AN EVALUATION OF THE PROVISION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO COLLEGES OF EDUCATION: A PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PERSPECTIVE

BY

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Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Administration in the Department of Public Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at the University of Durban-Westville.

Promoter:

DR D SING

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GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACTE	American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education
ATO	Area Training Organisation
AUC	Australian Universities Commission
B Ed	Bachelor of Education (usually a post graduate degree)
B Paed	Baccalareus Paedogogiae
CAE	Colleges of Advanced Education (Council)
CATE	Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education
CAT	College for Advanced Technical Education
CES	Committee on Education Structures
CHE	Committee of Heads of Education
CNAA	Council for National Academic Awards (Britain)
COHD	Committee of Heads of Education Departments
CORDTEK	Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal
CRCH	Central Register and Clearing House
CRTC	Council of Rectors of Training Colleges
CTEC	Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission

CTP	Committee of Technikon Principals
CUP	Committee of University Principals
CUR	Committee of University Rectors
CVCP	Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals
DE	Diploma in Education
D Ed	Doctor of Education
DES	Department of Education and Science
DET	Department of Education and Training
DHE	Diploma in Higher Education
ERS	Education Renewal Strategy
FTC	Federal Council of Teachers' Associations in South Africa. (predecessor of the TFC).
GNP	Gross National Product
GTC	General Teaching Council for Scotland.
HDE	Higher Diploma in Education (signifying four years of study)
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
IACEQ	Interdepartmental Advisory Committee re Evaluation of Qualifications

IACQT	Interdepartmental Advisory Committee re Qualifications and Training
INSET	In-service Education and Training of Teachers
IRS	Inland Revenue Service
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
JMB	Joint Matriculation Board
JSTC	Junior Secondary Teachers Certificate
LEA	Local Education Authority
LLB	Bachelor of Law
MA Ed	Master of Arts in Education
MEd	Master of Education
MPhil	Master of Philosophy
NAB	National Advisory Body for Local Authority Higher Education
NAEC	National Advisory Education Council.
NCATE	National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education
NCTET	National Council for Teacher Education and Training
NEA	National Education Association (USA)
NEC	National Educational Council

NED	Natal Education Department
NTD	Natal Teachers Diploma
NTS	Natal Teachers' Society (predominantly White and English speaking)
NTSD	Natal Teachers Senior Diploma
NUT	National Union of Teachers
PCAS	Polytechnics Central Admissions System
PCFC	Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council
PGCE	Post Graduate Certificate in Education
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PTC	Primary Teachers Certificate
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
RAC	Regional Advisory Council for Further Education
RECES	Research Committee on Educational Structures.
RSA	Republic of South Africa
RSG	Rate Support Grants
SACE	South African Council for Education
SAIPA	South African Institute of Public Administration
SAIRR	South African Institute of Race Relations
SANEP	South African National Education Policy

SATC	South African Teachers' Council (predecessor of the TFC)
SSTD	Senior Secondary Teachers Diploma
STD	Secondary Teachers Diploma
TAFE	Technical and Further Education (Council)
TEPS	Teacher Education and Professional Standards
TFC	Teachers' Federal Council (an amalgamation of the FTC and the SATC)
UCCA	University Central Council on Admissions
UED	University Education Diploma
UGC	University Grants Commission
USA	United States of America
UTAC	Universities and Technikons Advisory Council
WCTE	Waikato College of Teacher Education

CONVENTIONS

Pagination - The Composite page numbering system has been used, wherein each chapter is numbered separately, with the chapter number forming part of the composite page number.

Pronouns - No particular convention has been followed. In each instance, male implies female, and *vice versa*.

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SUMMARY

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The colleges of education have been the forgotten educational sector in South Africa. At the time of Union, the colleges were belatedly appended to the Education Departments for administrative purposes and they have remained associated with the school sector ever since. In order to aspire to tertiary status, some colleges have linked with universities, in addition to their links with the Education Departments. Although there have been decided advantages in these arrangements, it has also meant that the colleges have never established a *raison detre* in their own right.

Given that a new political and educational dispensation is in the offing, the time is right to review all the ramifications of the collegiate sector and derive a model for a corporate administrative, professional and academic future for the colleges as institutions of higher education in their own right and with their own mission and canons of excellence.

The collegiate model derived has to meet the multifarious requirements of all the stakeholders, including political office bearers, public administrators, educationists and the public. To this end, wide-ranging considerations were reviewed as a backdrop against which the collegiate model could be judged. In particular, the proposals had to be viewed through the portals of the public administrative paradigm, as any model had to be acceptable in terms of sound administration. The areas researched included the following:

(i) theoretical and normative Public Administration orientations were reviewed, in particular the generic administrative paradigm, and the normative considerations in the literature; it is acknowledged that recently new paradigms have been put forward, but the generic paradigm was considered the most appropriate for the needs of this piece of research.

(ii) the historical aspects of teacher education in South Africa were considered, including the major Commissions affecting teacher education provision, cardinal legislation, aspects of the education crises, and the current ideological stances being adopted by the various groupings in the country;

(iii) a comparative review of teacher education in various countries throughout the world, including a number of countries in Africa, was undertaken. As the South African educational system is based to a considerable extent on the British system, the British literature on teacher education provision was considered more fully;

(iv) the provision of teacher education was considered within State and political parameters. Structures and systems of administration and organisation were reviewed internationally. Issues specifically addressed included college autonomy, models of affiliated tertiary institutions, the relationship between central, regional and local structures, and educational management structures as they relate to control and accountability in particular;

(v) teacher education affects, and is affected by, economic and financial concerns, and these were considered. Related financial factors included:

- methods of funding teacher education, such as by grants, loans or voucher systems; and

- funding mechanisms within the proposed Collegium to ensure economy, efficiency, control and accountability;

(vi) The place of colleges of education, and teacher education, within the higher education realm was considered, including the nature of the courses of training and the relationship between the colleges and the universities. Related concerns were monotechnicism, the parameters of professional education and the place of in-service teacher education provision; and

(vii) Various mechanisms for ensuring and maintaining standards in teacher education were reviewed, including institutional accreditation, course validation and teacher educator licensure. NCATE in the United States and the CNAA in Britain were fully explicated as models of standardisation, as they related to academic and professional teacher education and training. Institutional performance and staffing considerations were discussed as mechanisms for ensuring quality teacher education.

In the light of the above research, the collegiate model proposals were presented. Considerations included the organisation and structures of the Collegium model proposals

and the articulation of the system in order to ensure the role and functions of the key stakeholders, such as the Minister, the Education Department, other tertiary institutions, the school sector, regional structures, and the colleges themselves. Inter-college liaison was specifically addressed. The role and place of the individual college is of cardinal concern in the collegiate model, and issues such as autonomy and corporateness, consultation and coordination, and centralisation/decentralisation were specifically considered.

A critical appraisal of the model was considered in the light of the previous chapters. In particular the model was assessed in the light of the Public Administration parameters outlined at the outset of the research.

The model accommodates corporate collegiate consultation, coordination, and negotiation. The central body, the Collegium, promotes a professional/administrative model of teacher education provision and development in which the political, professional and administrative interests and concerns are accommodated, ensuring a balance of influence by these sectors.

The collegiate model is an ideal arrangement for correcting the problems and injustices of the past. It has been specifically structured to address present problems and future needs. It is a unitary model which assures national planning and sectorial policy-making. It is empowered to raise the standard of teacher education on a corporate basis

and can address issues such as ideological differences, local option concerns, administrative problems caused by schisms in the past, and backlogs in financial and facility provision.

The advantages of the collegiate model were highlighted, as well as the potential problem areas which may be encountered by the Collegium in trying to achieve its aims.

CHAPTER ONE

1 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the conceptual framework of the study is elucidated and the methodological approach is clarified.

The key concept of 'first principle public administration' is presented as it applies in this research.

An introduction to the essential aspects of the collegiate model is necessary in order that the issues and perspectives selected and debated in this work make sense in terms of the direction taken in the research.

1.2 ORIGINATION OF RESEARCH

Teacher education in South Africa has never received exclusive consideration as a discrete sector in higher education. It has been associated administratively with the school sector, and has been divided on 'own affairs' lines.

It is felt that a carefully articulated model for the provision of teacher education, with central planning, regional negotiation and local option, is long overdue.

Since the advent of State President de Klerk's address to Parliament on 2 February 1990, political changes are in the offing. At the same time, with a change in the Constitution imminent, and the end of 'own affairs' education, changes in the structures and provision of teacher education will also

be re-negotiated. The time is therefore ripe for a detailed consideration of the issues, principles and perspectives surrounding the college sector and the provision of teacher education. No such research is currently available. There is a need for a well developed model to be presented for consideration.

On a personal level, the author of this piece of research has worked at a college of education for over a decade, latterly in a management position. He has been associated with teachers' society affairs, and has been involved in a secretarial capacity with significant regional and national teacher educator bodies such as CORDTEK (the Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu Natal) and the CCER (the Committee of College of Education Rectors). A natural concern for the future development of the collegiate sector has been the inspiration behind this research.

1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The provision of professional teacher education is the responsibility of the State, which sets broad policy parameters in order to ensure that the needs of the country and its citizens are realised. The type and form of teacher education provided depends, *inter alia*, on :

(i) the national historical antecedents of teacher education provision;

(ii) the philosophy, principles and premises underlying the national perception of teaching and education; and

(iii) the socio-political and socio-economic realities of the nation.

Teacher education is not a static phenomenon; it is in a constant state of flux, but the changes tend to be evolutionary in nature and usually occur as a result of detailed and timely research, consideration and planning. Usually a Commission, or an august educational-administrative body (such as the Human Sciences Research Council), is charged with thoroughly investigating proposed changes to the system of education. Such reviews, reconsiderations and changes are necessary and desirable from time to time if education is to respond dynamically to changes being wrought in the evolving ethos of the country. These changes are usually sympathetic with changes in the political, administrative, physical, economic, technological or societal aspects of a community or a nation.

The issues implicit in this research arise out of unresolved dilemmas in the history of teacher education and current circumstances in the provision of teacher education for all population groups in South Africa. The main historical antecedents relevant to this piece of research are, *inter alia*,:

(i) the exclusion of colleges of education from higher education status at the time of Union;

(ii) the Gericke and De Lange Commissions' conceptualisations, *inter alia*, on provincial/university/college liaison and autonomy for colleges;

(iii) the coordination of teacher education provision with a unitary administrative body as proposed by the De Lange Commission;

(iv) degree/diploma issues; and

(v) black teacher education backlogs.

The current circumstances, which make this proposed research compelling and appropriate, have occurred since the Gericke and De Lange Commission recommendations. They are, *inter alia*, as follows:

(i) the advent of the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983) which prescribed education as an "own affair" thereby fragmenting educational provision;

(ii) the demise of the elected representative provincial tier of government which appears to be resulting in increased centralisation in educational governance, decision-making and control, together with decreased local option;

(iii) the Government's stated commitment, following the De Lange Commission report, to address the disproportionate provision of education for the various population groups, particularly the black group, and the implementation of a ten year plan in order to attempt to redress prior underprovisioning in education and to gain some level of equity in current educational provision;

(iv) internationally tertiary institutions of higher learning, particularly the universities, have been in a state of uncertainty as to their role and mission; similarly in South Africa the universities have struggled with the conflicting roles of "the disinterested pursuit of knowledge" as opposed to professional and vocational education and training;

(v) the universities and technikons in South Africa are currently facing a crisis in the form of significant cuts in government funding and the Committee of University Principals have urgently drawn up contingency plans for the rationalisation of university courses offered by the various universities - some universities have already discontinued certain courses;

(vi) some colleges of education have been closed and others are threatened with closure; the number of students admitted to colleges, particularly in white, coloured and Indian teacher education, have been cut substantially and the staffing complement has been considerably reduced in some teacher education institutions;

(vii) concurrent with this overproduction of teachers, and the resulting problems of finding employment in 'own affairs' education departments and the reduction in educational provision on the one hand, a large scale underproduction of teachers and an underdeveloped physical provision for teacher education is evident on the other hand, particularly in black teacher education;

(viii) governmental spending on education has increased dramatically in an effort to catch up and keep up with educational provision amongst the previously financially disadvantaged population groups; and

(ix) in 1987 the Government proposed the introduction of a Bill to Parliament on teacher training but the Bill was withdrawn because of the adverse and unfavourable reaction it received prior to its being introduced to Parliament; the Bill is currently being redrafted and changes in educational provisioning may well be in the offing.

The current piece of research aims to establish the place and function of colleges of education within higher education *via* the formulation of an appropriate and desirable model of teacher education provision which is capable of being implemented and which would be in accord with public administration principles. This will be achieved by assessing the relevant issues from a historical orientation, reviewing the current situation and current manifestations, and devising an evolutionary model, together with an implementation strategy, from theoretical perspectives, whilst keeping present socio-political and socio-economic realities and phenomena, as well as current educational structures, in mind, and with due consideration of the needs to be met in teacher education and the philosophical underpinnings that are central to any schemata being considered. The model proposed is in accord with the contention supported by the de Lange Commission that sound public administration should be based on a system which is

nationally controlled but locally administered. The maximum devolution of decision-making power should be allowed within confined parameters set by the government and choices should be subject to local option wherever possible.

The axiomatic presupposition of this research is that colleges of education are capable of being viable autonomous institutions that can provide effective teacher education of a sufficiently academic standard and with professional competence. Colleges of education need to be judged according to their own particular mission and it should be acknowledged that they have an existence in their own right. They are uniquely placed to meet their own particular and specific needs. Their courses are unique and distinctive and differ in nature, content and objective from university courses. Yet these college courses are, in certain instances, held to be degreeworthy in their own right. In addition, colleges are well placed to meet auxiliary educational requirements. Their mandate needs to be cast in a broader and a deeper mould.

The academic and intellectual challenge implicit in this research are contained in the following criteria:

- critical use will be made of published work and source material;

- independent judgement will be exercised in testing the ideas and opinions of prior educationists and public administrationists;

- the findings will challenge previous beliefs;

- knowledge from various disciplines and from perspectives obtained from other countries will be extrapolated and melded innovatively in the construction of a novel model which may be used as a template for the provision of professional teacher education and the model will be capable of being implemented in practice;

- as such, this piece of research will add to the academic and professional knowledge on teacher education and to the debate on the provision of professional teacher education and the possible future of colleges of education;

- the approach of this study is synoptic and multidisciplinary rather than definitive in nature and its academic challenge lies in bringing different areas and types of knowledge together in a cohesive and holistic manner around the theoretical and practical issues under consideration;

- the conception of a collegiate university is not novel or unique; the challenge of the research lies in the breadth of the disciplines and issues brought to bear on the collegiate conception and the adaptation and applicability of the proposed derived model in meeting South Africa's perceived needs realistically, yet effectively and efficiently; and

- The placing of a collegiate model within a Collegium

structure is novel. Although the Collegium conception is based on models and experiences in various countries over time, it is unique in the concept derived.

1.4 METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

The methodology will be theoretical, substantiated with empirical and ideational data from the professional and academic research literature. A critical analysis of the theoretical perspectives will be made from the relevant literature. Both current manifestations and their historical antecedents will be evaluated. Wherever appropriate, the theoretical orientations will be linked with existing structures or current practices.

The insights gained above will be extrapolated to generate an integrated critical exposition in the form of a viable model for the provision of professional teacher education. The model will be developed along philosophical and practical administrative lines and recommendations will be presented for consideration.

The main themes will be based on South African phenomenon and experience, illuminated by reference to, and comparison with, relevant issues and structures in other countries, where necessary.

The overall approach will be an integration of theoretical perspectives, extended into practical considerations, based on knowledge and theory drawn from the academic disciplines of Public Administration and Education. Information will be

derived from a wide reading of the cogent issues in academic and professional books, journals and reports. A critical reading of relevant matters in the various Commission reports (in particular, the Gericke Commission, the Van Wyk de Vries Commission and the de Lange Commission), White Papers thereon and appropriate Acts of Parliament will be carried out. Knowledgeable persons in the field will be consulted informally for opinions and perspectives.

As the study will encompass a wide field, with many perspectives being drawn into collocation and centered on generating a viable and practicable model of a collegiate system for the provision of acceptable teacher education in South Africa, the approach will be interdisciplinary and synoptic in nature

1.5 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION WITHIN A MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH: FIRST PRINCIPLE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

This piece of research is based upon a novel conceptual basis termed "First Principle Public Administration". It is necessary to formulate this principle and its implications for this piece of research from the outset.

Public Adminstration constitutes a discrete set of processes and is an academic discipline in its own right. However public administration does not take place in a vacuum. Public administrators combine with other specialists in the planning and execution of their tasks. For this reason,

public administration is typically multidisciplinary in nature and interdisciplinary cooperation is required in any theoretical or practical endeavour. Public administrators need to have insight into the knowledge, skills and perceptions of the other academic disciplines that they come into contact with, in order to realise their own particular aims.

Coetzee (1988:80) holds that:

> "Because public administrators often perform their work in conjunction with practioners in other sciences, and as the public administration processes integrate and overarch all human behaviour, the discipline of Public Administration should be approached from both an interdisciplinary and a multidisciplinary point of view."

When one is considering a new dispensation (model and recommendations) for the provision of teacher education, it is not optimal to work within one academic discipline or perceptual set. If educators were to decide on a system for the provision of teacher education, they may not be overly concerned with where the finances were coming from (a legislative concern) or where education fitted into the larger picture (a legislative concern). Nor would educationists be particularly concerned with the efficient or effective use of resources (a public administration concern).

Similarly, if politicians alone were to propose a system for the provision of teacher education, they would naturally be more concerned with keeping the electorate happy and would not necessarily be concerned about administrative control

and organisational details (a public administration concern) or with factors such as the size of school classes or the quality of teachers (educational concerns). If public administrators were to evolve a system for the provision of teacher education, they may be less sensitive towards the need to keep political party groups and interest groups happy (the concern of politicians) or appreciate what infrastructure is needed to realise professional education (the concern of the educationist).

Through these simple hypothetical instances, it is clear that any proposals for the provision of teacher education need to be viewed *via* political, administrative and educational perspectives. More importantly, it is not a matter of simply considering each perspective independently, but to allow for interplay between these various perspectives and to consider the interactive effects in a balanced manner. Public Administration has the function of being the broker between politics and education. In the process of providing a service, the politicians are responsible for initiating programmes *via* legislative policies enshrined in law, the public administrators have the function of realising these policies in practice, whilst the educators are the immediate consumers of the service. The public (community) are the ultimate consumers of the service, and they must also be involved in the planning and implementation stages. Diagramatically this relationship could be represented as follows:

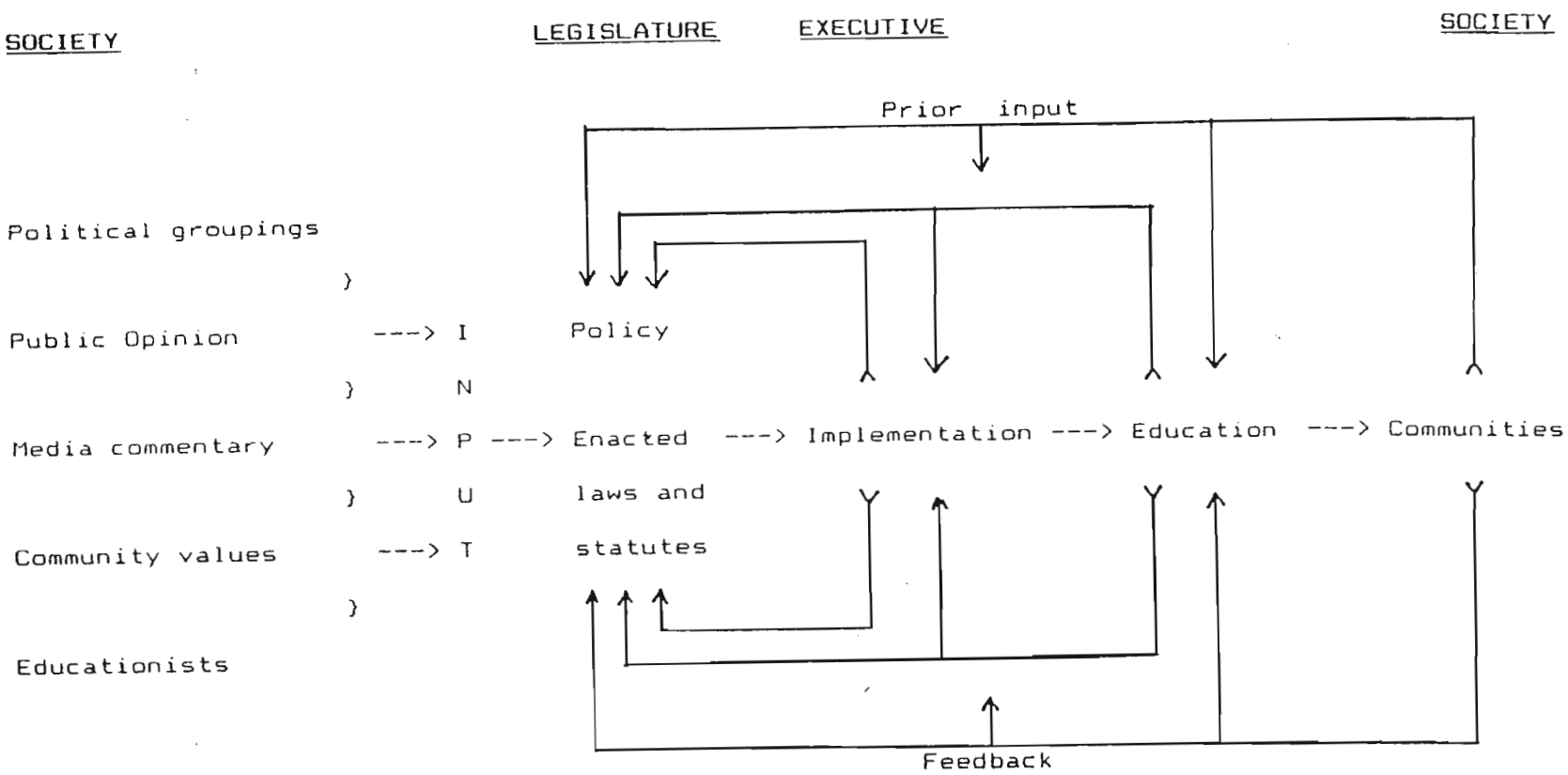

Figure 1 - Flow chart of the functional relationships between politics, public administration, education and the community.

We could represent the relationship between the four key stakeholders in the provision of education by saying that the politicians decide *to do* something, the public administrators need to consider *how to do it*, the educators can have an important input as to *what should be done* in principle and the community can *articulate their needs* and *comment* on what is provided. We can refer to the relationship between Public Administration and Education as "*first principle Public Administration.*"

1.5.1 FIRST PRINCIPLE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

By *First Principle Public Administration* is meant that Public Administration cannot encapsulate the Public Administration principles and *process* only; it must also refer to principles and *content* that lie beyond the parameters of Public Administration as a subject discipline. Such principles and content lie in the domain of the specialist (professional), in this case the educator. Thus the essence of that which is conceptually 'education' does not exist within the parameters of public administration. The first principles of pedagogy within the provision of teacher education are not contained within Public Administration as an academic discipline. Public administrators do not necessarily have experience as teachers, or hold academic and professional qualifications that make them authorities on education and teaching. The first principle approach to public administration requires that public administrators need to be guided in their first

principles by the specialists in education (the professional bodies, the academic research institutions and the practitioners).

If a public administrator is appointed to the Department of Health, say, he would need to master the essentials of health services and consult the professional experts before he could be an effective public administrator in this public department. If after a number of years of successful service he is subsequently transferred to the Department of Education, there is nothing directly in his training or experience that will enable him, without further appropriate training, experience and professional consultation to recommend a satisfactory system of teacher education. The first principles of public administrative practice in effect lie outside the domain of his public administration experience *per se*. This is why the function epithet is usually coupled with administration, as in 'education administrator'.

In the same way, the principles of effective teacher education provision, policy and organisation are not necessarily part of the educator's training and experience. The relationship between educators and public administrators is reciprocal when it comes to recommendations for the provision of an effective teacher education system.

The public office bearers, similarly, cannot function optimally without the input of professional educators.

Where politicians have effected educational programmes arising out of politically based policies, the outcomes have on occasion been unfortunate. In America, human rights movements raised the issue of the inferior educational attainment of black children. One of the political solutions adopted was the 'bussing project' where black school children were taken in buses to schools in white districts. Educationally the problem of disadvantage in schooling was not solved; in many instances it was compounded as the disparities were magnified.

In South Africa, the apartheid education policy of the Nationalist government resulted in Sowetan children (amongst others) being compelled to study *via* the language medium of Afrikaans. This political policy was unacceptable, and the educational representatives of the general public (black) had not been consulted or listened to, and the 1976 Soweto riots resulted. The Cillie Commision found that the root causes of the violence were bitterness and frustration among the black citizens about the use of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in black secondary schools (Behr 1984:196-197).

Although the above instances have been oversimplified, they do serve to indicate that political solutions to political problems within the domain of education need to be considered with a greater degree of circumspection and professional consultation. The involvement of education specialists is mandatory.

1.5.2 MULTI-INTEREST APPROACH TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The diagram above (figure 1) depicts the interactions between all the stakeholders and by implication indicates the importance of involving all the interested persons when policies and programmes are enacted or executed. Each group of interested persons needs to have an opportunity for prior input and for feedback in the process. The relationship between the legislators, the public administrators and the educationists, in planning for and the realisation of teacher education provision, may be represented as a Venn diagram, as follows:

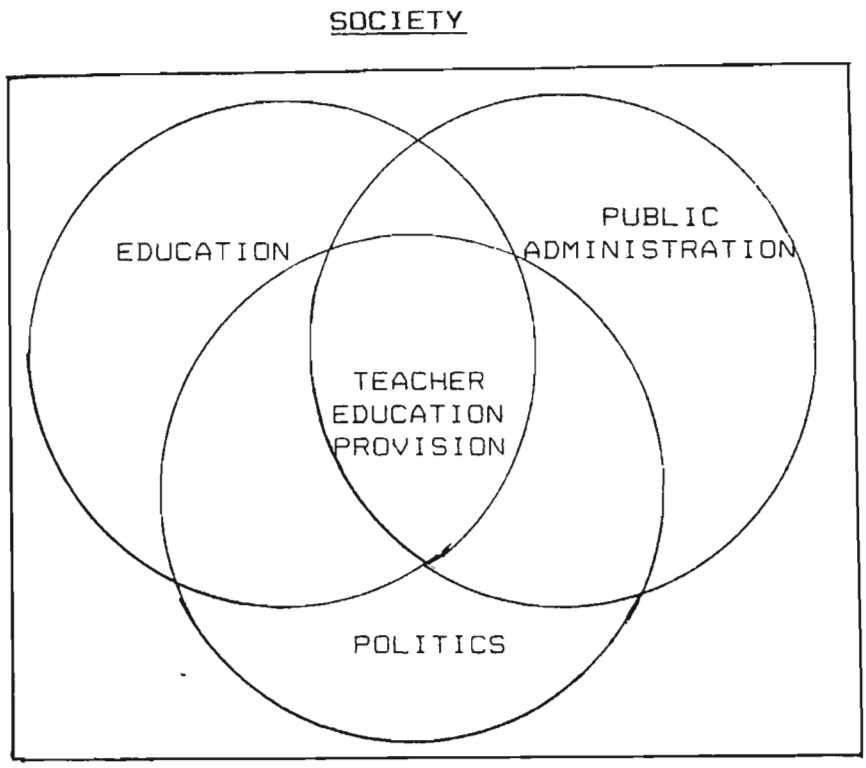

Figure 2 - Interactivity of functions in public policy-making

The principles that obtain between the spheres of activity of the minister and the public administrator as applied to policy-making, may be represented as follows:

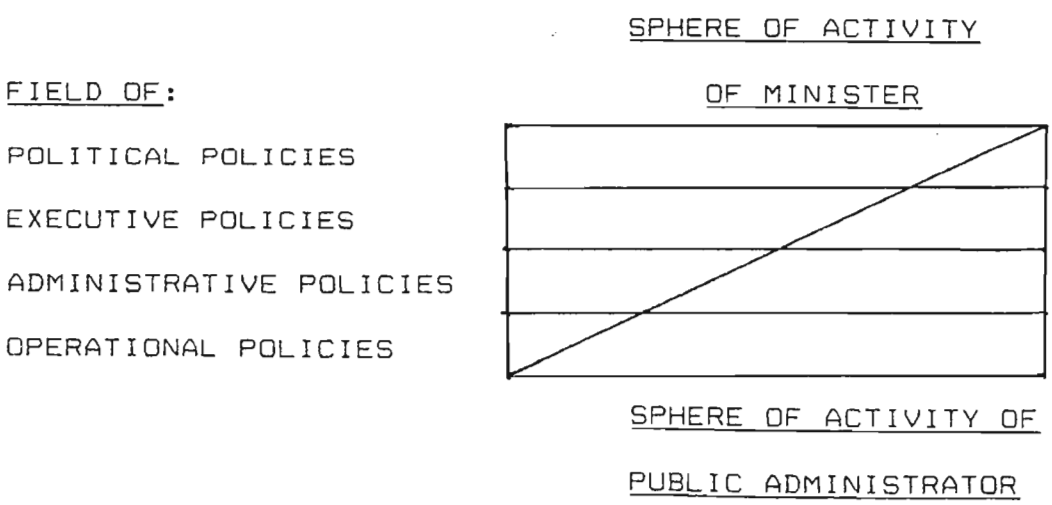

Figure 3 - Overlapping functions in public policy-making

Although every level of policy-making involves both the administrator and the relevant minister, the ratio of their responsibilities varies proportionately.

Similarly Rowland (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:62) describes the differentiation between specialised functional work, referred to as line functions (the object of the enterprise) and administrative functions, called the staff functions. The relationship between the line functionary and the staff functionary is typified as being direct and inverse. Diagrammatically the relationship may be represented as follows:

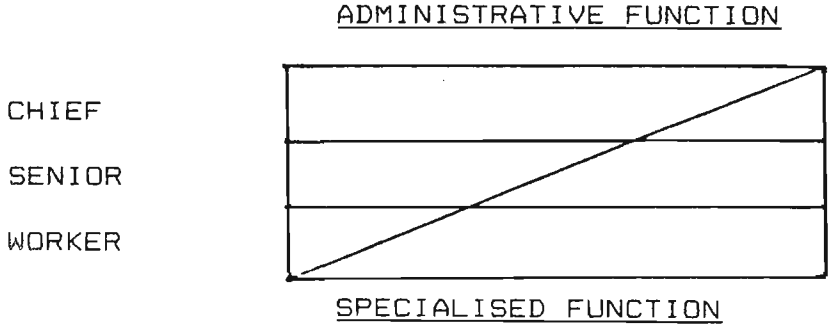

Figure 4 - Relationship between line and staff functions

This figure shows the proportionate relationship between a line function worker (say a specialist teacher) and a staff function manager (say the principal of a school). The higher one goes up the corporate ladder, the less specialist work one is able to accomplish and the more administrative functionary work that is required of one.

