under the auspice of the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). Rather than expand the existing 2-year pre-service model which caters for a small elite population, the KIE opted to create district training-centres where locally employed teachers could receive intensive training over a 2-year period, meet for group sessions during vacations and receive on the job training through periodic visits by training centre staff.

The NACECE, initiated the development of non-formal training and support services in rural areas through a project funded by the Bernard van Leer Foundation, (a Netherlands based donor organization), in 1981 (ibid.435; ibid.11).

Role of the NACECE

The NACECE is currently developing a network of subcentres known as District Centres for Early Childhood Education (DICECE). Officers, who are qualified district inspectors of schools and pre-primary supervisors, from county and municipal councils, serve as facilitators, trainers and supervisors of early childhood programmes at district level. The major role of the NACECE is the design, development and dissemination of materials and services which include

training, curriculum development, research and programme evaluation. In addition, it coordinates and disseminates the work of the District Centres, responsible for the decentralized training of preschool personnel. The DICECE provide a 2-year teacher-training in-service programme and are also involved in community mobilization in order to improve the quality of life of pre-schools. The activities of the NACECE and the DICECE have had far reaching effects on early childhood education which has resulted in an increased awareness of the concern for the young child, amongst the local population.

Generally, the NACECE has a close working relationship with the DICECE and with partners that have agreed to collaborate with the government to set up DICECE across the country.

Latest available evidence suggests that the number of pre-school children catered for has increased from 400 000 children aged 3-6 years in 1982, to 850 000 children in 1991 (ibid.11-13).

Teacher-Training Policy

A 1-year training programme which requires that teachers possesses a Certificate of Education, with a minimum of 4 passes or an equivalent and must be practising in the pre-school, is organized by the government. Of the 10 000 pre-school teachers, only 900 have undergone the 1-year training programme. At present, there are moves to offer a 6 month in-service course, following the pre-service course.

Funding

Funds for pre-school education are received from different sources. The Ministry of Basic Education provides funds for pre-school teacher training centres by means of grants, maintenance of vehicles, payment of personnel salaries and curriculum development. The focus on recent rural development has increased national state spending in pre-school education. Partnerships formed with the Bernard van Leer Foundation, the United Nations International Childrens' Education Foundation (UNICEF) and Aga Khan Foundation, have all assisted in the expansion of pre-school programmes which resulted in the launching of the NACECE. Whilst some local authorities provide funds for establishing the physical plant and furnishings of schools, sponsors, parents and churches may also contribute with the building of schools, employment of teachers and provision of learning materials (ibid.11-12).

Analysis of the Training Strategy

The KIE system, designed to meet a very specific set of needs, is solidly in place. After implementation of the programme in the early 1980s, the KIE has experienced 2 demands, 1 being a course for teachers unable to attend the 2-year programme course due to either a lack of space or lack of minimum academic requirements, and the other from course completers who require additional theoretical input. Whilst the KIE made a conscious effort to acknowledge the academic level of untrained teachers, local cultural variations, the need for a balance of theory and practice, ongoing super-

vision and availability of resources, training programmes have been developed in response to external factors rather than the needs of those being trained (Evans in Spodek, 1993:435).

IMPLICATIONS OF COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVES FOR SOUTH AFRICA

Distance Education

Although maintaining high quality was not the overriding factor, both Zimbabwe and Tanzania have been committed to an expansion of basic education which demanded immediate and practical strategies to produce teachers for schools (Nziramasa, 1992:26). Through the use of distance teaching methods, the cost of pre-service training in these countries have, in recent years, been substantially lowered. The optimal mix of teaching modes such as general education, pre-service classroom study, supervised teaching practice, learning on the job and in-service training, depends on the relative costs of the modes and on the salary structures for teachers (World Bank, 1988:40-41).

Although curriculum planning, development and implementation were delegated to either individual college councils, government centres, or national universities entrusted with monitoring standards, the planning and provision and organizational and administrative structures were centrally determined. Bearing in mind the shortfalls of the Tanzanian project, a reconstructed form of ZINTEC, combined with some conventional strategies in South Africa, merit consideration

in the training of primary school teachers where massive expansion of pupil enrolment is likely to take place (Nziramasa, 1992:26-27).

In-service Training in Rural Colombia

In-service training in rural Colombia is an example of a training strategy that has adapted to local circumstances and which might be viewed as a basis for developing effective training strategies, particularly in the rural areas of S.A. The demonstrative schools and micro-centres are indispensable elements of an ongoing horizontal training network where problems may be analyzed and solved, thus providing continuous feedback into the system. The flexible promotion and multigrade teaching policy have helped to overcome the high repetition and drop-out rates and the training strategy gives teachers the opportunity to apply what they have learnt at workshops, i.e. how to implement the programme and establishes a sequence that permits gradual innovation. The multi-grade approach permits provision of complete primary schooling where incomplete schooling exists and trains teachers to handle 5 grades simultaneously. According to Colbert et al (in Levin & Lockheed, 1993:67), the local, replicable and permanent in-service training of teachers, which focuses directly on encouraging teachers to adopt and initiate innovation and develops their ability to apply theory to practice, meets most of the criteria outlined by the World Bank Report on primary education (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). The curriculum has been improved due to the

strengthening of its cognitive competence and social relevance, whilst in-service training and teaching has been supported with the provision of adequate textbooks and teacher guides. The overall quality of education has been improved and community-school relationships, seen as important for improving educational effectiveness in developing countries, has been enhanced (ibid.64 & 67).

Teachers as Fully-fledged Partners in Training

England and Wales raise the questions of the degree to which teachers are ready to serve as fully-fledged partners in the development of teacher education policy and how to effectively develop the teaching corps for effective participation in the training and assessment of new teachers (NEPI,1992:64-65).

Patterns of Early Childhood Provision and Governance

3 types of early childhood education provision, namely the state-supported system, state and community provision and community self-help are evident world-wide. The Kenyan project is an example of a fairly widespread partnership system between the state, community and other sectors. As a self-help project, initially supported by externally-funded, non-formal training and curriculum development projects, it now receives government support.

In the UK and USA, there is considerable privatization and community involvement in the provision of pre-school

education. Limited direct and variable state provision has resulted in a variety of programmes to meet different community needs. The need to provide a transition phase to formal schooling in order to provide continuity of learning experiences in the pre-primary and junior primary phases of education, have sparked a debate about reducing the school entry age. The British activity-based model for 5 - 8 year olds shows no advantage for children entering school before 5. The same kinds of issues are likely to arise here in proposals for a pre-primary year in the school system. The writer, however, believes that the appropriate training of teachers in the foundation/initial phase will reinforce age-appropriate methods of teaching. In the USA, a non-compulsory state-funded kindergarten year is provided as a transition year into formal education. In South Africa, proposals for a state-funded reception class year are anticipated in the future.

In the UK and USA local authorities are primarily responsible for management and control, with central government playing an overall role. Central and federal governments play a similar role in that they hold an overall watching brief and fund special educational programmes.

With regard to training and support services, the employment of assistants or teacher-aides who work in a team teaching situation with more highly trained teachers is found in the UK and the USA. The need to provide recognition for

knowledge and skills gained through experience and through informal and non-formal training has been accepted by the UK and the USA, where certification procedures have been developed. These strategies are relevant in the South African context where there is a need to recognize the competence of trainers and trainees involved in non-formal training.

The USA Child Development Association (CDA) programme initiated by the federal government, provides for the certification of individual teachers who have the necessary knowledge and skills. Managed by the NAEYC, the certificate is recognized as a professional teaching qualification by the majority of states.

The statutory National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) set up for the purpose of awarding vocational competency certificates at different levels, supports the training efforts of the South African Congress for Early Childhood Development.

Generally, the American and British models of early years education of training and certification have important implications for teaching-training policy development in S.A. The American NAEYC levels of professional development which include formal and informal methods of training with a core body of knowledge extended at each level, allow flexibility to meet a different range of abilities and needs. The

British system which is occupationally-based, includes levels of formal tertiary training. The NVQ certification procedures currently being developed have a certain relevance in the control of the plethora of ECE training course currently being implemented in S.A. In addition, the recently introduced British Articled Teacher Scheme where a large portion of time is spent in the practical situation is also relevant. Greater modification, however, is needed to suit the unique needs of the country and a training strategy to accredit teachers which will recognise non-formal training courses, close the gap between the 2 systems of training by linking formal and non-formal training institutions, provide mobility from non-formal to formal training levels, acknowledge equivalent job status and draw up comparable salary scales, need to be developed (NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992: 44-58).

The Community College Concept

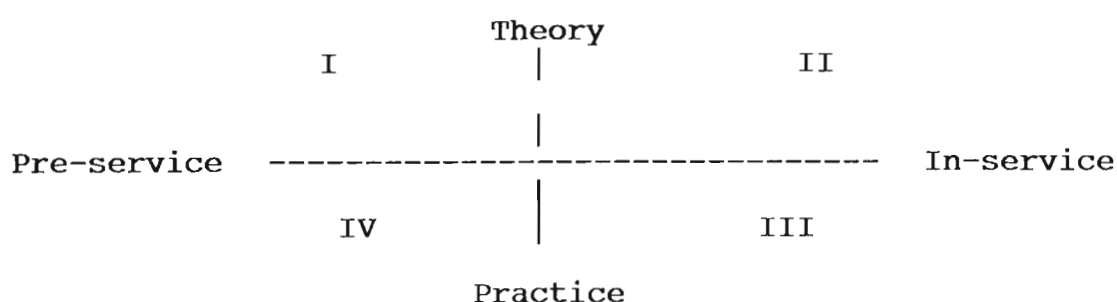
The American concept of Community Colleges is a flexible institution which could co-ordinate and house the interests of a number of educational agencies currently funding non-formal educational training, by facilitating transfer and continuity between non-formal and formal training opportunities (Short, 1992b:35-36).

Mapping of Training Schemes

Evans (in Spodek, 1993:434) suggests that for every intervention strategy developed, there is an accompanying

training system. A multitude of training schemes, can be compared by placing them on a grid as follows:-

Figure 4.1: Mapping of Training Schemes



On the horizontal-axis is pre-service versus in-service training. The left side of axis represents pre-service training only and the righthand side, the type of on the job training generally created for untrained teachers. Inbetween, is a combination of every imaginable combination. The vertical axis represents theory versus practice. The predominant model in most developed countries is pre-service training which incorporates training with a highly theoretical focus, i.e. quadrant I. This, however, does not house the interests of needs for Third World countries. In recent years, the movement in developing countries has shifted to quadrant III, where there is a greater focus on the learning of practical skills provided by on the job training (Evans in Spodek, 1993:435).

From the Kenya Institute of Education and related training experiences, it is clear that when training systems are designed to meet the needs of those to be trained and the

systems they will serve, it is possible to create highly effective training programmes (ibid.435).

In the countries examined in this section, Britain and the USA whilst retaining elements of pre-service education and striving for a balance between theory and practice, are experiencing movement mid-way between the 2 axis, in order to meet the demand for the training of a variety of teachers, at different levels (writer's own view). When, however, there are too many constraints such as lack of opportunities for reinforcement of learning, personnel etc., the effectiveness of the training is more questionable e.g. Tanzania (ibid. 435).

SUMMARY

This section has attempted to examine selected models of teacher-training strategies, with special reference to teacher-training for the early years of education in the UK, USA and Africa. When drawing up teacher-training policy, it should be remembered that each country is unique and, thus, needs to develop its own specific policy to suit its own unique circumstances, resources and national cultural heritage (World Bank, 1988:2).

The next section, will focus on the development of appropriate teacher-training models in the South African context.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE TRAINING MODELS FOR ACCELERATED TEACHER TRAINING

INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

In a Draft Policy Discussion Document, on Education and Training, the African National Congress (ANC), proposes absolute priority for the introduction of 10 years, free and compulsory education, commencing with a reception year (ANC Education Department 1994:10). Strategic principles underpinning policy for general education (the first 10 years of schooling) include, inter alia, the transformation of the early years of schooling (ibid.97) in which the reception year would be the introductory year of an integrated 4-year lower primary school programme. A sustained and targeted programme of action of in-service and pre-service education, linked to curriculum development within a 5 to 10 year target would, therefore, be needed in order to equip teachers for the early years of schooling (ibid.95).

In the pre-school sector, an overwhelming number of unqualified trained staff are employed in pre-schools and educare centres for Black children (NEPI: Early Childhood Educare, 1992:20). The strong drive to accredit non-formal training courses, using a basic system of accreditation developed by the former South African Association for Early Childhood Education (SAAECE) (now known as the South African Congress for Early Childhood Development), has gained wide

acceptance and unqualified teachers are now able to receive a certificate of competence for the level of training attained in the field (Short & Appelbaum, 1994: 2-3).

In the formal sector, however, the most disempowered elements of the teaching establishments are employed in the lower primary classes. These teachers are underqualified, inappropriately trained, undertrained, underresourced and have the largest class sizes (Natal Education Working Group, 1994:4), with little or no provision of INSET (Taylor, 1992:11).

Whilst there is an urgent need for a coherent INSET policy in order to upgrade unqualified and underqualified teachers and improve the quality of the teaching corps in the primary sector, shortened PRESET courses which produce sufficiently trained teachers for compulsory, general education are also required. In developing a comprehensive and integrated system of professional development for individuals who work with young children, it is widely accepted that account must be taken of the different learning needs and expertise of those who wish to follow different career paths (SAAECE, 1994:3). A flexible and coherent system of course accreditation which facilitates links, both ways, between formal and non-formal training courses and which gives recognition and exchange value to certificates of competence, issued on completion of non-formal courses, would comprise an essential element of such a system (SAAECE, 1994:9; Short 1992b:4). It would not only ensure the implementation of a unified educational

approach through a common set of curriculum guidelines, but would also offer a primary means of course control (Short 1992b:Overview). The development of a new policy for the preparation and professional development of teachers would need to balance the long-term goals of shaping the size and composition of the teaching force to meet planned and anticipated future educational needs, against the short-term goal of providing an adequate supply of qualified teachers to fulfil current requirements (Dove, 1986:147 -148). It is a question of balancing decisions made on the grounds of efficiency, effectiveness and equity, against what is practicable (ibid.147-148).

This section will focus on the development of appropriate training models for teacher-training, for the foundation/initial phase of education. As uniform terminology has not evolved in the field of teacher education, basic concepts related to teacher-training are listed below, on the understanding that they carry the described meaning in the context of the writer's research.

Training Course

In non-formal training, a training course is defined as an educational programme designed to assist adult learners to increase their knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities (SAAECE, 1994:5).

In formal training, a training course is seen to be the defined scope of study of a subject prescribed for a

specified academic year, whilst a curriculum course includes both the content and the teaching method of a subject in relation to the particular school phase for which the teacher is trained. A course of training is the complete range of subjects selected with the specific aim of training a person professionally, as well as academically, for a profession (ex-DEC:HoA:10).

Non-formal Training

Non-formal training consists of structured courses which have clearly defined aims and objectives. They are usually offered on an in-service and/or part-time basis, outside the formal education system by private agencies or NGOs (SAAECE, 1994:5).

Formal Education and Training

Formal education and training takes place within an educational institution which is set-up or recognised by the State in terms of statutory provision e.g. schools, technical colleges, colleges of education, technikons and universities (ibid.5).

Early Childhood Profession

The early childhood profession consists of all early childhood educators who have acquired appropriate professional knowledge and skills through non-formal and formal means (ibid.5).

Approval or Recognition for Courses and Diplomas

A course which conforms to the minimum structural criteria, as approved or recognised by the former Committee of Heads of Education (CHED), for teacher education, is a recognised course, and an institution at which all the courses are recognised, is a recognised institution for teacher education (ex-COTEP, 1993:1; ex-DEC:HoA, 1994:10).

An approved course or diploma would be a South African diploma, evaluated individually by the application of valid criteria and recognised by a Committee of Heads of Education, as an approved diploma in education for employment.

A diploma is proof of competence and, therefore, also signifies academic and professional status (ex-DEC:HoA, 1994:9).

Accreditation

According to non-formal training criteria, accreditation refers to the recognition by a professional accrediting body of an educational programme or course of study, which is offered by an educational institution or agency (SAAECE, 1994:5).

In a memorandum entitled "*A Council for the Validation of Qualifications and the Accreditation of Institutions*", an accredited institution for teacher education is entitled by law to administer its own certification. It offers

validated courses, utilises qualified staff, has an ethos which is supportive of a professional ethic (COTEP, 1993: No.14:2)

Validation

A course which complies with the minimum structural criteria, but which also complies with criteria regarding course aims and content and standards of training as measured at the point of exit, is considered to be a validated course and may be certified as such (ibid. No.14:2).

Certification

Certification refers to the recognition given by an examining body such as a training institution, professional body or education department, of the education and training of an individual. Certificates may be issued for formal and non-formal training, as well as for competence gained through experience (informal learning) (SAAECE, 1994:5).

Registration (Licensing)

Registration/licensing refers to recognition by a statutory body of an individual's qualifications to practice as a teacher. It is required by law (Short, 1992b:43).

Minimum Qualification for Admission to Teacher-Training

The minimum qualification for admission to an approved teachers' training course is the Senior (Matric)

Certificate, awarded by one of the ex-education departments in the RSA, or by the Joint Matriculation Board (JMB) or South African Certification Board (ex-DEC:HoA, 1994:31).

Required Languages

2 required languages are required for inclusion in approved education diplomas of which Afrikaans and English should be at least one of the languages. Other languages include, inter alia, Xhosa, Zulu, Sotho and Hindi and Tamil, as African and Indian languages, respectively (ibid.10-11).

Active Learning

Active learning describes the educational methods which actively involve pupils and students in the learning process.

In the case of students, trainers/teacher educators assist students to learn from their experiences through group discussions and activities and by relating their ideas and experiences to new knowledge (SAAECE, 1994:6)

In the case of pupils, active learning involves developmentally-appropriate, child-centred, non-formal and activity-based learning (Natal Education Working Group, 1994:2)

Certificate of Competence

Non-formal training courses have a supervised practical implementation component and the practical competence of

participants is evaluated in terms of the course objectives as defined by the training organisation (SAAECE, 1994:12 & 13).

Endorsement

Endorsement indicates in what area of specialisation, skill development has occurred, and is recognised as such on a particular teaching certificate (SAAECE, 1994:81).

Internship

An intern is a teacher in training who works in a school on a full-time basis, in order to gain the required practical experience and who is salaried at a lower level than his/her qualified counterpart (Department of National Education (DNE): ERS, 1992:45; Short, 1992b:22).

GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN DEVELOPING TRAINING STRATEGIES

With reference to the policy options discussed by the NEPI Early Childhood Educare Group, the proposal in favour of greater educational investment at the lower end of the school system, commencing with the introduction of pre-primary/reception classes has significant implications for the training of reception class teachers (Short, 1992b:12-13).

An important policy decision regarding course content would, therefore, need to take into account the age range that is covered by the term early childhood education, i.e. the period from birth to 8 or 9 years (ibid.15).

Guiding principles outlined by the former SAAECE (1994:7-8 & 57), which have implications for developing teacher-training policy, include the following:-

- * a comprehensive and holistic approach of the child, ranging from birth until the end of standard 1, with specialization options in training, which include, inter alia, pre-primary and the junior primary phase as specialist options;
- * equitable career development opportunities to attract and retain qualified adults and which include viable career options that encourage continued professional development and which provide opportunities for increased remuneration;
- * competence, whether developed through formal or non-formal training courses, should receive equal recognition and financial remuneration, for particular role responsibilities;
- * in establishing equivalence between formal and non-formal qualifications, a basic principle is that non-formal training is not inferior to formal training and that qualifications should be recognised as equivalent according to levels of competence;
- * accessible and continuing professional development which include different levels of training are required, in order to provide access to training opportunities to all those individuals involved in early childhood development;
- * continuing education and in-service training opportunities should be structured to encourage and support those individuals who wish to improve their professional knowledge and skills;
- * bridging mechanisms between various levels of training need to be developed to provide progression from one level to another, as well as transfer between non-formal and formal courses which recognise previous experiential learning and are without unnecessary repetition of course content. According to Short (1992b:Overview), an adaptation of the American Community College has been proposed to facilitate this;

- * all early childhood programmes should be subject to the same overall system of course accreditation, to ensure appropriately trained educators;.
- * the purpose of course accreditation should be to facilitate development through a process of self-evaluation and validation by respected peer-group members with the shared goal of continually improving the standard of education and training.