The line-staff function concept is complicated by the fact that a particular function can be seemingly the same, yet

fall under the rubric of either 'line' or 'staff' depending on the circumstances. From an education perspective (specialist line function), public administrators may be perceived as fulfilling a staff function role (auxiliary, supportive and administrative). From the perspective of a public administrator in the department of education, the administration may be viewed as the line function (specialist function), and the input from educators in this process may be cast in a staff function mould. Here the staff function may be seen as advisory in that it provides comprehensive factual information for the legislative and executive policy-makers.

The various conceptual relationships that prevail between politicians, public officials and educators have been touched upon above. The approach which will be adopted in this work will be an educational perspective, as perceived through the portal of Public Administration. This conceptual approach is the essence of the 'first principle' public administrative point of view as described above and is appropriate for an interdisciplinary perspective.

1.6 THE ESSENTIAL COLLEGIATE MODEL

The collegiate model is set in a unitary education department, which falls under the Minister of National Education, who is accountable to Parliament. The single Department of Education would be responsible for all educational matters. It would consist of three Commissions responsible for schooling, higher education, and post

secondary education respectively. The Commission for Higher Education would consist of three independent boards for universities, technikons and colleges. The college board would be termed the Collegium. Although the three boards would act independently of each other, so as to avoid one sector dominating the other sectors, the three sectors of higher education would have representation on each other's boards, and liaison would occur on an ongoing basis.

The Collegium would be a consultative and executive body. It would aim to be a professional administrative body. Although the Minister would have the overall responsibility for the collegiate sector, he would set the broad parameters, such as the overall budget and the minimum requirements for teacher training, and would empower the Collegium to administer the collegiate sector and execute the national policies as decided by Parliament and the Minister.

The Collegium would be responsible for the planning and policy-making for the college sector in consultation with the Minister. The Collegium would have representatives of the Department of National Education and the Treasury serving on its central committee. It would also have strong collegiate representation elected by the colleges at the regional level. In such a structure, the concerns of the administrators, the political office bearers and the teacher education professionals would be represented, and no one grouping would be able to dominate the other in the normal course of affairs. As the Minister would empower the Collegium to act on his behalf, he would have the power to

intervene if matters went badly awry, but this should not be allowed to happen. The college sector would be given a considerable say over their own affairs providing that they used their powers responsibly. The threat of control being handed over to political interests or bureaucrats should be sufficient to ensure that such abuses of power do not occur.

The Collegium would also be responsive to the colleges in the sector. It would establish, and fund, regional structures, which would carry out its policies. The regional structures would consist of an administrative component. More importantly, it would consist of a number of committees of representatives from each of the colleges in the region. These committees would deal independently with matters of administrative, financial, academic and professional concern. These representatives would be nominated by the college councils in the region. The representatives would carry issues, perspectives and matters of concern to the regional level, and they would relay regional perspectives, either from the Collegium, or as raised by other colleges, back to their college councils.

Each region would elect representatives to serve on the Collegium, or its committees. These representatives would carry information from the Collegium to the region, or from the region to the Collegium. Certain matters may be relayed from one region to the other regions *via* the Collegium.

The Collegium is thus a model for national planning and policy-making based on wide-ranging consultation and

communication. However the aim is not to dominate the colleges. The Collegium and the regional structures would be specifically mandated to give as much autonomy as possible to the individual college councils, by devolving specific powers and the responsibility for the colleges to realise their aims. The colleges would, for example, control their finances within the parameters of the budgets approved in consultation with the Collegium. They would also develop and offer their own courses, within the parameters set by the accreditation and validation processes of the collegiate sector.

The colleges would assume, through the corporate structures, the primary responsibility for their mutual governance and the quality of their courses. They would have a part in deriving the corporate limitations, which would establish the parameters of their own freedom. They would have the ability to negotiate, and renegotiate if need be, the corporate requirements that apply to themselves. The colleges would have an integral role in influencing the collegiate policy, direction and developments occurring in the collgiate sector. Arising out of the opportunities for consultation and mutual deliberation, there would be a corporate vision and a harmony of purpose. The Collegium would function on agreement and not on the basis of compulsion.

Because of the richness of communication accommodated within the collegiate structures, the Collegium would represent a source of collective wisdom and experience which would be of

benefit to all the colleges. The result would be a system of professional peer guidance and control arising out of the inter-institutional cooperation and collaboration.

The Collegium would have, in essence, the following functions and responsibilities:

- it would execute government policy;

- it would draw up a national policy for the collegiate sector, and conduct the necessary planning and research in this regard;

- it would address backlogs in physical provision, and establish a viable in-service training facility which is articulated with the pre-service training;

- it would act as a broker between the government and the colleges, reconciling the interests of both sides;

- it would establish and coordinate the college sector, ensuring an articulated system of management, and keep the local, regional and national initiatives in harmony;

- it would ensure wide-ranging and adequate consultation opportunities, both within the sector and between the sector and the stakeholders, such as the school and teacher sector;

- it would control the budgeting process, resource allocation and the monitoring of expenditure;

- it would be responsible for promoting and ensuring economy, efficiency and effectiveness in the use of resources;

- it would establish controls, audit expenditure and be responsible for the political accountability of the collegiate sector; and

- it would be responsible for the academic and professional standards of the collegiate sector. This would be accomplished by:

* establishing effective processes of institutional accreditation, course validation and lecturer licensure;

* establishing sound assessment procedures, including peer review, college visitation, and an external examiner system;

* addressing the need for expertise and training for management and the teacher educators;

* centralising certification so that the awards are of an acceptable minimum standard and awards across the sector are of a reasonably similar standard; and

* establishing a charter on a corporate basis so as to underwrite degree and diploma qualifications.

The Collegiate model may be represented diagrammatically as follows:

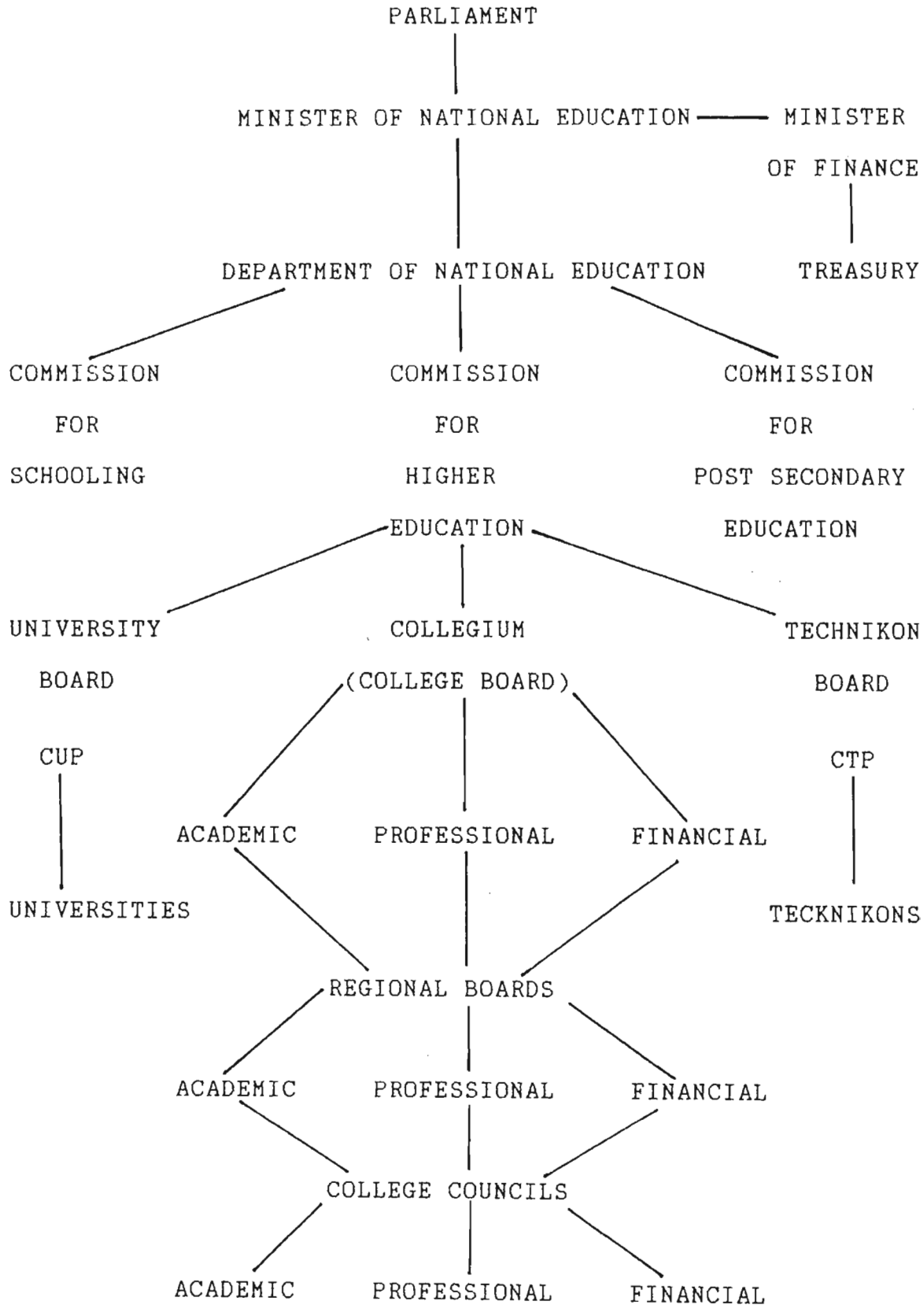

Figure 5 - Schematic representation of the collegiate structures

1.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter the rationale and methodology of the study were elucidated. The novel key concept of 'first principle Public Administration' was presented. The essence of the collegiate model was formulated as a background to understanding the following chapters in the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE CONSIDERATION OF THE PROVISION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES AS A BASIS FOR DISCUSSING THE PROVISION AND DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In investigating the provision and future development of professional teacher education in South Africa, the proposed model and recommendations will be considered in the light of Public Administration theory and the concomitant practice.

For this reason, the conceptual basis of Public Administration will be considered. Public administration will be considered as an academic and a societal phenomenon. It will be necessary to review the relationship between Political Science and Public Administration, which historically have had common roots. An explication of the legislative and executive processes will be undertaken. The place of public administration in the provision of social goods and services to the public will be viewed *vis-a-vis* the role of the public political representatives whose task it is to provide for the public by serving in and through Parliament.

Having established the concept and process of public administration, the focus will fall on the paradigm of Public Administration as an academic discipline. Attention will be given to the relative strengths and shortcomings of Public Administration as a theoretical orientation and as a framework for research endeavours.

It will be seen that, although Public Administration as a research discipline lacks the rigour and sophistication of scientific method, it has a paradigmatic framework which is appropriate and valid for social research. This framework is in two parts. Firstly the generic approach is a useful tool for considering the application of any proposed models or systems for the provision of professional teacher education Secondly, the normative factors, which are implicit in democratic pursuits and explicit in the literature concerning Public Administration as a construct, and as a process, provide a perspective on public administrative proposals. The normative factors provide a valid basis for making evaluative judgements, or for deciding between conflicting and disparate value judgements, arising out of the social processes and factors in the research process.

These considerations of the theory and process of public administration, and the paradigm of Public Administration as an academic pursuit, will act as a standard against which to measure the proposed models and structures developed in this piece of research.

The generic administrative construct will be discussed in some detail as it pertains to the provision of teacher education. Policy and the policy-making process will be considered, with a particular consideration of policy implementation, policy analysis and public participation in policy matters. Account will also be taken of values in the policy-making process.

Financing, staffing and the determination of work procedures will be discussed briefly as they pertain to the provision of teacher education.

Organising will be considered with special reference to factors such as the delegation of authority and the tension between decentralisation and centralisation in national public administrative and executive affairs.

Control is central to good public management and will be discussed, taking into account internal departmental control, legislative control and the control of professionals such as teacher educators.

Planning as a generic auxiliary function will be considered as the auxiliary function of primary concern in deriving models and recommendations for the provision and development of teacher education.

2.2 NATURE AND ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

It is necessary to define the concept 'public administration' and to consider the place of public

administration within the functioning of the State.

2.2.1 CONCEPTS: 'PUBLIC' AND 'ADMINISTRATION'

In order to understand the concept public administration, it is necessary to consider its etymological roots, thereby elucidating the origins of the basic concepts involved.

'Public' is contrasted with 'private' or 'personal' and is used in the sense of pertaining to, or affecting, the people at large (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:15). Public therefore refers to society, or to its subsets which are referred to as communities.

Society is a composite whole of man living together in association with his fellow man. Society may be thought of as mankind in interaction. Communities form part of the broader society within which man lives (Sonn in Gildenhuys 1988:317).

Public may therefore refer to the whole, or to the distinct parts which go to make up the whole, where these parts are distinct social entities in their own right.

Administration is carried out by the people in the society, or community, for the people in that society or community. It is a goal directed process, engaged in through a group of persons in order to accomplish a predetermined ideal, or bring about a desired state of affairs. Roux (in Gildenhuys 1988:171) defines administration as follows:

> "Administration is a process, a related group of activities, the dynamics of which are generic to group

> efforts aimed at combined goal realisation in all goal oriented human frames of reference".

It should be realised however that administration is not aimless or haphazard; it is part of the definition of administration that it should be carried out economically. Coetzee (1988:55) stresses this aspect of administration:

> "In the science of administration, whether public or private, the basic 'good' is efficiency. The fundamental objective of the science of administration is the accomplishment of the work in hand with the least expenditure of manpower and materials. Efficiency is thus axiom number one in the value scale of administration".

The goal of administration is not only encapsulated in the manner of executing the administrative process, but also in the realisation of its end. For administration to occur economically, predetermined goals or endpoints must be explicitly formulated. If distinct, well considered and clearly articulated goals are proclaimed as part of the administrative process, the institution carrying out the administrative process, and the community which is likely to benefit from the results of the administrative process, will know in advance which state of affairs or particular objective the institution is attempting to bring about, or achieve. In setting goals, the administrators thereby specify the desirable state of affairs which is considered worth striving for, and delineate the means for assessing the success of the administrative process. Thus implicit in the goals are objectives, and these objectives are themselves the result of the interplay of a number of value systems. The goals and objectives implicitly proclaim the normative views of the administrators in that they specify

what is good or bad, desirable or undesirable (Robbins 1976:129).

The concept 'administration' typically encapsulates three realms of activity. Th *purpose* of the administration needs to be defined. The *means* of achieving the administrative process need to be considered, especially with a view to economy. The *results* of the administrative process need to be reviewed in the light of the purpose and means of the administrative process.

Administration can therefore be viewed diagramatically as follows:

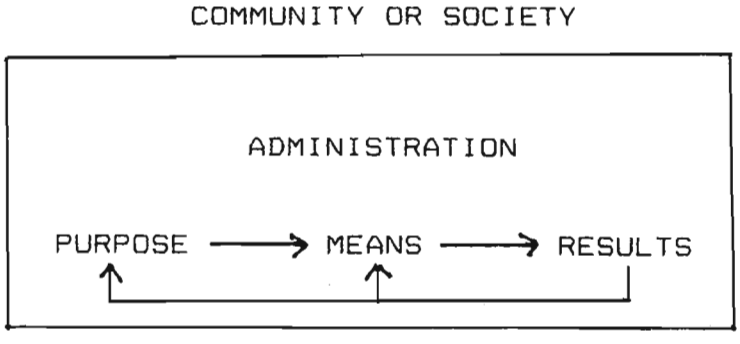

Figure 6 - Diagrammatic representation of administration

Thus within public administration, the purpose of any proposed course of action will to large extent dictate the means which are likely to be employed. In turn the purpose of any project and the means adopted will affect the results which may be attained. Reciprocally, the outcome, or results obtained, will be fed back into any consideration of the purpose of an administrative venture, and into the means utilised to realise that venture.

2.2.2 DEFINITIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is administration that occurs in a public domain. As such, public administration is conducted in a political environment (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:212). It is the administrative side of government (as opposed to the executive and legislative sides of government) which is responsible for implementing the programmes contained in the various statutes and acts called legislation. The legislation forms and represents the will of the people of the State, as expressed by their representatives in Parliament. To the extent that public administration is the action part of government, it represents the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realised. Its primary interest lies in how legislation will be put into effect, rather than in the conceptualisation of a legislative programme, although public administrators in practice are involved in the ends of legislation, as well as the means of achieving the legislation. Public administrators therefore concentrate on the implementation of the policies contained in the parliamentary statutes and acts, but are involved to a lesser degree in formulating policy, which is encapsulated ultimately in legislation, prior to being implemented.

The concept of public administration has been defined and clarified in many ways by many persons, and yet no decisive and conclusive definition has emerged. This is as one would expect with such a complex set of theoretical and practical orientations, which occur so widely and in so many

institutions and pursuits. The locus of public administraion practice is universal and disparate. The focus of Public Administration theory attempts to generalise the commonalities in the public administration processes, thereby seeking universal truths or principles that typify and explain these processes.

For the purpose of this work, the following definitions of Public Administration are considered to be cogent and reasonably representative of the domain of Public Administration.

> "...public administration has to do with the marshalling of human and material resources in order to achieve the objectives of public policy." (Balogan 1983:11).

Cutchin (1981:79-81) avers:

> "The term (public administration) represents a broad-ranging, amorphous combination of theory and practice whose objectives are...to encourage public policies that are more responsive to social needs, and to institute managerial practices in public bureaucracies that are designed to achieve effectiveness and efficiency and, increasingly, to meet the deeper needs of the citizenry..."

White (1955:2) takes a broader view, and one of a more philosophical nature as he perceives public administration to be:

> "...the composite of all the laws, regulations, practices, codes and customs that prevail at any time and in any jurisdiction".

The construct of public administration which has achieved wide acceptance in South Africa, and which will be seminal in this work, is that of the generic approach. In the generic approach, an attempt has been made to define those

attributes or processes which are universal in all administrative activities. The generic processes consist of six discrete administrative functions which are posited as being universal in the public administrative process, yet which are unified in that they are mutually inclusive. Each generic administrative process is interactive with all the others in a dynamic series of inter-relatedness.

Cloete's definition of public administration (as quoted in Coetzee 1988:20) is as follows:

> "Public administration is a comprehensive and peculiar field of activity , consisting of numerous activities, processes or functions performed by public officials working in public institutions, and aimed at producing goods and rendering services for the benefit of the community. These activities or functions can be classified into three groups:
>
> * the generic administrative activities or functions of policy making, financing, organizing, staffing, the determination of work procedures, and the devising of the methods of control;
>
> * the functional activities peculiar to specific services such as education, nursing, public work or defence;
>
> * the auxiliary functions such as decision making, data processing, planning, programming, and communication, which are necessary to simplify or expedite the execution of the generic administrative functions and the functional activities".

The generic approach defined above has been specifically selected as being the most apposite for this study. It is acknowledged that the generic approach has evolved greatly since this formulation by Cloete. For example, Cloete (1991) has extended and expanded his approach to include, *inter alia*, the important dimension of public management. Fox *et* alia (1991) have developed their views on public management.

In spite of this ongoing evolution of the generic approach, the core administrative processes have been selected to form the basis for this work, because of its emphasis on the macro approach.

2.2.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

Public Administration as an academic field of study, is not a pure science or a pure philosophy. As the activity of public administration touches on so many areas and endeavours of community life, it encompasses the universe of man and ideas. For this reason Public Administration interacts and overlaps with many other academic disciplines. Historically Public Administration and Political Science were kindred academic pursuits, and Public Administration has grown in large part out of the wider field of inquiry, Political Science (Berkley 1978:14).

Public Administration has come of age as a valid and discrete arena of academic pursuit and understanding, and its truths differ from those of Political Science, as does its focus of scientific inquiry.

Coetzee (1988:88) defines the domain of political science as:

(i) political power and political systems;

(ii) the state as a form of human association with lawful powers of compulsion and persuasion;

(iii) public aims and their institutionalisation;

(iv) relationships between the individual and the state; and

(v) inter-state relations.

Public administration by contrast, is primarily concerned with the execution of public policy, implying that its focus is on the internal functioning of executive public institutions.

In summation, the delineation between Political Science and Public Administration lies in the differential that Political Science makes a study of public institutions in their *political context* (meaning political behaviour and political systems), whilst Public Administration concentrates on the *internal functioning* of the executive public institutions (Cloete 1988:89).

2.2.4 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

By 'public institutions', it is meant that the institutions are not privately owned and are not profit motivated. Public institutions are usually supported economically from fiscal finances and their function is to provide a service for the community served by these institutions. Public institutions are staffed by public servants who are funded by the State.

Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:217-218) describe the role of public institutions as follows:

> "The main purpose of public institutions in general is to render uninterrupted community services essential to the maintenance of a satisfied community and to the promotion of the general welfare, by ensuring the greatest possible measure of spiritual and material welfare for the inhabitants of the country.

Thus the general welfare of the citizens is the prime criterion against which the activities of public

institutions should be measured, as opposed to the private sector where the material well-being of the owners or the shareholders, as measured in profits or capital accumulation, is the prime criterion.

2.2.5 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE PROCESS OF GOVERNANCE

Public adminstration is closely linked to politics, which is to say that, although public administration is not political *per se*, it does function within a political ethos. Politics is the process through which power and influence can be obtained and exercised (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986:16). This power and influence should not be sought for their intrinsic reward, but should be used, as a broad aim, for the promotion of community welfare and the ordered running of the public body corporate. The objectives of public sector works are relatively intangible, as they are linked to the promotion of general welfare. The outcomes of public efforts need to be judged in terms of general utility.

The theory behind the process of governance lies in the principles inherent in the democratic State. The people are sovereign within their State. A society cannot be run without a suitable structure, organised to meet the ends of the State. For that reason public office bearers are duly elected to decide on the affairs of the State. The public office bearers corporately form the legislature which has to plan how to meet the needs and wants of the citizens with the limited resources available. In order for the citizens

to realise their aim of general benefit and welfare, the sovereignty of the people is passed to the legislature (duly elected representatives of the citizens of the State). The legislative supremacy (representational sovereignty) is provided for in the Constitution, which is the document that establishes the State legally and allows for all the controlling legislation. Thus in terms of section 30 of the provisions of the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983), it is stipulated under the heading of "Legislature and its powers":

> "The legislative power of the Republic is vested in the State President and the Parliament of the Republic, which, as the sovereign legislative authority in and over the Republic, shall have full powers to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Republic:"

These injunctions empower the elected office bearers to make any decisions concerning the goals to be achieved, the utilisation of resources and the means of bringing about an equilibrium in the various spheres of social life (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986:16). The legislative decision-making process culminates in a policy, which is enacted in legislation. Although policy is primarily the preserve of the elected office bearers in the legislature, in practice policy is formulated *via* an interactive process between the public office bearers, the public officials (public administrators) and the public.

Once policy decisions have been embodied in legislation, the public administrators implement the policies according to the mandate contained in the legislation and, most

importantly, taking into account community and cultural factors that have a bearing on the citizens involved.

It should be noted that the responsibility for the decisions, the resultant policy, the implementation of statutory requirements and policies, and the outcome of programmes implemented to realise the policy, are firmly vested in the legislature, and the public office bearers are responsible to the citizens for their management of the society and the resources of the country, as they run the affairs of the State for the good of all the citizens and are accountable to the public for their general welfare and well-being.

The citizens will, in all likelihood, react to the policy proposals and policy implementation. In this way feedback is provided. The citizens are likely to demand that the values and norms which are held dear in their community, and in the greater society, should be acknowledged in public actions. This means that the legislature (the elected public office bearers) and the executive (the public administrators) must function in a manner that is acceptable to the majority of the citizens, this being the essence of the sovereignty of the citizens, which is in turn the essence of the democratic process and the rationale behind the theory of democracy.

The political system can be depicted diagramatically as follows (after Sing, in Coetzee 1982:56):

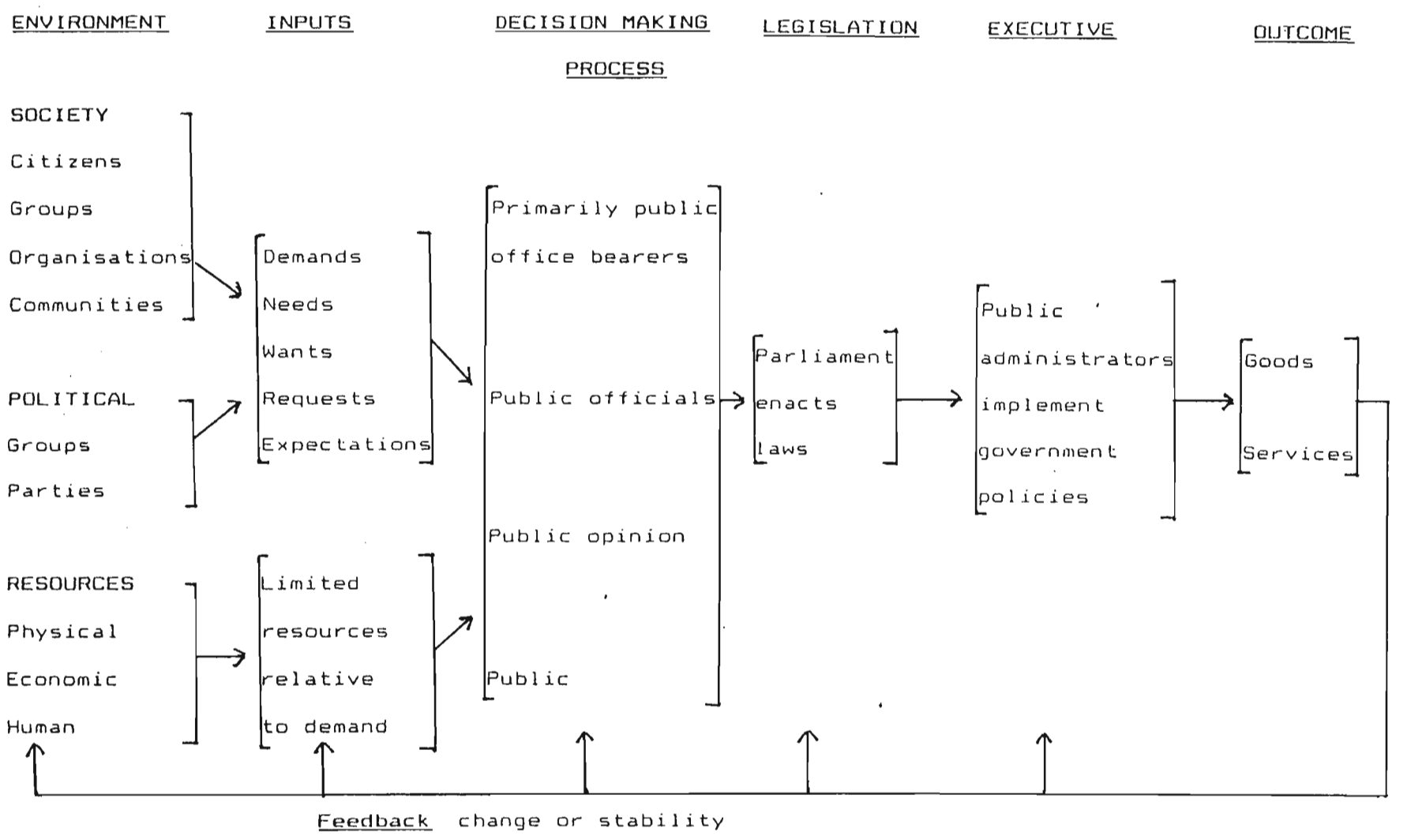

Figure 7 - Representation of Political System

2.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A SUITABLE PARADIGM FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE PROVISION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Having explicated the theoretical construct Public Administration, and considered briefly the ethos within which public administration is found, it is necessary to consider the appropriateness of the Public Administration paradigm for the consideration of the provision and future development of professional teacher education in South Africa.

We have noted that public administration deals with implementing the policy decisions of the legislature, enacted in law. We have further noted that education falls under the aegis of the government. Parliament establishes an organisation of educational institutions, funds them, staffs them, and controls them, *via* appropriate legislation. For this reason the provision of education comes within the ambit of public administration, certainly in terms of the execution of the education processes as legislated by the executive (Parliament). So education certainly falls under the rubric of public administration in *practice.*

However, consideration will be given in this section to the appropriateness of education provision being considered in the light of the *theory* of public administration. Is the paradigm of Public Administration appropriate for the

consideration of the provision of teacher education? Is Public Administration a suitable theoretical perspective, when Political Science or practical political considerations, or theoretical and practical Education parameters, may suffice or even be considered preferable as an investigative paradigm?

It should be noted at the outset that none of these three areas of academic and practical endeavour is likely to be used exclusively. Politics, Education and Public Administration are interrelated, and each one must be taken into account in any consideration of educational provision, and a certain level of accord must be reached in all three disciplines if proposals are to have any verisimilitude.

2.3.1 STATUS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS AN ACADEMIC SCIENCE

There is a need for a principled basis for discussing the provision and development of teacher education in South Africa. Any proposals for the development of teacher education in South Africa need to be assessed against a refined theoretical paradigm in order to assess its efficacy and acceptability.

2.3.2 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

In the scientific method, the process of empirical investigation can lead to refined theoretical hypotheses allowing not only for understanding, but for prediction and control as well. Scientific method incorporates "...

observation, description, definition, classification, measurement, experimentation, generalisation, explanation, prediction, evaluation and control..." (Sills 1968:83-84). The scientific method is held as the ideal in theoretical research endeavours.

Public Administration cannot claim to aspire to the same levels of sophistication in measurement, prediction and control. Ideally the theory of Public Administration should enable one to understand, explain and predict events within a particular frame of reference (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983: 110). Yet Public Administration as an academic discipline lacks a unifying theoretical orientation. Botes (in Gildenhuys 1988:119) comments:

> "It is remarkable that after a century of research, writings and teachings, no universal agreement has been reached on the theoretical substance and epistomological content. Differences in opinion exist over meaning, definition, interpretation, methods and approaches".

In similar vein Coetzee (1988:55) comments that:

> "...despite several decades of development, consensus about the scope of public administration is still lacking in some parts of the world, where the field has been described as featuring heterodoxy rather than orthodoxy".

This does not mean that Public Administration is flawed as a theoretical orientation. Any theoretical approach has to work within the parameters within which it finds itself. Hawley and Weintraub (in Coetzee 1988:55) point to the central theoretical problem when they comment on the impossibility of excluding normative considerations from the practice of public administration.

2.3.3 NORMATIVE ORIENTATION

The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (Onions 1973:1413) defines a 'norm' as "a rule or authoritative standard". Referring more specifically to norms within the public administration process, Barton and Chappel (1985:333) perceive norms to be standards of behaviour within an organisation which serve to guide all its members. Unlike the scientific process, the public administration process cannot be value free, and for this reason cannot be free of norms. Hodgkinson (1978:viii) clarifies the normative base implicit in the public administration process:

> "Whatever philosophical assumption a public administrator implicitly or explicitly makes about human nature, it cannot but deeply affect his conduct and that of the administration he helps to shape".

Any choices or decisions made by public administrators within a public administration endeavour will be significantly laden with values. For this reason public administrators need to be constantly aware of the value context which surrounds their administrative tasks (Coetzee 1988:58). Not only must the public administrator be aware of the values which surround him, but he needs to be aware that he is a repository of values, which can cloud his perceptual set. Werkmeister (1967:xii) highlights this point:

> "Values are constitutive of the official's personality as well as of the culture within which he operates. Values provide the standards by which he lives, are the bases of his preferences and decisions, and may even give direction and meaning to everything the official does".

The problem with values *vis-a-vis* theoretical orientations lies in what the philosophers refer to as the "is/ought question". In essence, this formulation holds that a value judgement cannot be derived logically from a factual premise. If, for example, we say that it is an undisputed fact that "South Africa needs more teachers", we cannot move from this factual premise to one single absolutely agreed upon evaluative premise in the form of "therefore we ought to..." The evaluative premise could be concluded very differently by various persons who are asked to conclude this premise. For argument's sake, an educationist could respond by saying "...therefore we ought to to train sufficient teachers". A sociologist may respond "... therefore we must implement an effective family planning scheme to curb the population growth, thereby curtailing the need for teachers". A murderous tyrant could say in response "... therefore we must kill two children out of every ten children under the age of eighteen". How does one decide *logically* between these value judgements? The tyrant's resonse could be rejected on moral, humane or religious grounds, but it cannot be rejected on logical grounds. If many persons all give different, yet reasonable, moral and legal responses, what norm(s) can be used to decide between them?

Public Administration as a discipline, and as a philosophy, has developed normative factors which have widespread acceptability. These normative factors provide a framework within which, what public administrators do and how they

accomplish what they do, can be measured in an evaluative way. Although the norms lack the rigour of evaluative norms, they are appropriate for public administration as they are based on values which are implicit in the South African society. The set of normative criteria delineate what is acceptable and unacceptable in public affairs. The normative factors, also commonly referred to as guidelines or principles, define the limits of authority, freedom and conduct within which all functionaries should operate (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:63).

The normative foundations of Public Administration consist of a framework of specific norms or guidelines which have been derived from social values. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:115) refine this view further by suggesting that the guidelines are derived from three groups of factors: social values, the prevailing political dispensation, and the requirements of administrative law. In effect, these are distinctions within the rubric 'social values', as they all arise out of societal processes.

2.3.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Public Administration, through its generic and normative concepts, provides a base for considering the provision and development of teacher education in South Africa. Between the generic functional approach, and the normative (evaluative) imperatives, a framework is provided which allows for a reasonably refined theoretical approach. This frame of reference enables a researcher to understand and

explicate the underlying laws and principles which are relevant in the public administration process and to structure, or systematise, these laws and principles in accordance with theoretical knowledge. Hanekom & Thornhill (1983:111) consider that this framework accommodates the ability:

(i) to explain;

(ii) to arrange information in an orderly manner;

(iii) to provide a satisfactory explanation of any functions that are performed; and

(iv) to understand the complex administrative world.

This framework does not however provide the ability to predict, as would be the case in many of the sciences.

The generic factors will act as a foundation in this research and provide a rational frame of reference for considering any models derived and any recommendations proposed, as the generic approach consists of a taxonomy of the administrative functions. In addition, the normative principles will be used to evaluate any proposals.

Let us now consider the normative ethos of public administration as contained in the value systems of the community, the body politic and administrative law.

2.4 NORMATIVE FACTORS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The normative factors, as they apply to the theory and practice of public administration, will be considered with reference to the provision of education.

2.4.1 INTRODUCTION

The all encompassing goal of public administration is the promotion of the general welfare of the citizens. For this reason, public institutions must reflect this fundamental goal by ensuring the greatest measure of spiritual and material well-being for all its citizens. Cloete (1986:7) states that:

> "The decisive criterion against which the right of existence and activities of a public institution is tested, is the general welfare...Each society has to determine what the general welfare is, and then take steps to achieve or maintain that general welfare".

The 'general welfare' principles that apply in the South African society are unequivocally stated in the preamble to the South African Constitution. These principles are, *inter alia*:

> "To uphold Christian values and civilized norms, with recognition and protection of freedom of faith and worship,...
>
> To uphold the independence of the judiciary and the equality of all under the law,...
>
> To further the contentment and the spiritual and material welfare of all,
>
> To respect and protect the human dignity, life, liberty and property of all in our midst..."

The values implicit in the Constitution are incorporated into the theory and practice of public administration in the form of 'norms' or 'guidelines'. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary defines a norm as a rule or authoritative standard. So norms may be seen as duties to be performed or standards to be followed.

2.4.2 ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS IN IMPLEMENTING THE NORMATIVE GUIDELINES

The normative values in South Africa have force behind them in that they are enshrined in the Constitution, which gives them a legalistic hue, and the Constitution is a representation of the will of the people and hence enjoys full societal backing and support. The normative guidelines in public administration are seen as emanating from the prevailing values of society, as well as being derived from the values implicit in the body politic. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:128-140) perceive the normative guidelines in public administration as flowing from:

(i) a system of common *community values* operating within a community, and these values are accompanied by a common goal within the community;

(ii) a *political dispensation*, which includes legislative supremacy, democratic considerations and responsibility to the public through the legislature for public actions; and

(iii) *administrative law* requirements.

This brings us to a consideration of the role of public administrators *vis-a-vis* the normative guidelines.

If public administrators keep the normative values in mind when they are functioning as public administrators, they will be acting within the spirit of democratic government. In a democratic system of government, the citizens are

sovereign. If their sovereignty is to be realised effectively, their elected representatives, the political office bearers, must represent the interests of all the citizens in order to promote the greatest benefit possible for all, thereby ensuring that the fundamental precept of the general welfare is realised. Therefore the sovereignty of the citizens is entrenched in the political supremacy of the Parliament, *via* the Constitution. For this reason Parliament is the sole body which decides on legislation and the resultant programmes of action to provide goods and services to the citizens. In the process, the normative factors should be taken into account in all planning, policy formulation and policy implementation, whether by legislators or administrators. Thus the normative guidelines (also referred to as tenets or principles) have been referred to as "...the foundations of public administration" (Cloete 1986:8).

Public administrators need to be very aware of the value orientations within the South African society, which is characterised by conditions of uncertainty, instability and continuous change. If public administration is to fulfil its role in promoting the general welfare of the community, it is necessary for public administrators to understand the challenges and needs of the society. Factors such as rising expectations, societal stresses, affluence accompanied by poverty, strikes and demonstrations, changing socio-economic conditions and the non-acceptance of the existing political conditions, public institutions or the statements of the

political leaders, mean that public administrators must be guided absolutely by the normative factors and be particularly sensitive to any value orientations in situations they encounter in their daily work (Hanekom and Thornhill 1983:238). The normative factors form a bulwark against any administrative bias or excess. By acting in this way, public administrators maximise their chances of achieving the prime objective of democracy, namely, the creation of conditions under which each individual will be able to achieve his greatest possible well-being. Similarly de Beer (in Gildenhuys 1988:112) interprets the imperatives contained in the preamble of the Constitution to be:

> "The first value or norm is the promotion of the *general welfare*. Government activity, whether collectively or individually targeted, ought not to be aimed at the promotion of the welfare of an individual or group at the expense of other individuals or groups ...".

This would imply that in the provision of education, and in particular teacher education, that all citizens should have equal educational opportunities and be the recipients of equal fiscal spending on a *per capita* basis. It is government policy, arising out of the de Lange Commission recommendations, that the gap in the *per capita* expenditure on education for the various groupings in the South African society will be closed gradually over time until parity in provision is reached.

The normative values, which are inherent in the South African Constitution and the South African society, and which are fundamental to public administration, will be

considered below. The first three values (tenets of democracy, political supremacy and public accountability) arise out of the values derived from the body politic.

2.4.3 VALUES DERIVED FROM THE BODY POLITIC

The values derived from the body politic will be discussed below.

2.4.3.1 TENETS OF DEMOCRACY

The tenets of democracy arise out of the preferred system of participatory democracy in South Africa. Conditions must be created wherein each citizen will be enabled to achieve his greatest possible personal well-being, without detracting from the opportunity of other citizens to do likewise. The political process must accommodate opportunities for mutual deliberation and public consultation in order to optimise the chances of finding a solution that is fair to all. In the provision of education, it is important to consult parents, community representatives and members of the teaching profession to ensure an optimal and evenhanded solution to any problems or design of any proposals. It is necessary to accord with Cloete's (1986:25) injunction that caution must be "...exercised to ensure that the interests of one group are not unfairly prejudiced or those of another not unjustly favoured". For this reason, executive institutions should not be permitted to act in an arbitrary manner, but rather they should act within the rule of law tenet that all citizens are equal and should be treated equally.

As an adjunct to participatory democracy, it is necessary to have an open administration so that everything which is done by a public authority is open to being observed, investigated and inspected in public.

Democratic ideals, as reflected in the democratic process, have evolved over many centuries in the development of western civilisation and they carry an authority of precedence which is compelling in our modern society.

2.4.3.2 POLITICAL SUPREMACY

In a participatory democracy, the electorate are sovereign and their wishes are supreme. This sovereignty is accorded to the elected legislature so that the elected representatives may conduct the business of government in order to realise the will of the people, unfettered in their task. This is referred to as the political supremacy of the legislature. Thus political and legal authority are vested in the country's highest legislative body, Parliament, which discharges the duties entrusted to it by the electorate, to whom it is responsible.

In accord with the principle of political supremacy, the legislative body defines the extent and nature of the functional activities by setting the objectives in policies, which are then enacted into law. The legislature is autonomous and may use its own discretion in this regard, but it is ultimately accountable for what it has done or not done.

The legislature does not execute the programmes contained in its legislation. It determines the goals and specifies in a policy the nature and scope of the activities, which the executive then realises. This is in line with the tripartite division of powers in a democracy between the legislature, the executive and the judciary. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983: 134) state that "...although the legislative assembly expresses the popular will, it is actually the executive branch that determines this will when it puts it into action". The legislature determines the executive institutions which will realise its programmes, as well as the relationships between the various executive institutions and it empowers the executive institutions to carry out their responsibilities.

The creation and maintenance of executive institutions will be discussed under the generic administrative process of 'organising' later in the chapter. For the purposes of the current discussion, it needs to be noted that such organisation, and the structures pertaining thereto, must be adapted continually according to changing circumstances. Proposals for changes in the organisation structures for teacher education are a primary consideration in this piece of research.

2.4.3.3 PUBLIC ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability means being able to give acceptable explanations for one's actions. Public accountability implies answerability within political processes by

submitting one's actions (ie what was done and how it was done) to public scrutiny and approval. Derbyshire (1979: 219) means by accountability "the need for political decisions to be justified to the community through its elected representatives". As such it implies more than simply checking on someone; it implies giving a motivated and rational account for one's actions.

Accountability occurs in many forms and at many levels in public governance. At the lowest level, administrative operating responsibility is akin to a checking process, wherein control mechanisms are devised to keep the bureaucracy under surveillance and in check. For senior administrators, who are ultimately responsible for administration, the political office bearers will hold them responsible for their administration. If responsibility is perceived as a personal obligation for a task which has been assigned or delegated to an official, then that official has a *responsibility for* a programme and a *responsibility to* the legislators (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1986:173). In this sense ultimate administrative responsibility implies counterpoising the authority delegated with the responsibility demonstrated by the public official.

A special problem exists when one is dealing with the accountability of professional officers, such as educators. Real dangers are inherent in bureaucracies under professional officers, according to Cloete (1986:22-23) because experts characteristically take decisions based on the criteria and values of their respective professions.

At a legislative level of accountability, there exists a statutory obligation to provide Parliament with any information which is requested or required (such as questions in Parliament) to enable it to determine the progress of the actions or programmes which have been requested of the executive. An accounting officer may report to a select committee, on finances say, but usually parliamentary accounting is the task of the minister in charge of the department concerned. Political responsibility is not merely a verbal exercise however. Any action taken by the legislature has repercussions. Botha (in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:175) states that "Political responsibility is judged by results and not by intention's ... it means the right use of power".

Underlying all public accountability is 'a moral responsibility' in that:

> "(it is) the right of every individual citizen to demand fundamental human rights and to be treated as equal in the service rendered by government. In contemporary South Africa this would imply enjoying equal opportunity in obtaining jobs, standard of education and other social benefits, like health and welfare services. Government must therefore in a plural society like South Africa strive for the greatest moral responsibility toward the various race groups." (Botha in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1986:1974).

One of the prime concerns in this research will be to engender a greater realisation of this ideal of moral responsibility, in the form of accountability, in any proposals or recommendations suggested for the provision and development of education in South Africa. An attempt will be made to propose a model that will promote a greater equality

of opportunity in the standard of education and in the educational services rendered by the government. This is also the stated goal of the present government.

Apart from the values implicit in the body politic, a number of values originate from community values.

2.4.4 VALUES DERIVED FROM THE COMMUNITY

Communities are made up of persons and administration is conducted by persons. Any system involving persons will reflect the array of human phenomenon associated with personhood. Thus such systems will be infused with the realities, ideals and myths of the cultural and social groups of which the community exists. Religious, political and local aspects of the community heritage will be reflected to some extent in all matters, and this will inevitably apply to the affairs of state falling under the rubric of public administration.

An example of a community value is the *rule of law* which dictates that citizens should act so as to demonstrate certain qualities:

(i) *justice*, wherein all are treated equally and fairly under the law and in matters regulated in public administration.

(ii) *probity*, wherein no ulterior motives are evident in executing public duties and offices; and

(iii) *equity*, wherein fairness and balanced decisions are observed.

Community values need to be respected and taken into consideration as they represent in essence, the desires and aspirations of the persons in the community. A public official needs to be sensitive towards the community he serves and the citizens' vision of the good life. The *raison d'etre* for the authority he serves is to identify, evaluate and determine priorities in respect of the community values. Consequently, in the democratic legislative process, community values are important and desirable, as they represent the solidified will of the people in precept and principle.

2.4.4.1 <u>CHRISTIAN VALUES</u>

Christian values are enshrined in the South African Constitution. Christian doctrine is seen as serving as a source of community values from which normative behavioural guidelines for public functionaries can be inferred.

It should be realised that Christian values are not dogmatic or doctrinal *per se* and so the values are not an anathema to non Christian religions, as these Christian values would be acceptable to most right minded persons of all religious persuasions. Thus, Christian values are implied, as opposed to Christian faith or belief. Some of these values include the following (Macquarrie 1967:passim).

(i) *Personalism* - belief in the supreme value of the individual, his freedom and his rights.

(ii) *Altruism* - conduct aimed at the good of other persons (love of neighbours and enemies).

(iii) *Beneficence* - active well-doing (duty to do good to one's neighbour).

(iv) *Benevolence* - attitude of goodwill towards others.

(v) *Conscience* - the mind of man making moral judgements.

(vi) *Courtesy* - the reverence due to every individual, as a unique person born to fulfil a unique destiny, and being made in the image of God.

(vii) *Democracy* - absolutisation of the group will; limits what the majority may do by protecting the rights of individuals and of limited groups under the rule of law.

(viii) *Duty* - obligation to do what ought to be done or what we are bound to do

(ix) *Empathy* (sympathy) - putting oneself in the place of another to experience his feelings and to see the world as he sees it; capacity to enter the emotional situation of the other without oneself being ruled by the emotions involved.

(x) *Equality* - justice requires that men should receive equal treatment (equal love and value of each

person); an interpretation of equality must have regard both to the fact of diversity (inequality) and to the demands of justice:

- equality before the law
- an equal say in governing the community
- an equal opportunity to develop to the fullest capacity and to make use of one's talents and opportunities.

(Note the last point is not an appeal for an egalitarianism that seeks to level everyone down to mediocrity - it is rather the opportunity to achieve by self deserts one's just rewards).

(xi) *Excellence* - an allowance for the greater ability and achievement; providing opportunities for capable people to develop and exercise their superior talents, thereby enabling an optimal development and functioning. Naturally there is a tension between the claims of equality and excellence.

(xii) *Family* - an important social unit, providing education and stability in life for each family member.

(xiii) *Forgiveness* (love) - restored relations between man and man; particularly to the sincere and active willing of the neighbour's good.

(xiv) *Choice* - willing to do what is right; it implies freedom of the will/volition.

(xv) *Honesty* - in thought (not falsify or ignore facts), word (accuracy in giving information), and deed (being precise in public affairs).

(xvi) *Humbleness* - a loss of self-centeredness; thus an official of an institution will think more of the work pertaining to his office than his own importance as an official; humbleness may be typified as loving one's neighbour in thought, word and deed, and in recognising that others may be limited in knowledge and power.

(xviii) *Sacredness of life* - appreciation of the sanctity of the person, made in the image of God, and his power to reason and his capacity to choose.

Man's right to life, grounded in his divine origin, is the basis of all other human rights and the foundation of civilized society. To be valued as a person means that neither his life nor his well-being can rightly be sacrificed to the economic or political convenience of society.

(xix) *Neighbourliness* - all men are brothers and entitled to love and respect.

(xx) *Belief in progress* - the belief that both the ends of natural and human life, and the means to these ends, are improving and that desirable goals are being achieved.

(xxi) *Tolerance* - allowing room for differences within limits.

(xxii) *Christian doctrine of work* (protestant work ethic). Work is seen as a necessary means of pleasing God by serving human needs. Work is seen as being made for man, and not man for work. So it is the legitimate needs of society which matter. In this process, efficiency (work to good effect) is an important virtue and aimless 'busyness' is abhorred.

The result of Christian values being applied in public affairs would be a more humanised form of legislature and administration.

2.4.4.2 <u>FAIRNESS AND REASONABLENESS</u>

In a democratic state, the *raison d'etre* of public institutions is to promote the general welfare. For this reason, public persons, whether legislators or administrators, must see that justice is done and act within the rule of law. The laws must be made justly and applied justly, so that everyone derives the maximum benefit. In addition, public functionaries must treat all members of the public in a fair and reasonable way. Cloete (1986:27) expresses it thus:

> "From the premise that public institutions and officials should promote the welfare of the community, it can be inferred that public authorities should always be fair and reasonable in their dealings with each citizen - regardless of sex, race, language or religion".

When called to account publically, the question to be answered is "Has the official or office bearer acted

reasonably and has he been fair in his actions and decisions?"

Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:129) remind that:

> "...administration is not an object in itself, but remains merely an aid in the pursuit of a commonly acceptable goal".

This involves treating persons correctly, with due deference to their values and beliefs.

2.4.4.3 BALANCED DECISIONS

When decisions must be taken on public matters, all aspects must be considered, including the impact that the decision will have on all the persons who will be directly or indirectly affected thereby and to ensure that everyone receives equal treatment under the law. To avoid unjustified or inconsistent decisions or actions, the matter in hand must be thoroughly investigated, consultation should take place to avoid a system of legislative or executive fiat, and a system of appeal should be available, thereby ensuring that decisions are consistent with public norms and not arbitrary. Public accountability also tends to ensure balanced decisions.

2.4.4.4 THOROUGHNESS

Thoroughness implies that public action must be timeous and public work must be of a high standard and good quality.

2.4.4.5 PROBITY

Probity implies legal fairhandedness in dealing with

citizens and public affairs. Each citizen must receive his due. This precludes actions such as:

- ulterior motives in performing public duties;
- inadmissible gains from the use of authority;
- preferential treatment for favoured persons; and
- collusion for unjust benefit.

2.4.4.6 SENSITIVENESS AND RESPONSIVENESS

In public human relations, a respect must be shown for the feelings of persons and groups, when catering for their needs and expectations. Public institutions need to be responsive to individual problems, needs and values. Frederickson (1980:35) suggests that, to increase and secure responsiveness, political and administrative decentralisation should be introduced to the greatest extent possible, and the local public administration approach would be greatly enhanced *via* regular contact between the members of the public and the legislators and administrators.

2.4.4.7 FREE CHOICE OF PUBLIC SERVICES

Citizens should not be forced to use or pay for services they do not wish to use. This principle implies that monopolies should be abolished and competition should be encouraged, thereby providing alternative public goods and services and permitting choices. For example, a method of ensuring citizen choie in education is by a voucher system which permits citizens to pay for education at the institution of their choice.

2.4.4.8 ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY FOR PROGRAMME EFFECTIVENESS

Community based public administration is predicated on administrative decentralisation, delegation of decision-making authority, and the predetermination of long term objectives, short term targets, and performance standards which are known to the citizens and which may be the subject of public debate. This should be coupled with an ongoing evaluation of results in terms of programme performance standards within the purview of community needs and values. The aim of community based public administration is to maintain an equilibrium with the environment, whilst functioning in harmony with the general and particular values and conceptions of the community, so as to execute a public programme efficiently and effectively within the parameters of the needs and values of the individual and the community.

2.4.4.9 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN PUBLIC DECISION-MAKING

Public participation is the hallmark characteristic of a post industrial society and is predicated on the principle of a participatory democracy. Chandler and Plano (1986:82) define participatory democracy as:

> "A general model for political, social, and economic decision making based on the assumption that decision making processes are most effective under conditions of direct participation by those persons most affected by decision outcomes. Participatory democracy involves the deliberate, systematic mobilisation of constituent

groups around issues and problems of common concern, the organisation of forums for the expression of alternative views on the issues, and the implementation of decision-making procedures based on majority rule".

It is an ethical principle that each and every citizen of a country has a democratic right to participate in decision-making in all those areas where his life is being influenced, and this includes almost all governmental activities. This participation can be by individuals or groups, directly or indirectly, *via* selected representatives.

Typically, such direct participation will be outside of the existing traditional public institutions, possibly in specially created bodies such as special committees, commissions or advisory units. Participation in this way can serve to inform the authorities of the values, the needs and the knowledge of individuals, minority groups, or the underprivileged, for example (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:237). Such interaction provides valuable inputs into public policy-making, resulting in policies that are more relevant, responsible and responsive.

2.4.4.10 <u>EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY</u>

Legislators and administrators are responsible for meeting the needs and wants of the community in the face of limited resources such as, *inter alia*, money, materials, time and manpower. The limited community resources which are available must be allocated optimally to satisfy the essential community needs to the greatest extent possible in qualitative and quantitative terms, thereby promoting and

maintaining an efficient and effective supply of goods and services to the community. In this way public efficiency is equated with an economy of operation.

In planning and implementing programmes, legislators and administrators need to be mindful that public institutions exist on behalf of the community, as they see to the spiritual and material well-being of all the citizens, with finances which have been paid for by these citizens in the form of revenue to the State.

Defining the terms efficiency and effectiveness is difficult as no exact criteria exist. Hattingh (1986:46) holds that efficiency in government is a rather indefinable and immeasurable phenomenon. However, the inverse of efficiency and effectiveness are very apparent to the citizens. Efficiency is a measure of how a government acts in carrying out its functions and activities. Cloete (1986:31) refers to the frugality (or economy) with which the financial and human resources have been used. Effectiveness, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which a need has been satisfied as *per* the original programme of action arising out of the relevant policy. Effectiveness therefore denotes the results of an action, or how successful it has been in achieving its aims optimally and in realising its purposes.

Hattingh (1986:chapter 3) has attributed, *inter alia*, three processes to the attainment of efficiency:

(i) *rationalisation* by the government in obviating redundant features, structures and arrangements,

thereby streamlining processes and using only the absolute necessities to achieve specific aims;

(ii) *coordination* of resources to maximise inter- and intra-departmental functioning; and

(iii) *determining priorities*, whereby goals are fulfilled according to their relative urgency.

Current governmental efforts to rationalise educational facilities fall short of the first point as the facilities which are being threatened with closure, or those schools and colleges which have already been closed, are not redundant in the light of the declared national shortage of teachers and school facilities. Such 'rationalisation' does not represent efficient administration. Similarly, the coordination of physical and human resources has not been effected because of the 'own affairs' administrative structures which are a relic of the apartheid ideology.

It should be noted with regard to determining priorities that professional specialists, such as educators, tend to bias their prioritising towards what they consider as important, rather than what is considered essential and necessary by public representatives and public officials. This highlights the need for professionals, administrators and politicians to plan in consultation with each other, as required in the collegiate model being proposed.

2.4.4.11 SOCIAL EQUITY

Frederickson (1980:passim) has established the concept 'social equity' on which this discussion is based.

Public administrators should adopt a humanistic approach to their task and ensure that they distribute public services equitably. Public administration is a vehicle for implementing the values or preferences of individuals, groups, social classes or whole societies. The social equity principle requires that these services should be implemented in such a way that the public administrators are responsive to the needs of the individual and rise above the rules and routines of public administration and show concern for the self respect and dignity of the individual. Social equity is characterised by the maintaining of high ethical and moral standards and it demands integrity from public administrators and public office bearers. Equity denotes a spirit and habit of fairness, justice, and right dealing between men. As such it is synonymous with natural right or natural justice.

Justice is the basic principle, and it is dominant over other principles of ethics. Rawls (as quoted in Frederickson 1980:38) holds that:

> "For us the primary subject of justice is the basic structure of society, or more exactly, the way in which the major social institutions distribute fundamental rights and duties and determine the division of advantages from social cooperation. By major institutions I understand the political constitution and the principal economic and social arrangements"

Justice, as social equity, needs to be incorporated into public administration theory and practice as:

(i) a well developed ethical guideline;

(ii) a duty and an obligation to deploy public administrator efforts on behalf of the less advantaged;

(iii) constraints imposed to ensure that the basic liberties of individuals are not imposed upon; and

(iv) a professional code, engendering a commitment to social equity, and providing a means to resolve ethical and professional impasses.
(Frederickson 1980:42)

The sense of justice encountered in the concept of social equity would tend towards a distributive justice. Because persons are not born equal in advantages, they are unlikely to achieve equality, all things being equal, and disparities will occur in the society. This is evidenced in South Africa, especially in the provision of education and, therefore, ultimately in the differential fruits of education, which affects the inequality balance still further.

David Hart (as quoted in Frederickson 1980:40-41) holds that:

> "...nothing must be allowed to lessen the self-respect in any man, nor may any man be treated instrumentally ...thus, every social institution or action must enhance the self respect of every person, whether the least advantaged or the most advantaged, since individual self-respect is the foundation of a just society."

Frederickson (1980:41) takes this argument one step further in that he believes that "...the more advantaged have a moral duty to serve all others, including the disadvantaged" His rationale is not purely altruistic, but is based on "... the significance of human interdependance". Therefore an 'equitable public administrator' may be "...inclined in the direction of need in the distribution of services" (Gildenhuys 1988:340).

The imperative of social equity is a public administrative norm of consequence when considering the current situation in South Africa, especially with regard to black education. Frederickson states (1980:37):

> The long range of widespread and deep inequalities in any country poses a threat to the continued existence of its political system. The continued and illegitimate deprivation of the individual or a certain group of individuals of their rights, i.e. economic, political and social rights, amidst plenty for other groups, generates a feeling of hopelessness, anger and militancy amongst the deprived".

These truths hold a special relevance for any consideration of the provision of education in South Africa.

2.4.4.12 LEGALITY

Public administrators are bound over in conscience to obey the letter and spirit of the tenets of administrative law. The legal rules are however also norms in that they represent, and are manifestations of, the values of the community which have been made enforcable by law. Public administrators are said to act *bona fides* when their actions and decisions are justifiable and rational under administrative law and to act *intra vires* if they act within their powers under the law.

2.5 *MODUS OPERANDI* OF NORMATIVE VALUES

The application of normative values in the administrative process is up to the conscience of the individual legislator or administrator. One normative factor must be weighed against the others in order to ensure the best decisions and actions. Where the normative factors appear to be

contradictory, the individual conscience must be the guideline, as no definitive set of rules exists to cover every contingency and no set of priorities can stand in all instances. Yet many of the norms are interactive and have a common base in fairhandedness, justice and respect for persons. Although disparity may appear to exist in principle, problems are more likely to occur in the interpretation and application of the normative values. What is important is that these values must be kept in mind by the administrator as he goes about his task in a considered way.

The antithesis of the application of the normative factors is found in the pejorative sense of the term 'bureaucracy', defined by Hanekom & Thornhill (1983:151) as:

> "...rules by officials in public institutions in such a way that impersonal rules are enforced without having due regard for either the clientele, the values of the citizens, or the aims of the elected representatives as expressed by political office-bearers".

In the modern post industrial society, government is becoming increasingly involved in the life of the community, with the result that the amount of administration has increased concomitantly. This necessitates a continuous review of all facets affecting the work of the public official responsible for the administrative functions. Deliberate efforts should be made to promote and engender a growing awareness of the world of the public administrator and the environment in which he carries out his duties and tasks. There is consequently a need for articulated normative factors, with their prescriptive impulse for the

way things ought to be, to act as guidelines. The results of applying these normative factors are likely, *inter alia*, to be:

- an end to discriminative practices;
- greater promotion of the public interest;
- greater participation between administrators and their clients; and
- relevant, responsible and responsive public institutions.

(Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:239)

With the challenges and changes imminent in educational provision in South Africa, the normative factors are powerful tools for deciding between conflicting claims and suggestions, as well as being tried and tested guidelines in the generation of models and principles for the development of educational provision.

Having considered the normative factors, it is necessary to consider the generic approach in some detail.

2.6 THE GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE APPROACH AS A PARADIGM FOR CONSIDERING A MODEL FOR THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Cloete proposed a cohesive and inclusive theoretical approach to describe the practice of administration. He isolated functions or processes which are generic to administration as a process. These functions or processes

are integrated into a cohesive whole, in that the dynamic interactivity between the functions is crucial to the understanding of how the generic functions work. He divided the functions into three clusters *viz.* (Cloete 1985: chapter 1):

(i) Generic administrative processes

The six generic administrative processes are:

Policy-making

Financing

Organising

Staffing

Determining work procedures

Controlling (incorporating checking and rendering account)

(ii) Functional activities

In this piece of work, the functional activity under consideration is professional teacher training and teacher education (ie the specific work function).