A New Qualifications Structure

The ANC recommendation for a single national qualifications and certification structure for all levels of the education and training system to include multiple entry and exit points which would allow learners to acquire credits based on their specific needs, if accepted, would have implications for the future training of teachers.

The proposal for a national qualifications structure which would have 3 major certificated exit points is outlined as follows:-

- * **General Education Certificate (GEC)**
This would mark the completion of general education, i.e. 10 years of schooling and would include the equivalent Adult Basic Education (ABE);
- * **Further Education Certificate (FEC)**
This National Higher Education Certificate would mark the completion of further education and may be either school-based or work-based. (ANC Discussion Document 1994:18)

In addition, to ensure flexibility of access to different levels of education and training, entry requirements would be based on a limited number of minimum prerequisites, of

which prior learning and experience would be a key component, e.g. work-based courses undertaken at the post-FEC level would carry credit towards diplomas and degrees. In addition, diplomas and degrees would be structured to ensure maximum portability of qualifications between institutions (ibid.19). In developing appropriate teacher-training strategies, implications of the proposal will be taken into account.

Revised Entrance Criteria and Course Curriculum

One of the issues in the design of teacher education courses is the rigid adherence to the traditional institutionally-based programmes. These need to be modified to accommodate more flexible, shortened and school-based courses. In a new system, where the state is not compelled to fund education up to standard 10, new entrance criteria may have to be established and other measures of competence and suitability devised. Teaching bursaries given to cover senior secondary education, as well as the college component of training (in return for a suitable period of contractual obligation to the state), could also be considered (ibid. 1994).

In a document entitled *"A Reconstruction Model for Teacher Education in South Africa: Access, Curriculum and Certification"* (1994:2), Jarvis and Nicholls suggest that, inter alia, admission to teacher education should be based on the following admission criteria:-

- * Senior Certificate;
- * non-formal school and other educational qualifications;

- * work and life experiences;
- * assessment of potential, attitude and motivation using interviews, testing and reports and references;
- * prior experiential learning, especially in teaching and an other relevant considerations, such as motivation and maturity;
- * language potential in the language of learning of the institution.

With reference to the Senior Certificate, it is noted as being an unreliable indicator of future academic success in a tertiary institution and, therefore, other factors, as mentioned above, need to be taken into consideration. In the longer term, however, the value of such a certificate, as an indicator of ability and potential, should not be under-estimated.

Co-ordinating INSET and PRESET

An appropriate and modular curriculum structure with flexible entry and exit points accommodating both PRESET and INSET training would also be needed to create horizontal mobility between training institutions and schools.

ESTABLISHING LINKS BETWEEN NON-FORMAL AND FORMAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Linking Formal and Non-Formal Training Programmes

The integration of non-formal and formal training systems require substantial revision in present teacher-training policy. It is a question of what kind of links between the

2 types of training would be of most benefit to early childhood educators.

The implementation of a state-funded reception class year, has implications for the development of linkages between formal and non-formal training programmes which would afford underqualified and unqualified teachers in the non-formal sector, the opportunity to upgrade their qualifications and establish a defined career path within a formal system of training. Short (1992b: Overview) states that formal and non-formal training opportunities at secondary and tertiary level need to be part of an integrated and co-ordinated system, subject to the same overall system of accreditation.

The need to provide recognition for knowledge and skills gained through experience and through non-formal training, has been accepted in both the UK and the USA, where certification procedures have been developed. In Britain, the proposed and duly rejected route for early years teachers to teach under 8s, where experience in the field and a general education requirement would allow teachers access to gain QTS after a year's full-time training (Chapter 4), certainly merits consideration in the South African context where graduate status is not essential to teach children in the early years.

A gradual phasing-in of reception classes as teachers are appropriately trained, is envisaged alongside the simultaneous transformation of the junior primary system of

schooling, where teachers would need to be retrained in appropriate early childhood methodology. A proposal for the training of teachers in the foundation/initial phase, commencing with INSET of the reception class year and the simultaneous upgrading of junior primary teachers, commencing with the class 1 teacher, over a period of 5 years is, therefore, proposed. This is followed by recommendations for flexible, shortened and school-based PRESET courses.

INSET

It is recommended that INSET courses be based on the following principles:-

- * an activity-based approach as opposed to an informative approach, to encourage active and reflective learning, the ability to think, apply knowledge etc;
- * a process of teacher-training premised on active, cooperative and discovery-oriented methods which correspond with that of teaching children of this age-group;
- * the incorporation of a sequence of gradual innovation and corresponding changes of attitude;
- * regular workshops for course feedback and evaluation, discussion of problems, etc. (the above principles are based on the Columbian project discussed in the previous chapter);
- * correspondence materials drawn up by people who have credibility in their phase of education and approved by an accredited organization or collegiate body;

INSET would be required mainly in 2 areas, namely where

teachers are not considered to be formally-qualified and where they are not considered to have the appropriate skills necessary to fulfil their teaching task effectively, i.e. educare workers in charge of reception classes.

INSET for the Reception Class Year

The introduction of a reception class year highlights, inter alia, the following problems:-

- * a lack of appropriately-trained and qualified teachers;
- * a lack of classroom facilities;
- * the absence of a core curriculum;
- * financial constraints in terms of present structures;
(Robinson-Thurlow in Van Dyk, 1993: 36 -37).

It is realised that formal reception classes cannot be established at a point in time, but would need to be 'phased-in' as the necessary teachers are trained and facilities are established (Natal Working Group, 1993:5). It is, therefore, proposed that INSET courses based on reception class teaching be aimed at experienced educare workers in the informal sector who have 5 year-olds in their care, particularly those who hold a certificate of competence from registered NGOs (ibid.5). Training would form the basis of an ongoing process of upgrading and professional development in early childhood education. As previously stated (Chapter 3), reception class teaching is seen to apply to all teachers of 5 year-olds, whether they teach in state-registered pre-primary schools, private pre-

primary schools, educare centres or in reception classes established at primary schools.

In the light of the above, the following part-time INSET model is proposed to close the gap between non-formal and formal training programmes by formally upgrading and certifying teachers who, at present, have undergone non-formal training in the pre-school sector. The training model is based upon the conception of the British and American Models of training teachers for the early years of education, discussed in the previous chapter.

The current non-formal training model, developed by the former SAAECE and used by many training agencies in South Africa, discussed in Chapter 2, is again outlined to illustrate how non-formal courses may be incorporated into a new formal training structure. The model is seen to be a short-to-medium-term solution to formally upgrade educare workers who are in-service and bridge the gap between formal and non-formal training opportunities.

Establishing a Modular Career Path for Coordinated Training

Figure 5.1: Establishing a Modular Career Path for the Coordinated Training of Teachers for the Foundation Phase

Figure 5.1.1: Level 1 and Level 2

Levels	Formal Training Opportunities	Non-Formal Training Courses
Level 1	<p>Reception Class Certificate (RCC): Access: Foundation Course (Level 2) & relevant teaching experience. GEC an entry requirement. Certification: GEC +1. Assistant Teacher. Duration: INSET: 2 years.</p>	<p>Introductory Courses: Short & courses practically oriented. Access: Functional literacy. Duration: 6-12 months, part-time. Certification: Assistant Educare Worker.</p>
Level 2	<p>Reception Class Diploma (RCD): Access: RCC or Development Course (Level 3). Completion of Advanced Course (Level 4) will lead to appropriate course remission. Certification: FEC + 2. FEC status for '<i>proven competence</i>'. QTS to teach reception class. Duration: INSET: 2 years.</p>	<p>Foundation Courses. Access: Std. 5-7 with a minimum of 1 year's relevant experience. Substantial practical orientation. Duration: 2 year's part-time.</p>

Figure 5.1.2: Level 3 and Level 4

Levels	Formal Training Opportunities	Current Non-Formal Training Opportunities
Level 3	Diploma for the Foundation Phase: Access: RCD or Advanced Course. Certification: FEC + 3. QTS to teach class 1 (1st year). QTS to teach class 2 (2nd year). Duration: INSET: 2 years.	Development Courses: Extension of theoretical knowledge & other issues. Access: N3 Certificate or 2-year pre-school certificate (std. 8 or 10 entrance) or completion of relevant Level 2 non-formal training or std. 10 & tertiary training other than education, with a minimum of 1 year's experience. Duration: 2 years' part-time.
Level 4	HDE with Specialist Options: Access: Diploma for the Foundation Phase. Certification: FEC + 4. Duration: INSET: 2 years.	Advanced Courses: Development of high level skills. Research, programme development & evaluation.

Level 1: Reception Class Certificate.

Target Group

The target group would be educate workers in charge of 5 year-olds who have experience working with children of this age-group.

Access

In line with ANC proposals for a national qualifications structure, a General Education Certificate (GEC) would mark the completion of 10 years of schooling up to standard 7 (ANC Education Department, 1994:18) and would mark an entry point for those candidates wishing to obtain a recognised *assistant-teachers' certificate in reception class teaching*, at Level 1. In addition, recognition of non-formal educate courses and/or relevant experience in pre-school education are also proposed as entry criteria.

It is accepted that the general educational background of participants contributes to their development as educators and to a sense of personal empowerment. Although providing general education opportunities are not course requirements, participants, where possible, should be encouraged to improve their level of general education.

Where educational qualifications are low, participants should be encouraged to further their education through to a FEC, via a growing number of Adult Basic Education (ABE) courses. Another option would be to offer extension courses that develop participants' general background knowledge in

a way that directly relates to their work, e.g. a course in environmental education. These courses could perhaps be recognised and credited as subjects towards obtaining a FEC (SAAECE, 1994:56-57).

Course Content & Accreditation

General course content should cover the practical issues of teaching a reception class. Main elements of such a course would include the following:-

- * overview of a quality reception class programme;
 - * main features of the daily school readiness programme;
 - * the daily organised periods;
 - * the Free Play Period.
- (Natal College of Education, 1994: Prospectus)

Although will be offered through distance education, the writer believes that the practical component of the reception class module, compares most favourably with pre-primary courses offered through NGOs and other private agencies, as stated in the 1993-94 Directory entitled *"Training and Related Services Directory for Early Childhood Care and Education"* (Short & Appelbaum, 1994).

Candidates who complete 2 years' of part-time study would be credited with 1 year's full-time training, in the form of a teacher-aide certificate. In line with the NAEYC, practitioners would work under the direct supervision of professionals in reception classes. Teachers with a GEC+1 would

work as assistants in pre-primary classes and in junior primary schools (the NEPI Early Childhood Educare Research Group (1992:89) suggest that teacher-assistants have a M+2 qualification). The candidate would qualify as an assistant teacher and would be granted a GEC+1 status for career and salary recognition.

Method of Training

Training would be experience-based under a mentor teaching during normal school hours. A combined mode of distance education with regular afternoon workshop back-ups, would be offered. Opportunities for participants to practice specific skills under guidance, would require collegial input designed to upgrade and empower. Child-centred and action-based methodology is recommended.

Duration of Course

A 2-year part-time course is recommended.

Course Evaluation

Due to their inappropriately formal academic background and lack of experience in this phase, INSET cannot be handled exclusively by present training personnel in colleges of education. In order to establish the correct teaching methodology, qualified and experienced pre-primary teachers would, therefore, be required to address workshops and act as tutors on a part-time basis.

Candidates would be evaluated in terms of their attendance

at workshops (80% minimum), practical teaching competence and satisfactorily completed assignments set for this level of training.

General: Teacher-Assistants

Employed at a lower salary, than their better qualified colleagues, 'on the job' training could be achieved whilst completing a formally-recognised reception class certificate. Quasi-educational tasks such as assisting with the preparation of the learning environment and group work activities could would release the class teachers' time and energy for more centrally educative tasks, particularly where the pupil/teacher ratio exceeds 30:1. As an economic measure, in the event of South Africa having to limit the expansion of its teaching force, the role of teacher associations in investigating the potential of a wider use of para-professionals to support teachers (not substitute), as suggested by Dove (1986:114), in order to, hopefully, ensure quality educational services and an improved, and possible, lower unit cost per pupil, merits worthy consideration.

Level 2: Reception Class Diploma

Target Group and Access to Training

This level of training would target educare workers who hold a Reception Class Certificate and who wish to obtain a professional teaching certificate, as well as unqualified and underqualified teachers in the Junior Primary Phase. Successful completion of the School Readiness Certificate

(Level 1) or completion of the non-formal Advanced Course (Level 3) would allow the candidate access to the course. The diploma would also provide the opportunity for junior primary teachers who wish to obtain a formally-recognised qualification with specialization in reception class teaching and those teachers conducting the BPP, who require INSET.

Course Content and Accreditation

The content of the course would cover certain aspects of the reception class curriculum in more depth e.g. the school readiness programme and would introduce the necessary theory to underpin the practical components of the course covered at Level 1 and would comply with the requirements of the *"Criteria for the Evaluation of South African Qualifications for Employment in Education"* (c/f ex-DEC:HoA,1994).

As per the Further Diploma in Education (FDE) convention, 5 hours of contact time and 5-10 hours of self-directed study per week, is envisaged (Edgewood College of Education:Pre-Primary and Junior Primary Sub-Committee, 1994:6). Teaching practice effectively carried out, should provide the context for trainee teachers to begin to integrate theory and practice. Often criticised, is the lack of training institutions to integrate, and provide, a balance between theory and practice for teacher trainees (Dove, 1986:250 & 252).

Successful completion of the diploma course would accredit

the teacher with a FEC+2. The qualifying teacher would be granted QTS to teach a reception class. It is proposed that trainees who have completed a non-formal course and have gained some form of accreditation, e.g. a certificate of competence, be granted access to complete the Diploma. Non-formal training received at Level 3 and Level 4 should be recognised, with some system of appropriate course remission for Level 4 candidates.

As suggested by the ERS (1992:42), serving teachers with proven competency could be granted Senior Certificate status (or FEC status in a new dispensation), with a view to further studies at the next level. In this instance, teachers who enrol for a Reception Class Diploma, may possibly be teachers in service, without an appropriate qualification for this age-group, who seek formal recognition and accreditation.

Duration

A 2-year part-time course is recommended.

Method of Training

Distance education and lecture and activity-based workshop back-ups, to assist students in relating theory to practice, is recommended.

Course Evaluation

Candidates would be required to write an examination at the end of each year of study. Admission to the examination

would depend on credits obtained from assignments and on attendance at lectures and workshops.

General

This diploma would serve as an exit point for teachers not wishing to study further and as an entry point for those wishing to obtain a Diploma in the Foundation Phase. The Reception Class Diploma would form an integral component of this diploma and would lapse as an independent diploma once the diploma had been completed.

Level 3: Diploma for the Foundation Phase

INSET for Junior Primary Teachers and Reception Class Teachers

It is acknowledged that for a reception year to maximise educational and social opportunities for children, an educational continuum, between the reception year and junior primary phase of education, should be established. This can be achieved through employing effective teacher-training strategies, commencing with appropriate INSET training for underqualified Junior Primary teachers currently in service. Transformation of current teaching methods would necessitate that teachers commence with a Reception Class Diploma (Level 2) and work their way through the suggested levels of formal training.

It is envisaged that the BPP will continue in some schools, whilst reception class teachers are being trained. Teachers presenting the programme would, therefore, greatly benefit by undertaking a course of this nature, which would aim at

extending those trained in an autocratic, didactic mould and would give them greater insight into an activity-based, hands-on approach to teaching and learning, based on a developmentally-appropriate and facilitative teaching approach.

Target Group and Access to Training

It is envisaged that successful candidates who have passed Level 2 formal training, would gain access to training at this level. At the end of each year of training, candidates would receive appropriate course credits and QTS to teach the relevant grades which have been studied in a progressive order i.e. class 1, class 2 and standard 1.

Underqualified teachers entering this level would need to undertake training at Level 2, before receiving a Diploma in the Foundation Phase, as the reception class year marks the beginning of this phase.

Course Content and Accreditation

Candidates would receive credits for each year of training undertaken and would be awarded QTS to teach in a progressive sequence, namely class 1 (first year of study) and then class 2 and standard 1 (second year of study).

Course content would cover the syllabus to be taught.

On completion of the course candidates would be granted FEC+3 status.

It should be noted that the 2-year Reception Class Diploma would form an integral part of the Diploma for the Foundation Phase and would lapse as an independent diploma, once the Diploma for the Foundation Phase of Education had been obtained. It is proposed, however, that the Reception Class Diploma be considered as '*free-standing*' and self-contained for those teachers who wish to remain reception class teachers, e.g. teachers in pre-primary schools (the notion of a 2-year certificate which forms an integral part of a Diploma in Education and which lapses as an independent diploma once the DE has been obtained, is contained in the College of Education South Africa (CESA) Year Book (B3 & B7)).

Method

It is strongly proposed that the child-centred, action-based methodological approach used at the reception class level, be continued to transform current junior primary practice.

Duration

A 2-year part-time course is recommended.

Course Evaluation

Candidates would be required to write examinations at the end of each year, access of which would depend on lecture and workshop attendance and credits obtained from successfully completed assignments.

Level 4: Higher Diploma in Education with Specialist Options.

This diploma would grant teachers a 4-year training status i.e. FEC + 4) and is included as an optional extra for those teachers wishing to receive training equivalent to the majority of teachers in the higher phases of education. It is realised that few candidates would aspire to this level. For the purpose of this dissertation, this level would not be elaborated upon.

Course Structure for Establishing Career Paths for Teachers in the Foundation Phase

In the light of the aforementioned, an outline of a possible teacher education course curriculum is proposed. This proposal is based on the Document by Jarvis and Nicholls (1994), which outlines a reconstructed model for teacher education in South Africa.

Table 5.1
Course Curriculum for the Training of Teachers in the
Foundation Phase

Courses	Reception Class.Cert.	Reception Class Dip.	Diploma: Foundation Phase
Professional Studies: I - IV	Professional Studies: I 1.5 hours	Professional Studies: I & II. 1 hour	Professional Studies: III (class 1) Professional Studies IV (class 2)
Education: I & II		Education I 1.5 hours	Education II 1.5 hours
Applied Education Studies		Applied Edu- cation I. 0.5 hours	Applied Education II 0.5 hours
Academic Subject A: I & II		Language I 1.5 hours	Language II 1.5 hours
Academic Subject B: I II		Curriculum I 0.5 hours	Curriculum II 0.5 hours
Practice Teaching	Minimum 15 weeks R.C	Minimum 15 weeks. R.C.	Minimum 15 weeks - class 1, class 2 & standard 1

Time per week:

Contact time	2 hours	5 hours	5 hours
Self-directed	2 hours	5 hours	5 hours

Abbreviations:

*I, II, III, IV: courses offered in a particular
subject in a progressive sequence

* R.C. : reception class

Course Curriculum

The following curriculum structure, based on the Document, and which includes minor modifications, is outlined below (ibid. 1994:15-23). (Note: The original proposal by Jarvis & Nicholls is bracketed after the writer's proposal)

- * Education I & II (I)
Applied and Theoretical;
- * Professional Studies I, II & III (I & II)
Teaching Methodology;
- * Applied Education Studies I & II (Same)
Specialist Teaching;
- * Academic Subject A: I & II (Same)
Teaching Subject;
- * Academic Subject B: I & II (Same):
Teaching Subject

Education

Education refers to the academic and theoretical studies in education.