(iii) Generic auxiliary functions

A number of such functions have been isolated, but no definitive list has been formulated. Examples of generic auxiliary functions include, *inter alia*:

Decision-making

Data processing

Opinion surveying

Programming

Public relations

Research

As planning is integral to all the generic administrative functions, it is the primary generic auxiliary function relevant to this piece of work

Each of the generic administrative functions, as well as planning, will be considered in turn with particular reference to their relevance in the provision of professional teacher education and its development.

2.7 GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES

The six generic administrative processes will be discussed below *vis-a-vis* the provision of teacher education.

2.7.1 POLICY-MAKING AS A GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION IN THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Policy-making is the process wherein the needs and values of societal groups influence the use of the powers of the legislature, including the curtailment of these powers where necessary, in reaching decisions for a course of State actions to achieve the exercise of legitimate powers. The use of such powers must occur synonymously with the realisation of the general welfare and benefit of all the citizens, within the purview of community values. Hanekom (1987:5) describes the process thus:

> "The aims and functions of governments have their origin in the values, needs, and demands of society or societal groups. Through the political process the values, needs, desires and demands are transformed and eventually crystallise into policy decisions, i.e. legislation, which in turn leads to executive government structures (public institutions) responsible for policy implementation. In the course of the political process constant attention must be paid to the nature of society and its values, and to the nature of the power exercised by the government. These aspects are of cardinal importance to both elected political office-bearers and appointed public officials in the effective government and administration of the state".

Policy-making goes beyond legislative power and societal demands and values, as policy-making is also an important facet of public administration in achieving the ends of Parliament and in the efficient operation of society. Hanekom (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:25) holds that:

> "The promotion of the general welfare of society depends on the policies made by the policy-makers (legislatures), the resources available, whether the policy-makers have a clear understanding of societal problems and needs, and the nature of public policy... the government should have specific clearly defined social goals or policies pertaining to each and every aspect of its intended actions".

As public policy-making is such an important consideration in government and administration, it will be considered in some detail.

2.7.1.1 DEFINITIONS OF PUBLIC POLICY

Public policy is directed towards a goal. It represents public aspirations for future desired ends, it articulates the vision of an ideal state of affairs which is worth striving for and it incorporates particular objectives which a public institution is attempting to achieve (Andrews 1982:27). When the objective of a public institution is

formulated and publicised, the policy is said to be set, but it only assumes significance for the purpose of administration after the policy is enacted in legislation (Cloete 1986:56-57).

Policy-making is the activity preceding the publication of a goal of the legislature, whereas policy, or a policy statement, is a result of that activity formally articulated. A policy is enacted in legislation in the form of acts or statutes, whilst ordinances, by-laws and regulations may be drawn up to refine the policy intent and method of achievement in more detail, within the sanction of the law. These laws, and their derivatives, prescribe what is envisaged, how action shall take place, and what shall be dealt with to effect the policy (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986: 18).

Policy has been formally defined in a variety of ways. Some of the nuances of meaning found in definitions are:

> (i) "Public policy is the end result of a sequence of activities which culminates in a statement of the goals which a public institution intends to pursue to attain community objectives" (unpublished articles based on Cloete & Hanekom 1985:92-98).
>
> (ii) "broad guidelines for the enterprises; courses of action which guide numerous decisions made in implementing the objectives chosen; vague guides to decision-making, allowing the administrator to utilize, judgement within specific constraints" (in Andrews 1982:31).
>
> (iii) "a mechanism employed to realise societal goals and to allocate resources;
>
> a description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity;

a declaration and implementation of intent; and a desired course of action and interaction which is to serve as a guideline in the allocation of resources necessary to realise societal goals and objectives, decided upon and made publically known by the legislator" (in Hanekom 1987:7-8).

The true nature of public policy and the public policy-making process incorporates an amalgam of the various facets and nuances of meaning as set out in these definitions. In practice, policy is multifaceted and occurs at different, yet related, levels.

Public policy in effect can be broken down into three constituent policies (Hattingh, 1986:13):

(i) "*Political policy* is implicit in public policy as it represents the policy of the political party in power, and reflects their value preferences;

(ii) *Executive policy* is controlled by the legislature which specifies how the political policy, enacted in legislation, may be realised in a form suitable for execution; and

(iii) *Administrative policy* deals with the implementation of the executive policy, wherein guidelines are laid down to ensure that a policy will be effectively and correctly applied".

Anderson (1979:-6) has formulated a functional definition of the public policy-making process in terms of its integrated, yet differential, aspects. He identifies the five phases in the public policy-making process as follows:

"*policy demands*, which are representative of community needs and which require some kind of action on the part of the authorities;

policy decisions, which are the decisions made by those in power and which will elicit some form of action pertaining to the needs of society;

policy statements, represent the formal articulation of public policy, i.e. the making public of what the authorities intend doing;

policy outputs, which are what the authorities actually do and not necessarily what their intentions were as represented in policy statements; and

policy outcomes or consequences resulting from steps taken to satisfy policy demands".

This view of the public policy-making process accords with the actual process in essence.

2.7.1.2 POLICY-MAKING PROCESS

Policy-making is an extensive undertaking involving a complicated process and requiring, as pre-requisites, knowledge, experience and a wealth of information. The policy-making process typically goes through a number of identical phases in sequence. These phases may be depicted as follows:

(i) Public demands and public problems

When demands or problems are encountered, from whichever quarter of society, the legislators are alerted to the need for something to be done. To realise their intention to do something, a policy must be formulated.

(ii) Policy formulation

The goal, or goals, are identified which would obviate the articulated public problems or meet the public demands.
With these goals in mind, alternative policy proposals are formulated, based on the information obtained which is relevant to the solution of the problem or the realisation of the need, and taking cognisance of community values and

the resources available. Usually a number of acceptable courses of action are proposed and developed.

(iii) Policy articulation

From the alternative policy proposals, the policy-makers select the specific programme of action (policy) which appears to be the optimal solution in the circumstances, and formulate it specifically so that it can be adopted and implemented.

(iv) Policy legitimation

The selected and fully articulated policy is enacted in law and thereby becomes a publically stated policy and a course of action that must be implemented, because Parliament, in enacting a policy, authorises its implementation.

(v) Policy Implementation

The executive institutions are charged, by law, to implement the policy, within the parameters laid down in the legislation. This authorisation usually includes a discretionary mandate, for which they are accountable.

(vi) Evaluation

The results or impact of a executed policy must be determined in order to evaluate the appropriateness of the policy, the degree to which the goals were attained, the executive measures taken and any adaptations which could be considered. The information obtained in the evaluation forms the basis for feedback to the legislators and the

administrators so that policies, or their implementation, can be modified where necessary. Peripheral information, such as any unintended consequences or outcomes arising out of the policy, or its implementation, is fed back to the policy formulators.

2.7.1.3 PLANNING AND POLICY-MAKING

A number of generic auxiliary functions are appropriate in the policy-making process. For example, decision-making is central to policy-making. So is planning. Hanekom (1987:13-14) in considering planning *vis-a-vis* policy-making, describes planning as:

> "...a neutral but action-oriented activity or process, consisting of thought processes and successive related actions aimed at seeking alternative methods, making proposals, and evaluating the alternative proposals and the methods by which they might be achieved. It is a dynamic process, which changes with changing circumstances and is aimed at obtaining a future desired situation".

Planning will be considered in greater detail, as a discrete function, under the generic auxiliary rubric.

2.7.1.4 FACTORS THAT AFFECT POLICY-MAKING

When considering a policy for the provision of teacher education, a number of factors are likely to impinge on the policy-making process and the decisions that are made in this regard. Cloete (1986:57-59) holds that these factors serve to change the *nature* and *extent* of the activities of public institutions. Some of the primary factors to take into consideration are the following:

(i) Changing polictical alliances and allegiances, indicative of party political policy trends will affect policy-making for education. The climate of change occasioned by President de Klerk's address in Parliament on 2 February 1990, which are indicative of a change in the ruling party's policies, the establishment of new left and right wing alliances and groupings, the establishment of the African National Congress as a formal political negotiator, and the developments in the white opposition parties, are all signs of change which ultimately will affect the provisioning of education, including teacher education;

(ii) Societal factors can force changes in policies for educational provision. For example the unrest situation and its effect on black schooling, together with the urbanisation, and the concomitant depopulation of the rural areas, and the lack of education provision for children in squatter camps and informal settlements, require a radical revision in educational provision and funding for education;

(iii) Population growth trends can affect policies related to the provision of education. The rampant growth of the population in the black sector of the population, coupled with the declining birthrate in the white and Indian sectors of the population have had, and will have, a significant impact on educational provision, especially in a South African society which is gradually moving away from a segregated society to a more open society.

(iv) Current backlogs in the provision of education, especially in black education, will need to be made up. The needs of all the citizens need to be addressed and catered for, and this is not the case at the moment. It is estimated that approximatey two million children of school going age in South Africa have never seen the inside of a classroom, and the adult illiteracy figures are significantly high.

(v) Teachers are in short supply and the need to train teachers must affect the policy for educational provision. It is estimated that 26000 teachers are needed in KwaZulu alone within the next two years, making the current policy for the provision of teacher educators inadequate.

(vi) The state of the South African economy will affect the policy of educational provision, as finances are a limited resource, and South Africa is already spending 18% of its State funds on education (Income Tax brochure, 1990). If resources are limited, priorities must be set and reflected in the policy for the provision of education, and alternatives must be sought in applying a satisficing principle of provision to spread the limited resources in the most economic, yet optimal, way. The current efforts to rationalise colleges of education may be viewed as one such alternative.

(vii) Imminent changes in the Constitution could radically affect teacher education provision and the current policies in this regard.

(viii) Technological advances may affect the provision of education. There has been discussion in the mass media that State officials are considering the possibility of harnessing the television facilities for educational purposes, in an effort to reduce backlogs in educational provision. Such changes may affect the nature of teacher education and training, requiring policy adjustments.

(ix) Research findings can affect the provision of education and the related policies. The de Lange Commission findings (1981), although only partially implemented, brought about changes, for example, in the differential funding between the statutory racial groups, as well as ideational thinking changes, for example on the importance of pre-primary schooling and the optional nature of high schooling. Such ideas would greatly affect the current policies on educational provision, if they were acted upon.

(x) Current commitments, in terms of physical plant and finances, to current programmes of educational provision will restrict the range of possible changes that can be made on educational provision. It is not feasible to simply close down fully functioning schools, say, in order to gain the finances to fund schooling *via* television. Current initiatives, that are viable, must be pursued, even if they do not fully match the evolving policy options under consideration. Change must be evolutional in most instances of State endeavour, so educational policy is tied to its historical antecedents to some extent at least.

(xi) The increasing commitments that a government must make can have a negative impact on the policy for the provision of education. For example, South Africa was involved militarily in Namibia, certain finances were not available for other State initiatives to that extent and programmes had to be curtailed accordingly.

(xii) No country is an island and international relations can have an impact of domestic policies. The problems South Africa has had with its balance of payments, arising out of sanctions by overseas trading partners, affects what can be achieved fiscally, and hence affects the policy of educational provision.

(xiii) National crises, such as an economic recession or township violence, or the staying away from school by black pupils, all require policy revision. For example, the Minister announced that the 1990 Senior Certificate examinations would be written a week later than planned, and supplementary examinations would be written in March 1991, providing a sub minimum mark of 20% is attained in the final examination. Occurences such as these affect the policy of education provision, the Minister's announcement being a *de facto* policy revision announcement;

(xiv) Factors in the political processes of the country can affect public policies. Representations by interest groups for changes which they will benefit from, and concerted mass media representations on specific issues, can bring about the need for revising a policy; and

(xv) Regional initiatives can affect national policies. Partisan local issues may affect the possibility of attaining national accord and result in variance between national perceptions and regional demands. Typical amongst these kinds of problems are the tension between centralisation and decentralisation, or top down/bottom up variations in approach.

Obviously, policies are not static and need to be reviewed to accommodate changes in society, in order to be effective instruments for the State provision of public goods and services, and ultimately to provide for the general welfare and benefit of all the citizens in the society.

2.7.1.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICY

Once a policy has been formulated and accepted in principle by the legislature, the implementation of the policy must be considered. Hanekom (1987:59) delineates three prerequisites for policy implementation, namely:

(i) The *legal prerequisite* which is enacted and carries the sanction of law in effecting the policy;

(ii) The *rational bureaucratic prerequisite*, which is an implied mandate, that the policy is rationally defensible and capable of being implemented according to a rational imperative; and

(iii) The *consensual prerequisite*, which implies that the interests of the stakeholders in the programme of action, as contained in the policy and its enabling

legislation, have been met to a sufficient degree to promote agreement between the contending groups.

Policies and their implementation hold a great potential for conflict of interests, as between the above three areas, and such conflictual interests must be resolved if policy outcomes are to be achieved *via* the successful implementation of policies.

Reasons for failure in the implementation of policies are many and varied, and, to some extent, failure is unavoidable. Some of the considerations in this regard are (based on Hanekom 1987:61-3):

(i) Implementation is a process, not an event, and if a considerable period of time elapses during the implementation stage, people's perceptions will change and events will occur which influence the policy implementation process, sometimes adversely;

(ii) At times the details of policy implementation have not been considered sufficiently and discretionary implementation can be unsatisfactory;

(iii) Policies are implemented *via* persons with their own perceptual sets and personal value systems, and policy implementation may be biased inadvertently or wilfully in this way;

(iv) If policies are too detailed, or cover too wide a span of affairs, the policy implementation can become bogged

down in details, or conflicting variables or vague processes;

(v) Community expectations can alter, negatively affecting the process of policy implementation;

(vi) Policy implementation may inadvertently adversely affect the realisation of other policies, causing a hiatus in the policy implementation process;

(vii) The intent of the government to control social phenomena may meet with rigorous opposition, with the administrators being unable to implement the policy;

(viii) The intent of the policy may be circumvented by the citizens finding an alternative manner of maintaining a desirable status quo. Tax avoidance is typical of this phenomenon;

(ix) Because of the complexity of social problems, the solutions proposed in the legislated policy may not be sophisticated enough (or even be able to be sophisticated enough) to bring about the desired changes; and

(x) Public policy is predicated on knowing the public interest. Who can know, or decide upon, what the public interest is, or which segment of a society represents the public interest? Errors in conceptualising the public interest correctly could affect the implementation of policy.

2.7.1.6 LIMITATIONS OF PUBLIC POLICY

Policies are not a panacea in social life. They are not always able to resolve societal problems or to achieve societal goals. The limitations on the effectiveness of public policies are, *inter alia*:

(i) societal needs and problems are not always amenable to analysis and definition;

(ii) societal expectations may exceed the capability and capacity of the authorities to solve the problems;

(iii) the needs and demands may exceed the limited resources available (human, physical and financial resources);

(iv) in solving problems in one area of need, problems may be created in another area of public endeavour;

(v) social phenomena may not be amenable to manipulation, for example the trend to increasing urbanisation;

(vi) policies may exacerbate the very problems they are designed to obviate;

(vii) the reaction of the citizens may render a good policy inoperative or only partially successful;

(viii) policies may have to be integrated and interlinked, as the realisation of one policy may be contingent upon the success of another policy, for example

universal schooling would be predicated on the provision of more teachers;

(ix) there is a tendency to formulate policies from the value standpoint of one's own community, often arising out of the political demands of one's constituents. For example, the financial provision in white education is disproportional *per* unit cost when compared with black education, because the black population is not enfranchised; and;

(x) it is not practical to encompass all the alternative solutions, including factors such as costs, benefits, risks, uncertainties and political implications, before making the choices that will decide a policy (Hanekom, 1987:18).

2.7.1.7 PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

Analysis of the public policy processes is aimed at understanding the causes and the effects of policies, within societal and political parameters, and determining which policies are most suited to resolving which societal problems. Such analyses permit a government to ensure appropriate policies to realise appropriate aims (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1983:86).

Policy analysis may take the form of attempting to measure the costs and benefits associated with various proposed policy alternatives, or in order to evaluate the efficacy of existing policies.

A number of models for analysing policies have been developed. They fall into two categories as follows (Hanekom, 1987:75-76):

(i) The *social efficiency* method is concerned with social development (the needs, desires and aspirations of individuals). This approach is normative and prescriptive, in that it compares what is done with what ought to be done; and

(ii) The *functional efficiency* method which estimates the impact of changing the quality and quantity of public activities (i.e. what the resources utilised achieve and what the consequences of changes in the resources would be). The approach here is empirical and descriptive as social value judgements are not central to the methodology.

The relationship between the two methodologies may be represented thus:

PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

FUNCTIONAL EFFICIENCY	SOCIAL EFFICIENCY
relates to	relates to
EMPIRICAL THEORY	NORMATIVE THEORY
which focuses	which focuses
on the	on the
PROCESS	RESULTS
of policy-making	of policies and
and is of a	is of a
DESCRIPTIVE	PRESCRIPTIVE
nature and embodies	nature and embodies
aspects such as	aspects such as
WHAT, WHY, HOW,	WHAT OUGHT TO
WHEN, WHOM	BE DONE
of policy	
In a time context	In a time context
could also be related	could also be related
to PROSPECTIVE	to RETROSPECTIVE and
policy analysis	INTEGRATED policy
analysis	

Figure 8 - Functional efficiency and social efficiency as contrasting models of public policy analysis (Hanekom, 1987:76).

A less formal and more practical every day approach to feedback on public policy is *via* public policy evaluation. Hanekom (1987:89) defines public policy evaluation as:

> "Public policy evaluation is an appraisal or assessment of policy content, implementation and impact in order to determine the extent to which the specified policy objectives are being achieved".

Public policy evaluation can occur before implementation of a policy, or after implementation of a policy. Prior to implementation, the feasibility of a policy can be evaluated in terms of the external environmental factors, the likely reaction of society, the resources required, its implementability in practice and its likely impact *vis-a-vis* the legislators, the administrators and the citizens in affected communities.

Post implementational criteria, as suggested by Hanekom (1987:91), include:

> "*representativeness*: to what extent are clientele represented?
>
> *efficiency*: how much did it cost to achieve the outcome?
>
> *equity*: were the benefits equally distributed?
>
> *effectiveness*: were desired objectives achieved?
>
> *responsiveness*: were particular group interests satisfied by the decisions of the public officials?
>
> *responsibility*: to what extent is the performance of public institutions negatively influenced by control measures?
>
> *appropriateness*: are the outcomes worthwhile?
>
> *adequacy*: to what extent is the problem resolved?"

2.7.1.8 VALUES AND POLICY-MAKING

Values suffuse the policy-making process. Society has values, communities have values, public office bearers, public officials and citizens have values. The myriad values compete with each other and have an influence on the public policy-making process. Hanekom (1987:12) declares that:

> "The public official performs his task in a political milieu and is continually confronted by political, cultural, economic and environmental factors, generally accepted societal values, existing policies and precedents, and even the traditions of the institution in which he is employed".

When policies are enacted in law, they represent a mixture of values and facts, obtained after a process of deliberation and compromise, and no resultant policy can accord with everyone's values. Thornhill and Hanekom (1983: 128) hold that when public policy is formulated, a study should be made of the role of values in the policy-making process, so that the legislative body can deliberately strive to create and maintain a balance among the numerous values of the people. Even then, value preferences and mixtures do not remain static and so in changing circumstances it is necessary for the legislature to adapt its policies to the changing evaluations within society.

Values are a challenge to persons formulating educational policy in contemporary South Africa. The multiplicity of peoples, cultures, languages and religions inevitably gives rise to a plethora of value perceptions. Of particular concern in this regard, in formulating a policy for education, is the "peoples" concept which is prevalent in

certain sectors of South African politics and which has been formulated into a politico-educational philosophy called "People's Education". This view of education is firmly against educational 'authorities' in State structures. The local community option in schooling is preferred. The 'peoples education' approach has received credibility in that the apartheid system of 'Bantu Education' for black citizens, which is universally decried by black persons, is perceived as having succeeded through 'authority' structures and a 'top down technicist' approach. The call for 'grassroots' educational initiatives and a 'bottom up' approach to revising current injustices and maladies is heard constantly in the mass media and black education circles.

People's education is an anathema to policy-making for some persons in education as it occurs at the moment. Some accommodation and flexibility will need to be incorporated in any future educational policy if it is to have credibility in the 'non-white' sector of the South African society. This is not to say that People's education must be accepted and implemented willy nilly in any new dispensation. Rather, a sensitivity to widely differing and varied approaches must be accommodated and incorporated into any proposals for a policy for education provision. One of the ways that this can be accomplished is to deliberately accommodate public participation in the public policy-making process.

2.7.1.9 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN PUBLIC POLICY-MAKING

Hanekom (1987:30-44) has written on public participation in public policy-making.

Public institutions may be seen as impersonal and uncaring by individual citizens and bureaucrats are accused of being faceless, uncommunicative, rigid, narrow-minded, lacking in initiative, self-centred and self-seeking, and disregarding societal values.

It is countered that public opinion exerts a powerful influence on the shaping of public policies and the performance of public institutions, by calling public office bearers and public officials to account. Public opinion is an amorphous concept with little practical meaning. It has been defined as (Hanekom 1987:31):

> "...the sum of opinions known to public officials and which will be taken into account by the authorities;
>
> ...these opinions held by private persons which government find it prudent to heed;
>
> ...the formal articulation of the beliefs and the views held by the public at large about political issues;
>
> ...consisting of articulated group attitude and not the viewpoint held by society as a whole, but rather a conglomerate of attitudes as expressed by different groups;
>
> ...the sum total of the articulated words, sentiments, views or attitudes of society, societal groups (irrespective of size) or individuals, pertaining to public matters, known to the authorities, and which will be taken into account when policies or decisions are made".

The complexity of gauging public opinion is appreciated when it is considered whom to consult to find out the public

opinion on a certain matter. Informed opinion, by persons whose knowledge, experience and contacts are appropriate and relevant, is a compromise solution to the problem of gauging public opinion on a matter. A more time-consuming process would be to engage as much opinion as possible by reading widely and discussing widely in the area concerned. Sometimes opposing opinions (such as minority opinion) may be specifically sought, to balance perceptions on public opinion.

The approach of trying to assess public opinion and acting on it to the greatest extent possible is one manner of proceeding. Another approach is to try to involve the public in the policy-making process. This is called the public participation approach. This approach may entail some mechanism for a two-way exchange of information between the public and the authorities, the inclusion of members of the public in rendering services, or meetings which are open to the public. This may occur at a legislative level or an executive level of policy-making and policy implementation.

Direct participation of ordinary citizens in public affairs would be desirable in areas, such as educational provision, where personal and public sentiment is intense and real. Direct participation is fraught with potential problems as the legislators and administrators cannot abdicate their role and be dictated to by vociferous interest groups or persons. In spite of being difficult to achieve, public participation can have enormous benefits. The increasing

role of parents in parent bodies and committees in education is an example of public participation in the affairs associated with educational provision. Parental input is excluded from directly professional matters, but parental opinions and cooperation are sought in many other areas, from advising the Minister to appointing staff for their children's school.

Hanekom (1987:34-35) includes as the aims of public participation:

- considering the different interests or views in order to make balanced decisions;

- preventing the authorities from taking sides;

- ensuring ready acceptance of decisions by the public in that they are involved in the decisions taken;

- ensuring a more careful study of proposals;

- justification of decisions;

- a more responsive and flexible administration; and

- a greater appreciation of governmental processes, activities and problems. As a by-product of participation, citizens can better understand how government and administrations function.

A more cynical view of public participation is found when representatives of the public are appointed onto committees, as a means of co-optation, which is a deliberate ploy to

ensure the conversion of possible opponents of specific programmes into supporters of these programmes. Similar reservations can be levelled at public relations information-giving initiatives, held in the guise of 'discussing matters in public'. Voluntary associations, which ostensibly are involved in public participation-type exercises are seen as having, at best, an advisory role, or, at most, a cathartic effect for the participants who in effect have virtually no real engagement in the decision-making processes. Such charges have been levelled at the Natal Education Council, for example, which has been described as 'a toothless bulldog'. Such cynicism may, or may not, be misplaced, but it is a reminder that public participation cannot be a pat solution, or a placebo, for real public participation. If it is a matter of going through the motions, the aims of such public participation will not be realised.

For matters of extreme importance, it may be necessary to gauge the opinions of all the citizens directly. This occured, for example, when a referendum was held on whether South Africa should become a Republic, and when the new Constitution was put to the public. Obviously such extreme forms of public participation have limited usefulness.

Similar problems are encountered when public participation is considered for higher order administrative functions, such as national policy-making. The input in this process is ultimately very specialised although public particpation can be sought by consulting a knowledgeable specialist public

(educationists, for example). In such high level policy-making a broad purview is needed on all national matters, and a specialist perspective is needed in matters such as finances, which makes direct public participation in national policy-making unfeasible and even undesirable. Full and real public participation is more possible at regional and local levels.

Some of the advantages and limitations in the public participation approach have been set out by Hanekom (1987: 43-44). The positive impact of public participation can be, *inter alia*:

- policy-making can be more representative, responsive and democratic;

- policy-makers are forced to deal with matters of equity;

- planning can be improved;

- an infrastructure for democratic participation is created and participation skills are developed;

- greater confidence arises from a sense of fairness in that the views of the participants is sought, thereby enhancing understanding;

- vociferous interest groups and persons can be placated, because their views are considered; and

- support for new ventures is promoted.

On the other hand, certain problems are intrinsic in a public participation approach:

- There is a limit to any involvement, as the responsibility remains with the authorities;

- Public participation is naturally curtailed in areas such as fiscal policy-making and sensitive policy areas such as defence;

- Vociferous, highly organised and articulate interest groups could dominate the process to the disadvantage of a less capable minority grouping;

- The policy-making process could be hampered and be less efficient;

- Accountability for policies could be spread, and public officials could blame the public representatives for their own shortcomings in planning and realising public programmes; and

- Public participation could be abused by public institutions by using the public as a scapegoat in dealing with difficult problems.

Public participation, despite its drawbacks and associated problems, remains a desirable goal when dealing with policy-making in the field of professional educational provision.

2.7.1.10 ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS IN THE POLICY-MAKING PROCESS

According to the classical formulation of policy-making within government, there is a great divide in function between the legislators, who devise the policies, and the public officials, who implement these policies. In fact, senior public officials are an integral part of the public policy-making process and the classical dichotomy is more of a conceptual distinction than a practice. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:26) note that:

> "Nowadays high ranking officials are public figures. The appointed officials in the highest posts in public institutions are intimately involved in policy-making".

Public officials function at two levels in the public policy-making process.

(i) Advisory capacity

Public officials are experts in their specialised fields of endeavour, with the knowledge and experience to advise on viable alternatives in policy-making and policy implementation, and they are in the best position to monitor policy shortcomings, in theory or practice, and to advise accordingly. Public officials have the time and the wherewithal to conduct research and assemble data, and they can aid in identifying any deficiencies in policies, coordinating the policy-making process and advising on the political implications of a policy.

(ii) Active capacity

Public officials may take the initiative in informing the ministers of state on matters requiring policy decisions (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:28). As public officials implement current policies, they are in a good position to see when a policy needs to be revised, or new policy initiatives need to be considered within the dynamically evolving societal processes. They are also more closely in touch with the actualities of the services rendered and the responses of the citizens and communities which are involved. Their insights and feedback are important when policy is being formulated. Policies, as enacted in laws, contain guidelines for policy implementation. For this reason, as the future implementers of a policy, and as knowledgeable persons on implementation criteria and strategies, the public officials may be requested to draw up legislation which embodies the agreed on policies. Officials may *in toto*, or in part, draw up budgets for the realisation of policies in programmes, identify priorities within and between the various policies, and formulate policies together with the enabling legislation.

2.7.1.11 ONUS FOR PUBLIC POLICY-MAKING

In spite of the role of public officials in policy-making, and the possibility of participation by the public in the policy-making process, the initiative for policy-making or changes in policy, ultimately rests fully with the legislators and the legislative institutions, such as

Parliament. It is up to the Minister to propose policy and legislation for the endeavours of the State under his purview.

To aid the Minister, various public policy-making bodies have been institutionalised, such as departmental committees, selct committees and commissions of inquiry. Political bodies, such as cabinet committees and the party caucus, may also fulfil the role of policy-making. The primary policy-making body in South Africa is the cabinet, and this corporate body of ministers contains the possibility of obtaining a full and total picture of the State and society, in that all State initiatives stem from, and ultimately report back to, this body.

Central to this work will be proposals arising out of the various commissions of inquiry, such as the de Lange Commission. A commission of inquiry is a powerful tool in policy-making as specialist expertise is assembled to consider a specific mandate in depth. The public may be requested to make submissions for consideration. A well articulated and finely argued report, covering all the relevant facets, is ultimately published on the findings and made available for consideration by the State, the professionals concerned, and members of the public.

Although the onus for policy-making lies with the legislators, it has been noted that the senior public officials are integrally involved in policy-making and policy implementation, and the relationship between the

legislators and the administrators must be recognised and acknowledged. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:82-83) hold that policy is in fact the link between the political and administrative processes.

Yet, the political origins of public policies must also be realised and acknowledged. Hanekom (1987:10) clarifies this truth:

> "Government policy (or national policy) is the policy of the political party in power. It is a translation into practical objectives of the ideas of the party on how to govern the country and in which direction society is to be steered. Government policy is therefore more specific than political party policy".

We can therefore see the links between politics, the legislature and the executive in matters of public policy and the public policy-making process.

2.7.2 FINANCING AS A GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In order to achieve any service in the public sector, such as the provision of teacher education, it is necessary to have the resources to carry out the programmes proposed by the legislature. Fiscal monies are raised from taxing the citizens and this money is used to carry out the legislature's intent, as contained in laws. Financial provisioning in South Africa is controlled under the Constitution. The Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983) , part ix, lays down that legislative authorisation is needed before any fiscal monies may be expended. The Treasury controls the budgeting process

prior to the main budget being enacted in legislation. It subsequently controls fiscal expenditure according to the budget, and the relevant enabling act, for any public programmes. It is responsible for the final control of all monies expended and calls the relevant functionaries to account. Control is effected through the budget, which specifies procedural directions contained in the Financial Handbook, and by auditing which is conducted by the Auditor General under the requirements of the Exchequer and Audit Act, 1975 (Act 66 of 1975). The audit gauges, where possible, the legality of expenditures and whether the financial resources have been utilised effectively.

When a policy is being determined, one of the first criteria to be considered are the financial implications and the availability of funds. In South Africa, 18% of the State funds are expended on education (Income Tax Information Brochure, 1990 tax year). In spite of this being a high percentage of the fiscus to be spent on educational provision, it is nowhere near the amount of financial resources which would ideally be required for education in South Africa. The financial resources available are precious and need to be allocated with a view to the greatest possible efficiency and effectiveness in the service provided, concomitant with the limited resources.

The apartheid 'own affairs' system of education has created an excessive duplication of governmental bureaucracies, which is contrary to sound financial budgeting and the economical use of resources. Anomalies also arise out of the

'own affairs' segregated educational provision, resulting in some of the schools and colleges being heavily oversubscribed, whilst other education department facilities are severely underutilised, to the extent of having to be closed because they are uneconomical.

When considering a new dispensation for the provision of teacher education in South Africa, these parameters will have to be considered *vis-a-vis* the political developments which are currently in the offing.

Parameters for the efficient expenditure of monies on teacher education is crucial in order to wipe out backlogs of illiteracy and achieve a state of universal primary education for all South Africa's citizens. When it is realised that 26000 thousand additional teachers are required within the KwaZulu region alone within the next couple of years, the enormity of the task is appreciated and the financial aspects of this state of affairs are crucial.

2.7.3 'ORGANISING' AS A GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education is of such a scale that it cannot be accomplished within a simple organisation. An administration in charge of teacher education provision must be reponsible for organising the teacher education structures, wherein they create and maintain organisational units called institutions (Cloete, 1986:78) and arrange to coordinate these institutions in a sufficiently cohesive and unitary

way on a national basis. The object of organising is clearly to accomplish a specific goal *via* the coordination of all resources (including financial, physical and human resources). In this process the relationship between the various components is specified, resulting in the creation of a systematic organisational structure, established to realise the ends of the administrative process i.e. the effective and efficient provision of professional teacher education.

Organising may be defined as the systematic structuring of functions necessary to achieve or realise a goal (Andrews, 1982:38). It entails coordination, whereby a system is devised which at the same time allows for diversification in activities compatible with the effective achievement of the overall goals envisaged.

Organising does not mean rigidity and conformity; it rather entails a broad movement within a common direction aimed at achieving similar and related objectives. The various functions, or components, will be so related that they work together to achieve an overall aim.

The sub-components of the system, the constituent institutions, are similarly structured to aid the realisation of the institutional goals. Thus organising may be perceived of as both an inter-institutional function and a intra-institutional function, coordinated in order to achieve the same broad goals or ends.

2.7.3.1 PROCESS AND PRACTICE OF ORGANISATION

The elements of organisation need to be considered. Cloete (1986:103) typifies organising as the process designed to achieve:

(i) the appropriate division of work;

(ii) the assignment and delegation of authority;

(iii) coordination;

(iv) lines and channels of communication; and

(v) control measures.

The inter-generic nature of the organising function is readily apparent in this typification. The above points will be considered in more detail with reference to their applicability in teacher education.

2.7.3.2 DIVISION OF WORK

In terms of work procedures, organising entails the delineation of work responsibilities. A conventional distinction is made between a line function and a staff function in systems of organising. Systems of organising may be typified as follows:

(i) The *line system* is a hierarchical chain of authority, where powers and responsibilities are delegated downwards in ever-diminishing amounts, whilst the accountability is retained by the top person. In the

provision of teacher education, the line system may be represented diagrammatically as follows in essence:

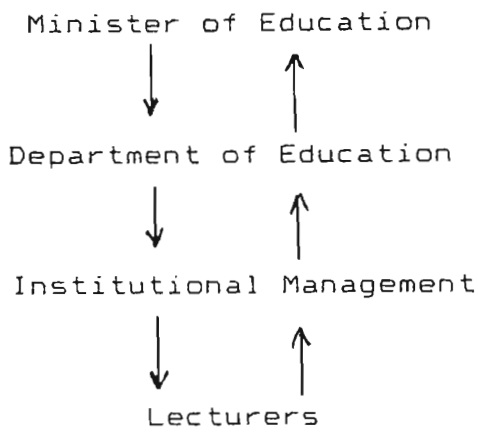

Figure 9 - Diagrammatic representation of the line system of delegation and control

The downward arrows represent the delegation of authority, responsibility and power, whilst the upward arrows represent the flow of accountability for the use of the delegated authority responsibility and power.

(ii) The *line and staff system* incorporates the line system, but delineates an auxiliary group of officials who are not directly involved in the prime function of the institution, but who act as an adjunct to it. Typically the staff function refers to experts who advise or assist the line functionaries in matters such as research or financial auditing. In teacher education, within institutions such as colleges of education, the line function is concerned with training and educating teachers, with the secretariat and registry providing a specialist administrative staff function. The dichotomy is not always distinct, and it is possible to see the professional academic staff as the line

function and the professional management staff (perhaps together with the secretariate) as the staff function. Diagrammatically the line and staff function could be represented as follows:

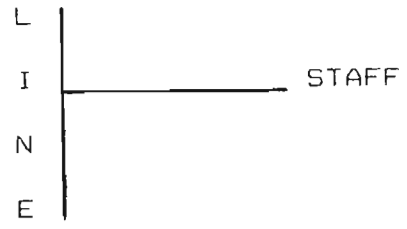

Figure 10 - Diagrammatic representation of the line and staff system of division of labour

If a governmental department of teacher education existed, the staff function could be contained in discrete research units or councils charged with supplementary responsibilities.

(iii) The *functional system* can be used to differentiate an organisation according to the differing functions performed by its officials. In this system, the managers could be viewed as having a specialised function in that they exercise authority and command over the workers. In a teacher education institution, such as a college of education, the heads of the various academic departments could be seen as management functionaries. Even although they will lecture, their role function in the hierarchy is managerial in nature. Diagrammatically the functional system could be represented as follows:

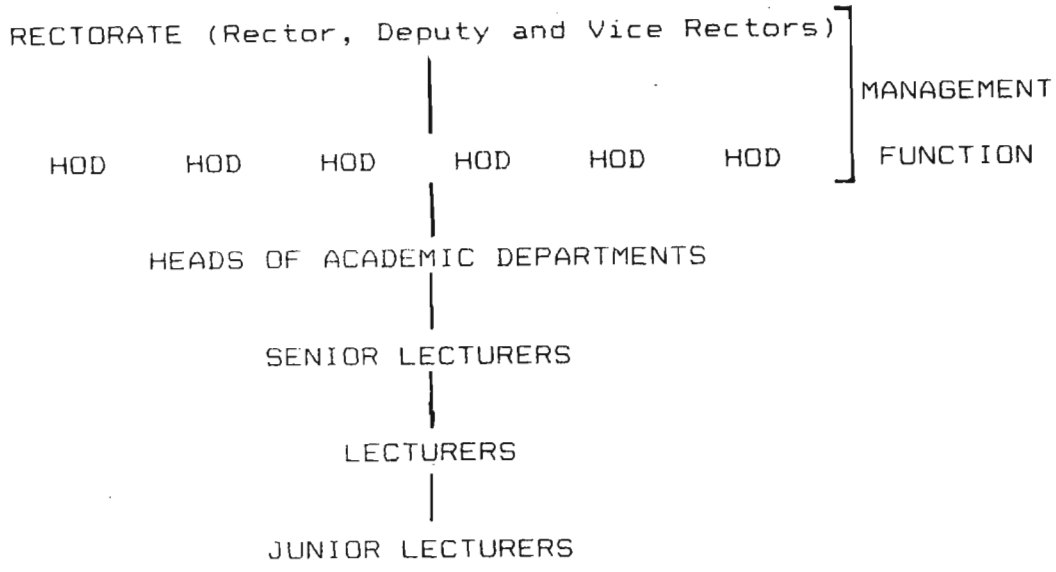

Figure 11 - Diagrammatic representation of the functional system of division of labour

(iv) The *committee system* is similar to the line function hierarchy, except that a committee is placed at the head of the organisation, rather than a single functionary. Authority, responsibility and power are vested in the committee grouping. The advantage of this organisational system is that a number of experts may combine their knowledge and expertise in planning and decision-making. The drawback of a committee system is that accord may not be reached when there is a decision to be made, or a policy to be formulated. It is administratively unwieldly and time consuming to muster committee members on a regular basis and at short notice to make a decision or decide on an action. In the committee system, ultimate responsibility and accountability is split and is therefore diffuse.

In teacher education, the committee system is often used in decision-making, but its function is more that of a staff

function. Thus in a college of education, a senate committee, a management committee, a head of department committee and a practice teaching committee function, but their role is advisory rather than managerial. The rector, as the management functionary, is guided by the committees and often participates in the committee process, but he retains the right to act in accord with his committee's recommendations or not, as he sees fit. It is therefore evident that the power, authority, responsibility and accountability does not devolve upon the committee. Robbins (1976:247) makes the point precisely *via* an anecdote:

> "As one person remarked after being promoted from staff assistant to his boss's line position, 'I never realised there was such a difference between making a decision and making a suggestion'".

Members of a committee would sympathise with this sentiment if they were moved to the top of a hierarchy based on the line function system.

(v) The *project system*, or *matrix system*, is a relatively recent innovation in organisational systems theory. In this system a project is identified and a group of persons, knowledgeable in the project area, is set up under a project leader to achieve a specific goal (i.e. to realise the project). The working group is a temporary arrangement, with participants being drawn from the line function system, and it is terminated upon the completion of the project. It is apparent that the specialist field of project management is located in the private sector. However, the project approach can be adapted on a small

scale and is to be found within colleges of education, in senate sub-committees, where a select group of lecturers is given a specific mandate to consider, or implement, and report back to the senate.

2.7.3.3 ASSIGNMENT AND DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

Weichers (1985:51) holds that:

> "All forms of administrative delegation are aimed at achieving a division of labour. It is a fact of life of any administrative organization that a single body or person cannot cope with all its activities. It is for this reason that certain powers and functions are transferred or delegated to another body or person for their implementation".

The transferring of power and duties to another is termed the devolution of power.

2.7.3.4 DEVOLUTION OF POWER

Power is centred in the legislature. As the legislature cannot carry out and be directly responsible for more than the overall direction of governmental programmes, it is necessary to devolve powers to the departments that fall under the legislature. The devolution of power implies transferring the capacity to take final decisions to another level of government (regional, local, departmental). This transferring of authority does not include a suspension of the sovereignty of Parliament. Decision-making authority is devolved, but Parliament retains its supremacy regarding the overall authority in the State (Thornhill, in Coetzee, 1985: 65-66). Three characteristics of devolution have been identified:

(i) it is exercised by a subordinate elected body;

(ii) it is usually awarded on a geographical basis; and

(iii) it comprises functions presently exercised by a higher authority. (Thornhill in Coetzee, 1985:66)

Devolution of power can be instituted at different levels of responsibility. These levels are controlled in law, and the exact parameters surrounding each level are specified. These levels are (Wiechers, 1985:51-54):

(i) At the simplest level, decentralisation occurs wherein the state department establishes regional branches and effects *administrative delegation* (not legislative). In effect a specific task is divided and the identified task is then performed by each of the bodies in the various regions. The assignment of powers in this instance is *via* a specific mandate or set of instructions. The superior organ is in effect taking the decisions and merely requests or instructs another person or body to see to the practical implementation of that decision. Usually, very little discretionary latitude is permitted to the inferior body or person. If the exercise of independent discretion or judgement is expected, the parameters and powers must be clearly specified.

(ii) Administrative delegation can occur to achieve a *deconcentration* of activities, because it is not possible for the main office to exercise all the powers and perform all the functions. Specialist function groupings may, for

example, be established within a department, or sub-departments (or offices) may be established to provide a more efficient service. The powers and functions delegated are carried out in the name of, and on behalf of, the principal officer who delegates the powers and functions.

(iii) Administrative delegation can be effected to achieve a *decentralisation* of activities. In this decentralisation, powers and functions are transferred to an independent body, which carries out these powers and functions entirely in its own name. This usually involves a high level of discretionary judgement and responsibility, but the powers must be given specifically and circumscribed, albeit within very wide parameters.

In each of these cases, the assigning of the functional authority and responsibility will be specifically mandated. Because the ultimate authority is not transferred, it is also necessary to clearly delineate how the control will be effected, and in what manner accountability will be represented. These methods of control are laid down on a formal basis and typically involve regular reports, inspections and auditing. Hattingh (1986:30-31) states that:

> "...devolution of power is usually associated with extensive formal directives which partly consist of prescribing the required procedures. Procedures ensure that a task will be performed in a specific, prescribed manner...By laying down procedures in regard to the devolution of powers, the central authority ensures that it will determine the manner in which relations are established and maintained between itself and subordinate bodies".

It is apparent that the devolution of power is concerned with the issues of centralisation and decentralisation of government activities. In teacher education, institutions, such as colleges of education, enjoy a specified autonomy *via* their college councils (for those colleges which have evolved to this extent), but the colleges still fall under the various departments of education and their autonomy is circumscribed in this way. The degree of devolution of power may be assessed by the financial arrangements to effect the running of an institution. If a comparison is made between a college of education and a university in this regard, it is found that the university has greater control (but not complete control) over its finances and the apportioning thereof, whereas a college of education, although it has discretionary use over certain monies, is beholden to the relevant education department. For example, the education department controls the college staffing establishment, the amount of the tuition fees levied, and staff salaries, which means that colleges are less autonomous than universities relatively speaking. Whether a greater devolution of power is desirable in the future development of teacher education in South Africa will be discussed later in this work.

2.7.3.5 DELEGATED LEGISLATION

The discussion in the previous section referred to the administrative devolution of power. However, as legislators do not have the time or expertise, or cannot handle the volume of legislation required, it is the practice to legislate in broad terms only and empower the executive, *via*

enabling legislation, to supplement the legislation *via* proclamations and regulations which have the force of law (Cloete, 1986:188). This in effect amounts to a *legislative* devolution of power, wherein the executive authorities are delegated powers of legislation, a responsibility usually centred exclusively in Parliament and jealously guarded. The delegation of legislative powers does not, in theory, undermine the concept of the legislative supremacy of the State, as the politicians control the enabling legislation and they call the executive legislatees to account; but in practice, effective control is difficult to achieve.

A select committee investigates the exercise of delegated powers of legislation, and the control thereof. It is held that "...the insertion in legislation of provisions authorising the delegation of legislative authority makes it difficult and even impossible to enforce accountability". (Cloete 1986:189).

Delegated legislation is typified by Riekert (in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1986:182) as "...the exercise of legislative authority by the subordinate institution or functionary to whom Parliament has delegated such authority". The advantage of delegated legislation is that it allows for responsible executors, with specialist knowledge, to be flexible in their administration. In comprehensive and complex matters it is not always possible to foresee all the contingencies and local conditions for which provision must be made (Riekert in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986:183). As it is not possible in the legislative process to cover all the

possibilities which may eventuate, it is sometimes desirable to empower an executive institution to act as it sees fit should it encounter an unforeseen set of circumstances. In this set of circumstances, the enabling legislation is merely a framework which specifies the general principles and intentions of the legislature.

Control of delegated legislature may be effected by building into the enabling legislation the need for any delegated legislation to be tabled in Parliament. This is not effective if the topic of the legislation is highly specialised and complex, and if the volume of delegated legislation is great. Parliament retains the right to repeal or amend any delegated legislation, but this does not solve the time and expertise problems which gave rise to the need for delegated legislation in the first place, and this form of control is only of value in extreme instances.

Control of delegated legislation is also possible *via* judicial control. However, when Parliament delegates legislative authority, it passes immense powers to the executive functionaries. One cannot really enable a person or institution to decide, and then quibble with the decision. For this reason, legal control *via* the courts is severely curtailed and limited to decisions as to whether the procedures and powers granted in the enabling legislation have been effected validly. Being limited to deciding on any procedure, or commenting on any exceeding of the powers granted, is a weak form of control. Possible redress is likely to be a protracted and expensive process

via the courts and only extreme cases are likely to be handled in this manner.

In effect, the powers involved in delegated legislation are virtually limitless and for this reason the delegation of legislative powers needs to be handled very circumspectly indeed.

Delegated legislation is appropriate in the consideration of the provision of professional teacher education in South Africa as precedent exists for the according of legislative powers to professional bodies. Riekert (in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1986:185) states that:

> "Organised professional bodies have been granted the authority to control and regulate their respective professions; for example, boards can be created to supervise the activities of the members of the relevant professional body. In accordance with the enabling Act, these boards may also make regulations that are binding on its members".

Riekert cites as an example the Pharmacy Act, 1974 (Act 53 of 1974) which stipulates in the enabling legislation that the Minister of Health may, on the recommendation of the Pharmacy Board, make rules and regulations relating to various topics. A similar arrangement between a Minister of Education and a professional teacher education body, or professional board, could be considered in the light of the development of teacher education in South Africa. For example, a body could be instituted which falls under a Minister of Education and controls the provision of teacher education. Parliament could prescribe enabling legislation requiring the Minister and the professional body jointly to

implement and control a satisfactory system of teacher education. Diagramatically the flow of delegated power would be as follows:

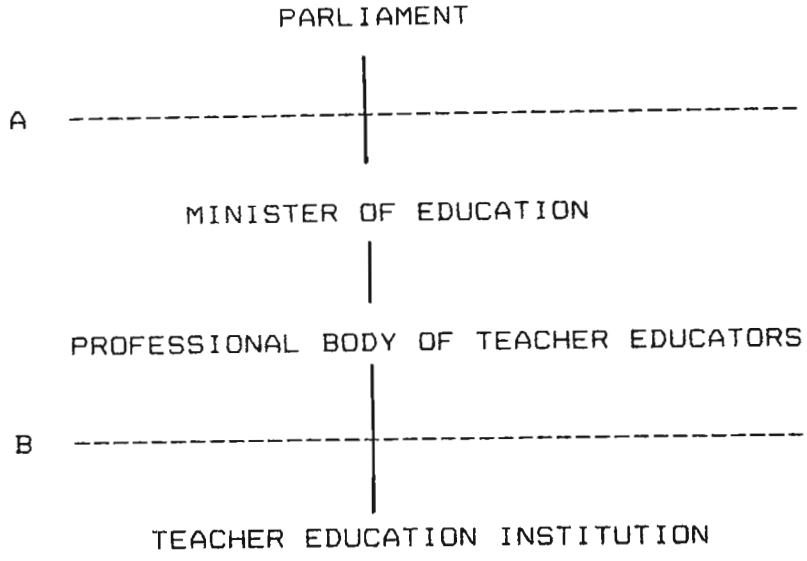

Figure 12 - Diagrammatic representation of the flow of delegated power

In this configuration, the body of professional teacher educators would be akin to an education department, but its function would have a very specific focus (teacher education) and a specific locus (teacher education institutions).

The point designated A depicts where, in a conventional legislative arrangement, legislative authority ends and delegated *administrative* authority commences. The point designated B indicates where delegated *legislative* authority could end, and delegated administrative authority could commence. In practice, the powers delegated and the degree of responsibility required, could be varied in degradation as one considers the sub-ordinate levels. For

could commence. In practice, the powers delegated and the degree of responsibility required, could be varied in degradation as one considers the sub-ordinate levels. For example, the professional body of teacher educators could be limited to an advisory capacity, with the Minister having greater powers, such as is the case with the present Natal Education Council, for example; or the professional body of teacher educators could be given a wide legislative and executive latitude, with the Minister holding a watching and controlling brief. Similarly, the institutions, although not being given delegated legislative responsibilities, could be given wide delegated administrative powers, thereby increasing their autonomy greatly.

It is useful to differentiate between decentralisation and devolution in this regard (Hattingh 1986:32). If colleges of education performed an identical task (training teachers) which was controlled from the main office of the governmental department, so that the structure, function and service provided by all the colleges nationally were reasonably identical, then this process of delegation would be referred to as the decentralisation of teacher education provision.

If on the other hand, the central authority specifically assigned various of its functions to each of the colleges and required them to perform distinct functions, for which it also assigned the authority to carry out these functions, this process would be a devolution of power.

Decentralisation is more appropriate in services, such as post offices, where the postal service is reasonably standardised and mechanical in nature. There are of course specialist areas and variations within the post office, but the counter services and their supporting structures are reasonably uniform for the purposes of this discussion.

For colleges of education, where the service is not clearly delineated, as it occurs personally, even intrapsychically, and where local conditions may call for specific variations arising out of the demands of the community (students, parents and lecturers in colleges; principals, teachers, pupils and parents in schools; education department authorities; the general public), the devolution of powers and functions is a more suitable arrangement to ensure an effective teacher education programme.

2.7.3.6 DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

When power and responsibilities are devolved, or an administration is decentralised, the process implicit in this deconcentration of power is termed delegation of authority. Let us consider some definitions of the concept delegation of authority.

(i) Chandler and Plano (1986:119) define the delegation of authority as:

> "The transfer of authority and responsibility from a higher to a lower administrative official for purposes of decision-making. Delegations of authority usually involve transferring powers assigned to an elected or appointed executive official to a subordinate administrator. Such transfers are typically done under

clearly defined standards with subsequent implementations subject to continuing review. The basic legal power to carry on such functions remains with the delegator and can be withdrawn at any time from the delegatee".

(ii) Andrews (1982:47-8) defines delegation as:

"...an institutionalised activity whereby authority is passed down in a line from the top leader to his subordinates, with the aim of obviating the concentration of authority in one single functionary, thereby increasing the efficiency of the institution".

(iii) Hattingh (1986:32) holds that delegation occurs when a specific body, political office bearer or public official is entrusted with the responsibility of performing a task or function, which is legally assigned. In the process the delegatee may, within specified legal provisions, delegate the function or task, or subsections thereof, to another body or person for implementation on his behalf. Authority is thus found in chains within a department or institution, and the authority may be delegated down the chain, with responsibility being controlled by each superordinate body or person, and accountability being irrevocably vested in the person or institution at the top of the chain of authority or power, usually the legislature itself.

The delegation of authority may make provision for the delegatee to use his discretion in the method to be employed to perform the task, or in the realisation of the function. Although the underling may be held accountable to the person or body delegating such discretionary authority, the accountability for the performance of the task or function is not passed along with the authority so delegated and the

superior officer is still responsible for the use that is made of discretionary authority which has been delegated.

Whenever delegation of authority occurs, it is always circumscribed in law, stipulating the extent and domain of legislative authority which may be exercised by a subordinate. If a functionary is required to perform in a certain manner, or area of responsibility, he must be given the authority to realise his duties and responsibilities (i.e. given the power to perform these duties). If authority is so delegated, the employee is obliged to perform the task required. He is empowered to make decisions appropriate to his mandate and instruct those under him to perform, to achieve the task. Obviously for authority to be delegated, the subordinate must have the competence and capability to perform the delegated task.

2.7.3.7 CENTRALISATION AND DECENTRALISATION

In considering the organisational structures that will be most efficient in realising the ends of the organisation, a tension usually exists between the need to centre the power and responsibility centrally, thereby enhancing control and promoting a uniformity of service, and the calls for regionalisation, wherein some local option is permitted, to accord with local conditions and demands. Alderfer (1964:176) holds that:

> "It is impossible to administer any nation entirely from the center. There must be some administrative subdivisions or local units through which governmental powers may be deconcentrated or decentralised. On the other hand, if there is to be a nation in fact, it is

> just as impossible to administer everything locally. The problem, therefore, is to find the best working arrangement between extreme centralisation and extreme decentralisation".

Decentralisation may refer to a *geographical* decentralisation, where similar colleges of education, for example, are provided on a regional basis, or a *functional* decentralisation, where some teacher training institutions are responsible for training secondary school teachers and others are specialised in training primary school teachers, as *per* the current rough distinction between universities (secondary) and colleges (primary) as teacher training institutions.

The advantages of centralisation are primarily that it facilitates control and ensures standardisation, thereby promoting equality of treatment. The disadvantages of centralisation are, *inter alia*, the delays which occur while referring to head office, the inflexibility which is inevitable in a unitary organisation providing a uniform service, and centralisation can be unrealistic in that policies and decisions may not be suited to the local circumstances. The perceived problem with decentralisation is the dispersion of authority, which may negatively affect the service provided and the control procedures. It is possible that certain facets of an organisation remain centralised, whilst other areas of responsibility are dispersed. Robbins (1980:233) notes, for example, that financial and legal functions are rarely decentralised.

Devolution, deconcentration, decentralisation and delegation are all variations of the organisational arrangements which delineate the lines of authority and the spheres of activity within that organisation. The relationships within such organisational arrangements are summed up in essence by Robbins (1980:232):

> "Authority is the right to act, responsibility, the obligation to perform delegated duties and tasks, and accountability is the obligation to a higher authority for satisfactory performance of the duties and tasks".

In this piece of research, the organisation and structures to effect teacher education will be of central concern. Of particular importance will be a consideration of the dichotomy between centralisation and decentralisation in the provision of teacher education in South Africa. Riekert's stance on this dichotomy will be central to this discussion (in Van Vuuren 1983:164):

> "The maximum devolution of government authority and greater decentralisation of administration is one of the cornerstones of successful...state administration".

The greatest degree of professional autonomy in teacher education may be viewed as ideal, where autonomy refers to:

> "...the right of a particular level of government to pass legislation and give effect to it without undue interference by another government level" (Thornhill, in Van Vuuren, 1985:21).

The dichotomy, and balance, between a centralised and a decentralised system and structure of organising of teacher education provision will be discussed in the proposal stage of this piece of research.

2.7.3.8 COORDINATION IN THE PROCESS OF ORGANISING

With the division of functions between departments and groups, and within departments and groups, the need for the coordination of all the efforts into a unified effort to achieve the predetermined goals, is an important organisational goal in any administrative process.

At the macro level, the legislature has to coordinate efforts nationally and interdepartmentally. At the micro level, departments have to coordinate their efforts to achieve their aims and objectives. An institutional head must concern himself with inter-institutional and intra-institutional coordination of efforts. The rationale for creating separate sections is primarily the effective achievement of the overall goals of a department. Each separate, and often specialist, grouping within any organisation aimed at achieving an object must be so managed that the efforts are in the same direction, in harmony each with the other, and unified to a reasonable extent.

It is possible to achieve some measure of coordination *via* the work procedures and stratification of work roles, which are typically hierarchical in the line function mode or system. Specific ploys to achieve coordination include holding regular meetings, special coordinating committees, work manuals, and staff training which specifically addresses coordination policies.

It is also possible to centralise the functioning of a multitude of similar bodies *via* a central controlling

institution or department. The Commission for Administration is such a coordinating body in public service personnel matters. Similarly, the Treasury has a coordinating effect in that, through controlling the fiscal budgeting and expenditure, it controls and systematises State efforts, so that work programmes are not duplicated and monies are spent and accounted for in the same manner across departments.

Coordination within a structured system for the provision of teacher education will be considered later in the research more specifically.

2.7.3.9 ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISING

An important aspect of coordination is communication. Whether communication is formal or informal, written, spoken or relayed in some other manner, it is the lifeblood of an organisation. It is part of the generic organising function to deliberately plan for setting up lines of communication, which will assist in the achievement of common goals.

Communication entails many related meanings. It is necessary to communicate with the public to inform them of the aims and achievements of an institution. It is equally important to inform personnel in an institution, what objectives are being striven for, why they are important and how they fit into the overall plan. Internal public relations is a form of communication that engenders cooperative effort.

Communication in an organisation has an important management function. Clear directives to subordinates as to what is

required and expected of them is essential to efficient administration. Just as important however, is the need for information to be fed back to management from subordinates. This information could be vital in planning, decision-making and control within an organisation, and could affect the efficacy of the whole organisation.

2.7.3.10 CONTROL WITHIN THE FUNCTION OF ORGANISING

Any public institution, or structure within which an institution functions, should be organised in such a way as to accommodate the generic control function and to promote ease of public accountability. When superordinate and subordinate sections of a public institution are established, the mechanism for control must be made explicit, and the manner of accounting should be specified. This will happen in the work procedures on an individual basis, but the organisation or structure established must incorporate intergroup or intersection control mechanisms. The locus of controlling functions, and the span of control of superordinate functionaries, or sections, must be considered and planned for within the organisation.

2.7.4 STAFFING AS A GENERIC FUNCTION *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In public administration, as in all corporate endeavours, the appointment of personnel may be crucial to the success of the enterprise. The activities associated with the personnel function may be loosely defined as (Andrews, 1982: 78):

- provision of personnel
- personnel utilisation
- personnel training and development
- personnel remuneration (including service benefits)
- personnel retention.

Lecturers and management in teacher education institutions fall under the statutory requirements of the public service as decided by the Commission for Administration. This Commission was established by the Commission for Administration Act, 1984 (Act 65 of 1984).

The Departments of Education are in charge of deciding on the staff establishment in teacher education institutions. They decide on the creation and classification of posts, prescribe the work requirements of the posts and deal with any grievances or instances of misconduct. White teacher educators also fall under the professional aegis of the statutory teachers' body, the Teachers' Federal Council, and must subscribe to its code of conduct.

If teacher education were unifed, it is possible that teacher education could fall under a department, or under a professional body, or under some specific controlling body established for this purpose, but the colleges of education would probably function on a very similar basis to that which is in existence at the moment.

It may be possible to centralise functions such as the recruitment, selection and evaluation of staff; on the other hand it may be desirable to decentralise this function to college councils as capable local and autonomous bodies.

Teacher educators do not have a recognised professional association. In most instances teacher educators become part of professional teacher organisations, or relate to institutional staff bodies, such as at the universities. Rudimentary, and largely unofficial, professional forms of association have become evident recently. Under the aegis of the Teachers' Federal Council (the official white teachers body) the white rectors have met on a national basis to discuss possible incorporation as a group and to discuss matters of common concern. Similarly the rectors of colleges in the KwaZulu Education department have met, with departmental approval, to discuss matters of mutual concern. An unofficial regional professional association, CORDTEK (standing for the Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu Natal) has been established and meets regularly, including holding an annual conference with strong regional attendance and some national attendance. If such initiatives were to become part of a national association of professional teacher educators, and such a situation has just emerged, joint consultation between the professional body and the government would be possible on an array of matters and issues affecting the professional personnel in teacher training institutions.