Professional Studies

Professional studies refers to curriculum method courses/modules in subjects which would be taught by the teacher in the classroom, e.g. music, art, environmental studies, mathematics, etc.

With reference to reception class teaching, the first module would cover the practical issues of reception class practice, whilst the second module would include subjects such as Technology Education, Natural Science and Environmental Education. Modules III and IV would cover junior primary subjects such as Audio-visual, General

Methods, Handwriting, School Librarianship and Chalkboard etc.

Applied Education

Applied education studies refers to, inter alia, specialist teaching components such as remedial education, specialised education, guidance and counselling. Teacher education would, therefore, become more generic and would promote an appreciation of the foundation phase curriculum (Jarvis & Nicholls ,1994:16), include the senior primary curriculum as well).

It is suggested that the applied studies incorporate core curriculum (compulsory) and elective courses/modules.

Whilst completing a foundation phase component, students would choose to do either remedial education, specialised education, guidance and counselling or even a community education course (for those who teach in rural areas).

Specific Curricular Issues

Remedial Education

This would be education directed towards the remediation of specific learning problems.

Specialised Education

This would be education directed towards addressing special academic and learning problems, physical problems, emotional

concerns and particular social needs.

Community Education

This would be education directed towards the community's well-being and development. It would include the teacher's role as community leader, resource person, development agent, etc.

Guidance and Counselling

This would be education to equip the teacher as counsellor, communicator, adviser and consultant.

Academic Subjects

In line with suggested policy on the promotion of multi-lingualism where all South African children are given access to, and are expected to learn, at least 2 South African languages throughout the period of compulsory schooling, as a subject and/or language of learning, the learning of at least 2 languages will be encouraged (ANC: Education Department, 1994:65). In line with this proposal, the following is proposed:-

- * Academic subjects A and B would be teaching subjects. Subject A would be a language and would encompass communication skills such as reading, writing and speaking. This could be a language of wider communication such as English;
- * Subject B would be a second language subject such as an African language or Afrikaans.

Practice Teaching

The college would remain responsible for the pre-service practice teaching periods in close consultation with schools. Various persons would need to assume re-defined and additional roles and functions as follows:-

- * College Practice Teaching Tutors
The college would remain responsible for the pre-service practice teaching periods and would closely consult with school personnel and employing authorities;
- * School Personnel
Teachers identified, appointed and trained as mentors, as well as school principals, would assume an important role in the practice teaching process;
- * Local Area Professional Officers
Each local area within a region would need to train and personnel to liaise with schools and colleges in respect of practice teaching and who would possibly be recruited from the ranks of Subject Advisors, to perform roles such as:-
 - the organising of workshops, seminars and conferences;
 - the enhancing of classroom competencies;
 - in-service education on subject methodology;
 - advising and subject promoting.

During practice teaching, student teachers would need to be prepared for, and exposed to, a variety of teaching contexts such as teaching in rural areas (Jarvis & Nicholls, 1994:22-23). The problems experienced in the Zintec model discussed in the previous chapter, namely teachers working in under-resourced schools who were unable to give adequate support

to students and the long distances required by tutors to travel to rural schools, would possibly be counteracted by the employment of local professional officers.

A Modularised Curriculum

A modularised curriculum is a strategy which accommodates different curriculum requirements and allows curricular choices and areas and degrees of specialisation and flexibility of time table design. Modularisation is well suited to full-time study, part-time study and distance education and facilitates 'credit-banking' and, with effective accreditation, transferability within and between institutions and education/training sectors (Jarvis & Nicholls, 1994:24).

A 5 YEAR PLAN FOR THE PHASING IN OF TEACHERS IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE

INSET and PRESET: Diploma for the Foundation Phase

The revitalisation and upgrading of most of the present lower primary school education would necessitate simultaneous INSET and PRESET for teachers reading for a Diploma in the Foundation Phase.

The scenario proposed by an Natal Working Group (edited by Robinson-Thurlow in Collocations, 1993:38-39) and which links with the formal INSET at Level 3 in Figure 5.1, could be phased-in simultaneously with the training of reception class teachers, over a 5 year period.

Internship

The feasibility of an internship which incorporates a 2-year practical component once the student has completed 2 years of full-time training at the college, is proposed.

During the 2 year internship period which is equal to 1 year's full-time training, the student would be salaried at a lower level than would apply once he/she was qualified. The use of distance education as a mode of training would run concurrently with the internship. This recommendation concurs with the proposal by the ERS (1992:45).

Strategy for Training Teachers for the Foundation Phase

The following figure outlines a 5-year phasing-in strategy for the training of teachers for the foundation phase, as developed by the Natal Education Working Group on Pre-Primary Education (1994:Annexure 1).

Figure 5.2: INSET:5-year Phasing-in Plan for Teacher-Training

INSET	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
Year 1	Class 1 teachers				
Year 2		Class 2 teachers			
Year 3			Standard 1 teachers		

Figure 5.3: PRESET: FEC + 3

PRESET FEC + 3	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
Year 1	1st yr. college	2nd yr. college	Field 1st yr.	Field 2nd yr.	
Year 2		1st yr. college	2nd yr. college	Field 1st yr.	Field 2nd yr.
Year 3			1st yr. college	2nd yr. College	Field 1st yr.
Year 4				1st yr. college	2nd yr. college
Year 5					1st yr. college

Figure 5.4: PRESET: FEC + 2

PRESET FEC + 2	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
Year 1	1 yr. college	Field 1st yr.	Field 2nd yr.		
Year 2		1 yr. college	Field 1st yr.	Field 2nd yr.	
Year 3			1 yr. college	Field 1st yr.	Field 2nd yr.
Year 4				1 yr. College	Field 1st yr.
Year 5					1 yr. college

Abbreviations:

* yr: year

Year 1**INSET****Target Group**

All class 1 teachers would be targeted.

General

Details of the course structure, method of training, etc. would be the same as for Level 2 training recommended in Figure 5.1.

PRESET

This Diploma would equip teachers to teach from reception class to standard 1.

Target Group

Approximately 1000 students per year should be encouraged to enrol for the course in order to staff reception classes. Special teacher-training bursaries could be made available to those students who are prepared to contract to carry out their 2-year in-service teaching component in rural areas.

Method of Training

The focus would be on those Colleges that have appropriately trained staff and/or access to qualified pre-primary teachers for part-time lecturing, tutoring and workshops.

Duration of Course

This would be a 2 + 2 course i.e. 2 years College and 2

years in the field.

Accreditation

FEC + 3 (1 year's full-time study equivalent to 2 year's part-time study).

Year 2

INSET

Target Group

INSET for class 1 teachers would continue and would be completed at the end of the year. INSET for class 2 teachers would be introduced.

PRESET

Target Group

The first batch of Diploma students would be in their second year of training. Another batch of 1000 students would be enrolled for the 1st year of the Course.

Year 3

INSET

Target Group

INSET for class 2 teachers would continue and would be completed at the end of the year. INSET for teachers would be introduced.

PRESET

Target Group

The first cohort of PRESET teachers would be employed in the schools to complete their first year of internship. QTS would be equivalent to FEC + 2. Priority would be given to disadvantaged areas where reception classes have been established. Teachers would be distributed between reception classes and class 1.

Highly competent class 1 teachers who have completed INSET could also move into reception classes, in order to establish a balance of experienced and new teachers.

A third batch of 1000 students would be enrolled for the Diploma course whilst the second batch of students would complete their final year at College.

Year 4

INSET

INSET for teachers would continue and would be completed at the end of the year.

PRESET

Target Group

A fourth cohort of 1000 students would be enrolled for the Diploma course whilst the second batch of College students would enter the field. The first cohort of students would complete their final year in the field and would receive their Diploma.

Year 5

PRESET

PRESET training of Foundation Phase Diplomates would continue. The second batch of students would complete their final year in the field and would receive their Diploma.

General

It is suggested that the placing of foundation phase students should receive priority at Training Colleges.

The phasing-in of reception classes could be achieved more rapidly if teachers undergoing PRESET did a shortened Diploma, i.e. 1 year at College and 2 years in the field.

An Internship Model

The ERS recommendation (1992:45) for a stronger practical teaching component and suggested investigation of a paid internship model, would be incorporated into the above 5-year plan for PRESET.

Advantages and Constraints of the 5-year Model

The plan incorporates the British 'Articled Teacher and Licensed Teacher Schemes which have the advantage of providing more teachers 'up front' and more practical and relevant on the job training, under the supervision of serving teachers/principals. Possible constraints would be appropriate role models in schools, the required back-up from lecturers in training colleges and the establishment of an effective partnership system between schools and training

colleges.

GOVERNANCE AND CONTROL

Junior primary teachers are trained almost exclusively at the Colleges of Education, which are responsible for the formal training of teachers while NGOs are the main providers for non-formal training of teachers for those working with children below the compulsory school-going age.

Technical Colleges and Technikons have played an increasing role in the training of teachers as Colleges have become less involved in the training of pre-primary teachers (Short, 1992b:27).

A Recommended "Plan of Action"

The recommended 'Plan of Action' outlined by the Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD) Study Team (1994:Executive Summary), merits consideration in the development of strategies in this section. A few of these will be briefly outlined:-

*** Phasing-in of Reception Classes**

It is recognised that for the state to include a reception year for 5-year olds within the 10 year compulsory provision period, lack of infrastructure will delay full implementation of the reception year, throughout the country.

Reception classes for 5-year olds should, therefore, be phased in over a 5-year period, so that by the end of the 5th year, 100% of 5-year olds would have access to a reception class.

Only when provision is made for all 5-year olds, would attendance be compulsory.

This is projected to be in the year 2000

(ibid.49).

This projection may be tabulated as follows
(Note: the younger age cohorts have been omitted):-

Table 5.2: Phasing-in of Reception Class Provision: A 5-Year Plan

AGE	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
5-6 yrs	20 %	40%	60%	80%	100%

(ibid. 48)

- * **Resource and Training Centres (RTCs)**
In South Africa, the major lifeline for providing and supporting communities in ECD has been the NGOs.
RTCs need to be established in each Province to provide training and support to ECD programmes.
Current NGOs could be accredited and contracted to serve as RTCs by the government (ibid. 40 & 45);
- * **Staffing**
While, ultimately, it is envisaged that reception classes be staffed by Level 3-trained teachers (non-formal), there are not enough teachers currently trained at this level.
Initially, the equivalent of Level 2, non-formally-trained Teachers would be necessary to work with the target group, whilst they received specific training in the developmental needs of the 5 year-olds, through an Extension Course which would also include programming for teaching the junior primary grades;
- * **Training**
Training for those working in reception classes would be provided through accredited RTCs. Junior primary teachers would also be given the opportunity to undertake an Extension Course in order to upgrade their expertise (ibid. 51);
- * **Training Costs**
Teacher-training would be in the hands of NGOs, training colleges, universities and

technical colleges.

A summary of the costs of training ECD personnel in the formal and non-formal sector, at all 4 levels, is outlined below:-

Table 5.3: Costs of Non-Formal and Formal ECD Training

Levels	Non-formal	Formal
Level 1	R 3 000	N/A
Level 2	R 6 000	R15 000
Level 3	R 9 000	R30 000
Level 4	N/A	R50 000

(ibid. 87)

In costing the training, it is assumed that a quarter of all Level 2 and Level 3 training would be provided through formal means. Although this is not the case, it is anticipated that formal training would increase to meet the demands for early childhood educators.

Table 5.4 provides summary of training costs in relation to projected need.

Table 5.4: Training Costs for the Period 1995 - 1999 in Million Rands

Level	1995	1996	1997	1998	2000
Level 1: N/formal	79.7	87.5	91.8	96.4	101.0
Level 2: N/formal	40.0	39.1	41.3	43.1	46.0
Formal	26.3	27.9	29.7	31.1	32.9
Total	66.3	67.0	71.0	74.2	78.9
Level 3: N/formal	7.6	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.9
Formal	10.8	6.0	6.3	6.6	6.9
Total	18.4	10.2	10.7	11.3	11.8
Level 4: Formal	1.3	0.3		0.3	0.3
TOTAL	165.7	165.0	173.08	182.2	192.0

(ibid. 88)

* **The Reception Class Programme**

The reception class year should be offered both in community-based and school-based settings, provided that the former meets required standards. The implementation plan provides for a maximum of 30% of 5 year-olds requiring full-day services by 1999. The recommendation is based on the HOR policy of subsidizing the 5 year-olds in community schools, as well as providing pre-primary classes at primary schools (ibid.84);

* **Implementation Costs**

In addition to the training costs outlined in Table 5.5, the implementation costs include programme costs which actually provide the service, as well as costs related to bringing large numbers of 5-year olds into the education system within a short space of time. These costs include the building of classrooms and the initial outlay of equipment.

A number of classrooms currently house the bridging classes in the ex-DET, in the larger schools. Also to be taken into account are the HOR pre-primary classes, the HOD Bridging Module Reception Classes and an unknown number of HOA reception classes.

Also to be borne in mind are schools with under-utilised classrooms and community schools with appropriate space.

Many primary schools would, however, require additional classrooms.

A costing exercise below, based on an existing base of 1 000 classrooms is assumed and only reception classes are projected (ibid. 88-89).

Table 5.5: Number of Classrooms required by Year.

Year	Number	Cost
1995	* 3461	138 440 000
1996	4536	181 400 000
1997	4821	192 840 000
1998	5035	201 400 000
1999	5343	231 720 000

* Note: 1 000 are currently available

A further summary is given, of training and classroom costs for the years 1995 - 1999 (The 0 - 4 age cohort is omitted) (ibid. 89)

Table 5.6: Training and Classroom costs for the years 1995-1999

ECD Services 5 yr olds	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Full day	73	147	226	308	396
Reception	121	242	373	509	653
C/rooms	138	181	193	201	214
Equip.	36	36	39	40	43
Subtotal	368	606	831	1058	1306
Training	86	77.5	82	85.8	91
TOTAL	454	683.5	913	1144.8	1397

(Note: The above figures have been amended to exclude the 0 -4 age cohort. The training figures only include non-formal training costs from Level 2, as it is assumed that teachers trained at this level would work in reception classes.

Programmes have been costs using an adapted version of the Lotus spreadsheet designed for the background cost-study for the Early Childhood Educare Commission of the NEPI Investigation in 1992. Patchett and Biersteker updated the costs in 1993, using a modified spreadsheet which included capital and training costs. Financial Advisor to the CEPD has endorsed this modification as being sound and adequate for this task (ibid. 82)).

*** Targeting of Specific Communities**

In recognition of the fact that in year 1 it will not be possible to fully implement the recommendation of a reception class year for all children, it is suggested that specific communities be targeted for preferential receipt of services on the basis of income level, general literacy level, current access to education, infrastructural indicators such as running water and health and nutritional status (ibid. 81).

The Community College

The Community College concept as developed in the United States and discussed in the previous chapter is designed to give people of all ages, access to continuing education and training opportunities through full-time and part-time courses. Open admission policies for accredited and other courses relevant to local needs, are important characteristics. There is, therefore, a strong move to establish colleges of this nature in South Africa (Short, 1992b:35).

South African Adaptation

The Community College concept would become a mechanism for facilitating transfer and continuity between non-formal and formal training opportunities, as well as transfer from secondary to tertiary levels, whilst simultaneously co-ordinating training taking place in a variety of institutions and agencies (ibid.70).

Academic Transfer

The proposed Reception Class Certificate in Figure 5.1 could be offered with the option to transfer to a teacher-training college to complete a Reception Class Diploma, followed by

an option to complete the Diploma for the Foundation Phase. The candidate would also be offered the opportunity to further his/her general education, if applicable, from a GEC to a FEC.

Structure

The College would be structured in the same way as universities with a similar system of funding to ensure partnership between the state, the private sector and the community.

Location

As flexible associations of linked training centres regionally located, community colleges would make the best use of existing resources. On the non-formal side, community colleges could provide a 'home' for the NGO training agencies. This would also provide a means of subsidisation and certification of courses within the broader spectrum of education and training. It has been suggested by the ERS and the Education Foundation and supported by the Federation of Technical Colleges that technical colleges could broaden their mission to become community colleges (ACCORD 1992 in Short 1992b:36).

Course Structure and Accreditation

A system of course accreditation is also essential in facilitating transfer between formal and non-formal training and offers an important means for ensuring the implementation of a unified educational approach through a

common set of curriculum guidelines.

In many American states, recognition as a licensed early childhood teacher requires completion of an accredited formal teacher-training programme (college degree), as well as an additional assessment, such as the National Teacher Examination. In some cases the completion of a probationary period (experience) is required. A basic principle of accreditation is that it allows judgements about courses or programmes being of equal worth without having to be the same. This principle is relevant in establishing equivalence between formal and non-formal training courses. Courses would need to be constructed on a modular/credit basis to facilitate transfer and progression.

Within each sector, e.g. course accreditation would be handled by the same body which would be representative of the phase and both formal and non-formal training. These would be independent boards accredited by an appropriate state department (ibid.70-72).

A Collegium

Proposals by the former Natal Teachers' Society (NTS) in the NEPI Teacher Education Sectoral Report (1992:47-52) for the development of a Collegiate structure for the governance of teacher education and the control of standards and certification merit consideration in developing an appropriate system of control of teacher certification and assessment.

A distinctive feature of the former NTS proposal for the control of teacher education is their recommendation of a 3-tiered collegiate structure, as follows:-

- * Individual College Councils;
- * Regional College Councils;
- * A Collegium or Central College Council.

As the national governing council for colleges, the Collegium would serve as a 2-way channel between the State and colleges and would liaise with university and technikon councils. Other functions would include:-

- * institution quality control (including control of (NGOs issuing Reception Class Certificates);
- * the accommodation of regional and local needs;
- * evaluation of course equivalence status;
- * evaluation of college staff;
- * evaluation of individual courses.

Membership

Membership of the Collegium would comprise elected representatives from Regional College Councils, Ministerial representation. Broader stakeholder representation (not mentioned by the NTS) to include NGOs, members of recognised teacher associations and other relevant members of the private sector, would also be included.

Advantages

The model makes for appropriate college autonomy, a linking of regional and local networks and a sharing of resources i.e. for a linking of weaker colleges with stronger ones (Jarvis in NTS, 1993:4).