Such a national body, if it came into existence, could promote specific educational, training and development opportunities for the teacher educators. Here 'educational' refers to the development of the intellect in a general way, 'training' refers to the development of specific skills, attitudes, and working and thinking habits which will equip a person to follow a specific career, and 'development' refers to personal growth in the individual abilities of an employee (Andrews, 1982:102-103). A professional board could promote educational opportunities in order to stimulate the acquisition of broad generalised knowledge, such as, for example, a coursework masters degree specifically for teacher educators. Training is possibly best handled by the teacher training institutions on the job, although in-service regional courses and short professional courses could also be provided by the professional board. Development is wrought by the individual himself. The broad scope of improvement and growth of the individual's human (personal) abilities, attitudes and personality traits cannot be adequately accommodated in a professional programme. However, professional association opportunities could be a part of a personal development process for teacher educators. Structured reading programmes and professional discussion groups could stimulate the education, training and development faculties of the teacher educator participants.

Another staffing concern that needs to be more fully considered, is induction. Teacher educators are usually

appointed to a teacher training institution from a school environment. Although the school experience is relevant to the task of a teacher educator, the new challenges on being appointed to a post as a teacher educator are many and varied. At the moment, any induction is up to the individual institutions and is usually very informal, to the point of being a 'sink or swim' attitude in some instances. Similarly, little is provided in terms of middle management extension and development, except for experiential opportunities that occur on a random *ad hoc* basis.

As can be seen, there is scope for developing the staffing function in any new dispensation in teacher education provision in South Africa and the collegiate model accommodates such needs specifically.

2.7.5 DETERMINING WORK PROCEDURES AS A GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In the provision of teacher education, the training and education of teachers is the line function, the main objective of the academic and professional pursuit. The work carried out by the lecturers is well established in precedent within the academe of higher education institutions and, as professionals, the minimum of work procedure stipulation is prescribed. As professionals, the academic staff are expected to pursue their professional role with the minimum of rigidity and structure being provided, let alone enforced. What occurs in the lecture

theatre, laboratory and in the practice teaching setting is up to the lecturer concerned to a great extent and he is accountable for using his professional autonomy wisely and productively. In effect, the work procedures laid down for the professional staff consist of the broad parameters of the conditions of service, such as the hours of work, the length of the working year, and the professional responsibilities (lecture load, practice teaching obligations) required by the tertiary institution at which the lecturer works.

To an extent, procedures are contained in the organisational parameters within the institutions. Line functions will exist in a hierarchical fashion from the management of the institution down to the most junior lecturer on the staff. However at the management level, staff functions, as opposed to line functions, become prevalent and work procedures need to be articulated in order to realise the ends of the institution.

If one is considering an organisation for teacher education, consisting of a plethora of institutions, dispersed geographically, varied and individual in their character, yet unified, in that they form a part of the common system to turn out teachers for the schools in the country, then common standards become important and ministerial accountability is central to the endeavour.

It is then imperative to lay down the procedures to be followed, for example, to control the establishment and

ensure that the correct procedures are followed in financial matters. This means that procedures for the performance of the staffing function should be articulated and structured (rationalised) for all the persons within the organised system and within structures falling under teacher education. The management team of each institution must know how its funding will be derived and accounted for, and these procedures must be the same for all teacher education institutions. These procedures are closely linked with the generic organisational structures (who is responsible for what; who delegates work and to whom is it delegated; what is the relationship between the departmental secretariat and the individual institutions; what are the rights and obligations of the personnel within the system?). Similarly the work procedures relate to the generic control function (who is accountable to whom; in what manner or format will the control procedures be required to be presented?).

Procedural requirements in fact protect the officials by delineating their work environment in an orderly and systematised way. It is possible to establish whether a functionary has acted *ultra vires* or not, by referring to the duties, lines of responsibility and structuring of his work procedures. The work procedures are contained in statutory requirements, which are usually in the form of departmental directives arising out of the powers established in the enabling legislation, which controls the teacher education programme.

The traditional definition of a procedure may be seen as "...a series of interrelated sequential steps established for the accomplishment of a task" (Robbins, 1980:72) or "...a series of interdependent, consecutive steps, which must be taken towards the achievement of an objective" (Andrews 1982:121). These definitions envisage the achievement of a task or an objective. In a large professional pursuit, such as the provision of teacher education, the tasks are complex and the objectives multiple and overlapping. For these reasons, the bulk of the work procedures required in educational management are not simple to structure or programme. Where complexity in work procedures is encountered, usually the broad parameters within the official work function are specified. It is not possible to provide a detailed step by step procedural work analysis. Even if this were possible, it is undesirable as work efficiency would be impeded. The aim of providing work procedures is not only standardisation and control, but efficiency in achieving the ends entailed in the work to be peformed. In fact work procedures should be critically evaluated regularly with a view to improving the economy of administrative effort, thereby achieving the greatest efficiency which is concomitant with effective performance (Andrews 1982:121). These definitions envisage the achievement of a task or an objective. In a large professional pursuit, such as the provision of teacher education, the tasks are complex and the objectives multiple and overlapping. For these reasons, the bulk of the work procedures required in educational management are not simple

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2.7.6 CONTROLLING AS A GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Parliament as the supreme legislative power has the responsibility of deciding what public goods and services should be achieved, and is responsible to ensure that these are achieved as economically as possible. Coete (1986:180) clarifies that:

> "...the exercise of control in the public sector can have but one objective; namely to ensure that account is given in public for eveything the authorities do or neglect to do, so that all the citizens can see exactly what is being done or not being done, to further their individual or collective interests".

The control process therefore is a monitoring of what is decided on, how it is decided to implement it, whether its implementation and the results thereof are commensurate with the expectations articulated in the policy and enacted in

the statutes, and what improvements are possible in future planning, implementation and outcomes in terms of what was done and what was not done that could have been done.

Control is planned, it is dynamic and flexible, it is aimed at purposeful action, it is introduced to ensure effectiveness in the attainment of planned or envisaged goals and it is a functional process rather than an academic abstraction. Control in public administration is not coercive, manipulating or punishing in nature (although it could be if rank negligence, inability or malevolence is discovered). Although controlling carries a restraining and directing influence on activities, its primary aim is an ongoing process of review designed to facilitate the rendering of account (or answerability) for duties and responsibilities entrusted to an official with a view to effective and efficient use of public resources for the ultimate good of the community.

Sing (unpublished document) defines control as:

> "...the power exercised by a superordinate body over a subordinate body in the application of policies, procedures and other measures for the direction, regulation and co-ordination of a totality of activities designed to achieve the desired objectives...".

Control has also been defined as:

> "...the process of monitoring activities to determine whether individual units and the organisation itself are obtaining and utilising their resources effectively and efficiently so as to accomplish their objectives, and, where this is not being achieved, implementing corrective action" (Robbins, 1980:376).

It can be seen that control is not merely a negative fault-finding process, but an assurance that the prime concern of government will remain the promotion of the general welfare of the citizens, as well as to determine whether parliamentary directives are adhered to when legislative decisions are translated into actions. In this process the legislature calls the executive to account, but it is itself called to account as well through political processes.

Effective control entails an assessment between 'what is' and 'what could be'. By 'what could be' it is implied that there are alternatives and that one or more of these alternatives may be considered better, or the best. Such better alternatives could stand as the norms, criteria or standards against which actual achievement is measured. If results can be compared with exact measures, such as time or profit measures, the control (evaluation and accountability) process is straight forward. However, in public initiatives and programmes, the goals are often of a social nature. If the goals are 'the benefit and general welfare of all the citizens' for example, how can one predict, or measure, the specific performance of a proposed social programme, such as the provision of teacher education for example? The number of teachers trained, or the unit cost of training them, are not adequate professional criteria or standards for measuring success, although they may be valid economic measures. Yet social programmes affect the lives of the citizens and a qualified judgement must be made, even if it cannot be adequately quantified, in terms of whether an

effective utilisation of available resources has been achieved in training high quality teachers.

Control measures may be applied in a variety of ways at various levels of government.

2.7.6.1 CONTROL BY THE LEGISLATURE

The legislature is responsible and accountable for the full gamut of public programmes, from the innovation of programmes to the achievement of the programmes. As the elected public office bearer, the Minister in charge of a department is called to account. This may happen, for example, *via* public opinion and comment, or questions in the mass media. Questions may be asked in Parliament and the affairs of his department may be subject to public debate. Budgetary stipulations are also a method of calling ministerial representatives to account.

A designated official, the accounting officer, must report to a Parliamentary select committee on the expenditure usage of his department. Select committees are useful statutory bodies associated with Parliament that are formed to investigate accountability matters efficiently and at depth. Such select committees have the time and powers to obtain detailed information as they see fit and can scrutinise public actions and report their findings to Parliament.

Departments are usually expected to submit annual reports to Parliament and the Minister may be called to account, on the basis of these reports, in the media or in Parliament.

In these ways the public office bearers are called to account for the overall aims of their institution and the achievement thereof. They must answer to Parliament for the actions and the inactions of the executive institutions entrusted to them.

2.7.6.2 LEGISLATIVE CONTROL OF THE EXECUTIVE

In order to be accountable in public, the legislative public office bearer must control the executive public officials, and call them to account. He must establish whether the public activities proposed by the legislature have been carried out effectively and efficiently and whether the expected and required results have been achieved (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986:101). Thus an assessment must be made in terms of functional control (ensuring that all the activities undertaken are directed at the achievement of the set goal and objective) and the control of administrative actions (how it was done, as opposed to what was done). The aim of this control assessment is to ensure that the optimum results have been achieved through the most economical utilisation of all the scarce resources, such as personnel, goods and financial resources. Such control has become of increasing importance, given the increase in the nature and extent of public activities and the resulting increase in the utilisation of resources (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986:105). It is necessary to ensure that the best possible services are rendered and that allocated funds are utilised to maximum efficiency. The assessment includes a consideration

of whether work methods have been effective and whether programme expectations have been met.

Estimates of expenditure for budgetary purposes provide a useful vehicle for control, as they represent a combination of a policy statement, a work programme and built in control measures. Programme budgeting is particularly useful as an aid in ensuring a higher degree of goal fulfilment in the public sector as it allows for a more purposeful allocation of public monies and ensures the determination of programmes which are based on clear guidelines for action.

The auditing process is similarly useful in determining the degree to which expectations are realised in outcomes. Not only is an assessment made as to whether expenditure has been handled correctly according to the regulations, but an assessment can be made as to whether any expenditure incurred can be justified. Hanekom and Thornhill (1986:111) describe varieties of auditing. *Authorisation* auditing gives an indication as to whether the required authority of the legislature was obtained and whether the official acted within the boundaries of his jurisdiction. *Effectiveness* auditing is more comprehensive in its purview and is concerned with evaluating the results achieved by agencies and with the methods and procedures used to reach these results. This makes it possible to determine not only the financial considerations, but also the nature of the goal and the degree to which it has been attained. Auditing can therefore fulfil the function of providing feedback and allowing for continuous control to be exercised. Auditing

can make a valuable contribution to the attainment of effective performance by:

(i) determining rationally whether the results obtained represent success in achieving the stated goals;

(ii) determining whether the results achieved are justified in relation to the total costs; and

(iii) determining whether the yardsticks applied by the administration are valid and suitable (Hanekom & Thornhill 1986:112).

The State Treasury functions encompass much more than State finance. The Treasury has an overall picture of the activities of all the governmental departments, which puts it in a good position to effect control measures at the planning (budgeting) stage and the implementation stage (*via* controlling finances released for expenditure purposes). This is important as control should be timely to be effective, and should be exercised at a stage where the progress of an executive action can still be influenced. Treasury control is both *a priori* and *ex post facto* in its application, which makes this a very effective control mechanism.

Ideally control measures should be directed at the future, rather than simply at the past when it is too late to be of much value, except in establishing further policies and programmes of action.

2.7.6.3 INTERNAL EXECUTIVE CONTROL

Just as the legislature holds the senior executive officials to account, so these senior officials in turn provide mechanisms for control and account within their deprtments. Some of the methods used to effect control and call functionaries to account are as follows:

(i) Reporting to superiors, verbally or in a set written format;

(ii) Inspection on a regular basis and in a specified manner;

(iii) Statistical returns, which must be provided in the format that aids the control function; and

(iv) checking and internal audits for financial control.

Accountability can be built into the work programmes. As every public official should be able to render an account for his actions in the performance of his work, he must ensure that he only acts within the parameters of the relevant legislation. Accountability is enhanced if clear guidelines are specified for the completion of work tasks and directives are provided for the manner of accounting required. *Via* the organisational arrangements and the stipulating of work procedures, accountability for work performance can be intrinsic to work programmes in an ongoing way and with the minimum of fuss.

2.7.6.4 PLANNING AS A FUNCTION OF CONTROL

Controlling can have many facets. Andrews (1982:137) casts the generic function of control as a management function, which incorporates planning, formulation of standards, control and evaluation. She defines planning as referring to those functions which are undertaken to determine objectives, allocate resources and compile plans or programmes for the realisation of this objective. Proper planning gives direction, indicates how the goal will be achieved, unites the resources in an attempt to realise the goals, avoids duplication of efforts and promotes control in providing goals or standards which act as criteria whereby the outcomes can be judged. These standards may be implicit in the planning, in the proposed guidelines for achieving the programme, for example. It can be assessed if actions were executed according to the plan and whether goals have been achieved, as they were planned for initially. Evaluation in fact means a reconsideration of specific activities to determine whether all the actions are directed at achieving the objective.

If the functions of procedural prescriptions and organisational arrangements are planned with control in mind, they can add to the efficacy of the control function. One can plan for programme evaluation and personal accountability when structures are being planned, which aids the realisation of the control function.

2.7.6.5 FACTORS AFFECTING THE CONTROL PROCESS

When dealing with people and working through people to realise social goals, the process is unlikely to run perfectly smoothly. Factors which may affect the realisation of programme control include:

- inaccessibility to the required information needed to assess the situation completely;

- delegated powers which are not amenable to control;

- the way information is presented may cloud the true state of affairs;

- interpretation mistakes; and

- the granting of quasi-judicial powers to executive functionaries makes control very difficult to achieve (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:211).

In spite of the difficulties in controlling public administrative processes, it is important to evaluate programmes, control legislation and call officials and office bearers to account. The reasons attributable to the failure to achieve goals is important if the problems are to be avoided in the future. Attributions for failure to attain prescribed goals may be ascribed to, *inter alia*;

- imperfect knowledge regarding the factors that could affect the attainment of the stated goals;

- inadequate resources which could prevent executive institutions from achieving their objectives;

- organisational deficiencies could hamper the effective execution of government programmes;

- dysfunctionality in the interface between the public sector and the private sector involved in joint programmes;

- leadership problems could affect the ability to plan ahead adequately or to effect a programme which is adequate in principle but not achieved in practice;

- inter-departmental dependency may hamper a department if the joint cooperation is not functional and efficient; and

- failures in communication within an executive branch (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983:180).

2.7.6.6 CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONS

All the above facets in the control process would apply in some measure within the provision of teacher education. However, it is common for a fair measure of the control function, when dealing with professional persons, to be in the hands of a specific professional body. In this way professional specialists decide on the conduct and performance of their peers. This procedure is typically established in law *via* the formation of statutory councils.

The Teachers' Federal Council is responsible for the conduct of teachers, teacher educators and professional departmental

officials. Although the control function is curtailed and specified in this instance, there is no reason why such a professional council should not take on the complete control functions.

Universities are fairly autonomous from departmental control functions in that they are not subject to governmental inspections. However they have to report annually and financial matters are one area where the government holds a closer reign. In fact, financial controls may be used by the government to effect control in other facets of the university enterprise, for example, funding based on pass rates may have a decided effect on student selection and student stayaways.

With colleges of education, departmental controls are more direct and expansive. Those white colleges with a college council have a greater autonomy in certain areas, particularly in setting academic standards and in staff selection, but the department controls the intake *via* funding, and has some control over the courses offered because the department forms the channel between the colleges and the Committee of Heads of Education. In black colleges, the departmental controls are pervasive, including the appointment of staff, the prescribing of syllabuses and inspection.

In any discussion of the future provision of professional teacher education, the control functions and relationships will need to be carefully considered.

2.8 GENERIC AUXILIARY FUNCTIONS

For the purposes of this work, the auxiliary function of planning is relevant and will be considered.

2.8.1 PLANNING AS A GENERIC AUXILIARY FUNCTION *VIS-A-VIS* THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In order to make a decision, it is first necessary to consider why something is to be done, how it is to be done, whether there are other ways of doing it, and the likely results or consequences after it has been done (Robbins 1988:279). In order to implement any action in public administration, it will be accomplished more efficiently and effectively if it is properly planned. Planning counters any tendency to blind action, 'muddling through' or making a number of discrete uncoordinated sequential decisions on an *ad hoc* basis without prior thought.

Simons and Dvorin (1977:583) state that:

> "...planning is fundamental if public management is to face and solve the problems which confront them, devise the means of overcoming their complexity, identify social goals, relate the utilization of human and physical energy resources to overall socially desirable results and government is to be held accountable.
> It is obvious that sound planning is central to sound administration".

Bain (Hanekom,Rowland & Bain 1986:48) refers to the "primacy of planning" and holds that planning precedes and pervades other administrative functions. In planning, past and present circumstances are analysed, and the understanding gained is extrapolated and projected into possible future

circumstances or scenarios, with a view to achieving a rational harmonisation of resources and actions.

Policy-making is similar to planning in that both are statements of intent which guide thinking, thereby channelling proposed actions in efficient and effective ways. There is a reciprocal relationship between policy-making and planning, with each influencing the other. Planning is conducted prior to policy-making, so that the best policy can be formulated. After a policy is articulated, planning occurs within the parameters of the policy as to how the policy can be achieved. The policy is the vision; planning is a rational way of realising that vision. By 'rational', it is implied that reasoning is used to analyse causality, predict outcomes, order preferences and choose among alternative actions (Hills 1973:109).

Planning cannot be entirely rational, to the extent that it cannot be value free. It must accommodate value interests, as well as catering for the generation and spreading of wealth and the orderly utilisation of resources. Values implicit in planning arise out of, *inter alia*:

- political needs;
- community needs;
- inter- and intra-governmental needs;
- social and moral values;
- heritage considerations;

- social limitations;

- dictates of the human spirit; and

- the ideals of the community

Planning may involve considerations at many levels and between conflicting areas. Goals have to be achieved that might be contrary, and every facet of community life must be given due consideration and such considerations must be integrated into the overall goals derived. Conflicting goals may include:

- economic goals (wealth and benefit to the citizens);

- regional goals (as opposed to national goals);

- social goals (needs of the various communities);

- physical goals (utilisation of resources); and

- political goals (rewarding voters; keeping citizens contented).

In the provison of education, for example, conflicting goals may be that vast expenditure (economic) could lose votes (political), or a new college built in one area (regional) could alienate other communities (social). The permutations and possibilities for conflict are legion. Simon and Dvorin (1977:579) perceive the planning process as:

> "...seeking meaningful goals, adopting systematic procedures, incorporating a rational *modus operandi* without excluding values and opinions, whilst retaining a societally based and futuristic perspective".

Any plan conforms in essence to a set of characteristics which defines the planning process. These characteristics may be broken down as follows:

- Planning is a deliberate activity;

- It is aimed at establishing a predetermined course of action;

- The goals and objectives of the organisation are clarified and determined;

- The best available alternative is selected as a programme for achievement;

- The programme selected represents the best future course of action calculated to achieve the goals and realise the objectives;

- The objectives are proposals for the future, incorporating specific goals to be achieved;

- The plan of action determines the actions to be taken and specifies what should be done, by whom, when, by what methods, at what costs and to achieve what desired goal;

- The plan specifies the methods to be employed and the steps to be taken to realise future objectives;

- The plan is compiled to determine the most effective allocation of resources;

- The plan is a rational setting out of an ordered sequence of events or activities and is called a programme of action prescribed for the future; and

- Planning requires information, sound decisions and group effort.

A plan requires the harmonisation of interests along systematic lines and on a fairly durable basis (Robbins 1988:280). However planning should not be rigid and inflexible. Planning involves change, in that planning is an attempt to achieve a situation that is more satisfying than the prevailing situation. Robbins (1988:282) feels that a plan should be conceived as something that will change - it is about adaptation.

Hills (1973:75) encapsulated the complexity of the planning process succinctly thus:

> "...planning is the deliberative activity leading to decisions concerning future courses of action...(it) ...assumes the establishment of objectives and the setting of goals for the organization. It is also concerned with the steps to be taken to realise those objectives and goals by members of the organization. It is concerned with resources and with the relative commitment of the various resources to the attainment of the goals...Planning, of necessity, is concerned with evaluation of the organization's performance and application of remedial measures when they are indicated...An adequate informational system should provide the necessary information for that corrective action essential to the realization of organizational objectives and the attainment of goals. Evaluation as a part of planning must be continuous in nature".

Planning affords the administrator with the opportunity and means to establish goals and direction for the institution in order to effect concerted action, with the minimum of

duplication and wasted resources, and the provision of goals and standards which make control possible. Robbins (1988: 153) feels that planning is beneficial because:

- the process itself provides clarification;
- change can be anticipated and offset;
- it gives direction and focuses attention on objectives;
- it reduces overlapping and wasteful activities;
- continuity of action is improved; and
- evaluation and control are facilitated.

Planning is an important auxiliary function in the provision of education as the needs of the community are great and the resources are limited relative to the needs.

2.9 SUMMARY

Public Administration was considered as a construct and a process within the workings of the State. The theoretical perspectives and concomitant practices were established as they apply to this research.

The appropriateness of the Public Administrative paradigm for the consideration of the provision and future development of professional teacher education in South Africa, was addressed. In particular, the importance of a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approach was noted.

The normative factors in public administration arising out of community values, and the values of the body politic, were discussed, with reference to their importance in the consideration of the provision and development of teacher education in South Africa from a public administrative perspective. Social and democratic values, which ensure the general welfare of all the citizens, were seen to be encapsulated in the normative requirements and these are required to be applied in administrative practice.

The academic perspective and evaluative orientations applicable to this study were enunciated.

The generic approach was discussed in some detail, especially as it pertains to the provision of education. The six generic processes discussed were:

Policy-making

Financing

Organising

Staffing

Determining work procedures

Controlling

In addition, specific attention was given to planning as the auxiliary generic function of specific importance in any consideration of the development of processes and structures relevant in the provision of education, including teacher education.

NOTE

Unless otherwise indicated, this chapter has been based on

an amalgam of understanding derived from the following core references, which are duly acknowledged:

Cloete (1986)

Coetzee (1988)

Frederickson (1980)

Gildenhuys (editor) (1988)

Hanekom & Thornhill (1983)

Hanekom *et alia* (1986)

Hanekom & Thornhill (1986)

Hanekom (1987)

CHAPTER THREE

3. THE EVOLUTION OF THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA FROM 1910 TO THE PRESENT DISPENSATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The issues in history which have led to the current system of provision of teacher education in South Africa need to be considered. The aim in this section is not a definitive historical chronical of events, issues and personalities, but a subjective highlighting of some of the issues cogent to this piece of research. The issues have been gleaned from reference books, commissions and legislation and are presented chronologically so that the sweep of events and the developments can be perceived in historical perspective. Nguntombi (1984:236) highlights the historical perspective of the provision of teacher education in South Africa thus:

> "South African literature, comprising mainly reports on commissions of inquiry, journal articles, public addresses and conference reports, research materials and books is replete with exhortations that teacher education provisions in South Africa should be coordinated and developed into a unified system".

This piece of research, in essence, will be adding to these appeals for unification and coordination, with special reference to the provision of teacher education in a new dispensation which is compatible with the present set of circumstances in teacher education.

3.2 POST UNION ISSUES

Teacher education has an eighty year history of

fragmentation since Union in 1910. The seeds of this fragmentation were set in motion at the time of Union. Each of the four constituent provinces had an extant teacher training system. These systems were not combined, or even coordinated, at Union. In the South African Act of 1910 education was divided, in that higher education was placed under the control of the central government, whilst education other than higher education was the responsibility of the provinces.

Teacher education was not mentioned and the debate soon arose as to whether teacher education should fall under the rubric of higher education or not. It was only in 1945 that the issue was resolved to some extent, as the training of secondary teachers was included specifically in the definition of higher education in law, and then notably in legislation on financial relations.

Thus from the time of Union, the first seeds of fragmentation were sown, with inter provincial schisms, as well as the national/provincial split in high school/primary school teacher training as dictated by the administrative structures. It was not long after Union that issues were raised against provincialism in education. In 1914 the Lawrence Commission recommended *inter alia* that all education should be taken over by the central government.

In 1916 the Jagger Commission similarly recommended for administrative reasons that the provinces should be dissolved and replaced by district councils, thereby placing

education under the Union Government. It recommended that all education be centralised, with the central government seeing to the legislative matters and local areas being responsible for administrative matters. It was pointed out that the diverse policies of the provinces were not conducive to the creation a true South African nationality, a point that could be made in the current South African situation, especially with the fragmentation of education on regional, language, cultural, religious and colour grouping lines.

In the Provincial Administation Commissions Report of 1917 the idea was expressed that education should be a systematic whole and that primary, secondary, technical and higher education should be made to fit into each other in an organic scheme (Niven 1971:40).

In 1923 the Baxter Commission recommended on financial grounds that education should be under central government control and direction, with training colleges being transferred to university control.

However the Hofmeyr Commission of 1924 felt that colleges should remain under provincial control. In backing the *status quo*, it was reasoned that the authority that controls schooling should also retain control over the training of teachers. The Hofmeyr Commission also proposed a Union Board of Education to coordinate education on a national basis within the provincial administration parameters. The Hofmeyr Commission denounced the tendency for the provinces to drift

apart and criticised the fact that the educational work which was being done was chaotic because it lacked a carefully considered policy and coordination.

In 1928 the van den Horst Commission on Universities launched an idea which has been turned to many times since, when it suggested that the training of all secondary school teachers should be a function of the universities alone and that the provinces should consequently relinquish their responsibility for training secondary teachers. This theme was heard from Adamson, Master of Rhodes University College, at a national conference in 1934. In the same year the Rood Commission presented arguments on educational and economic grounds that the provinces should transfer teacher training to the universities under the control of the Union Department of Education.

The Nicol Commission of 1939 identified three positions for the control of the teacher training colleges. Such training could be conducted either by the universities, or by the colleges, or *via* a system of close cooperation between the colleges and the universities. The close cooperation theme has continued in various forms to the present day.

The Wilks Committee in Natal in 1946 felt that:

> "...the whole of education is a unity and should be regarded as a continuous process. This view requires that the control of the education of youth, at least prior to employment, should be vested in one educational authority" (paragraph 10, page 18).

The aim of such a national system of education was to foster a broad national loyalty, thereby creating South African

citizens in every sense of the word. (paragraph 82, page 30).

Wilks recommended a greater cooperation between the provincial education authorities and the university authorities, but warned against an over-zealousness in striving after academic standards *via* association with universities, as a preoccupation with academic scholarship might well have a debilitating effect on the teacher. Colleges need a balance between high academic standards, professional training and contact with the actual school situation (le Roux 1980:69). Wilks perceived teacher education as the cornerstone of the educational edifice and felt that teacher education should not be relegated to a subsidiary status *vis-a-vis* the schools.

The de Villiers Commission in 1948 stressed the need to develop a national education policy and to this end recommended the establishment of a National Council for Education, which would determine the general broad principles of educational policy for the nation as a whole (Niven 1971:381). It was envisaged, *inter alia*, that such a Council would train, certify, appoint and register teachers, and handle matters such as teachers' conditions of service. The ideal, it was felt, was for education to be centrally controlled and administratively decentralised into regions, which were not to be the provincial regions. The idea was for a coordinating central body to lay down the general educational policy.

De Villiers felt that colleges should come under the aegis of universities and proposed that the university faculties, teacher training colleges and teacher training in the technical colleges, should be combined into teachers' colleges or schools of education, thereby forming constituent colleges of the universities. The arguments put forward for teachers in training to attend a university were, *inter alia*:

(i) optimal personal and cultural development;

(ii) contact with persons preparing for other professions and careers;

(iii) the contact with the research process;

(iv) better qualified staff; and

(v) diplomates could receive accreditation towards degree courses. (le Roux 1980:67)

On the negative side, there was the fear that the colleges would lose their identity and be submerged within the university because of its size.

The Pretorius Commission of 1951 felt that the colleges had a place and a right to their own particular mandate:

> "The qualities essential to the teacher cannot be acquired in a purely intellectual way...they grow fast in a genial climate of an institution with a close knit corporate life in which they are embodied" (le Roux 1980:71).

The argument was that the qualities necessary to be a teacher were not necessarily related to university standards

and criteria *per se*. These qualities were not likely to receive due recognition and encouragement in a purely academic atmosphere, whereas they would receive positive affirmation in a college. Although the Pretorius Commission recommended close cooperation between colleges and universities, it was felt that the colleges should remain under the provincial aegis to safeguard the professional standards which were desirable in teacher training.

In 1955 the Interkerklike Komitee was highly critical of the divided control in education and stressed the need for a national educational policy.

3.3 NATIONAL COORDINATION MECHANISMS AND THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The decade of the 1960's saw the introduction of specific measures to coordinate education in some way on a national basis. The National Education Advisory Bill, 1962 (Act 96 of 1962) was introduced to "...assist the Minister in regard to educational policy, consult on broad fundamental principles of sound education and to promote cooperation and coordination of educational policy" (Niven 1971:383). Wide consultation was envisaged *via* the establishment of a National Advisory Education Council (NAEC) with a view to introducing a national education policy. At the first meeting of the Council in 1963, the Minister of National Education (Senator de Klerk) referred to the fact that in South Africa:

> "...there is no uniform control of teacher training as there is in other countries; neither is there cooperation, consultation or coordination between the different authorities concerned, with the result that there is considerable disparity in almost every respect...There is really no systematic and scientific system of teaching training" (Gericke Commission paragraph 6, page 3).

Four sub-committees were appointed including a sub-committee to consider the training and certification of teachers. By 1964 the Council had agreed that the training of all teachers should take place in cooperation with the universities. In 1965 the Council met with the heads of provincial education departments and the principals of universities, but no agreement could be reached on the interpretation of the word cooperation (Rose and Tunmer 1975:295).

In 1964 the Schumann Commission into financing found no clear demarcation of functions between the central government and the provinces in connection with teacher training. In particular, the Commission deplored the fact that training colleges and universities operated "in splendid isolation" and stressed the need for close contact in order to counteract the divergence of basic principles underlying the training of teachers, in courses and their content, in the selection criteria and processes for student admissions, in certification and in cooperation and coordination. This Commission made proposals based on the English model articulated by Mc Nair in 1944, for institutes to be established whereby colleges would be integrated with universities in their localities.