Teacher Certification and Assessment

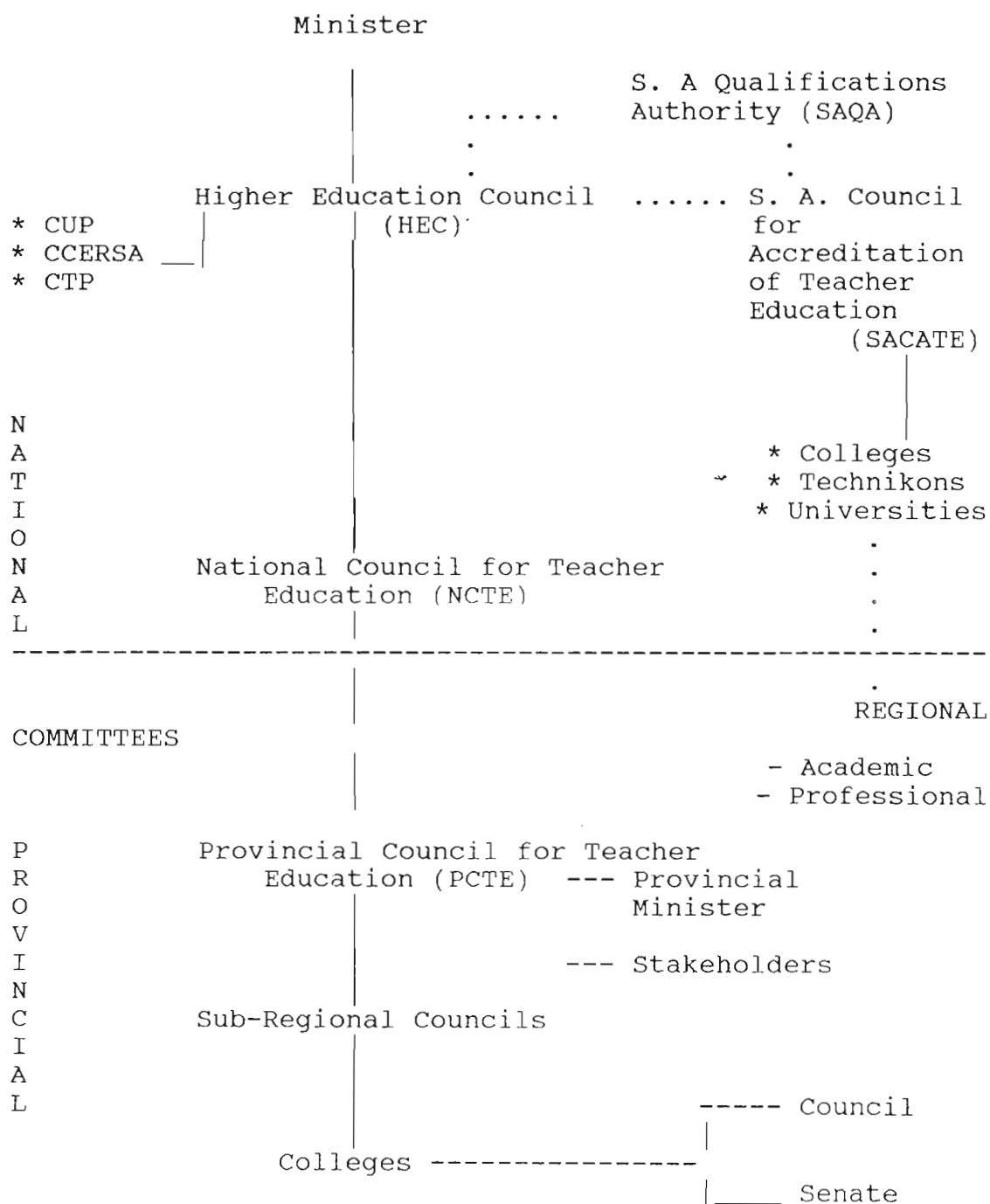
The Collegium is proposed as the central body for course and institutional validation and accreditation. Presumably, one of the implications of institutional autonomy within a collegiate structure is that colleges would issue their own certificates, underwritten by the Collegium, in partnership with the state.

Teacher Accountability and Professional Development ~

Although the former NTS do not make explicit mention of teacher accountability, it is the writer's view that Formative Phase members of teacher organizations would have an important role to play in mounting INSET courses which would not only provide personal and professional growth of teachers, but school growth as well. A Provincial Council for Teacher Education (PCTE) would draw on members from the teaching profession to develop course curricula.

PROJECTED PATTERN OF GOVERNANCE AND CONTROL

Figure 5.5: Schematic representation of the Accreditation Structures for Teacher Education (Jarvis & Nicholls, 1994:33).



Code:

----- Line of authority

..... Line of advice &
recommendation**Abbreviations:**

- * CUP = Committee of University Principals
- * CTP = Committee of Technikon Principals
- * CCERSA = Committee of Colleges of Education Rectors in South Africa

The System would function as follows:-

- * **The Minister**
The Minister would have overall legislative and executive responsibility for matters pertaining to teacher education;
- * **Higher Education Council (HEC)**
This Council, as a representative body would interact with the minister regarding policy implementation and determining policy framework. The framework within which teacher education qualifications are derived would be negotiated with interested parties such as teacher educators and the organised teaching profession;
- * **South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)**
This Authority would have the overall responsibility for assessing standards and comparability of all post secondary qualifications, including those in the teacher education and training sectors.

A National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)

The proposal for a division within the National Ministry of Education and Training to plan the development of teacher education as a sector of higher education in partnership with provincial and local governments is likely to be implemented by the present government. This would include

a representative National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) which would advise the Minister on matters of policy such as admission requirements, duration of courses, course structure, curricula content, etc. (ANC: Education Department, 1994:51)

The proposal for a Collegium structure would possibly fit into this new structure and be accommodated within a Higher Education Council (HEC) (outlined below). There is a need for clearly defined national standards and local option for teacher education. Resources should be optimally utilized and developed and the accreditation of teacher education qualifications should be articulated within and between different education sectors (Jarvis & Nicholls, 1994:31).

Both teacher education institutions and curriculum course structures have been are accredited by the former employing authorities. *"The National Criteria for the Evaluation of Qualifications"* have been drawn up and applied by the ex-Committee of Heads of Education (CHED). These criteria have been statutory and, so far, no opportunity has been provided for a negotiated curriculum (Le Roux, 1993:39-40).

All PRESET and INSET courses leading to salary recognition would need to be submitted to NCTE. A modular and flexible system of accreditation would need to be formalised, namely the NGO modules which are offered on a part-time or distance education basis. A modular system of this nature would accelerate the production of teachers in areas of need, such

as reception class teachers and would promote the mobility of students between teacher education institutions.

Institutional curriculum designs would be submitted to NCTE for negotiation and approval. Courses would be approved within a general policy framework defined by the SACATE, who would make final policy decisions. It is hoped that more creative, imaginative and different curricula might then emerge.

Regional Committees

Representatives from the different teacher education institutions would serve on academic and professional regional committees. 1 representative from each regional committee would serve on the SACATE Academic and the SACATE Professional Committee.

South African Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education

(SACATE)

This Council would work within the policy framework determined by the HEC and would be responsible for institutional accreditation and development of colleges of education/community colleges, course validation and development (universities, technikons and colleges of education), teacher certification (universities, technikons and colleges of education), as well as teacher educator credentialling and development in all 3 types of training institutions.

General Comment

Jarvis and Nicholls state that the proposed structure should not be hierarchical and authoritarian in nature, but should aim to build institutional and personal confidence, so as to promote critical reflection and self-regulation. Peer review, whether between individuals, institutions or bodies is seen to be a process between equals, best achieved by shared responsibility and concern for development (1994: 34-39)

SUMMARY

This section has attempted to develop strategies to train and accredit teachers for the foundation phase of education, using a 5-year phase-in strategy. A system to link formal and non-formal training opportunities and develop a nationally-recognised accreditation structure, have been also outlined. Recommendations by the CEPD/World Bank Study Team based on a South African Study on Early Childhood Development, has been included to highlight important implications in the introduction of a reception class year over a phased-in period.

The next section will focus on the KwaZulu-Natal region. Both Discussion Documents namely the *"Regional Perspective on Reconstructing Education: A Discussion Document of the Natal Education Board"* and *"A Unitary Department of Education"*, prepared by the Interdepartmental Working Groups, will be examined in the light of the strategies proposed in this section.

CHAPTER 6

KWAZULU-NATAL IN CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

The transition to full democracy in South Africa heralds heightened expectations for early change in the provision of education. Although the full extent of the devolution of autonomy and authority for basic education to the 9 new provinces are as yet unclear, the merging and re-dividing of current education departments under the stewardship of the 9 new bureaucracies, and the determining and developing of financial flows, in the shortest achievable time frame, suggest an entirely new paradigm for education reconstruction. It is at this provincial level that the crisis of expectation must be addressed within "national policy guidelines (The Education Foundation, 1994 in EduSource:1).

In 1992, an initiative based upon the unification of the separate education departments in the KwaZulu-Natal region was embarked upon by the five regional Directors of Education. An inter-departmental education working group was constituted to undertake this planning task. In 1993, a report entitled "*A Regional Perspective on Reconstructing Education*" was officially released. Based on the view of how the incumbent systems view change, and bearing in mind the primary requirement of equalising educational provision to all pupils, the paper, commissioned by the Natal Education Board (NEB), presents a set of issues and options at the regional level and offers practical recommendations,

based on a "*bottom-up set of needs and service ratios*" which it translates into resource requirements (Natal/KwaZulu Inter-departmental Education Working Group, 1993:Foreword).

After its official release and in the light of new developments, such as the emergence of the Education Co-ordination Service (ECS), the National Education and Training Forum (NETF) and a stronger political position on regionalisation and provincial powers, it was suggested that the Working Group re-convene and revise and/or elaborate on the original paper. Whilst the 1993 Report was acknowledged as a noteworthy model, it was felt that significant role players, namely teachers, parents and community organizations, had been excluded (KwaZulu-Natal Inter-departmental Education Working Group, 1994:Foreword).

The main aim of the revised, 1994 Report entitled "*A Unitary Department of Education: Discussion Document for Geographic Natal*", is the proactive planning for the unification of the 5 separate education departments in KwaZulu-Natal, into a single provincial department. Recommendations made are aimed at providing practical strategies and a common rationale, for the functioning of the separate departments as a single, unified regional department, during an interim period of educational transformation (ibid.Forward).

The aim of this section will be to focus on the updated NEB Report, refer to the original report where necessary and to consider the proposals made in the light of the writer's

research.

CURRENT PERSPECTIVES

The key issue emerging from current education statistics corresponding to the new provinces is the educational disparities between them. Central to a provincial perspective is the urban/non-urban dimension of education provision and delivery. Urban areas are classified as those which are strictly located within the boundaries of recognised local authorities, whilst non-urban areas are those which are located outside the boundaries and cannot be assumed to mean rural, although this is so in many cases (The Education Foundation, 1994 in EduSource:1).

Data reveals that the degree of education redress varies widely among the provinces. A strong correlation exists between pupil enrolment and the extent of provincial education disparities. Provinces with the highest enrolment tend to have proportionately less resources in terms of teachers, classrooms and schools (ibid. 1). Pupil enrolment varies from under 200 000 pupils in the Northern Cape to over 2 million in the KwaZulu-Natal region. KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Transvaal are the 'worst off' in a number of respects. They have experienced the largest shortage of pupil places both at primary and secondary level, a fairly unfavourable pupil/teacher ratio and relatively few support and administrative staff. In addition, it is noted that KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape have many more primary school enrolments compared to

pupils in the secondary phases. One may speculate that this may be attributed to the drop-out rate in the secondary phase, the availability of fewer secondary schools, or the high incidence of pupils who live far apart in the rural areas where there are less schools and who have to attend schools in other areas. It is noted that African schools in all provinces are over-enrolled.

In KwaZulu-Natal, African primary schools are over-enrolled by 39%. Should these children occupy all empty places in other schools in the region, there would still be a shortage of some 346 000 places. In addition, these figures do not take into account children of school-going age who are not in school. In terms of pupil/teacher ratio, the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal have the highest number of pupils per teacher at primary school level, namely 54:1 and 42:1, respectively. The following table provides a regional comparison between primary pupils and teachers and the pupil/teacher ratios in public ordinary schools.

Table 6.1 : Primary Pupils & Teachers in Ordinary Public Schools

Region	Pupils	Teachers	Ratio
W Cape	511 734	19 784	26:1
N Cape	127 826	4 693	27:1
OFS	477 704	13 596	35:1
E Cape	1 639 256	30 259	54:1
KZ/Ntl	1 500 435	36 086	42:1
E Tvl	497 951	12 741	39:1
N Tvl	1 153 715	29 130	40:1
PWV	833 235	25 960	32:1
North West	601 703	16 232	37:1
TOTAL	7 343 559	188 481	39:1

(The Education Foundation, 1994 in EduSource, March:11. Profile based on 1992 & 1993 data)

New Provinces and their abbreviations:

*	EC	:	Eastern Cape
*	ET	:	Eastern Transvaal
*	KZN	:	KwaZulu-Natal
*	NC	:	Northern Cape
*	NT	:	Northern Transvaal
*	NW	:	North West
*	OFS	:	Orange Free State
*	PWV	:	Pretoria, Witwatersrands/Vereeniging
*	WC	:	Western Cape

(Education Foundation, 1994 in EduSource, June:4)

Development of strategies to address the abovementioned issues will need to take regional disparities into account. When allocating financial resources, it should be the responsibility of the government to ensure that provinces are able to put education on a more equal footing, both in terms of quantity and quality (The Education Foundation, March 1994:10-12).

"A UNITARY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION"

Key Principles

The first chapter of the KwaZulu-Natal Report is devoted to a statement of key principles which serve as a frame of reference for all recommendations made in the document, i.e. they are sustained and carried throughout. The principles are listed below and only those which pertain to the writer's research, will be elaborated upon.

Principle 1: *"Education as a basic human right.";*

Principle 2: *"Education must be guided by goals of democracy, equality, liberty and justice within the framework of a non-racial, non-sexist society.";*

- Principle 3: *"The institutions of society should be transformed in the interests of all its citizens.";*
- Principle 4 *"The culture of learning must be promoted.";*
- Principle 5: *"A lean, efficient education bureaucracy must be established.";*
- Principle 6: *"The financial allocation for the province must be equitably determined.";*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:1-5)

PRINCIPLE 1: "EDUCATION AS A BASIC HUMAN RIGHT"

Implications:

With reference to the foundation phase of education, the following implications are highlighted:

- * *"A school readiness programme (reception class) should be accepted as a fundamental and integral part of the state education system and must be provided for in all education planning;*
- * *Formal education should start with the reception class. The child should turn 5 during this year.";*
- * *A period of compulsory basic education is essential for all children. The ideal is 1 + 12 years (1 year reception + 12 years formal). The minimum goal for compulsory and free education should be 1 + 9 years (1 year reception + 9 years formal);*
- * *"Economic factors will determine the duration of the period in which education will be compulsory and free. This period should be extended on a progressive basis." (ibid.1)*

The Reception Year

In Chapter 3 of the 1994 Report, the reception class year is fully discussed. In the preamble, the term 'reception classes' is defined as classes that cater for children who turn 5 years of age during the year of admission. They form part of pre-primary schools registered with an education department, or may be attached to primary schools. These classes are taught by qualified/trained teachers who

implement developmentally-appropriate methodology and the programme has a strong educational component.

Economic, socio-political realities and human resource constraints dictate that formal education can only incorporate the reception class year. Consequently, institution-based programmes for the 3 and 4 year-old age groups will remain privatised, i.e. remain the responsibility of the community and other sectors (ibid. 39).

In a Draft Discussion Document, the ANC (1994:99) in their policy proposals advocate 1 year of pre-school education within the period of General Education (GE) (mentioned in the writer's previous chapter). The recommendations made by the Working Group are, therefore, justified.

Principles of provision

A number of principles in instituting the reception class are outlined. Proposals submitted by the Natal Education Working Group on Pre-Primary Education to the Committee have been acknowledged and are outlined as "*principles of provision*" as follows:-

Principle 1: *"Children should enter reception classes in the year that they turn 5."* (ibid. 39);

The principle that children should enter reception classes in the year that they turn 5, needs careful consideration. The current practice in White education has been that many children have entered the reception class year, already

having turned 5 the previous year (between July and December), whilst others are still 4 and a half. The continuing problem of underage enrolments of Black children in the ex-DET bridging period programmes, introduced in Sub-standard A (SSA/Grade 1) where some children are sent to school at 4 years of age or younger, has exacerbated the many problems with regard to suitably qualified teachers for the age cohort, teacher support by the relevant subject advisors, overcrowding and a school readiness programme which is difficult for teachers to follow and implement. As a result, some children repeat SSA (sometimes more than twice) on the basis of their age alone (CEPD)/World Bank, 1994:20 & 137). A high congestion rate in SSA classes may possibly be attributed to failure, over-age and under-age enrolments. The impact of a pre-primary programme which enforces an age-appropriate admission policy may simply be to shift children to the correct "grade" (ibid.21).

Although not explicitly stated, these factors have been considered in the KwaZulu-Natal Education Working Group's Report (1994:70), where it is stated that the junior primary phase (Grades 1,2 and 3) should be regarded as being of 4 year's duration to allow for late maturers. It is, therefore, likely that under-age enrolments may repeat Grade 3.

Principle 2: *"Reception classes should not be viewed as a possible 'add-on' component, but as the very foundation of the state education system."* (ibid.40);

In the light of current viewpoints on pre-primary education, which have prevailed over the years, this principle deserves consideration. It is appropriately highlighted by Caldwell (in Kagan, 1991:69 & 70), who states that education is shaped by marked discontinuities. Nowhere is this discontinuity more striking than in the educational settings available during the early years of life, with the most appropriate labels for this period pre-empting programmes designed for older children. Consequently, educational programmes for the early years have had to accept an assortment of semantic compromises, typically compounded out of the syllable 'pre' and some other term with a fairly clear connotative meaning, i.e. pre-school, pre-primary etc. Although the early childhood field has gained in status, it is still considered 'pre-educational'. The lack of public conviction has not earned it the right to be considered the 'first rung on the educational ladder'.

It is, therefore, essential that reception classes be seen as being the foundation of the education system and not just an 'add-on' component.

Principle 3: *"As these classes would be an integral part of the school system, it is suggested that terms like 'pre-school year', 'bridging classes' and 'school readiness classes' be avoided and the term 'reception class' be consistently used to avoid confusion in future policy debate."*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:40);

Caldwell (ibid. 72) further elaborates on the issue of legitimacy and states that part of the problem of 'remaining

outside the system', is that early childhood programmes have had to contend with a "*cacophony*" of labels, e.g. childcare, daycare, creche, etc. '*Reception class*' as a uniform term is, therefore, appropriate.

Principle 4: *"Reception classes should be state-funded."*
 (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education
 Working Group, 1994:40);

To test the affordability of a "*school readiness programme*", calculations based on present statistical data which include the Apex model as a check, are made in the 1993 Report. 2 different scenarios are outlined, namely "*financing as a percentage of the national education budget*" and "*per capita financing*".

Financing as a Percentage of the National Education Budget

Figures based on the current national education budget of 19.5% suggest a projected and more feasible allocation based on the region's rightful minimum allocation of 22%. Further budget projections of 25% and 28% and a per capita cost of R2 000 per pupil, are also made which generate additional amounts of R972 million and R1 503 million, respectively. (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1993:49). The recommendation for a 1-year school readiness programme aimed at all 5 year-olds, targets an estimated figure of 342 328 pupils which is equal to Class One enrolment figures. The need for 9 509 additional teachers required to implement the programme would cost the state an additional R442 million (*ibid.* 49). Parity of class sizes

between the different education departments would result in class sizes of approximately 46 and 35 in primary and secondary schools respectively. A more reasonable average class size of 36 in the primary school and 30 in the secondary school is, therefore suggested to ensure a more acceptable standard of education. An increase of R442 million is seen to be sufficient to implement the readiness year, but with class sizes slightly more than the proposed 36 (ibid. 50).

Per Capita Financing

The second scenario based on a per capita funding states that the present budget of R3 447 million finances 2 144 179 pupils. Considering a minimum per capita amount of R2 000 per pupil, a budget of 4 288 million would be required. This is a gain of R841 million and would accommodate the R474 million required to implement a school readiness programme (ibid. 51). The proposal for a state-funded reception class year is, therefore, justifiable.

Principle 5: *"Developmentally-appropriate curriculum content and methodology must be ensured."* (ibid. 40);

Principle 6: *"Methodology should be largely non-formal, activity-based and child-centred. It should not be a 'watered down' version of formal Class 1."* (ibid.40);

This view concurs with the CEPD/World Bank Study (1994:31), where it is argued that a year of pre-school education has value in, and of itself, and should not be seen as a time of

preparation for something else. Readiness for learning, from a developmental perspective is the outcome of maturation and past experience and environmental factors play an important part in accelerating or de-accelerating the child's development. The holistic development of the child is all important. The concept of '*developmentally-appropriate methodology*' is succinctly explained Elkind (in Kagan, 1991:3) and needs to be expounded in order to clarify the Working Group's principle.

Within the developmental philosophy of education, the learner is viewed as having developing mental abilities. All individuals, with the exception of the retarded are assumed to attain these abilities, albeit at a different pace. Abilities are viewed as '*growing*' and the important task, therefore, is to '*match curricula*' to the level of the child's emerging mental abilities. Curricula materials should, thus, only be introduced once the child has attained a certain level of mental ability needed to master those materials. Based on Piagetian principles of child development, this approach clearly demonstrates that children acquire certain concepts in a sequence of stages related to age.

In an article entitled "*Empowering the Child*", Kemp (1994 in HSRC, April/May:12-14) refers to the HSRCs' Programme of Early Education. In a recently completed study conducted over a two year period, the need for the development of a more play-based approach in early education which allows the

child to discover and explore, as opposed to the child being taught didactically is proposed as a top priority in the development of curriculum enrichment for South African children. Both principles are, therefore, educationally sound.

Principle 7: *"A regional 'core-curriculum' should be agreed upon, with but the reception class programme should be flexible enough to accommodate locally specific content."*
(Natal/ZwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:40);

This principle concurs with one of the key principles of the report, namely that *"Education must be guided by the goals of democracy, equality, liberty and justice within the framework of a non-racial, non-sexist society"* (ibid. 2). Herein, it is stated that the curriculum must ensure *"a nationally-determined basic core curriculum"* and, inter alia, *"provision for significant regional extensions to, and options within, the nationally-determined core"* and *"provision for multi-cultural issues"* (ibid. 2).

Elkind (in Kagan, 1991:11) states that curriculum should be localized, particularly for elementary children. A nationally-imposed curriculum can eliminate the possibility of individualizing curricular materials to include particulars from the local environment where the children actually live and learn. Such localized curricula can have a great deal of intrinsic interest for children. She further adds that the danger of a national curriculum is that it often utilizes uniform content for all children - it is the

uniform content, not the general goals of such a curriculum which can be inappropriate.

Kemp (1994 in HSRC, April/May:12-14) states that historically, educationists have attributed the high rate of early school failure to a poor quality home environment that does not prepare the child adequately for school and, subsequently, provides them with little or no support to get through the school system. The HSRCs recently-conducted shows conclusively that our black South African 5 year-olds are closely on a par with Western European children in their year before school. Findings suggest that, inter alia, content of educational materials used in the early school curriculum should be made more indigenous if they are to succeed in teaching children more effectively, i.e. they should reflect the child's unique daily experiences.

This principle, too, should be supported.

Principle 8: *"The aims and philosophy of reception classes should be consistent with the principles of sound pre-primary and educare practice in this country. (Current education structures do not recognise the fundamental differences that exist between successful teaching and learning in early childhood education and that of later years, when children can operate largely on a symbolic or abstract level of conceptualisation."*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:40)

Principle 9: *"For a reception class programme to maximise educational and social benefits, it must be part of an educational continuum in early childhood education. Marked disjunction should not occur between the pre-school and the reception class or between the reception*

class and junior primary classes. There is a need to create a cohesive learning continuum with regard to content, approach and methodology for pre-primary, reception year and junior primary. (The reconstruction of primary schooling experienced by the majority of children in the region must receive urgent attention." (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:40);

In a review of longitudinal studies examining the effect of early interventions on school progress and performance in primary school, in 10 less developed countries, Myers (in NEPI:Early Childhood Educare, 1992:3-5) states that any attempts to strengthen primary schools must include interventions developed for the pre-school years through "*a combined approach to early childhood and the early years of primary school education.*" He further adds that there is increasing evidence to suggest that adverse structural conditions and poor quality primary schooling can negate the effects of pre-primary programmes on school progress and performance. The NEPI: Early Childhood Educare Research Group state that continuity between the learning environments of the home, the pre-school and the primary school is essential. Programmes should focus both on improving children's readiness for school and on improving schools' readiness for children. The learning styles of children up to the age of 8 or 9 years differ fundamentally from those of older children (ibid.5).

The recommended "*Plan of Action*" compiled by the CEPD/World Bank Study Team entitled "*Report on South African Study on Early Childhood Development: Recommendations for Action in*

Support of Young Children" (1994: Executive Summary iv) acknowledge the need for provision of universal pre-primary education for 5 year-olds, prior to entry into the formal system, which should not be offered in lieu of, or apart from, school reform at the junior primary level. In assessing the feasibility of including a 5-year old year in the formal school system as a means of addressing the issues of drop-out and repetition rates, the Study Team are consistent with the stated principles above. They acknowledge the need for developmentally appropriate curriculum and teaching methodologies as apposed to the narrow focus on 'school readiness' (ibid.3).

In support of the above principles, the ANC Draft Discussion Document (1994:99) in *"re-conceptualising the early years of schooling"*, propose that strategies should be developed *"to promote greater continuity between early childhood educare and school"*.

Recommendations

In the light of the above reception class principles, the following recommendations are made by the KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group (1994:41):-

- * *"Reception classes should be accepted as a fundamental and integral part of the state education system and should be provided for in the planning for a unitary system of education."*
- * *"Funding of reception classes and junior primary education should be given priority within the education budget on the grounds of both educational efficiency and equity."*

- * *"Policy should reflect these decisions and should be strongly advocated at regional and national forum."*
- * *"The phase-in of reception classes and the upgrade of Junior Primary education should take place simultaneously. Planning should begin immediately with an introduction date of 1995."*

The South African Study on Early Childhood Development (CEPD/World Bank, 1994: Executive Summary (iv)) propose that reception classes for 5 year-olds be phased in over a period of 5 years. By the end of the five year period, all 5 year-olds should have access to a reception class (ibid. 48) (refer to previous section).

In addition, recommendations for reception classes to be accepted as a basic and integral part of the formal system are recommended by the ANC (ANC Education Department, 1994:10). In their Draft Discussion Document they state that *"this new compulsory general education phase will be of a high quality, starting with a reception year, and proceeding for a further 9 years to what is now Standard 7"*.

Period of Compulsory and Free Schooling

With respect to a period of compulsory education, the 1993 Report, in its *"Commentary, Conclusions and Recommendations"*, suggest flexibility in enforcement, the objective of which is *"to ensure that educational opportunities are freely available to all who qualify in terms of the law."* (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1993:53).

As already mentioned, a minimum period of 10 years compulsory basic and free education is recommended, i.e. 1 year reception class + 9 years formal schooling, whilst 1 year reception class and 12 years of formal education is regarded as being the ideal (ibid. 1). This principle is endorsed by the ANC in their Draft Discussion Document (1994:10).

The concept of a period of free education is seen to be the responsibility of the state whose role should be the provision of teachers and school facilities (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1993:53). The Committee points out that, although this period of free education should be extended for as many years as is possible, within the parameters of the budget, parents should also make a direct financial contribution to the cost of educating their children, in a progressive manner as children move through the education system. This principle is educationally justifiable in that it has been made obligatory in African and other developing countries (ibid.53).

The 1994 Report suggests that economic factors will, however, be the ultimate determining factor in the duration of compulsory and free education (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:1).

Provided that the region receives its equitable share of the budget, a school readiness programme is seen to be affordable (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education

Working Group, 1993:61). This view concurs with those stated in the ANC Draft Discussion Document (1994:39), where it is proposed that a partnership system between, inter alia, parents be the foundation of the education financing system.

Table 6.2 indicates the projected primary education forecasts for KwaZulu-Natal for the period 1995 - 2000.

Table 6.2 : Primary Education Forecasts for KwaZulu/Natal: 1995 -2000

Group	1995	2000
African	1 618 750	1 989 580
Coloured	20 990	22 610
Indian	11 430	121 660
White	62 850	65 400
TOTAL	1 714 020	2 199 250

(Jacobs, 1992 in EduSource:39)

PRINCIPLE 3: "THE INSTITUTIONS OF SOCIETY SHOULD BE TRANSFORMED IN THE INTERESTS OF ALL ITS CITIZENS"

Implications

* *"The aspirations of the population must be catered for as high priority."*
This implies:-

- a total reconstruction of existing educational structures at national and all other levels, and not merely a modification;
- the achievement of basic literacy and numeracy;
- curriculum structure, content and methodology to facilitate education in a multi-cultural society;

* *Imbalances in educational provision must be*

addressed.

This includes:-

- an accelerated school building and upgrading programme in deprived rural and urban areas;
 - greater financial support for existing rural and urban schools in deprived areas; and
 - incentives for staff to move to, or stay in, remote and rural areas;
- * *Effective development of all involved in the management and administration of education is essential to democratise the process.*
- * *Programmes must be developed to cater for continuing education."*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:3-4)

Comment

This principle forms one of the key values stated by the ANC in their Draft Discussion Document on Education and Training (1994:3), namely the pursuit of national reconstruction and development and transformation of institutions of society in the interests of all its citizens.

The need for more and better school buildings is stated as a matter of urgency and the systematic rehabilitation of schools and institutions, optimal usage of existing facilities and the launching of an extensive and progressive building programme are targeted as major policy initiatives in the next 5 years (ibid. 12-13).

Statistics of the capacity of, and actual enrolments in, primary schools in the country, in 1993, are revealed in the

following table (excluding homelands):

Table 6.3 : Capacity of and Actual Enrolments in Schools: 1993

Group	Capacity	Enrolment	Places: Shortage (-) Excess (+)
African	1 826 000	1 923 492	97 492 -
Coloured	609 250	654 379	45 129 -
Indian	181 254	173 675	7 579 +
White	656 801	544 321	112 480 +
TOTAL	3 273 305	3 295 867	22 562 -

(The Education Foundation 1994, in EduSource, March:5)

The above statistics would support the recommendation for an accelerated school building and upgrading programme in deprived and rural and urban areas.

The NEPI Teacher Education Working Group (1992:73) note that the development of a quality teaching corps as the primary aim of teacher education, depends not only on the pedagogical competence and sound subject knowledge of teachers, but also on their working conditions. Re-distributing well-qualified teachers through a system of incentives, such as staff housing, in order to attract teachers to teach in undersupplied rural areas, or linking promotion posts to experience in teaching in rural areas is seen to be one of the possible options of addressing the demand for universal primary education, without compromising quality.

International research supports this view. It is interest-

ing to note, that in a study conducted to ascertain the high rates of mobility of teachers in rural schools, physical and social conditions such as climate and social isolation, professional and administrative factors such as the unsuitability of teachers' professional preparation and their previous service in rural schools and lack of adjustment to the rural location and way of life, were the main contributing factors to the high rates of mobility (Dove,1986:162).

Short-term contracts to recruits in their first years of teacher with the opportunity to earn accelerated tenured positions, after the satisfactory completion of the qualifying period, might include a commitment by teachers to work in disadvantaged schools for extended periods. The implementation of such a scheme would give employing authorities more scope for deploying teachers to disadvantaged schools and for reducing high staff turnover (ibid. 166).

Selective salary increments and allowance for teachers working in difficult conditions in the form of accommodation grants, education grants for teachers' children, etc. could also offered (ibid. 167).

One of the major policy initiatives outlined by the ANC in their Draft Discussion Document (1994:9), include the reconstruction of the bureaucracy, governance and management of education. Targets and priorities include, inter alia,

the prioritising of those people most neglected and disadvantaged by the apartheid system. Early Childhood Educare, Adult Basic Education and the redress of provision and access to general and further education would form part of the reconstruction process (ibid. 13). This principle should, therefore, be supported.

PRINCIPLE 4: *"THE CULTURE OF LEARNING MUST BE PROMOTED"*

Implications

With reference to the teaching profession, the following implications are highlighted:-

- * *"The teaching profession must assume responsibility for the enhancement of teaching standards by:-*
 - *inculcating a responsible work ethic among its members;*
 - *adopting a code of ethics to ensure professional accountability to both the community and the profession;*
 - *regularly consulting and negotiating with regional and national education departments on all facets of education;*
 - *establishing contact with local parent and other advisory bodies."*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:4)

The Organized Teaching Profession

In KwaZulu-Natal, the organized teaching profession has comprised voluntary (non-statutory) teachers' associations such as the former Natal Teachers' Society (NTS), the former Coloured Teachers' Association (SONAT) (since combined to

form APEK), etc. The non-statutory professional Teachers' Federal Council (TFC) which has statutory function to register all white teachers is soon to be replaced.

A new and separate South African Professional Registration Council for Educators, which will replace the TFC, is soon to be established by the Government of National Unity. Proposals for the new body include the establishing of criteria for entry to the profession and the establishing of a code of conduct for educators. The body should also have the power to enforce the code of conduct and will be representative of all interested parties, namely the state, parents and the organised teaching profession (Natal Teachers' Society in Mentor 76 (1):31).

Teacher associations are voluntary associations of members and are focused on the co-ordination of voluntary professional activities of teachers. Generally, the functions of such associations entail the promotion of group interests of members, the promotion of a professional approach towards educational matters and liaison between teacher and government authorities. The different teacher associations make representations of local or provincial nature to their department of education, whilst matters which are dealt with at a national level are co-ordinated and channelled by controlling teacher education bodies such as the TFC (Van Wyk, 1987:54-55). To date, major national groupings of teachers have been based on ethnic differences, rather than differences of approach and attitude and little has been done to bring teachers of different backgrounds

together to share issues mutual concern (Hartshorne, 1992:326).

It is argued that apartheid education has, inter alia, had an effect on teacher morale and has resulted in an absence of sustained professional development. Black teachers in particular, have had to contend with severe difficulties in rendering professional service to their clients, mainly due to poor physical conditions. A weakening of the social fabric in their communities and the consequent disintegration of the culture of learning within their institutions, has been experienced. Many of these teachers have experienced the trauma of having their '*bona fides*' questioned and their services rejected by their clients, as well as the humiliation of not being in a position to offer adequate defence against these accusations (NEPI:Teacher Education, 1992:32).

It has been widely accepted that poor physical conditions, under-resourced schools, lack of support services and the vast number of unqualified and underqualified teachers, particularly those in the rural areas, are all impediments to competent work and professional development of teachers. The lack of a coherent INSET policy frequently results in teachers improving their qualifications without improving their quality of work. In the absence of legitimate procedures for teacher appraisal and accountability, the aim of improving quality is little more than an ideal (ibid.84).

The Establishment of a Regional, Non-Racial Teachers' Organisation

Committed to the provision of quality education for all, the establishing of a work ethic for all teachers throughout the region and the improvement of skills, status and expertise for the teaching corps, the former NTS, has become part of a regional, nonracial teachers' organisation. Together with SONAT and other interested parties, the NTS has reconstituted under the name of APEK (Association of Professional Educators in KwaZulu-Natal).

Principles of the new regional teachers' organisation include, inter alia, professional responsibility and accountability and democratic decision-making, with the aim to protect the rights of teachers, promote respect for teachers and teaching and the professional development of teachers to improve the quality of educational provision (Piper B, 1994 in Mentor 76(2):21).

The Constitution of the new, unitary, regional teachers' organisation is, therefore, in accordance with the principle espoused in this section.

TEACHER PROVISION

In Chapter 7 of the 1994 Report, the uneven supply of teachers within the 5 education departments is acknowledged. Whilst some education departments have a good supply of qualified teachers others are experiencing a general shortage (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:57).

National proposals such as 10 years of free and compulsory education which include a reception class year, accelerated school building programmes and adult education will greatly increase the need for qualified educators. Balancing out the various pupil/teacher ratios between the departments in order to arrive at an acceptable ratio and the increased provision of special education, will further exacerbate the problem to providing adequately trained teachers (ibid. 57). The following table outlines the qualifications of teachers in the region.

Table 6.4 : Qualifications of Teachers

Quali- ficat.	African	Colour- ed	Indian	White	Total
U/Q					
Std. 8	2 415	3	4	-	2 422
Std. 10	3 566	5	4	-	3 575
Degree	9	-	23	-	32
Subtot.	5 990	8	31	0	6 029
Qualif.					
Std. 8	4 380	104	99	-	5 033
Std. 10	15 565	627	3 778	2 336	22 306
Degree	163	32	1 541	218	1 954
Subtot.	20 558	763	5 418	2 554	29 293
TOTAL	26 548	771	5 449	2 554	35 322

(Jacobs, 1992:27 - Source: Internal statistics ex-DET, ex-HoR, ex-HoD, ex-NED. Figures for ex-HoR and ex-HoA exclude private schools and temporary teachers. African statistics include Natal and KwaZulu figures)

A precise definition of what constitutes an 'unqualified' and 'underqualified' teacher is not readily available and a subjective method for classifying teachers has been used, namely that a person teaching with a degree, but with no, or less than a 3-year, recognised teacher qualification would

be considered unqualified or underqualified (EduSource, December 1993 (4):4).

1991 statistics reveal that 73% of African, Coloured and Indian teachers taught in non-urban primary schools and 2% in combined non-urban schools. 55% of teachers taught in urban primary schools and 7% in combined urban schools (ibid. 15). With regard to African teacher qualifications in the primary schools sector, 27% of African teachers were classified as 'unqualified' and 73% 'underqualified' in the non-urban areas, whilst 5% were classified as unqualified and 93% as 'underqualified', in the urban areas. Only 1% and 2% were regarded as being qualified in the non-urban and urban areas, respectively (ibid. 17).

Current Provision of Teacher Training Facilities

With the closure of Bechet College at the end of 1993, the region has approximately 15 colleges of education, many of which are under-utilised. In 1992, the combined capacity of these colleges was 11 170 full-time students and an undetermined number of part-time and distance education students. In 1992, student enrolment indicated a total of 9 196 full-time and 2 152 part-time/distance education teachers in training (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Group, 1994:57).

The following table illustrates the number of teacher training institutions as per education department, in the region. These figures are based on 1990 statistics and with

the closure of Bechet College, have been altered accordingly by the writer. In addition, the enrolment figures at universities and technikons have been left omitted for the purpose of this research.

Table 6.5 Number of Teacher Training Institutions

Ex-Department	Colleges of Education
African	
Natal	1
KwaZulu	10
Subtotal	11
Coloured	-
Indian	1
White	3
TOTAL	15

(Source:ex-DET 1990:281 & 351; Springfield College, ex-DEC:HoA in Jacobs, 1992:141)16

In the light of the information presented in the 1994 Report, various recommendations are made.

State Responsibility

Teacher education is seen to be the prime responsibility of the State, with policy, funding, accreditation, validation, certifications and registration of teachers (statutory council) being determined at a national level (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:57). This recommendation is supported.

Full Utilization of Teacher Education Resources

It is recommended that colleges of education should focus on operating at full capacity, with their main aim being to

concentrate on providing adequately qualified primary school teachers. To be given high priority, is the expansion of distance education facilities at existing training colleges, as a means of upgrading the qualifications of existing teachers and assisting with initial teacher education of unqualified teachers on probation (ibid. 57-58).

According high priority to the provision of distance training facilities is commendable and is supported by the

NEPI Teacher Education Working Group (1992:73) who argue convincingly for a 'dual mode' of provision, i.e. a combination of the 'contact mode' and the 'distance mode' with the emphasis being placed on distance education. Provision will, therefore, be made to upgrade the qualifications of existing staff whilst simultaneously assisting with initial teacher education during the probationary years.

Student Bursaries and Loans

Bursaries and loans to be paid back either in service or outright, as well as low interest or interest free loans, are recommended as a means of attracting greater numbers to the profession (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:58). Whilst this recommendation is supported, it should not only be seen to attract larger numbers. An emphasis should also be placed on quality teacher recruitment and training (Natal Education Department, 1994:1).

Co-operation among Teacher Education Institutions

Wider co-ordination at national level to facilitate mobility of students from one teacher institution to another, from one province to another and one region to another is recommended, together with the establishment of joint working and co-operative structures, to avoid unnecessary duplication of course content (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:58), is commendable.