The passing of the National Education Policy Act, 1967 (Act 39 of 1967) was another move towards coordinating the schisms in teacher education. The Minister of Education, Arts and Science was empowered to determine the general policy to be pursued in respect of education. He was required in the process to consult the administrators of education of the provinces, the Committee of University Principals (CUP) and the National Advisory Education Council (NAEC) where appropriate.

The Committee of Heads of Education (CHE) was a body established under this act comprising the four provincial Directors of Education, the Director of National Education, and chaired by the Director-general of National Education. This committee was required to submit recommendations to the Minister and the Administrators in regard to the manner in which the national education policy could be carried out on a coordinated basis, thereby ensuring a measure of uniformity.

Niven (1971:392) felt that this act placed the initiative for education policy solely in the hands of the Minister, given the consultation and advice clauses, and that therefore the executive power in respect of the professional control of education was in political hands. The Committee of Heads of Education (CHE) were in effect relegated to a subordinate role of implementers and coordinators of national policy, whilst the National Advisory Education Council was the professional body at the apex of educational administration.

The National Advisory Education Council were concerned about the diversity in teacher education provision, in that it was felt that the existing differences and divergencies exceeded the bounds of desirable variety (Rose & Tunmer 1975:298). With this in mind, they laid down the principles upon which a teacher training system for South Africa could be built. In essence they proposed that :

- teacher training should be of an equivalent standard throughout the country;

- teacher training should be given at types of institutions of equal status;

- the minimum duration of training should be four years and should lead to an education degree;

- professional and academic components should be combined and integrated;

- revolutionary change was eshewed, and vested interests should be taken into account;

- teacher training should be controlled by the universities and education departments jointly;

- as employers and the providers of finance, the departments of education should retain a substantial say in teacher training;

- a national policy of teacher training should be introduced as soon as possible; and policy must be decided by the Minister of National Education in consultation with,

and on the advice of, appropriate bodies and authorities, such as the National Advisory Education Council, wherever appropriate.

In the 1968 draft bill based on these principles, reference is made to an Institute as a place in which teachers should be trained. It was apparent that the drafters of the bill were mindful that in terms of Act 41 of 1967, teacher training had been legally interpreted as higher education, and so fell under the control of the Minister (Rose & Tunmer 1975:299).

The draft bill specified that teacher training should be coordinated on a countrywide basis, including, after due consultation with the Administrators, the Committee of University Principals and the NAEC, the names of certificates indicating teaching competence or qualifications. Teacher training was to be jointly controlled by the education departments and the relevant universities as a joint undertaking. The administration would control recruitment, selection, the admission of contracting students and the control of the bursaries, loans and contracts.

The central concept of the Bill was that of a teacher training institute to be established by the universities. In fact all training of white persons as teachers would be provided through an institute or a faculty of education at a university. The joint advisory council for an institute would consist of:

- the Principal of the university;
- the Director of the Department of Education;
- the Director of the institute itself;
- a university council representative from the faculty board of the faculty of education;
- a professional officer from the provincial education department appointed by the Administrator;
- a representative of the teachers' associations; and
- an additional member appointed by the Minister.

The Bill was immediately referred to a Select Committee, and ultimately to a Commission of Inquiry upon the effluction of the parliamentary session, with the terms of reference to make recommendations on an acceptably practical policy and system for the training of white persons as teachers, and by which teacher training could be coordinated and elaborated on a nationwide basis.

Reaction to the Bill was not favourable. The universities feared that it implied an impingement on their autonomy to have to work jointly with their provincial authorities, who in turn were resentful that their 3/4 century of good service was summarily being overlooked with teacher training coming under the aegis of the universities, so that they would effectively lose their control and input. Complaints were levied at the nature of the proposed institutes, which were perceived of as teacher training centres, rather than

the English concept of coordination and certificating under the umbrella of a university. It was felt that the control of the institute had been imprecisely defined and no provision had been made for professional coordination at a national level (Niven 1969, volume 1, number 1, page 26).

3.4 GERICKE COMMISSION

Gericke felt that a national policy for teacher training should be laid down in order to eliminate the existing diversity, in so far as it is undesirable and detrimental, and ensure a viable and workable *unity in diversity.* The principles and criteria propounded by the Committee were *inter alia*,

- emphasis on unity in diversity;
- the maintenance of standards;
- the recognition of the part played by existing institutions;
- partnership of the training institutions;
- gradualism in the evolution of a new system; and
- eshewing of rigidly enforced centralised control (Malherbe 1977:342).

The aims were to regulate teacher training in such manner that:

- teacher training would be coordinated and elaborated on a nationwide basis;

- teacher training should be enabled to keep abreast of modern trends of thought and action;

- the prestige of the teaching profession should be maintained and promoted; and

- the adverse effects of overlapping should be eliminated.

It was felt (Gericke 1969:19) that the training of teachers must be equivalent throughout the country, which did not mean that all training must be identical, nor that everyone should necessarily be trained in one and the same type of institution. What was required was a differentiated training that would train primary, secondary and specialist teachers equally well for their particular task. Therefore the courses could be different, yet equivalent, and the various training institutions should have comparable status.

The main body of the Commission's findings concerned the link between the universities and the colleges, which were controlled by the provinces. Six possibilities were considered:

(i) the maintenance of the status quo;

(ii) the idea of an institute (as per the 1968 draft Bill)

(iii) the handing over of all teacher training to the universities;

(iv) the development of colleges into degree granting institutions;

(v) the creation of coordinating institutions as *per* the English system; and

(vi) the creation of advisory and coordinating bodies to link universities and colleges.

The 1968 Draft Bill, out of which the Commission had grown, had proposed the institute concept. Gericke considered the pros and cons of the institute concept.

An institute is a mechanism whereby a national system of teacher training can be offered *via* a partnership between each university and the provincial administration concerned under a system of joint control. By training all teachers in such an institute the principle of unitary teacher training would be maintained. This arrangement would be in line with the prevailing trends in other countries.

Yet the institute concept was problematic. It was unacceptable to the provincial administrations. It was felt that the authority that is responsible for schooling should have the greatest say in the training of teachers. Universities are autonomous institutions and as such are not accountable to voters, whereas the provinces are democratically based in terms of public accountability. The provinces were responsible for schooling and needed the power to ensure the maintenance and efficient functioning of schools, especially if a crisis were to arise in terms of an

inadequate supply of teachers, which would call for special measures and the powers to take action. A university would not be accountable in the same way. The Commission also highlighted the rapid development of schooling, making in-service training of teachers imperative. This in-service training should be related to pre-service training and what occurs in the schools. The provincial authorities were best placed to coordinate these endeavours, as they knew what the needs were. Similarly they were in the best position to recruit and select students.

Gericke contradicted the contention that college students led isolated lives on the college campus and that this had an impoverishing effect on their development. It was felt that an individual was more likely to be alienated amongst the masses at a university and that university students tend to restrict their social life to the group taking their course. At a college on the other hand, the students could act as a body, because of the smaller numbers, and students could have plenty of contact with other students and their lecturers.

In addition, it was contended that college students took part in a large variety of activities which made for cultural enrichment, whilst equipping them with the knowledge and experience to organise and take the lead. Thus the idea that little growth and development was taking place in training at colleges of education was soundly refuted (Rose & Tunmer 1975:306-307). It was pointed out that colleges had contact with university staff, and that

coordination and planning was evident at provincial level and inter-departmental cooperation occurred.

The Commission was not convinced that teacher training in an institute would necessarily have an enhancing effect on the status of the teaching profession. Nor would more, and a better calibre of student, be attracted to teaching. Nor would primary teachers necessarily be better equipped for their task. It was rather felt that a four year training culminating in the awarding of a degree would be preferable. However Gericke made it clear that no one would want to question the advantages and prestige of university training, when the university is functioning in its own sphere, where academic standards apply and are maintained. By the same token it was considered equally unwise and unscientific to dub as inadequate the training given by colleges of education. It was felt that it would be better for each institution to continue with the type of training for which it is best equipped, but with liaison, coordination and cooperation in those fields where this would benefit and stimulate the work done by each (Rose & Tunmer 1975:307-308).

The law advisors consulted stated that it was impossible to give effect in legislation, in the way proposed by Gericke, to the principle of equal partnership between colleges and universities, since a controlling body, consisting of two equal partners, is not a body corporate and so either the university council or the administrator must have the final and decisive say. Equal control was not considered feasible

and the university and the provincial authorities each had serious reservations about the other being in control, as it would affect their role adversely. Furthermore there was doubt as to whether the universities were sufficiently experienced and equipped to take over teacher training as a whole.

The result of these considerations was that the Commission felt that the universities should not be asked to assume responsibility for all teacher training, as their academic character would not necessarily be appropriate for training primary school teachers. Neither was there support for the upgrading of colleges to university status, as the colleges were not able to offer instruction of a university level in all their departments. The British institute system was not considered appropriate for immediate implementation in South Africa.

It was felt that secondary teachers should train at universities or, in specialised areas, in colleges in close cooperation with a university. Similarly, colleges should retain the training of primary teachers, but in cooperation with the universities. Although control of teacher education was retained by the provinces, as they were responsible for schooling, the fear was expressed that where the employer is in control of the training of teachers, there may be a tendency or danger to concentrate on the quality of provision at the expense of the quality of training (Rose 1975:308).

In order to promote greater coordination and unity of training, an improved quality of training, and the achievement of comparable standards between institutions and regions, the following considerations were proposed. An enhanced prestige and professional reciprocal sharing of knowledge and experience, the elimination of detrimental overlapping, a closer liaison and cooperation, short of joint control, was recommended on a regional basis *via* joint advisory and coordinating committees, with the colleges remaining under provincial control and retaining their identity.

The Commission opined that unity would not be achieved so much by training all teachers together in the same type of institution. Rather, the primary teacher training courses should be rendered as equivalent to the secondary training courses in duration and content (Rose 1975:309).

Gericke recommended the establishment of a statutory council for teacher training, titled the 'South African Professional Council for the Training of Teachers', with advisory and directive powers and consisting of professional experts, which would promote coordination on a nationwide basis. This body would be separate to the National Advisory Education Council (NAEC), as it was felt that teacher training was sufficiently important to be served by a separate body with teacher training as its sole responsibility, and to which it could give its undivided attention. In this regard it was considered essential to have a national *policy* on teacher training in conjunction

with a nation wide *system* of teacher training. The NAEC was not a professional body and it was merely an advisory body to the Minister.

Gericke felt that the educational principles on which teacher training should be based should obviously be formulated by educationists, and preferably by educationists actively concerned in, and involved with, the training of teachers. The object was a professional body so constituted as to inspire confidence in the authorities that have to carry out its advice and directives. Such a Council would advise the Minister on general policy on the one hand, and help to implement the policy on the other. It could indicate guidelines for liaison and cooperation between the universities and the colleges. It was felt that it was essential for negotiations with, and the guidance of, training institutions on both academic and professional matters, that such negotiation should be undertaken by a professional body. Gericke felt that:

> "For status purposes, the teaching profession, like other high ranking professions in our country, is in urgent need of a body that it can accept as belonging to the profession" (Gericke 1969:24).

The proposed Council was to be constituted of the following members:

1 university representative, appointed by the Minister, from each province;

1 ministerial representative from the universities;

1 provincial education department member from each province appointed by the Minister and the Administrator;

1 representative from the department of higher education appointed by the Minister; and

3 representatives of the Federal Council of Teachers Associations appointed by the Minister.

Two factors stand out when considering the composition of the Council:

(i) the Minister has enormous influence on the appointment of members of the council; and

(ii) no representatives of teacher education, or the colleges *per se*, are included in the composition of the Council.

The proposed functions of the Council were to be, *inter alia*:

- to advise the Minister on general policy regarding academic and professional aspects of teacher training;

- to advise the Minister on the coordination of research, investigation and planning in the field of teacher training;

- to advise the Minister on the right of training institutions to offer courses and issue certificates;

- to advise the Minister on the duration of training for various fields of study;

- to advise the Administrators and universities on

academic and professional aspects of teacher training;

- to uphold and promote the prestige of the teaching profession; and

- noting the framework of policy on teacher training, and after consultation with the administrators and the universities, to determine:

* minimum admission requirements for teaching

* minimum content of a course for obtaining a certificate

* the composition and nature of the course of training

* the name of certificates and the relevant endorsements

* the minimum qualifications for appointment to the teaching staff of a training institution;

- to indicate guidelines for university/college liaison;

- to discuss the possibility of registering teachers;

- to appoint persons with specialist knowledge or experience to advise the Council; and

- to submit an annual report to the Minister.

(Gericke 1969-59).

The regional Joint Advisory and Coordinating Committees for Teacher Training would consist of university representatives, college and technical college representatives, provincial representatives and representation from the organised teaching profession. A

similar advisory body could also be set up by the Administrator on a provincial basis, as well as on a regional basis. Ideally the teaching courses should be of four years' duration (although a minimum of three years was acceptable for primary training) and the combined academic/professional four year degree was preferred to the consecutive course of training. Continual in-service training was considered essential and should be handled by the education departments as they know the needs and have the wherewithal to offer such training. Colleges should ideally have smaller classes to promote quality training and should be given as much academic autonomy as possible to enhance their status and standing as institutions of higher education.

These recommendations of the Gericke Commission were not unanimous. A minority report was presented which in effect was in accord with the 1968 draft bill and the institute concept. The minority opinion was that the majority stance simply maintained the status quo and had failed to take cognisance of the worldwide trends in teacher education. The universities were already providing training for virtually all the other professions and they were considered to be the proper institutions to do so. Therefore the mother of all professions (teaching) should take place in the recognised educational and training institutions for the professions, the universities.

The minority report was critical of teacher training being entrenched in the provincial system, as it was felt that

under such an arrangement, teacher training would never assume its rightful place in the framework of higher education. They felt that this was a contradiction in that teacher training was considered higher education under law. The minority group articulated their alternative, which was the establishment of teachers' training centres at the universities, to be formed by combining the faculty of education of the university with the college(s) of education in the area. The teachers' training centres were to be supervised and controlled by a joint committee consisting of representatives from the provinces and the university. In order to promote the unity of the profession, primary teachers would be trained along with the secondary teachers in the same institution and they could qualify for a degree qualification.

In opting for university control, as opposed to provincial control, the minority grouping expressed serious doubts regarding the efficiency of cooperation and coordination between the universities and the colleges *via* purely advisory committees, as proposed by the majority opinion. They felt that tradition and vested interests had been pandered to by the majority opinion. They also felt that the professional council should be linked with the National Advisory Education Council. This would bring teacher training within the framework of higher education, under the control of the central government, thereby ensuring the status of the teaching profession. It was also noted that

professional education in the United States was largely a function of the universities. The minority opinion was that:

> "It is a fact that the prestige enjoyed by a learned profession is closely bound up with the nature of the training and the institution where its members qualify" (Gericke 1969:94).

It was argued that because persons with university qualifications enjoy greater prestige, the teaching profession would similarly benefit from a closer association with the universities. Linking colleges with the univesities would result in a combination of the best from both institutions it was argued.

The minority view supported the recommendation of the majority view concerning the development of colleges of education into fully fledged tertiary education institutions, with degree conferring status. Of concern to the majority and the minority opinion was the number of colleges and the smallness of many of these institutions. It was felt to be undesirable to offer university status to colleges. They were monotechnic institutions which only trained teachers, whereas a university, by its very nature, presupposes a variety of courses of study. Problems were also perceived in terms of the availability of suitable manpower. The full commission foresaw the possibility of granting university status to certain colleges of education, including the power of conferring degrees, but it was felt that this would be the result of an evolutionary process, with a suitable history of appropriate preparation and

development, including ongoing cooperation with universities (Gericke 1969:34-35).

Merit was also seen in all teachers being trained in the same institution (i.e. the university) in the minority view; the majority position *de facto* split the provision of teacher education between the universities and the colleges. The minority view stressed the world trend towards teacher education occurring in universities:

> "The history of the conversion of 'normal schools' into degree conferring 'teachers' colleges' in the United States of America and the creation of 'educational institutes' in England since the beginning of the 1950's, all in the interests of raising status, go to show that this necessity exists and is being met" (Gericke 1969:107).

It was also felt that "the existing provincial teachers' training institutions do not attract the best candidates in so far as cultural background and intelligence are concerned". The better pupils of marked promise or ability were better suited to a more academic and cultured profession than that of primary teacher and it was held that training colleges could not cater for the cultural development of its students. The minority opinion was also critical of the lower intellectual capacity of students who entered colleges. The majority opinion queried whether university courses would ameliorate, or in fact exacerbate, these alleged claims. The situation was apparently compounded, in that, because the colleges were of a lower status, they were considered not to be drawing the best lecturers when compared with the universities. These and other sweeping allegations and suppositions were not

sufficiently backed by scientific evidence, and remained subjective contentions in the main. Some aspects, such as the increase in status, attracting better students and equipping primary teachers for their task were countered and queried by the majority group.

Faced with a split in opinion from its Commission, the government compromised between the majority report and the minority report *via* the National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969 (Act 73 of 1969). In this Act:

- secondary teachers were to be trained at a university only, except with special permission;

- primary teachers could be trained at a college or a university in close cooperation with each other;

- teacher training was to be of four year's duration except that primary training could be over three years; and

- Administrators, in consultation with the universities and the education department, could constitute *regional* joint advisory and coordinating committees for teacher training to advise the universities, the department and the Administrator. The Administrator could also appoint a *provincial* advisory teacher training committee on provincial teacher training matters. Universities, colleges and teachers' associations would have representation on such committees.

The Administrators retained a vested right to control recruiting and selection of persons for admission to a

college. The Minister was empowered to call for information or reports from the Administrators or the universities. He retained the right to determine policy in consultation with the Administrators, the Committee of University Principals (CUP) and the Council (NEC).

The new National Education Council (NEC) replaced the National Advisory Education Council (NAEC). The new Council consisted of 26-29 members of which at least 12 were teacher educators, thereby placing teacher education at the centre of educational policy making (Malherbe 1977:344).

This Council was constituted, *inter alia*, to formulate and uphold the national educational policy ideal, but the Council did not have an executive function. The outcome of the Act was described thus by Behr (1984:91):

> "The Act precipitated a crisis and created a situation that was irreversible. It rent teacher training asunder; it separated the training of secondary teachers from primary teachers; it placed all secondary teachers at universities and almost all primary teachers at colleges of education; it displaced staff members at colleges of education; it compelled universities that were by and large inadequately equipped for this new responsibility to make rapid improvisation; above all it depressed the status of the colleges of education".

Subsequently the National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1974 (Act 92 of 1974) permitted colleges and technikons to train secondary teachers under specified conditions. Provision was also made for universities to recognise courses passed at colleges or technikons for accreditation purposes. The interchange and use of facilities and staff by the colleges and universities was also permitted.

3.5 VAN WYK DE VRIES COMMISSION

The van Wyk de Vries Commission was constituted in 1968 and reported in 1974 on various aspects related to universities. The Commission was critical of the current legal prescriptions for the provision of education, in that it felt that section 1A(3) of the National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969 (Act 73 of 1969) was impracticable, with its requirement that a college and a university work within close cooperation with each other in providing primary teacher training. The Commission felt that (van Wyk de Vries 1974:203):

- a purely artificial dividing line would be entrenched between primary and secondary teacher training;

- the training of primary teachers would have the stigma of inferiority;

- this stigma would result in accentuating divisions in the teaching profession itself;

- the distinction between university trained and college trained persons would become increasingly accentuated;

- college students would not encounter the academic climate of a university which was important in the training of teachers;

- the diversity of qualifications would be entrenched;

- no provision had been made for coordination at the national level, and the same applied in the system for training secondary teachers;

- the basic principle that, the training of all teachers should constitute an educational whole, in spite of its diversities, would be abrogated; and

- colleges and universities would keep their distance instead of drawing closer together as the relationship was not within the normal pattern.

The Commission felt that all teacher training should take place under the guidance of the university, but did not hold this to mean that the training of all teachers should be provided at the university only. This distinction revolved around the desirability of students without matriculation exemption gaining admission to universities, albeit for diploma courses. If the relatively large numbers of non-matriculated diploma students were transferred to a university, this would have a profound effect on the university.

Concern was also expressed that subjects and courses in teacher training requiring practical instruction and training were not proper to a university. Queries were raised whether the university staff should be required to offer such courses and whether the State should finance such courses at university level. Fear was also expressed concerning the exceptional measure of say the provinces would retain, because of the broader national

considerations, and the effect this would have on university autonomy. The Commission thus rejected the current dispensation and the possibility of teacher training simply being transferred to the universities. The aim was to retain the existing pattern and evolve a better system from the existing pattern. The Commission therefore proposed the "college idea" in the form of a university with colleges within its own structure, but surrounded by colleges in various forms associated with it in various ways (van Wyk de Vries 1974:211).

The form of this college (school, institution, institute) allowed for possible variations, for example the college could have its own council and senate, or such equivalent bodies, whilst being represented on the university senate. But ultimately the college would be beholden to the university council and senate, these bodies in effect delegating some of their powers to the college, which forms an entity within the structure of the university. It was noted that the university acts contained provisions whereby an institution for higher education could affiliate with the university. Although the exact meaning of affiliation was not clear, it implied an academic integration rather than an organisational integration, with the university being the prime academic authority. More was envisaged than accreditation however, with advice and consultation being envisaged. The universities could award the degrees and diplomas in their own name, or the colleges could do so

under university guidance. External examinations or external degrees would also be possibilities.

A college within the structure of a university could be designated as an internal college, to differentiate it from an external college, and would involve virtually complete academic, administrative and financial integration with the university. External colleges could be financed by the State. Within such structures, introduced over time in an evolutionary manner, the Commission felt that the academic diarchy could be overcome in teacher training. The provinces could be strongly represented on the college council and senate, thereby not threatening university autonomy. Rigid uniformity on administrative matters was not considered essential and efficiency could be best served by permitting regional variations according to local circumstances. Integration or separation of administration could both be desirable in certain instances. Colleges wold be subsidised primarily on the existing subvention scheme for universities, given variations for specific reasons. As the buildings and equipment of the colleges had been financed from public funds, no problems were foreseen in this regard. The liaison bodies established according to the 1969 Act would continue to function, with university, province and central government representation.

As an example of a tertiary collegial institution, to elucidate the college idea, the instance of the Hammanskraalse Teologiese Skool was cited by the Commission. The theological training offered at Hammanskraal Skool is

the same as that offered at Potchefstroom University, and is taken along with a BA degree through the University of South Africa. As the 'skool' is not accredited as a degree awarding institution, the students cannot proceed to post graduate theological studies. In order to expedite matters, individual students have been enabled to register with the Potchefstroom University, which confers the degree by special consent. If the 'skool' were to affiliate with the university, and offer a course of an acceptable content and standard to university requirements, the university could award the degree. The university would control the academic element, examinations and the awarding of the degree; the "skool" would be independent in every other regard.

The Commission was therefore prepared to consider a wide definition of 'college' as a community of scholars and students organised for the purpose of providing post school training for students leading to a diploma or a degree (van Wyk de Vries 1974:479).

The Commission was of the opinion that students could easily upgrade or downgrade the qualification for which they were registered *via* the college, so that a capable student could move from a diploma course to a degree course, and *vice versa* for a student who was failing to meet the academic standards required for a degree.

The reaction to the van Wyk de Vries Commission by the provinces was very unfavourable. Although it was acknowledged that the provinces, as the employing

authorities should have a major say in teacher training, the Commission had firmly placed teacher educatin in the hands of the universities. The provinces would have strong representation on the governing bodies of the colleges, but the university councils would be in charge from both a *de facto* and a *de jure* perspective. The provinces felt that the universities had prime loyalty to academic excellence, but the Commission had not taken full account of their concerns, such as teacher manpower needs, school/college liaison, staff promotions back and forth between the colleges, the schools and the department, and the aspect of practice teaching. Nor had the Commission looked at the geographical distribution of colleges, some of which would logically link with universities in another province for sound reasons such as the language of tuition. In such instances, sharing facilities and students associating socially and extramurally with the university were rendered impossible. Mutual participation and cooperation in these circumstances were not feasible.

The Gericke Commission had warned that:

> "Where an institute is attached to a university and is in fact part of it, the colleges inevitably become appendages...and their campuses become outside campuses of the university" (Gericke 1969:32).

There was still the fear expressed in the workability of university guidance of colleges in a system of mutual cooperation:

> "Partnership or cooperation can be an expedient means of directing a confrontation, but in the long term it contains the seeds of goal conflict and the loss of

institutional autonomy" (Pomeroy quoted in le Roux 1980:6).

Although this Commission had deliberately criticised past attempts at providing university/college cooperation, the solution it proposed was not considered to be unproblematic, let alone workable.

The provinces were loathe to relinquish control over their colleges and in response to the van Wyk de Vries proposals, the college council and senate system was evolved in order to bring about a close cooperation between college and university, thereby promoting greater college autonomy, yet ensuring provincial control. The academic standards were guaranteed through close collaboration with the university, with strong university representation on the college council and senate, whilst university autonomy remained uncompromised. A province financed a college and, although the university had a say in the selection of college staff, the lecturers remained on the provincial post establishment.

3.5.1 THE COLLEGE COUNCIL SYSTEM

The colleges have gained in status through the college council and senate system, and the implicit interaction with the university. Academic course accreditation has been established, where appropriate, and some colleges are offering Bachelor of Primary degree courses for their universities. Yet the colleges have by and large retained their own character and are free to realise their particular mission as a professional college to train teachers for their specific vocation.

The college councils in Natal have a chairman appointed by the Provincial Administrator, after consultation. University representatives currently include the Principal of the university, the Dean of the Faculty of Education and other faculty members, three representatives of the provincial Natal Education Department, a representative of the organised teaching profession and two representatives nominated by each of the Administrator and the Minister of National Education.

The Council is responsible to the Administrator for the college administration and financial matters. It is also responsible *via* the college senate, and in close cooperation with the university, for the academic standards of the college (le Roux 1980:25).

Physical amenities are a council responsibility *via* the Director of Education. Staff are appointed by the Director of Education on the advice of the council, in consultation with university and education department officials. The college senate is a standing committee of the college council. The senate is chaired by the Rector. Management staff members, of head of department standing or higher, are senate members. The college staff nominates two members of the senate. The organised teaching profession nominates a member and three representatives are nominated by the university. The college senate advises the college council on academic matters, such as *inter alia* courses and student results.

The control exercised by the council is, however, never

absolute and ultimately it is in effect advising the provincial Administrator, who is in fact in control (le Roux 1980:402). The Director of Education, who is ultimately responsible to the Minister of Education, is also a powerful person *vis-a-vis* college matters. Although the powers of the college council may be curtailed, in that it is beholden to governmental officials, the council concept has resulted in a larger measure of institutional autonomy and represents a joint wisdom in teacher education matters given its representation and the constituent bodies they represent in turn.

3.6 PROFESSIONAL REGISTRATION

The teaching profession in South Africa had long been keen to have professional recognition. It was felt that one of the factors which diminished the social standing and status of the profession was the lack of a professional council and professional registration. This was not the case with the other professions. The South African Teachers' Council for Whites Act, 1976 (Act 116 of 1976) created such a professional council with registration and disciplinary powers. Although the South African Teachers' Council is modelled on the General Teaching Council for Scotland, it is a pale shadow of this body for three reasons.

Firstly, it has never had the necessary statutory influence with the government in negotiations and has been virtually ignored at times, such as during teacher crises and in initial pay negotiations. The Minister may be advised by the

Council, and may even consult with the Council, but he is not obligated to it in any statutory way. In Scotland, if the Minister does not act in accord with the advice of his professional council, he is obliged to make his reasons known publically. *Die Unie*, a teacher association publication, commented shortly after the formulation of the South African Teachers' Council:

> "Leaders of the organised teaching profession are well aware that the Council does not have all the powers and functions that they visualised" (quoted in de Witt 1981:208).

It was also felt that the bill should have given a greater degree of self determination powers to the teachers in order to distance them somewhat from the control of the State or provincial authorities. Teachers were not perceived by the public as true professionals, but as part of the civil service. Although teachers are public servants at one level, they are professional persons at another level, and this distinction could have been more finely drawn in setting up the professional teachers' council.

Secondly the teachers' council has had to grapple with enormous political tensions and try to accommodate a wide range of political aspirations in a country where education is highly politicised. The rise of Afrikaner nationalism *via* machinations of the Broederbond, was closely linked with controlling and using the education system for political ends. The successor of the South African Teachers' Council, the Teachers' Federal Council was inaugurated and immediately one of its member teacher associations withdrew

from the Council. The Teachers' Council has been accused of being pro-government and taking a line sympathetic to the government. With the recent changes in government policy, there has been talk of the Council taking a harder stand against the government line, supposedly on political grounds, such as the recent breaking off of negotiations with the government, when the Council was ignored, as it felt, and a non-recognised educational interest grouping was favourably received by the government.

Thirdly the teachers' council (the SATC and then its successor the TFC) has not gained much national credibility as it is an exclusively white council, spawned out of the apartheid policy, and for this reason it is irredeemably flawed in the view of some sectors of the South African population. Some white teachers belong nominally to the Teachers' Federal Council because they have to belong by statute if they wish to teach and be employed. These teachers do not espouse the Teachers' Federal Council initiatives or principles actively. There is a strong current of doubt and speculation as to whether the Teachers' Federal Council in its current form will survive in the new South Africa. Indeed, the Council itself has recently set a new policy-making process in motion in order to avoid becoming totally politically irrelevant. It is a pity that a professional council for teachers cannot be above politics, but it was not created in a politically value free format.

Given its weak statutory base and its controversial standing in the public eye, it is difficult to see what the Council

can really do to realise its objective which is specified in clause 3 as being "...to uphold and promote esteem for education and the teaching profession and the prestige of those who are engaged in the teaching profession". No reference is made in the Act to any negotiations with the Minister except to gain his approval in making regulations relating to the business of the Council.

Initially teacher educators were not required to belong to the Council. This has been altered in that college staff are expected to register. Attempts to enforce lecturers in teacher education at universities to register have proved futile.

The Teachers' Federal Council has taken an active interest in teacher training and was instrumental in the formation of a grouping of the rectors of white colleges of education. This group is not recognised officially. It is regretted in certain quarters that this grouping is restricted to white colleges.

In the Human Sciences Research Council Report 0 - 65 of 1978 on the Professional Control over the Teaching Profession in the Republic of South Africa, control over matters of training was foreseen. It was envisaged that a professional teachers' council would:

- control admission requirements for training;
- share in planning the content of training courses;
- determine the duration of training;

- determine all matters concerning examining;

- establish accreditation;

- control the issuing of certificates; and

- retain the right to recommend regulations concerning training matters to the Minister concerned, for promulgation by him (HSRC 1978:43).