Teacher Education Models

The introduction of a more uniform and simplified structure for teacher education is recommended as a means of providing adequately qualified teachers in a quick and cost-effective way (ibid. 58). This is acceptable provided that attention is paid to quality of training (Natal Education Department, 1994:1).

Research evidence on the effect of the length and level of teachers' educational qualifications on pupil achievement is inconclusive. The important issue is the optimal level and type of general education teachers required in order to gain maximum benefit from teacher-training (Dove, 1986:200). What we do know is that teacher effectiveness and school effectiveness are linked. However well-educated and trained, teachers are rendered less effective if schools lack the basic facilities, equipment and materials necessary for effective learning to take place (ibid. 198). Research has shown that trained teachers have better professional attitudes, more positive effects on pupil achievement than

untrained teachers (ibid. 197).

PRESET

The intensification of pre-service teacher education to ensure a sufficient supply of teachers is recommended by the Committee through the introduction of the following measures:-

- * a shorter diploma course with opportunities for upgrading qualifications;
- * the investigation of a period of probationary internship;

While shorter periods of training are not regarded as being ideal, they are seen to be the best means of responding to present circumstances. A period of '*internship*', followed by further study which will lead to category improvement, is recommended as a safeguard (Natal/KwaZulu Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1993:57). Hartshorne (1992:253-254) states that, in essence, a distinction needs to be drawn between the capacity for pre-service education to bring students to the point where they can be '*licensed*' to teach, rather than as '*qualifying*' them to teach'. The "*3i continuum*" of initial training, induction into the school and in-service education, in which the term '*qualification*' is regarded as that which is recurring and lifelong professional development, is a relevant concept in focusing attention to the inevitable limitations of initial training.

The question of the appropriateness and relevance of

training for the young student teacher who is a beginner, without the background of the reality of the school situation needs to be considered. The issue is whether the limited periods of teaching practice provide sufficient background to the reality of school and society in order to illuminate the theory to which students are exposed. The question of 'internship' preferably during the course of initial training and before the final year, during which time the student was paid a reasonable salary, could serve a number of purposes. It could provide the student with some background to the reality of school and on the basis of full-time work experience, whether he/she wished to continue with education as a chosen field of study. An 'internship' would create a cadre of 'national service' teachers that could be used in special projects to release serving teachers for periods of full-time study and provide support to schools in need. Tasks and assignments would be carried out through distance education. The internship would, therefore, form an integral part of the diploma. A primary school teacher education model is suggested as follows:-

- * **Primary School (including reception year)**
"Two years of full-time study following on the senior certificate could equip a student with the basics to teach in a primary school. While teaching the student will continue with part-time/correspondence study over a two-year period. On satisfactory completion of the two-year probationary period and successful completion of part-time/correspondence study, such a student becomes a fully qualified primary school teacher at M + 3 level."
 (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:59).

As already mentioned under the 'reception year', appropriate curricula in terms of a "*national core*", with the proviso for regional and local adaptation is urged. Careful co-ordination to maximise the use of facilities and the avoidance of divergent standards is emphasized and deserve consideration.

An accelerated programme of teacher education is essential in order to implement the school readiness programme, particularly in the light of a recommended phased-in plan to commence in 1995. This model of training is, therefore, commendable.

INSET

The following recommendations to extend current in-service teacher education in order to improve the quality and effectiveness of practising teachers are made, by:-

- * *"Upgrading unqualified and under-qualified teachers."*
- * *"Supporting teachers in relevant further study.";*
- * *"Re-training qualified teachers for new and scarce areas of specialisation." (ibid. 59)*

Rationalisation and co-ordination of in-service education is called for due to the large number of under- and un-qualified teachers in the province. The Working Group recommend that urgent attention be given at the executive level to merge the 3 INSET Colleges, namely the Natal College of Education (NCE), Umlazi College of Education and Springfield

College of Education (SCE): INSET Section. The establishment of a cost-effective Distance Education Unit to service such a merger should be subject to immediate investigation. It is further recommended that facilities at Umlazi and NCE be used for contact tuition while SCE can become purely an INSET College, should PRESET students be transferred to other Durban-based institutions (ibid. 60). This principle is commendable.

Professional Accountability

In a document entitled *"Proposals for Educational Provision in a Democratic South Africa"*, the former Natal Teachers' Society (1992) makes mention of the professional development of teachers in its consideration of in-service provision, which it argues, should be conceived of in 'growth' rather than in 'deficit' terms. Due to the current deficits in teacher quality and qualification, the initial focus of INSET should be aimed at classroom competency with certain compulsory programmes to ensure a minimum level of professional competence. Where possible, it is recommended that teachers be involved in mounting INSET courses. They should be given full recognition for courses attended and passed (presumably this would include promotion, where appropriate (1992:23-24)).

INSET programmes should not only provide for the personal growth (human potential), professional growth (classroom competence, relevant knowledge and understanding, leadership within the local community, etc), but for school growth

(school effectiveness) and societal growth (equality, freedom with responsibility, etc.) (ibid. 24).

The distance mode of delivery is seen to be an important training route, whilst the conditions of work and provision of education as a whole, is critical to professional development (ibid.25).

Current Teacher-training Models: Edgewood College of Education

A '2 + 2 model' where a student teacher spends years in full-time training at a college of education and a further 2 years in the field, is already operative at Edgewood College of Education in Pinetown. Provision has been made for students to take the 2-year course and then to be given the option of completing 2 year's part-time study or to continue with 1 or 2 year's full-time study. The choice made is dependent upon the student having passed the initial 2 years, having the academic potential to proceed with full-time study and being in a financial position to proceed with full-time study. For financial reasons, some students choose to leave full-time study after 2 years, in order to earn an income whilst studying part-time.

An agreement has been made with the Natal College of Education (NCE), a distance learning teacher-training institution, to make the latter 2 years of part-time study, distance education. This enables students to have the opportunity to align theory and practice. An internship concept will be developed and approaches have been made

through the Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal to involve other colleges in a networking initiative, in the region (Le Roux, 1993:27-28).

'On-the-Job' Training: The Edgewood Option

An inverted '2 + 2' model, to meet the need for trained primary school teachers, has been submitted to the Edgewood College Council and Senate for approval. The proposal has been drawn up by teachers in the field and if accepted, would meet the need to train teachers quickly and inexpensively, without sacrificing standards of training. A brief outline of the model is given:-

- * in the first year of training, the student would be indentured to an accredited and registered pre-primary primary school. The training course would focus on the acquisition of practical and language skills;
- * in the second year, the student would be indentured to a junior primary school;
- * during the first 2 years, a student would attend school and assist as a 'student teacher-aide' under the guidance of a selected teacher mentor;
- * concurrently, the student would attend lectures, at the college, on a part-time basis and complete the first year of a recognised primary diploma;
- * after 2 years, selected students would proceed with the second year of the primary certificate course, at the college, on a full-time basis. Those who do not wish to study further, or who are not elected, would receive a Teacher-Aide Certificate;
- * thereafter, the student could complete a third year diploma in education and a fourth year HDE either by full-time or part-

time/correspondence through NCE, as current Edgewood students are doing;

- * minimum admission criteria would be a recognised senior certificate;
- * schools would participate on a voluntary basis, for a year at a time and would be accredited and recognised by the college;
- * selection criteria would be conducted by the college. Merit criteria would include senior certificate results, any teaching or similar experience, an interview, testing and referee reports;
- * schools could pay students if they so wished. This would be a private arrangement;
- * a close liaison between participating schools and the college is envisaged to monitor the student's progress;
- * the course would be self-funding and private sponsorship for student fees and course costs, would be sought;
- * staffing would be controlled by the college. External staff could be appointed by the College to lecture students;
- * the course would be on a modular basis;
- * the first year of study would focus on the acquisition of practical and language skills.
(Edgewood College of Education: Sub-Committee for Junior and Pre-Primary Education, 1994:1-3)

MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES AND PROFESSIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

PRINCIPLE 5: "A LEAN, EFFICIENT EDUCATION BUREAUCRACY MUST BE ESTABLISHED"

Implications for an effective bureaucracy call for the identification of posts in management, planning and auxiliary support services, according to regional needs and

functions to be performed. Clearly defined functions, training and development devolution of authority to regional, area, local and school levels will contribute significantly to greater efficiency, enhance public confidence and hasten the decision-making process (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994: 4-5).

Worth noting are the role responsibilities of head office personnel which are, *inter alia*, to provide ongoing professional support and in-service development of teachers and the provision of teacher support services to include teacher centres (*ibid.* 9).

Hartshorne (1992:279-280), notes that if INSET strategies are to fundamentally affect the quality of education, then it is imperative that they should form part of a wider set of strategies aimed at changing the conditions under which teachers work. The major focus should be the teacher and the school in which he/she works. As arbiters of the success of INSET programmes, teachers need to be active change agents in the transformation of their schools with a premier concern being to empower them to cope with difficult learning situations.

The role of area office, teachers' centres to develop teaching-learning resources, co-ordinate workshops and seminars and produce audio-visual resources and train teachers to use these resources, is commendable (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994:15).

In principle, this proposal would seem to concur with the micro-centres of the *"New School Program"* in rural Columbia, discussed in Chapter 4 of the writer's research.

The teacher centre concept would also overcome the problem of mentorship from mobile tutors who, in the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (Zintec), were often unable to reach students in the rural areas (Unterhalter, Wolpe & Botha, 1991:197).

ADVISORY STRUCTURES

The 1994 Report recommends that a democratic education system requires a partnership approach to the management of education. Advisory structures developed for the meaningful interaction between significant role players, such as the Department of Education, the organised teaching profession and parent and community organizations and the private sector are needed in order to promote vertical and horizontal communication among these role players in the development of planning and implementation of policy directives and ongoing research and development in education (ibid.29).

The Organised Profession

In the light of the principle recommendations by the NTS, for a new unitary, teachers' organisation in KwaZulu-Natal (Mentor, 1994: 76(1):1), the proposal for consultation and negotiation with the organised profession at all levels of educational management in the areas of teacher recruitment,

teacher education, including in-service education, curriculum and other teacher-related matters is supported (KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education Working Group, 1994: 29)

NGOs

Further recommendations for the incorporation of community-based organisations involved in basic adult education, educare, religions and cultural education, whose initiatives have a direct bearing on formal education, into the advisory structures, is also supported (ibid.30). The primary builders of early childhood development have been the NGO's and their innovations within the non-formal sector should be recognised and utilised (CEPD/World Bank Study, 1994:34). The considerable duplication and the re-inventing of the wheel in pre-school programmes in different parts of the country, could be obviated by NGOs being involved, on a regional level, as a basis for co-operation and shared experience (Hartshorne, 1992:277).

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS & KEY ISSUES

PRINCIPLE 6: "THE FINANCIAL ALLOCATION FOR THE PROVINCE MUST BE EQUITABLY DETERMINED"

Implications

- * *"This region must receive its rightful share of the national education budget, based on the total number of school-going children in the whole of South Africa;.*
- * *The allocation should be further adjusted in order to redress historical imbalances."*
(KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Education

Working Group, 1994:5).

In the 1993/94 budget, R27,26 billion was allocated for education. This represented 21,4% of the total budget (The Education Foundation, 1994:3). Comparison of pupil numbers and expenditure in public schools in relation to the other former regions and ex-Departments, are as follows:-

Table 6.6 : Comparison of Pupil Numbers and Expenditure in Public Schools in Relation to Other Regions

Region/ ex-Department	Pupil No.s	%	Public School Expenditure R/millions	%
DET				
Cape/Tvl/OFS)	1 822 625	20,5	1 085 406	13,3
Transkei	1 005 769	11,3	398 401	4,9
Lebowa	860 070	9,7	397 353	4,9
HoR				
(Cape/Tvl/OFS)	802 656	9,0	1 183 986	14,5
HoA (" " ")	716 655	8,0	2 434 701	29,9
Boputhatswana	553 848	6,2	298 066	3,7
Gazankulu	286 539	3,2	177 740	2,2
Ciskei	265 601	3,0	126 186	1,5
Venda	212 234	2,4	126 799	1,6
KaNdwane	194 745	2,2	107 485	1,3
KwaNdebele	120 880	1,4	65 312	0,8
QwaQwa	100 670	1,1	119 219	1,5
HoD				
(Cape/Tvl/OFS)	28 557	0,3	91 048	1,1
Subtotal	6 970 849	78,3	6 611 702	81,2
KwaZulu	1 393 386	15,6	588 109	7,2
DET (Natal)	211 206	2,4	125 985	1,5
HoD (Natal)	195 353	2,2	460 753	5,7
HoA (Natal)	109 624	1,2	322 604	4,0
HoR (Natal)	29 673	0,3	45 492	0,6
Subtotal	1 939 242	21,7	1 542 943	19,0
TOTAL	8 910 091	100	8 154 645	100

(Jacobs, 1992 in The Education Foundation:105)

(Note: Former TBVC figures are estimates based on the 1990 Race Relations Survey)

As can be seen from the above table, the KwaZulu-Natal region which now incorporates the ex-DET, ex-HoD, ex-HoR and ex-HoA, provides schooling for 22% of South Africa's total school-going population. It is estimated that between 400 000 and 800 000 African pupils of school-going age in this

region, are not attending school. If a minimum of 400 000 of these children were to attend school, the region would need to cater for 25% of South Africa's schooling-going population. If the figures were to increase to 800 000, then the region would need to cater for approximately 28% of South Africa's pupil population (Natal/KwaZulu Inter-departmental Education Working Group, 1993:48-49).

The affordability of a reception class programme, with the proviso that an equitable share of the national education budget is allocated to the region, i.e. a minimum of 22% and, thereafter, a '*pro rata*' increase according to enrolment would appear to be feasible.

Trained manpower will prove to be a problem, as the training and recruitment of an additional 20 064 primary schools teachers, in a short space of time, using a shortened 2-year training programme, will take at least 5 years.

During the transition period of moving to parity of educational provision, whilst additional teachers are being recruited or trained, the redistribution of teachers across education departments will need to be considered. A phasing-in period of this measure will need to be implemented before full parity in staffing of schools is reached. The redressing of imbalances of provision can be achieved by ensuring that all schools operate at maximum capacity (ibid. 51-52).

SUMMARY

This section has attempted to critically appraise the Discussion Documents for the KwaZulu-Natal Region. The principles, recommendations and structures which have been proposed, appear to be feasible in offering an efficient plan for integrating the 5 education departments in the province into a single regional and cost-effective system. It is acknowledged that the various proposals for changes will require different strategies for implementation, i.e. some will require systematic and careful phasing-in, whilst others will depend on the availability of finances and material and human resources (KwaZulu-Natal Inter-departmental Education Working Group, 1994:88).

The last section will attempt to analyse the feasibility of the writer's strategies for the training of teachers in the initial phase of education, with special reference to the reception class year, taking into consideration the comparative analysis made in Chapter 4 and the proposals made for the KwaZulu-Natal region.

---o0o---

CHAPTER 7

MEETING THE DEMAND FOR TRAINED TEACHERS: IDEOLOGY VERSUS REALITY

INTRODUCTION

During the 1980s, many of the least developed countries and some of the industrialized countries experienced major setbacks in basic education as a result of competing demands for scarce human and financial resources. Research on current, world-wide trends in primary school education indicate that a large degree of primary education is still not efficient, equitable or accessible. Present world reform is, therefore, aiming at basic education and the improvement of access, equity, learning, delivery, the school environment and educational partnership. Priority is now being given to the content and process of education, which includes early childhood learning, cohort performance to reduce repetition and drop-out rates, curriculum instructional materials, contact time, teacher education and health and gender issues (Cole and Flanagan, 1994:6).

In South Africa, the implications of a 10 year compulsory system of education which, by law, will require children in the 5-14 age-cohort to attend school, will considerably affect the capacity of the system to introduce rapid implementation of compulsory schooling. The main constraint will be the additional demand for schooling arising from population growth and the large number of 'out of school' children.

With the estimated backlog of 35 000 classrooms in 1994, classroom construction costs to accommodate the additional demand for schooling are substantial. In addition, schools will need to be provided with sufficient teachers, equipment and teaching materials, all of which entail considerable increase in the recurrent costs of the system (Republic of South Africa, 1994: 73-74).

Hartshorne (1992:218) states that:

"Increased funding, better physical facilities, new curricula, improved syllabuses and learning materials, democratic structures, effective planning and administration all have their part to play, but in the end, success or failure depends upon the teacher in the classroom..... It is in this intensely personal relationship with the pupil in the tasks of learning that the real meaning of education lies, and it is on the quality of this relationship that the success or failure of schooling is dependent."

According to Le Roux (1993:4), central to the provision of teachers is the quality-quantity debate, where one encounters a tension between the need for a teacher education system which produces teachers of quality and the need to produce teachers in great quantities, in order to provide compulsory education for all.

The focus of this research has been to devise appropriate teacher-training models for the initial phase of education, with special reference to the reception class/pre-school year, in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). It should be noted, however, that a single reception class year is not ideal, but in the light of economic realities and human resource constraints,

should be the minimum provision.

The foundation/initial phase of education is envisaged as a 4-year educational programme with elementary literacy, numeracy and life skills as the main focus. It is proposed that entry into this phase commence in the year that the child turns 5 and extends to the end of standard 1.

The final chapter of the writer's research will be to summarise the main findings of the study and to conclude with feasible projections for effective and accelerated teacher-training in the KwaZulu-Natal region. The strategies outlined in Chapter 5 and the recommendations of the KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Groups will be assessed in the light of the government's recommendations in the Draft White Paper and recommendations of the KwaZulu-Natal Project Task Groups (PTGs). The American National Association for the Education of Young Children, will be briefly alluded to in the final analysis.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The 'unreadiness' of schools for children and the lack of readiness of children for school, and for life, are acknowledged as major factors of the high repetition and drop-out rates in the lower primary school sector. Many children on entry into formal education often lack the nutrition, health, socialization and educational stimulation that prepare them for life. As a result, a quarter of the African population drop out of school before achieving basic

literacy and numeracy.

Appropriate preschool education, whilst not being a panacea to economic and social ills, could assist in addressing these issues and contribute to the lowering of repetition and drop-out rates in primary education. The negating consequences of adverse structural conditions and poor quality primary schooling on sound pre-primary education, emphasise the need for continuity between the learning environments of the pre-school and primary school phases. The main focus of formal training has been PRESET which is normally of 4 years duration, whilst course participants for INSET are usually teachers in service who study part-time through distance education or attend short intensive training programmes. Research indicates that a large percentage of educare workers receive their training through non-formal means and only 4% of pre-primary teachers receive training at the secondary level.

The large number of unqualified staff who exist in the pre-school sector and the underqualified and inappropriately-trained teachers employed in the lower primary classes, reveal the urgent need for accelerated and shortened PRESET teacher-training courses to produce sufficiently trained teachers for compulsory, general education and a simultaneous INSET policy to upgrade those teachers currently in service.

A simplified qualification structure, remunerated internship

to teacher-trainees and a national distance education teacher-training model and mobility structure, are also recommended as part of the transformation of teacher education in the country.

The greatest challenge, however, is INSET in addressing the current corps capacity of teachers to render high quality service, whilst the challenge of PRESET is to secure teachers who are qualified in their own discipline and who have a good grasp of the relationship between theory and practice.

The introduction of compulsory schooling is seen to have major implications for PRESET and, more importantly, INSET. A phased-in 5 year plan commencing with the INSET of reception class teachers alongside the simultaneous upgrading of junior primary teachers, commencing with the class 1 teacher, followed by recommendations for shortened and school-based PRESET courses, is proposed.

"FIVE INTO ONE DOES GO - OR IT WILL SOON!"

Project Task Groups (PTGs) in KwaZulu-Natal

Rationalization of the 5 ex-Departments of Education in KwaZulu-Natal into a single, unified education department has resulted in the creation of numerous Project Task Groups (PTGs), whose aim has been to prepare for education in the province (KwaZulu-Natal Education Department (KZNED), 1994: October:1).

The task of unifying the administration system of the various departments by the Interim Provincial Strategic Planning and Management Committee (IPSPMC), is a complex and challenging one which will result in a gradual phasing-in process of a single system. A committee of key administrative officials has been set up to direct the process of unification and to translate the information and recommendations of the relevant PTGs into managerial procedure, within a specific time-frame (ibid. 3).

A recent report of the PTG for Teacher Education 1995 (in KZNED, 1994:August:3) states the following:

"The solution of the South African problem is to be found in the development of an education system which places the opportunity for an appropriate education of acceptable quality within the reach of all South Africans.

The key to such provision in turn lies in the development of a much improved, appropriate teacher education programme which has, in more ways than one, to make a complete break with previous practice. Such a break cannot be achieved overnight and a transitional period, characterised by the setting of realistic and attainable 'achievement targets', is going to be essential.

The challenge is a considerable one but the nettle must be grasped and a start made as soon as possible in the interests of all concerned."

The PTG for Teacher Education recommend that colleges of education should enrol the maximum number of students, reserving one third of its enrolment for first-year students. Further reference to teacher-training indicates that the status quo will be maintained for the immediate future, although a review of teacher-training will be undertaken as a matter of urgency. Under the section

entitled "*Training in scarce subjects*", a further recommendation is that colleges of education be allowed to offer the M+4 diploma, to include, inter alia, junior primary and pre-primary education, but state that the number of students enrolled for these courses should not exceed 20% of the total enrolment of the college (ibid.3).

Distance education as a means of obtaining a M+3 diploma, is recommended as a first priority for unqualified or under-qualified teachers in-service (ibid.3). Natal College of Education, in KwaZulu-Natal, is a good example where training of this nature occurs. In 1995, 220 students will enrol for the 4th Year Junior Primary Diploma at Natal College of Education, Pietermaritzburg which, for the first time, will include a reception class module, compiled by qualified and experienced pre-primary teachers in the field. The module will include both a theoretical and a practical component with theory having a direct relationship to practice. (Natal College of Education, 1995: Prospectus). It is hoped that, in the future, this course is accepted as a third year module.

The KZNED PTG Educational Programmes Committee recommend the establishment of certain managerial structures in KZN (1994:5-10). Of relevance to the writer's research, are the following:-

*** Provincial Subject and Phase Committees**

The role of such a widely-represented Committee will be, inter alia, to liaise with colleges and universities involved in the pre-service training and education of teachers, in order to ensure that

student teachers encounter new trends in the curriculum;

That these Provincial Committees assist subject and phase advisers to plan and present **in-service training and teacher development programmes** throughout the province for identified target groups of teachers. Such **in-service training and teacher development** should be launched as soon as possible;

That **teacher-training institutions** be kept informed about curriculum needs and curriculum delivery needs;

Effective scenario planning to determine the number of teachers required for various subjects and phases in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), is seen as vital;

A shift from transmission style of teaching and rote learning to **interactive teaching and inquiry-based, problem-solving learning**. The enhancing of English proficiency of teachers will demand changes in the training of teachers and that Provincial Committees liaise with relevant NGOs in this regard;

That consideration be given to introducing **teacher-assistants** to assist teachers in various ways. These teachers could be drawn from the community, parents, NGOs, etc;

- * **Regional and Local Subject and Phase Committees**
That curriculum development be devolved, as far as possible, to regional subject/phase committees to ensure that local needs of teachers and learners are met;

- * **Teachers' Centres and Education Development Centres**
That the number of **teachers' centres** and **education development centres** be expanded and strategically positioned throughout KZN, as resource centres to upgrade the effectiveness of teaching educational programmes;

That such centres provide an important infrastructure and support for curriculum development, in-service training and teacher development. This will enable teachers to participate in professional development and self-development at grassroots level;

That the more advantaged, **well-resourced schools** become **education development centres** and serve as a link for clusters of schools in local areas;

That mobile teacher-centres/resource centres be established to assist teachers in remote, rural areas. The conversion of removal vans would be developed for this purpose;

* **Expansion of Advisory Services**

Acknowledging development of teacher development as the key to effective teaching and learning, the expansion of the advisory services to render increased teacher support, is seen as vital;

The creation of **school-based teacher adviser posts**, to include career development potential, in the form of a post level structure is seen to be a cost-effective and educationally-effective method of enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in schools;

The proposal for certain teachers to be seconded to act as school-based teacher advisers for certain key subjects (and possibly phases, although this is not mentioned), is seen to be a means of upgrading curriculum delivery and teaching and learning;

Teacher advisers would have a 25% teaching load in their own schools and would be required to advise and support a cluster of schools in their own area;

Their portfolio would include the organizing of regular afternoon seminars and workshops and the offering of guidance and diagnostic advice under the leadership of a departmentally-based subject adviser;

That NGOs and other relevant human resources such as retired teachers, etc, be enlisted to provide support and guidance for teachers and to upgrade teaching and learning;

It is envisaged that, in the longer term, additional regional subject advisers, and school-based teacher-advisers would be appointed. Cost-effective strategies would include the appointing of more teacher-advisers than regional education advisers.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE DRAFT WHITE PAPER

The draft White Paper on Education and Training which outlines a total reconstruction of the present South African

education system, highlights several important factors in the context of the writer's research.

The plan to establish a national directorate for Early Childhood Development and Lower Primary Education to focus on, inter alia, developing policy for the reception year, as the first year of the compulsory general education programme, in consultation with the different regions, is encouraging (Republic of South Africa, 1994:20)

Compulsory Education

The intention to introduce a phased-in, compulsory system commencing with children aged 6, in grade 1, from January 1995 (ibid.74), without the simultaneous targeting of grade 1 teachers for INSET, during this period, is a cause for concern.

Already noted, is the 'unreadiness' of schools for children as one of the major factors of the high repetition and drop-out rates in the lower primary school sector. To extend access of provision without the simultaneous introduction of teacher upgrade programmes through in-service training could be a retrogressive educational and economic step.

The large deficits of appropriately-trained teachers and suitable facilities for 5 year-olds are cited as the main reasons for the not establishing a compulsory reception class or pre-primary year, in the immediate future. Instead, it is stated that 1995 will be used mainly for developing policy for the implementation of the reception

year, as the first year of the compulsory system, (ibid.74-75). It is disconcerting to note that no mention is made of a phased-in teacher-training programme for the reception year and that it is not viewed as the foundation year of the lower primary phase, but rather as an 'add-on' component.

Teacher-training

Developmental initiatives, highlight the professional education of trainers and educators as *"one of the pillars of the national human resource development strategy"* and *"the growth of professional expertise and self-confidence"* as the *"key to teacher development."* (ibid. 15) Proposals for a national regulatory mechanism to allow greater autonomy to institutions and bodies in the designing and delivering of teacher education programmes are made (ibid. 15). This will include an integrated approach to education and training which links one level of learning to another and enables learners to progress to higher levels from any starting point in the education and training system and will recognise experience and informal training for formal assessment and certification purposes (ibid. 11). This proposal corresponds, in principle, to the strategies outlined in Chapter 5, concerning the establishment of a modular career path for the coordinated training of teachers.

The recommendations of the PTG on Teacher Education, namely that colleges of education fill to maximum capacity, with one third of its students enrolled in the first year of

study and that M+4 diploma courses be offered in "*scarce subjects*" such as "*pre-primary*" and "*junior primary*" courses (KwaZulu-Natal Education Department, 1994:3), will place a large demand on colleges of education to train sufficient teachers for the initial phase of education.

A collaborative strategy whereby accredited NGOs working closely with colleges of education or community colleges and assisted by qualified teachers in the phase to provide INSET, should be a consideration to meet the demand to train teachers for the phase. This strategy would also provide a mechanism for teachers to enter the formal training system and would ensure continuity of methodology in training.

The Government's recognition of teaching methods which have encouraged the memorisation of information and discouraged the development of initiative or critical thinking and the need for continuity in developmental approaches to teaching in the early years, has resulted in the proposal for the reshaping of curricula and teaching methodology for the early age cohort (ibid. 3 & 20) and support the proposals made in the writer's research.

A New Qualifications Structure

The establishment of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as the proposed mechanism for, inter alia, encouraging new and flexible curricula, regulating the quality of qualifications, permitting a high level of articulation between qualifications based on recognition, accumulating credits and facilitating the movement of learners from one

qualification level to another, in order to encourage flexible access by learners to different models of learning (ibid. 6), are supported. The writer's proposal for the establishment of a modular career path to co-ordinate the training of teachers in the initial phase of education and the incorporation of non-formal training courses into a new formal training structure, as part of a short-to-medium term solution, to formally upgrade educare workers and bridge the gap between non-formal and formal training opportunities would, therefore, be justified in the light of the above recommendation.

A structure based on competency rather than qualifications, which allows for definite career paths and continued, life-long training are commensurate with the writer's proposed teacher-training career path in Chapter 5.

The student loan scheme (ibid. 55) for, inter alia, tertiary students, to be partly subsidised by the state, also substantiates proposals in the aforementioned chapter.

It is realised that the restructuring of the budget, whilst improving efficiency and productivity in the system, will not reduce absolute budget requirements in the short term. Both short-term and long-term demands, given demographic realities, constitutional obligations and the government's commitment to phase in free and compulsory general education and, generally, improve the nation's human resources, are unavoidable.

The need for a capital works programme which will provide for learning space of acceptable quality, etc, is cited as being essential in order for the Government to meet its commitments. It is noted, however, that many capital investments in education have recurrent cost implications, such as the payment of personnel, which the budget can absorb up to a certain limit, in order to maintain service of an acceptable quality. It is maintained, however, that *"the state as the monopoly employer of teachers and other educators must invest in their professional development if any improvement in education and training quality is to be achieved."* (ibid. 57)

Governance and Control

The establishment of a National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) as a statutory body representing all higher education institutions and stakeholders in the field, to advise the Minister on teacher education policy such as initial teacher education, induction, in-service education and further education, whether institutionally-based or provided by distance modes of education and the establishment of Provincial Councils for Teacher Education (ibid. 15), correspond with the proposals made by Jarvis and Nicholls (1994), in their projected pattern of governance and control outlined by the writer in Chapter 5. The formulation of a qualification structure expressed in terms of minimum criteria and competencies (ibid. 15), the recognition for credit of prior learning experience and the maintenance of careful quality control over the design of

learning materials and support systems (ibid. 16), are also commensurate with the writer's proposal for revised entrance criteria, as outlined by Jarvis and Nicholls.

Financial Constraints

Whilst the government is committed to early childhood development such as the recognition of the reception class year and the upgrading of junior primary education, budgetary pressures are alluded to, i.e.:-

" given the sluggish economy and the government's firm commitment to fiscal discipline, the level of budgetary resources available to fund the education is severely constrained." (Republic of South Africa, 1994:46)

The reconceptualising of the education budget requires that equity becomes a fundamental principle of budget strategy (ibid. 50), whilst additional spending on education is described as arising from 4 sources, namely:-

- * **redress and rehabilitation** due to the shortfall of 76 000 classrooms to provide for current enrolment and rehabilitation costs arising from under-funding, etc;
- * **extended and new services** which include, inter alia, the phased-in introduction of free and compulsory general education, the launching an early childhood development programme and the expanding of training facilities;
- * **demographic factors** such as population growth which will impact on the annual demand at Sub A level, urbanisation and improved access to schools will increase demand in excess of normal growth rates in certain areas.

The trend for half a million new learners to enter the system, notwithstanding, the introduction of

free and compulsory education and the estimated 1.8 million backlog in provision of those children not enrolled in schools in 1994, which will significantly impact on the budget;

- * the substantial costs involved due to the rationalisation of the previous ethnically-based departments and services into nine provincial departments (ibid. 51-52).

Proposed Reforms and Implications for Funding

Drastic budget reforms in areas of equity, unit costs, user charges and new funding partnerships are cited as essential factors in budget reforms (ibid. 53). Briefly, these are elaborated on as follows:-

- * **equity** in respect of **teacher/pupil ratios** on which current staffing provision is based. The skewed profile of teacher qualifications and resulting skewed distribution of teacher costs;
- * **unit costs** and productivity to include **new pupil/teacher and class size ratios**, efficient use of teachers, optimum use of **space utilization**, reduction of student and staff absenteeism and dropout rates, excessive repetition of grades and the restructuring of teachers' remuneration to reduce the salary bill;
- * user charges in the form of school fees will be levied to parents in proportion to income earned. user charges which account for more than half of of the total education budget are seen to be income-related and not applicable to "the poorest".
- * **new funding partnerships** as a source of "off-budget revenue", are seen as a means of offering significant budget relief in areas such as school rehabilitation and tertiary student funding (ibid. 54-56).

The proposed 1994/95 budget, compiled at a national level will be largely a combination of budgets of ex-Departments of Educations, many of which do not include a pre-primary or

reception class component. Ex-Departments of Education which do make provision for pre-primary education, are those which have received more advantaged pupil/teacher ratios and funding. These Departments have been requested to curtail expenditure during the first three quarters of the financial year (ibid. 46). It, therefore, seems apparent that no special provision of funding has been apportioned for the development of reception classes.

The 1995/96 budget will *"span both the old system and the new provinces"* and will *"reflect no real increase in consumption expenditure over 1994/95 and no increase in the deficit as a share of the GDP"* (ibid. 47).

The implementation of a complex revenue-sharing arrangement whereby Provincial Revenue Funds will accrue revenue from provincial taxes, levies, duties and loans raised by the provincial governments for capital projects, as well as from national funds appropriated to provinces according to *"developmental needs, capacity to spend, fiscal discipline and its relative economic disadvantage compared with other provinces"* (ibid. 48), will significantly impact on teacher-training programmes for the initial phase of education and the establishment of reception classes throughout the province. The prolonged planning period for reception class education indicate that very little real development will take place in this sphere in the next few years. Urgent recommendations that funding be made available are included in a response made by the Central Committee of the

Natal Pre-Primary Teachers' Association (1994) to the Secretariat of the Education and Training White Paper Committee, with effect from 1995. Briefly these are as follows:

- * that **wide-spread INSET programmes** which target **grade 1** teachers throughout the country, be introduced;

This would assist in ensuring that pupils entering grade 1 have access to a developmentally-appropriate curriculum, whilst the cost of INSET programmes would be a sound investment in both educational and economic terms;

- * that once INSET courses for grade 1 teachers was well established, training should target grade 2 and then grade 3 teachers;

- * that whilst it is recognised that most training institutions do not have the trained staff to lecture on the initial phase of education, that training courses be introduced with immediate effect, from 1995, utilizing a **network of expertise** such as accredited NGOs and **well qualified pre-primary and junior primary teachers**.

- * that **key modules** be developed and delivered **part-time** by **teachers** who are active in the field and who have the necessary qualifications, experience and expertise;

- * that the establishment of reception classes not be held back due to the lack of suitable physical facilities, but that communities that have the necessary resources be made the offer of paying for the cost of establishing their own reception class units. This would alleviate the burden of the government having to make provision for all communities and scarce funding could be redirected to projects in areas of greatest need (NPPTA: Central Committee, 1994:2-4).

SOME THOUGHTS ON A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A "defining characteristic of any profession is a specialized body of knowledge and competencies shared by all of its members that are not shared by others. It is possible to identify two key questions that can be used to determine its parameters. First: 'Is this knowledge or skill required of every early childhood professional, regardless of level or setting or professional role? Does the sum of this body of knowledge and competencies uniquely distinguish the early childhood professional from all other professionals?'"

If both answers are in the affirmative, common elements define what all early childhood professionals should know and be able to do. These are aptly described by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) and have relevance in the context of the writer's research. They include, inter alia, the following:-

- * an understanding of child development and ability to apply this knowledge in practice;
- * the planning and implementing of a developmentally-appropriate curriculum that advances all areas of children's learning and development;
- * demonstrating an understanding of the early childhood profession and committing oneself to professionalism;

The NAEYC state that to affectively implement the

aforementioned, all early childhood professionals need some general knowledge and competencies associated with the full early childhood age span (0-8 years of age). Practicum or work experience under qualified supervision is seen to be essential in gaining requisite professional knowledge and skills, to include a minimum of two of the 3 early childhood age group settings.

With reference to the writer's research this would include the pre-school and primary school child. Principles of effective development based on research conducted by Epstein (1993) and Modigliani (1993), are cited as ensuring an effective process of professional development regardless of level, role or setting of teachers in the early childhood setting (1994 in Young Children, March:73-75). Of relevance are the following:-

- * *"professional development experiences are most effective when grounded in a sound theoretical and philosophical base and structured as a coherent and systematic programme."*

The "scatter-shot approach" to training is a reflection of those practitioners who have not completed formal preparation programmes. As a result, it is difficult to integrate and apply new information and a duplication or else deficit of topics result;

- * *"Professional development experiences are most successful when they respond to an individual's background, experiences, and the current context of their role."*

This principle is particularly important for those who invest scarce resources of time and money in training and who may feel deprived when there appears to be few apparent links to their needs.

Congruence is important in the initial stages of professional development and a broad foundation of knowledge and skills is needed;

- * *"Effective professional development opportunities are structured to promote clear linkages between theory and practice."*

Without clear linkages between theory and

practice, students may reject new knowledge as a "book learning" or "ivory tower" approach and only focus on experienced practitioners' information and strategies that work in the 'real world'.

- * *"Effective professional development experiences provide opportunities for application and reflection and allow for individuals to be observed and receive feedback upon what has been learned."*

Learning is clearly integrated into an individual's professional repertoire - there is a reflection upon meaning and application and on how new knowledge or skills may be incorporated into practice. Isolated, 1-shot training experiences do not provide for such integration and reflection, nor do formal preparation programmes that initially teach theoretical foundations without any practicum experiences until much later.

Further guidelines on decision-making which relate to early childhood professional development are noted which also have relevance in the context of the writer's research:-

- * *"Linking Professional development and compensation".*
Little incentive exists in the pursuance of a system of differentiated qualifications unless increased qualifications are rewarded with improved compensation. Those teachers who hold comparable professional qualifications and carry out comparable functions or responsibilities, should receive comparable compensation for their work;

It is widely recognized that the work of early childhood professionals has been undervalued and that those professionals working with children in situations other than serving school-age children, during the traditional schoolday, have been the most undercompensated;

- * *"Early childhood professionals should be encouraged to seek additional professional preparation and should be rewarded accordingly."*;

Little incentive exists for early childhood personnel to seek additional training. The current crisis in recruiting and retaining qualified staff has resulted in many programmes

employing individuals who are underqualified for their roles and responsibilities.
Lack of reward for additional preparation as a teacher leaves little room for incentive to remain in the job and the investment in INSET is lost;

- * *"Career ladders should be established, providing additional increments in salary based on performance and participation in professional development opportunities.";*

Career ladders linked to a salary scale offer opportunities for advancement through recognition of higher levels of preparation and mastery of practice and promote higher quality services for children (ibid. 75-77);

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS: IDEOLOGY VERSUS REALITY

This final chapter has attempted to draw the writer's research to a logical conclusion, in terms of the feasibility of the proposals outlined for the development of appropriate teacher-training strategies for the foundation/initial phase of education, with special reference to the reception class year, in KZN.

In the light of the information discussed in this chapter, the following recommendations are made:-

- * **Reception Class Diploma**

This will:

- provide the opportunity for educare workers who have experience in the field, particularly those who hold a recognised certificate of competence, to obtain a formally-recognised diploma in reception class education;
- allow students to study part-time, over a two-year period whilst currently employed;

And will entail:

- the lapsing of the diploma once an foundation/initial phase diploma has been obtained. Should the student not wish to study further, the diploma will be

recognised and acknowledged as an independent diploma.

*** Diploma for the Foundation Phase**

INSET

This will:

- revitalise and upgrade most of the present lower primary school teachers currently in service;

PRESET

This will:

- incorporate a 2-year practical component once the student has completed 2 years of full-time training (2 + 2 model);
- allow for a 2-year internship whereby the student is salaried at a lower level than would apply once he/she was fully qualified

Alternatively:

This will:

- enable students, during their first year of training, to be indentured to an accredited and registered pre-primary school as a student teacher-aide;
- enable students, during their second year of training, to be indentured to a junior primary school (inverted 2 + 2 model);
- enable students who do not wish to study further to receive a teacher-aide certificate;
- enable students who wish to study further to return, full-time to college, or alternatively, study through a distance education college such as the Natal College of Education;

*** A simplified qualifications structure**

This will:

- link one level of learning to another;
- link non-formal and formal training programmes;
- encourage flexible access to training;
- provide a mechanism that would ensure continuity in training;

- enable learners to progress to higher levels from any starting point in the education and training system;
- recognise experience and informal training for formal assessment and certification;
- allow greater autonomy to institutions and bodies in the designing and delivering of teacher education programmes;
- encourage upward mobility in training;

*** The implementation of a 5-year plan for the phasing-in of qualified teachers for the foundation phase of education.**

This will commence with:

- the gradual phasing-in of reception classes as teachers are appropriately trained;
- the simultaneous transformation of the junior primary schooling system which will entail the retraining of teachers in appropriate early childhood methodology

This will include:

- a collaborative strategy whereby accredited NGOs are able to work closely with colleges of education or community colleges, assisted by qualified teachers to provide INSET;
- continuity of methodology in training;
- the targeting of experienced educare workers in the informal sector who have 5 year-olds in their care, particularly those who hold a certificate of competence from registered NGOs, for training as reception class teachers;

*** A modularised curriculum**

This will:-

- allow curricular choices and areas and degrees of specialisation and flexibility of time table design;
- be suitable for full-time study, part-time study and distance education study;
- facilitate 'credit banking' and transferability within and between institutions and education and training sectors;

* **The establishing of Resource and Training Centres (RTCs)**

 This will:

- provide training programmes for teachers;
- be run by accredited NGOs, contracted to serve as RTCs by the government;

CONCLUSION

Financial feasibility is a vital part of successful teacher-training policy development and implementation, and the proposals made in the writer's research have attempted to address this issue.

The 1992 Interdepartmental Working Group outlined the financial feasibility of establishing a reception class year for the region, whilst the 1994 Interdepartmental Working Group Report stated that the training and recruitment of sufficient, additional primary school teachers, in a short space of time, using shortened PRESET courses, would take at least 5 years.

In a study of the KwaZulu-Natal region in Chapter 6, a comparison of pupil numbers and expenditure in public schools across the provinces reveals that the KwaZulu-Natal region provides for 22% of South Africa's total school-going population. In addition, it is estimated that between 400 000 and 800 000 African pupils of school-going age in the region are not at school. Essentially, this indicates an increase of between 25% and 28% of the total country's school-going population. It should be supported, therefore,

that the region should receive its rightful share of the national education budget, based on the total number of school-going children in country and that the allocation be further adjusted in order to redress historical imbalances. Whilst the reception class year is seen to be affordable, trained manpower is seen to be a problem. The phasing-in plan for the training of teachers in the phase, as outlined in Chapter 5, is a viable option for addressing the need for trained manpower.

Whilst the writer believes that the proposals made will not solve the unforeseeable problems of the future, in the KwaZulu-Natal region, they would appear to offer some solution to the problem of teacher-training in the initial phase of education and would, therefore, appear feasible rather than ideological.

---o0o---

REFERENCES

- | | | |
|--|------|---|
| African National Congress (ANC):
Education Department | 1994 | A Policy Framework for Education and Training. Draft: For Discussion Purposes only.
Braamfontein:ANC. |
| Anning, A. | 1991 | An Articled Teacher Scheme in Practice. Child Education October: 26-29. |
| Atmore, E. | 1991 | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Present Early Childhood Educare Policy in South Africa. Cape Town. |
| Atmore, E.,
Biersteker, L and
Short, A. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Costings of Different Programme Options for Junior Primary Upgrading and Community-based Educare Provision. Cape Town. |
| Balie, P. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Funding Early Childhood Educare: Foreign Government Aid in South Africa. Cape Town. |
| Blake, D. | 1994 | Teacher Education Reforms. Forum 36(2):52-56 |
| Biersteker, L. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Emerging Early Childhood Educare Policy in South Africa. Johannesburg. |
| Brandt, R.S. | 1986 | On Long-Term Effects of Early Education: A Conversation with Lawrence Schweinhart. Education Leadership 44:14-18. |
| CEPD/The Education Foundation | 1994 | Restructuring Teacher Supply, Utilization and Development (TSUD). Report for IPET Task Teams: Teacher Development and Support and Finance. Johannesburg: The Urban Foundation. |
| CEPD/The World Bank | 1994 | Report on South African Study on Early Childhood Development. The CEPD:Braamfontein. |

- | | | |
|---|-------|--|
| Clark, M. | 1989 | Children Under 5: Educational Research and Evidence. Final Report to the Department of Education and Science. London: The Falmer Press. |
| Cleave, S. and Brown, S. | 1993 | A Fair Deal for Fours. Child Education April:23-26. |
| College of Education South Africa | 1994 | CESA Year Book 1994. Pretoria: Pretoria Printers. |
| Colbert, V. et al | 1993 | The New School Program: More and Better Primary Education for Children in Rural Areas in Columbia in Levin and Lockheed 1993:52-68. |
| Cole, M and Flanagan, W. | 1994 | A Policy for Quality Primary Education in South Africa: Draft Discussion Document. Johannesburg:DBSA. |
| Council for Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) | 1993 | A Council for the Validation of Qualifications and the Accreditation of Institutions 14:1-10. |
| Craig, J. | 1990. | Comparative African Experiences in Implementing Educational Policies. Washington: The World Bank. |
| David, T. and Moyles, J. | 1992 | From Nursery Nursing to Teaching. Child Education. April:11. |
| Deane, J. M. | 1994 | Magna Carta and all that. Neon May:8-10. |
| Department of Education and Culture Administration: House of Assembly | 1994 | Structural Criteria for Teacher Education in South Africa. Pretoria. |
| Department of National Education | 1992 | Education Renewal Strategy: Management Solutions for Education in South Africa. Pretoria: UNISA. |
| Department of National Education | 1992 | Education Renewal Strategy: Questions and Answers. Pretoria: UNISA. |
| Dove, L. | 1986 | Teachers and Teacher Education in Developing Countries: Issues in Planning, Management and Training. Great Britain: Croom Helm Ltd. |

- | | | |
|---|------|--|
| Edgewood College of Education: Pre-Primary and Junior Sub-Committee | 1994 | Proposals for 'On-the-Job' Training of Junior and Pre-Primary Teachers. Pinetown. |
| Elkind, D. | 1991 | Developmentally Appropriate Practice: A Case Study of Educational Inertia in Kagan, 1991:1-16 |
| Eshiwani, G.S. | 1990 | Implementing Educational Policies in Kenya. Washington: The World Bank. |
| Evans, J.A. | 1993 | Early Childhood Educare and Development: Issues from the Developing Country Perspective in Spodek, 1993:427-438. |
| Gardiner, M. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Teacher Education: The Attitudes of the Democratic Movement towards the Education of Teachers. Johannesburg. |
| Galabawa, C. J. | 1990 | Implementing Educational Policies in Tanzania. Washington: The World Bank. |
| Gultig, J. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Teacher Education: Distance Education. Pietermaritzburg. |
| Hartshorne, K. | 1992 | Crisis and Challenge: Black Education 1910-1990. Cape Town: Oxford University Press. |
| Henson, C. | 1993 | Education Act 1993. Child Education November:64. |
| Human Sciences Research Council | 1981 | Provision of Education in the RSA: Report of the main Committee of the HSRC Investigation into Education. Pretoria: HSRC. |
| Husen, T. et al | 1978 | Teacher Training and Student Achievement in Less Developed Countries. Washington: The World Bank. |
| Jaffe, R. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Teacher Education: A Quantitative Survey of the Current State of Teacher Education and Projection of Future needs. Johannesburg. |

- | | | |
|---|-------|--|
| Jacobs, M. | 1990 | A Statistical Overview of Education in KwaZulu-Natal. Johannesburg: EduSource. |
| Jarvis, B and Nicholls, G. | 1994 | A Reconstruction Model for Teacher Education in South Africa: Access, Curriculum and Certification. Pinetown:ECE. |
| Kagan, S. L. | 1990. | The Care and Education of America's Young Children: Obstacles and Opportunities. Ninetieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. USA: The University of Chicago Press. |
| Kapp, J. A. | 1991 | Children with Problems. Pretoria: Van Schaik. |
| Karweit, N. | 1993 | Effective Preschool and Kindergarten Programs for students at Risk in Spodek, 1993:385-411. |
| Kemp, J. | 1994 | Empowering the Child: Curriculum Enrichment: Pre-Primary to Junior Primary. In Focus April/May:12-14. |
| KwaZulu-Natal Education Department | 1994 | What's cracking in the KZNED? KwaZulu-Natal Education Department. August:1-4. KwaZulu-Natal. |
| KwaZulu-Natal Education Department | 1994 | Five into one does go - or it will soon! KwaZulu-Natal Education Department. October:1-4. KwaZulu-Natal. |
| KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Group | 1994 | A Unitary Department of Education: Discussion Document for Geographic Natal. Johannesburg: The Education Foundation. |
| KwaZulu-Natal Interdepartmental Working Group: Junior Primary Education | 1994 | The Restructuring of the Junior Primary Phase for the Interim Period. Report of the Phase Committee. October. Pietermaritzburg. |
| KwaZulu-Natal Project Task Group | 1994 | Education Programme Recommendations. October. Pietermaritzburg. |
| Lategan, A. H. | 1991. | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Some statistics on enrolment and expenditure in pre-primary education. Johannesburg. |

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|---|
| Lenyani, E. | 1992 | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: Review of early childhood educare provision in selected countries: Implications for policy development. Pietersburg. |
| Le Roux, A. | 1992 | CORDTEK:Language and Community Colleges. Papers devlivered at the Annual Conferences held by the Coujncil of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal. 1990 and 1991. KwaZulu-Natal: CORDTEK. |
| Le Roux, A. | 1993 | Teacher Education: Some Implicationsof the ERS and Natal-KwaZulu Reports. Pretoria: DNE. |
| Levin, H. M. and
Lockheed, M. E. | 1993. | Effective Schools in Developing Countries. USA: The Falmer Press. |
| Liddell, D. | 1992. | NEPI Research Paper: Early Childhood Educare: A comparative analysis of educare: International perspectives on issues for South Africa. Johannesburg. |
| Lockheed, M. E. | 1993 | The Condition of Primary Education in Developing Countries in Levin and Lockheed, 1993:20-40. |
| Maravanyika, O. E. | 1992 | Implementing Educational Policies in Zimbabwe. Washington. The World Bank. |
| Mialeret, G. | 1976 | World Survey of Pre-School Education. France: UNESCO. |
| Moore, G. | 1991 | New Routes into Teaching. Child Education. October:25-26. |
| Moore, G. | 1992 | Department for Education replaces Department of Education and Science. Child Education July:7. |
| Moore, G. | 1992 | Survival of the Fittest. Child Education October:6 |
| Moore, G. | 1993 | Non-Graduates to Key Stage 1. Child Education May:7. |
| Moore, G. | 1993 | The National Curriculum. Child Education October:4-5. |

- | | | |
|---|------|--|
| Moore, G. | 1993 | New Body for Teacher Training. Child Education . November:4-5. |
| Morgan, J. | 1991 | Rumbold Committee asks Government to take lead on Under-Fives. Child Education March:11. |
| Morgan, J. | 1991 | Children in Playgroups. Child Education December:11. |
| Morgan, J. | 1991 | Act Threatens Playgroups. Child Education December:10. |
| Morgan, J. | 1991 | Launch Date for NVQs, Child Education December:10. |
| Morgan, J. | 1992 | Government Doubles Playgroup Grant. Child Education March:10. |
| Morrell, R. | 1994 | Schooling in Natal. The Emergence of an Unequal System. Mentor 76(2):23-24. |
| Mortimore, P. and
Mortimore, J. | 1989 | School-focused In-Service Training in England and Wales: The Challenge to Higher Education. Journal of Education for Teaching 15(2): 133-139. |
| Natal College of
Education (NCE) | 1994 | Natal College of Education: 1995 Prospectus . Pietermaritzburg: NCE. |
| Natal Education
Department | 1983 | Guide to experiment with Reception Classes in selected junior primary and primary schools . Pietermaritzburg:NED. |
| Natal Education
Department | 1994 | Comments on the Recommended Chapter 7 (Teacher Provision) of the Discussion Document for KwaZulu-Natal . |
| Natal Education
Working Group | 1993 | Interim Report No. 2 of the Sub-Committee on Pre-Primary Education . Durban. |
| Natal Education
Working Group | 1994 | Interim Report No. 3 of the Sub-Committee on Pre-Primary Education . Durban. |
| Natal/KwaZulu
Interdepartmental
Education Working
Group, 1993. | 1993 | A Regional Perspective on Reconstructing Education: A Discussion Document . Johannesburg: Edusource. |

- | | | |
|--|------|---|
| Natal Pre-Primary Teachers' Association (NPPTA) | 1991 | Formative Phase Education: The Foundation Phase for the Future. Durban. |
| Natal Teachers' Society (NTS) | 1994 | The Labour Relations Council. Mentor 76(1):31. |
| National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) | 1994 | NAEYC: Position Statement. Young Children March:68-77. |
| National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) | 1992 | Early Childhood Educare. Report of the NEPI Early Childhood Educare Research Group. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC. |
| National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) | 1992 | Governance and Administration Report of the NEPI Governance and Administration Research Group. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC. |
| National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) | 1992 | Summary of the Teacher Education Reports. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC. |
| National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) | 1992 | Teacher Education. Report of the NEPI Teacher Education Research Group. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC. |
| National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) | 1993 | National Education Policy Investigation: The Framework Report and Final Report Summaries. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC. |
| Nziramasanga, C. | 1992 | NEPI Research Group: Teacher Education: An Analysis and Description of Teacher Education Policies and Programmes in Selected Sub-Saharan African States. Harare. |
| O' Hagan, M. | 1992 | Ready to Go with NVQs. Child Education August:11. |
| O' Hagan, M. | 1992 | Gaining an NVQ. Child Education September:11. |

- Olivier, P. J. 1992 Address: Affirmative Action in the Field of School Education. Implications for Education of the Interim Report on Group and Human Rights at the NAPTOSA/TFC Seminar on 16/17 June 1992. **Mentor** 74(3):9-14.
- Osborn, A. F. 1987 Early Starters. **Child Education** July:10.
- Osborn, A. F. and Millbank, J. E. 1987 **The Effects of Early Education. A Report of the Child Health and Education Study.** Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Pascal, C. 1990 Four year olds in Infant Classes. Rhetoric and Reality: Staffing and Resourcing. **Child Education.** June:13-15.
- Pascal, C. et al 1992 Early Years in Europe. **Child Education** September:20-21.
- Piper, B. 1994 NTS 78th Annual Conference. **Mentor** 76(2):20-25.
- Psacharopoulos, G. 1990. **Why Educational Policies Can Fail: An Overview of Selected African Experiences.** Washington: The World Bank.
- Republic of South Africa 1994 **Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa: First Steps to developing a New System. Draft Policy Document of the Ministry of Education.** Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Robinson Pippins, S. 1992 Address: Community Colleges as Catalysts for Social Change at the CORDTEK Conference; University of Durban-Westville, 10/11 August 1990 in CORDTEK: Language and Community Colleges:60-66.
- Robinson-Thurlow, C. 1993 Early Childhood Educare and Pre-Primary Education in Collocations, 1993:33-39.
- Saracho, O. N. 1993. Preparing Teachers for Early Childhood Programs in the United States in Spodek, 1993:412-426.

- Schweinhart, L.J. 1985 Evidence that Good Early Childhood Programmes Work. **Phi Delta Kappan** 66 (April):545-551.
- Shaw, J. 1991 Children in Playgroups. **Child Education** December:11.
- Short, A. 1992a The Provision of Training for Early Childhood Education in South Africa. First Report of an Investigation into Non-Formal Pre-School Training. October. Pretoria:SAAECE.
- Short, A. 1992b Future Policy Options for the Training of Early Childhood Educators: Second Report of an Investigation into Non-Formal Pre-School Training. December. Cape Town.
- Short, A. and Appelbaum, D. 1994 **Directory 1993-94. Training and Related Services for Early Childhood Care and Education.** Pretoria:SAAECE.
- South African Association for Early Childhood Education (SAAECE) 1993 **Guide to Developing and Accrediting Non-Formal Training Courses for Early Childhood Educators.** Pretoria:SAAECE.
- South African Congress for Early Childhood Development 1994 SA Congress for Early Childhood Development - first 100 days report. **Soundwaves** September:1-4.
- Spodek, B. 1991 Teacher-Training in Kagan, 1991:110-129.
- Spodek, B. 1993. **Handbook of Research on the Education of Young Children.** New York: MacMillan.
- Spodek, B. and Brown, P. C. 1993 Curriculum Alternatives in Early Childhood Education: A Historical Perspective in Spodek, 1993:385-411.
- Sprinthall, N.A. 1990 **Psychology: A developmental Approach.** New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Taylor, N. 1992 **NEPI Research Paper.** The Bridging Period Programme: An Early Assessment. Johannesburg.

- Termorshuizen, K. 1987 Is the High Scope Way a Possible Solution for South Africa in Van den Berg and Vergnani, 1987:114-124.
- The Concise Oxford Dictionary
- The Education Foundation 1993 A South African Teacher Profile. **EduSource Data News** No. 4 December:1-12. Johannesburg.
- The Education Foundation 1994 A Brief Overview of Education 1993. **EduSource Data News** No 5 March:1-12. Johannesburg.
- The Education Foundation 1994 Education Data for the New Provinces. **EduSource Data News** No. 6 June:1-20. Johannesburg.
- Thompson, M. 1993 A New Era for The NNEB. **Child Education** April:11
- Thurlow, M. 1992. The National Policy in the African Context: Political Posturing or Potential for Effective Change? **Mentor** 74(3):3-8.
- Thurlow, M. 1993. The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) and NTS Proposals for Teacher Education in a Democratic South Africa. **Mentor** 75(1):9-12.
- Unterhalter, E. 1991 Education in a Future South Africa. Johannesburg: Heinemann.
Wolpe, H. and
Botha, T.
- Van den Berg, O. 1987 Door to the Future: The Pre-School Child in South Africa. A Book of Readings. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.
Vergnani, T.
- Van Schalkwyk, O. J. 1988 The Education System: Theory and Practice. Pretoria: Alkanto Publishers.
- Van Wyk, J. G. 1987 The Law of Education for the Teacher. Pretoria:Academica.
- Vos, A. J. and 1990 Comparative Education and National Education Systems. Durban: Butterworths.
Brits, V. M.

- | | | |
|---------------|-------|--|
| Weikart, D. | 1992 | The Long-Term Benefits of Pre-School Education. Educamus 38(4):15-17. |
| Wilson, J. | 1994 | Early Years Curriculum. Forum 36(2):44-45. |
| World Bank | 1988 | Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion. Washington: The World Bank. |
| Zvobgo, R. J. | 1986. | Transforming Education: The Zimbabwean Experience. Zimbabwe: The College Press. |
| Van Dyk, B. | 1993 | Collocations. Durban:NTS. |