Many of these functions have been retained by the Committee of Heads of Education, a statutory body which advises the Minister.

In the first report of the Teachers' Federal Council (the successor to the SA Teachers' Council), the Council is described as a management body of the federation of teachers'association which is recognised by the Minister of Education and Culture (Administration: House of Assembly) as a "mouthpiece of the teaching profession on matters over which it has jurisdiction", although " the Council was not established by statute." (Teachers' Federal Council 1988: profile). The Council has negotiated with the Minister and he has consulted with the Council, and the Council is represented on advisory bodies such as SACE, RECES and CHE. In a newsletter (number 2 August 1984) the SATC felt that it not only had a justifiable interest in the training of teachers, but:

> "...desired to be involved in all aspects of negotiating and decision-making processes in education (including teacher training) as a full partner".

The Council was keen to be involved in discussions *inter alia* on the following aspects of teacher training:

- the measure of course standardisation which was desirable;

- procedures for consultation with training institutions;

- differentiation of academic content of teacher training courses;

- the duration of training courses; and

- qualifications for admission to teacher training courses.

The Council saw itself as only one vested interest in teacher education, albeit an important grouping with a valid contribution to be made.

3.7 TRANSKEI AND THE TAYLOR COMMISSION

Up to independence in 1976, the preparation of teachers for the primary and secondary schools in the Transkei was undertaken by six training schools, three teachers' colleges and university faculties of education. The training schools offered the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) after Standard VIII, the teachers' colleges ran post matriculation programmes for secondary schools and graduate teachers trained for senior secondary schools at the universities of Fort Hare and Transkei, the latter institution offering a one year Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) on a part time basis only, and a three year undergraduate

Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) for a limited number of students. The training schools and colleges followed syllabuses prescribed by the Department of Education and Training (DET) in Pretoria.

The pre-independence level of provision of teacher education was poor. Only 6,3% of the primary school teachers had matriculation or an equivalent qualification. Of the post-primary teachers, only 23.5% had bachelors degrees or higher qualifications and 16.1% had only a Junior Certificate. In spite of this severe level of underqualification, the teaching demands were great and compounded the problem, in that the staff pupil ratio for primary schools was 1:64 and for secondary schools a more acceptable 1:28.

Administratively, the training schools and colleges fell under the control of the Department of Education of the Transkei government in matters such as the recruitment of teachers and the admission of students. Matters academic and professional, such as syllabuses, inspection, examinations and certification, were the concern of the Department of Education and Training (DET) of the RSA.

Because teacher education was fragmented amongst various agencies and improperly planned, teacher education was one of the areas investigated by the Taylor Commission. The terms of reference of the Commission were, *inter alia*, to compile a report embodying its findings; and to make comments and recommendations in respect of the quality of education in all sectors of the formal system, including

issues relating to the introduction of compulsory school attendance, provision of the facilities of education, and the control and organisation of selection procedures and provisions for teacher education. The *Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of the Transkei* (the Taylor Commission) was completed in 1979. Its recommendations on teacher training in the Transkei were, *inter alia*:

- the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) should be a full time programme;

- training schools should be upgraded to teachers' colleges;

- valid selection procedures for teacher training should be developed and implemented;

- teacher training institutions should be affiliated with the University of the Transkei; and

- a comprehensive structure of in-service teacher education should be designed to provide all teachers with an opportunity to progress from the lowest certificate to the highest professional qualification.

In 1980 the government Department of Education and the Faculty of Education jointly drafted an affiliation document which was to serve as the blueprint for the organisational structure of teacher education in the Transkei and it was implemented in 1981. The Affiliation Instrument provided for the formation of a tripartite relationship between the

University of Transkei, the Transkei Department of Edcuation and the colleges on the following shared responsibility basis:

(i) the university would provide the academic and professional competence by conducting examinations, awarding certificates and diplomas, and monitoring standards by providing continual support and guidance to the colleges;

(ii) the Transkei government Department of Education would finance teacher education in the colleges, conduct inspections, provide and pay staff, maintain and develop the physical plant, supply educational materials and administer student affairs; and

(iii) the colleges would implement the teacher education programmes and execute departmental policy with regard to the administration of teacher education.

The *modus operandi* of association was *via* the establishment of an Affiliated Colleges Board on which were represented:

- the University
  - Dean of Education as chairman
  - Head of Department of in-service education
- the Department
  - Secretary for Education
  - Education Planner (alternate)
  - Chief Inspector for teacher training colleges
- the Colleges
  - all the college principals.

The aim was to preserve the college identity, role and autonomy, with the Department financing and the university validating the provision of teacher education.

The concept of university-college affiliation has been an ideal propounded in a number of countries over some five decades. The realisation of this affiliate goal has been fraught with difficulties however. The van Wyk de Vries Commission unequivocally declared that joint control of teacher education was impossible to implement. The affiliation of the colleges with the University in Trankei has been characterised as follows:

> "...ever waxing and waning relations between the Government Department of Education and the University while the Colleges gradually developed loss of self esteem as their identity and integrity declined" (Nguntombi 1984:249).

The colleges have shown a sense of lack of interest, passivity and submissiveness because of the conflicting demands placed on them by the two senior partners in the triumvirate, the Department and the University. The colleges identity crisis arises out of an acute awareness of the number of partners in the teacher education consortium who have views on how the colleges should conduct their work. Not only do the colleges have to meet the academic demands of universities within the administrative and financial framework set by the government, but they are also expected to be responsive to the views of the teaching profession, the schools and teachers, their own students and the communities they serve, including the parents. These multiple and freely conflicting demands result in the

colleges always falling short of some expectations from differing quarters. Added to this, the government Department of Education treats the colleges as schools and expects them to react accordingly, whilst the university regards the colleges as institutions of higher education with the concomitant demands inherent in this perception.

In 1982, poor coordination and cooperation rendered the situation so difficult that at times the accord between the University and the Department threatened to collapse. The university had control of academic and professional matters, but no system to demand finances for the required learning materials, buildings and staffing. Similarly, the university did not have adequate staffing to monitor the programmes sufficiently and provide sufficient professional guidance, as required in the affiliation agreement. The university has subsequently established a separate Department of Collegiate Education within the faculty to try to cope with the situation, but it is understaffed. There has been the feeling at times that the university has been neglecting the colleges and concern was expressed at the way the govenment department demanded written reports at short notice. Such accountability was resented, as it was not conducted through the correct channels and impinged on the autonomy of the university. The faculty of education denounced the colleges as the "adopted and yet legitimate baby". The university felt that it did not get sufficient guidance and support; the department that it did not receive adequate feedback

concerning the colleges. The Affiliated College Board and its Executive Body were rendered non-functional.

Yet the lot of teacher education has improved at times because of the affiliation, and at times perhaps in spite of it. The nature of the institutions has become more professional, with increased emphasis on education, as opposed to merely training teachers. Entrance requirements have been raised to senior certificate level, with vast implications for in-service education. The courses have been upgraded from certificates to diplomas, connoting higher academic and professional standards. The duration of training has been extended from two years to three years, with further implications for in-service education facilities. The course content has been revised and all courses and syllabuses are prepared and provided by the university. Capable college students are urged to co-register with the University of South Africa for non-degree purposes as a form of academic enrichment. A four year diploma course has been evolved in which students are required to take a minimum of eight university degree level courses. This course is offered at two senior colleges and it is envisaged that this programme may be transferred to the new Transkei Teacher Education College.

3.8 BUTHELEZI COMMISSION

KwaZulu is characterised as a non-independent homeland. As such, it controls and administers its own education system, with finances primarily received from the South African

fiscus. Its political leader, Chief Minister M. Buthelezi constituted a Commission to look into, *inter alia*, the problems and possible solutions surrounding education in KwaZulu. This Commission gives an insight into the plight of education provision from a black perspective.

Black education provision was highlighted by the Buthelezi Commission as being poor in comparison to white education provision. It was found that for every 100 Sub A pupils, the number reaching Standard 10 in the KwaZulu Education Department was 5 (black), under the Department of Education and Training 2 (national black education), and in the white Natal Education Department 63. These figures were attributed to the actual provision of places in the higher standards, the need in the community to seek early employment opportunities and the differences in the compulsory nature of schooling. In short these factors are predicated upon the lack of financial resources as a result of a gross political bias. It was further held that approximately one half of the black South Africans entering schools drop out prior to reaching a "sustainable literacy" level. The number of black persons not even entering upon schooling was not specified, but indications are that this figure is also significant.

The pupil teacher ratio was also found to be substantial in KwaZulu For primary education, the black ratio was 1:54 and the white ratio 1:30; in secondary schools the relative figures were 1:40 for black pupils as opposed to 1:15 for white pupils. It was found that in the Natal Education Department, all teachers have at least a Senior Certificate,

with approximately one third having degrees. In the KwaZulu Department, 76% of the teachers have a standard 8 or lower as their maximum academic qualification and just over 2% have university degrees. In black South African education 20% of the teachers have no professional teaching qualifications.

The Commission reported that KwaZulu had five colleges of education to train 3161 students, whereas the Natal Education Department had 3 colleges to train 1385 students.

In 1981 the *per capita* expenditure, including capital works, was R73 per Kwazulu Department pupil (908613 pupils), while in the Natal Education Department R908 was spent per pupil (113062 pupils).

Given the above picture the Commission commented:

> "The Commission recognizes that the existing inequalities in available education are a major source of discontent and therefore of potential destabilisation in the area" (Buthelezi 1982:75).

In the light of this picture of the inequalities in educational provision in Kwazulu, the Commission was committed to the ideal of a unified system of control with a non-discriminatory provision of resources (Buthelezi 1982: 255).

Principles were elucidated that should underlie the provision of education, including free compulsory basic education for all, with subsidised post-basic education for all, and community interest representation at all

educational decision-making levels in the region. As far as teacher training was concerned, it was recommended that:

- in-service teacher development programmes should be offered by intinerant teacher-trainee teams, with full utilisation of college facilities, including evening and vacation studies;

- more correspondence colleges should be instituted to upgrade underqualified teachers;

- short courses should be offered at all the educational institutions in the region to upgrade underqualified teachers;

- colleges should revise their courses to accommodate a double annual intake of trainee teachers;

- the number and values of study bursaries/loans for teachers should be increased;

- teacher training facilities should be open to all race groups;

- conditions of service, including salaries, should be improved;

- a uniform policy of teacher training should be realised; and

- teacher training should involve the development of teachers as community leaders as part of the training.

As far as the financing of education was concerned, it was recommended that a system of compulsory and fully State subsidised basic schooling of at least seven years' duration should be instituted. This should be followed by five years of post-basic schooling subsidised on a decreasing sliding-scale, with increasing parental contributions. Private sector funding and overseas funding should be encouraged and recognised by tax benefits. Salaries should be equalised across the race groups, and should be at realistic levels. Equal expenditure per pupil, irrespective of race, should be instituted. Hostel accommodation, teaching bursaries, and adult and non formal education should be adequately funded and on an equitable basis.

Coordination of educational services was considered a priority by the Commission which suggested regional and local committees to consider and make recommendations on matters such as training problems, relevancy in education, planning and resource rationalisation and utilisation. In teacher education the joint consideration of syllabuses, teaching practice and sharing of staff was mooted. Teachers' centres could provide shared facilities and resources. A common Senior Certificate was considered advisable. It was felt that black students should be admitted to underutilised white colleges.

The Commission explicated the courses of teacher training offered and plans to upgrade teacher training. The courses offered at the time were:

- the Primary Teachers' Course (PTC) for the primary school, of two years duration, with Standard 8 as an admission requirement;

- the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (JSTC), a two year post senior certificate course for teaching standards 6 to 8;

- the Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD), a two year post standard 10 qualification offered at the university for teaching standards 6 to 8, although such teachers often taught standards 8 to 10 in fact;

- the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (SSTD), a university three year post standard 10 course for teaching standards 8 to 10;

- the University Education Diploma (UED), a one year post graduate diploma for teaching in a high school; and

- a four year Baccalaureus Paedagogiae (B. Paed) integrated degree course for high school teaching.

It was felt by the Commission that the minimum admission requirement for the diploma course should be raised to a senior certificate, and that the minimum duration of these courses should be three years. The upgrading of teacher qualifications was therefore important and a special one year course was proposed for unqualified teachers which would be offered by the KwaZulu Education Department, with the admission requirement being raised to a senior certificate. This would mean that a practising teacher would

have to complete the ordinary senior certificate before being permitted to this teacher upgrading course.

Three problem areas were identified in teacher training *viz.* unqualified teachers, underqualified teachers and a lack of teachers in general. To ameliorate the unqualified teacher problem, third world strategies were recommended. Itinerant teacher-trainees could visit areas, conduct training sessions and ultimately the teachers could write qualifying professional examinations. Evening and vacation courses could also be offered at the colleges.

Underqualified teachers were a problem in that most only possessed a standard eight certificate and the need was to upgrade their academic qualifications to a standard 10 level. Similarly, the majority of these teachers were also professionally underqualified with only two years' of training and this could be improved *via* evening classes at the colleges, and part time classes at the universities.

The shortage of teachers could only be resolved by building more colleges, given the schisms in educational provision. It was desirable that the colleges should run sandwich structure courses (6 months intensive method classes interspersed with 6 months teaching) over a period of 4, or even 5, years. A modest salary was envisaged whilst a student was training for teaching. More bursaries would need to be allocated and all facilities for teacher training would need to be opened to all race groups. Improved salaries and conditions of service were also required.

Third world evidence had stressed the role of a teacher as a community agent rather than a mere classroom technician or subject specialist, and the teacher training curriculum should accommodate this need as well, so that teachers were equipped to play a meaningful role in the rural communities.

The Commission reviewed what was being done to upgrade teacher qualifications. In-service training courses were being offered by the KwaZulu Education Department *via* one week intensive courses at the Umlazi In-service Training centre. Mobile courses, devised by the Department and offered by the colleges on an outreach basis, were offered *via* courses of a week's duration. Universities were offering intensive courses in specialist subject areas for the high school. In-service courses were also offered on a circuit basis. Subject committees had been established and ran seminars and short refresher courses. A number of students also studied through the University of South Africa. To encourage teachers to improve their qualifications, a bonus scheme was instituted for courses passed and salary improvements were possible for certain improvements in qualifications. Although much had been done to qualify and develop teachers, the Commission proposed that even more should be done. Suggestions included:

- bursares should be more readily available for university study;

- teacher training should be of 3, or preferably 4, year's duration;

- additional training colleges were urgently needed;

- more classrooms were needed, which, with more teachers being trained, would reduce the pupil-teacher ratio enabling teachers to teach more effectively;

- laboratory facilities and resource centres, incorporating libraries, were needed;

- additional in-service training centres were needed, as well as teachers' centres and reference lending libraries; and

- greater mobility of teachers was desirable, for increased professional contact, possibly on an interdepartmental basis.

The Commission considered other facets of underprovisioning in KwaZulu. Usually school buildings were financed from State revenues, whereas in KwaZulu the local communities financed up to half the costs of classrooms. Thus the poor were in effect required to pay up to half the costs, whilst the rich (whites) were not required to pay (Buthelezi 1982: 312). School premises were in such short supply that they were overutilised. 151 KwaZulu schools ran on the platoon system (two classes each with its own teacher using one classroom in two sessions) and 1188 schools ran on the double session system (the same teacher teaching two classes in the same classroom, one in the morning and one in the afternoon). To sustain the same pupil-teacher ratio as the white schools, well in excess of 30 000 additional teachers

would be required, not taking into account those pupils of school-going age who were not attending school. To gain equivalence with the white schools on the number of classrooms, an additional 50000 classrooms would be required. In terms of transportation to school, the white children received free transportation at an annual cost of R2,3 million (R217 *per* pupil *per* year) whereas the pupils in KwaZulu paid for their own transportation at an estimated cost of R18,5 million.

The nub of correcting the parity in education provision was felt to come down to differential financing on political ideological grounds. The Commission pleaded for a substantial increase in financial funding from central sources, with a careful prioritising of needs, and tax benefits to promote the private funding needed. It was felt that primary education should be free, with secondary education being subsidised, possibly with a merit system for capable indigent persons. The allocation of specific school funding priorities should be left to the individual school. Capital expenditure should be a State obligation as with white schooling, and not depend to a large extent on parental contributions.

This overview of the Buthelezi Commission issues and findings may be taken as being fairly representative of black eductional provision on a national basis.

3.9 DE LANGE COMMISSION

The de Lange Commission conducted its investigation from mid

1980 to mid 1981. The Buthelezi Commission overlapped the de Lange Commission in that it deliberated from mid 1980 and presented its report at the end of the year. The pressures that led to the de Lange Commission being constituted were:

> "...the unacceptable level of disparity in the quality of education provided for the different population groups; the teachers' associations' growing dissatisfaction with the conditions of service in the teaching profession; and the criticism from commerce, industry and administration that the educational system was not producing the required number of adequately prepared skilled workers at all levels and that standards in the subsystems differed too much" (de Lange in van Vuuren 1985:210).

The Cillie Commission (1980) into the Soweto riots had confirmed the generally held view that the proximate cause of the 1976 civil disturbance was dissatisfaction on the part of the blacks with the system of education.

The de Lange Commission was charged to conduct a broad investigation into the provision of education; to propose changes to take place and to make recommendations to the Cabinet in particular on:

(a) guiding principles for a feasible education policy in the RSA in order to:

(i) allow for the realisation of the inhabitants' potential,

(ii) promote growth in the RSA, and

(iii) improve the quality of life of all the inhabitants of the country.

(b) the organisation and control structure and financing of education;

(c) machinery for consultation and decision-making in education;

(d) an education infrastructure to provide for the manpower requirements of the RSA and the self-realisation of its inhabitants, and

(e) a programme for making available education of the same quality for all population groups.

The factors which led to the request for proposals for change were the following:

- a lack of guidelines on which a policy for the provision of education should be based;

- unequal distribution between the various population groups of powers of decision-making at the policy and implementation levels;

- lack of succees of the system of education to provide manpower needed in the country;

- inequalities in the actual provision of education to the different sub-groups in our society;

- insufficient development of individual potential; and

- lack of promotion of economic growth by education.

The government specified that any proposed changes had to be built on the existing system, within current economic realities and should involve the whole spectrum of South African society. For the first time, a comprehensive review of education, involving all phases, levels and kinds of education, was to be conducted, taking into account all the population groups, with a view to recommending a coordinated and unified system for the provision of education.

The main committee articulated a set of eleven guiding principles for the provision of education in the RSA as follows:

- Equal opportunities for education, including equal standards in education, for every inhabitant, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, shall be the purposeful endeavour of the state.

- Education shall afford positive recognition of what is common as well as what is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life and the languages of the inhabitants.

- Education shall give positive recognition to the freedom of choice of the individual, parents and organisations in society.

- The provision of education shall be directed in an educationally responsible manner to meet the needs of the individual as well as those of society and economic development, and shall, *inter alia*, take into consideration the manpower needs of the country.

- Education shall endeavour to achieve a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and the family.

- The provision of formal education shall be by the State provided that the individual, parents and organized society shall have a shared responsibility, choice and voice in this matter.

- The private sector and the State shall have a shared responsibility for the provision of non-formal education.

- Provision shall be made for the establishment and State subsidisation of private education within the system of providing education.

- In the provision of education the processes of centralisation and decentralisation shall be reconciled organisationally and functionally.

- The professional status of the teacher and lecturer shall be recognized.

- Effective provision of education shall be based on continuing research.

The Commission held that formal schooling *per se* was not a panacea for economic development and social progress, which would also depend on manpower needs and the nature of education offered. It was felt that a system of education aimed at the optimal development of individual talent, the promotion of economic growth and the improvement of the

quality of life of the people was predicated upon a sufficient number of suitable and well-qualified teachers. The lack of such teachers in black schools perpetuated mediocrity and was exacerbated by large classes. To remedy the backlogs, extensive in-service training was required to improve the qualification of under-qualified teachers. To draw sufficient suitable new recruits to teaching required that the status and conditions of service of teachers should be improved. An impediment in this regard, it was felt, was that:

> "...teacher training colleges do not enjoy an autonomous status within the framework of higher education since they are subject to control by education departments in academic and administrative matters, suspicious in regard to academic and professional standards and the fact that the organised teaching profession has no share in the responsibility for training teachers" (Behr 1984:309).

It was felt that coordination was lacking in the training of teachers for all population groups and that a coordinated policy was necessary to improve the standard of teacher training and promote parity in teacher training for all the population groups. There was a need for equal standards at the various training institutions. A South African Council for Education (SACE) was proposed to, *inter alia*, consider all aspects of teacher training. The Commission felt that standard 10 should be the minimum admission requirement for teacher training and the minimum duration of the course should be three years. The training required a balance between the academic, professional and practice teaching aspects, and the academic component should be more relevant to the work of teachers. Universities, colleges and

technikons should have an equal and autonomous status with each other and cooperate with each other. Qualifications should be coordinated and the evaluation and recognition of qualifications should occur at a national level on the advice of the SACE. Continuing education should be well planned, coordinated and provided for all teachers. The philosophy of the Commission was that:

> "The quality of teachers, more than any other factor, determines the quality of education".

With reference to financing, the disparities in allocating funds were of concern, with black provision disproportionately low and white provision disproportionately high. Parity of financing was needed on a unit basis irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, but the financing norms would need to be set at a realistic level to provide a functionally adequate quality of education. Efficient use should be made of educational resources by sharing whenever possible. It was envisaged that the State would provide the basic requirements, and that parents and the community could supplement this provision for additional facilities.

The backlog in school places was found to be in excess of 1 1/2 million in primary education and 1/2 million in secondary schools. Shared facilities, transportation and hostels could ameliorate this position to some extent. Underutilised plant should be fully utilised in spite of the Group Areas Act structures and a permanent single national

institution should be established to consider all aspects relating to physical amenities and their utilisation.

De Lange saw the need for free pre-basic education to ensure school readiness, and for six years of free compulsory basic education. Basic education was characterised as providing the child with the skills of literacy and numeracy so as to be capable of benefiting from occupational training or from career-orientated non-formal education. Post basic education would be compulsory for three years, although it could be taken on a part-time basis in vocationally-oriented courses. The move was away from a strong academic bias. Schooling in the upper phase would only be partially free as the child, the parents and the community needed to be responsible to some extent. Higher education was important and it needed to be more appropriate and relevant. It was desirable to accommodate persons without specific educational qualifications as *per* the British Open University model. At another level, the development of basic literacy for adults should be encouraged by the SACE, possibly *via* the workplace.

Nine specific shortcomings were noted in respect of the educational structure for formal education, viz:

- Inability to assist school beginners who are not ready for school;

- Limited ability to keep in school large numbers of pupils who want to leave the system;

- Inflexibility, which does not allow for a large number of dropouts who block the structure;

- Limited horizontal flow as learners cannot move easily from one type of education to another;

- The gap between school and tertiary education is too great, resulting in a high failure rate at the expensive tertiary level;

- Limited ties with non-formal education;

- Limited outlet points into the employment world;

- Deficiencies in the standardisation of certificates; and

- Excessive canalisation of pupils, especially in the senior secondary phase, to preparatory academic education.

A three-tier pattern of education management was proposed, with strong, built-in structures for participation, consultation and negotiation at each level so as to ensure that all concerned with education have a say in influencing educational policy and practice (Behr 1984:346).

The central level proposal consisted of a single ministry of education to overview the needs, priorities, adequacies and inadequacies, relevance and irrelevance of certain provisions or practices within the total education system. The stress was on the unitary coordinated provision of education. The Minister of Education would be responsible for:

- the provision of education;
- the financing of education;
- the service conditions of teachers;
- standards in education;
- overall planning and evaluation, and
- international relations.

The proposed SACE would be representative of all the peoples of South Africa. It would be made up of a number of specialist advisory committees and would function at a national level.

Statutory bodies would also be instituted for:

- teacher registration;
- standards and examinations;
- directors of technikons;
- college rectors;
- heads of education, and
- university principals.

Membership would include all races on an equal basis.

The regional level councils would be representative of all the inhabitants in the region, headed by a director of education, and it would be responsible for the management of

education in its areas, including policy, taking cognisance of the national macropolicy as laid down by the SACE.

The local level management would be vested in school governing bodies. Their function would be to interpret the needs and wishes of the local community in the field of education and to mediate between them and the professional staff of the school in establishing the character and ethos of the school (Behr 1984:347-348). These committees would, *inter alia*, appoint teachers, raise, administer and allocate local school funds, and liaise with other schools in the community on matters of common concern. Ideally the greatest possible degree of autonomy should be devolved on individual institutions and parents should be afforded a strong measure of freedom of choice in school matters. Schools may well group together for purposes of sharing common interests and engaging in cooperative activities.

The Commission visualised a progressive implementation of its proposals, *via* process rather than an event.

The Government reacted to the de Lange commission *via* a white paper released on 23 November 1983. Its reaction must be seen in terms of the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983) which had been debated in September 1983 and which was predicated on an "own affairs" dispensation of educational provision rather than on a unitary and coordinated system as suggested by de Lange. Education was to remain separate but equal. The government accepted the 11 principles of the Commission,

with the proviso that the principles enacted in Act 39 of 1967 would still apply in that each population group would be involved in self determination and have its own education provisioning. Thus the proposed system of central control of education was rejected. Two advisory councils were established *viz.* the SACE to advise the Minister of general education matters at school level, including teacher training, and a separate advisory council for universities and technikons (UTAC) to advise the Minister on general education matters at tertiary level. The diarchy created in 1910 was therefore still entrenched. A Committee on Education Structures (CES) supported by a research committee (RECES) was envisaged for matters relating to salaries and conditions of service. The Committee of Heads of Education was retained with wider representation. The Committee of University Principals (CUP) was retained with coloured and Indian university representation. A Committee of Technikon Principals was envisaged with Indian and coloured representation.

Each population group was to have a professional council, with a central registering body. The principle of statutory recognition of the organised teaching profession and participation in educational planning was accepted. The principle of a standard 10 minimum admission requirement for teacher training, and a minimum three year course of training, was supported. College and technikon teacher training was still to take place in cooperation with universities, this process still not being clearly defined.

The government also accepted the recommendation of a National Council for Standards, Evaluation and Certification. In principle, the parity of funding was accepted, to be achieved in the shortest possible time. The proposal of nine years of compulsory education (incorporating six years of compulsory schooling) was accepted in principle.

3.10 REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA CONSTITUTION ACT, 1983 (ACT 110 OF 1983)

In 1983 a new Constitution was entrenched which had far reaching and divisive effects for educational provision. Indian, coloured, white and black educational provision were separated even further *via* the 'own affairs' concept implicit in the tricameral system. In effect, education was administered separately, and supposedly equally, along apartheid lines. However, as education was not completely divisible, a general affairs education administration was also instituted. Furthermore, each of the 10 homelands had its own education department, giving a total of 15 ministers of education with 15 departments of education (SAIRR 1984: 653). It has been estimated that the unnecessary duplication of functions represented by 15 different and separate ministeries of education costs in excess of R100 million *per* annum (Cordtek 1990:33). The oft repeated goal of a unitary and coordinated national educational provision was shattered. Similarly economic efficiency had been discounted for political and ideological reasons.

Part IV of the constitution defined 'own affairs' as:

14 (1) Matters which specially or differentially affect a population group in relation to the maintenance of its identity and the upholding and furtherance of its way of life, culture, traditions and customs, are...own affairs in relation to such a populaton group.

15 Matters which are not own affairs of a population group...are general affairs.

Own affairs in education at all levels include:

Education at all levels, including-

(1) instruction by way of correspondence, and institutions providing such instruction;

(2) the training of adults in the trades at centres established by the State President...; and

(3) training of cadets at schools...and official school sport.

but subject to any general law in relation to-

(a) norms and standards for the financing of running and capital costs of education;

(b) salaries and conditions of employment of staff and professional registration of teachers; and

(c) norms and standards for syllabuses and for certification of qualifications.

The concept of 'own affairs' is predicated on the principle of matters:

> "...which specifically or differentially affect a population group in relation to the maintenance of its identity and the upholding and furtherance of its way of life, culture, traditions and customs" (Behr 1984: 364).

The educational dispensation contained in the Constitution was implemented *via* the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act, 1984 (Act 76 of 1984). The Act empowers the Minister of National Education, after consultation with the ministers responsible for the education of the different population groups, to determine the general eduction policy norms within the framework of the 11 principles of education explicated by the de Lange Commission. The Act further provides for the establishment of the various advisory bodies arising out of the de Lange Commission recommendations.

The South African Council for Education was established and charged with advising the Minister of National Education on general education affairs/matters and all the ministers of education on any aspect regarding cooperation between the various departments of State responsible for education. A Committee of Heads of Education Departments was established with a similar mandate.

The Committee on Education Structures (CES) and a research committee to assist it (RECES) were mandated in section 2(3) to advise on salaries and conditions of employment.

Universities and Technikons were to be controlled in terms of Act 76 of 1984 by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (UTAC) who were to advise the Minister with regard to:

3. Powers of Advisory Council.

(1) The Advisory Council shall, with due regard to the general policy determined under section 2 (1) of the National Policy for General Eduction Affairs Act, 1984 (Act No. 76 of 1984), advise the Minister in regard to -

(a) any provision of any law in terms of which a university or a technikon is administered or which is applicable in respect of any such institution;

(b) the establishment, development and extension of universities and technikons;

(c) the academic fields in which universities and technikons should be active;

(d) degree, diploma and certificate courses offered at universities and diploma and certificate courses offered at technikons or which should be so offered;

(e) the granting of subsidies to universities and technikons in respect of capital and recurrent expenditure, the basis on which, and the conditions subject to which, subsidies shall be granted, the purposes for which such subsidies shall be used, and the requirements of each

university and technikon in this respect in relation to the general requirements of higher education in the Republic;

(f) any other matter relating to universities and technikons which the Minister may refer to the Advisory Council, or in respect of which the Advisory Council may deem it necessary or expedient to advise the Minister; and

(g) in general, all questions of policy arising out of the provisions of laws in terms of which universities and technikons are administered, or which are connected therewith.

The outcome of the new constitutional dispensation in education was summed up in the 1984 Annual Report of the Department of National Education:

> "This means that the different Ministers responsible for the administration of the Government departments handling education have the power to control their sub-systems independently. They may introduce advisory and consultative structures, demarcate the functions of educational institutions and determine by whom they are to be managed or administered. The Ministers also have the power, subject to approval by the various political authorities, to provide educational institutions with resources and to exercise control over the utilization thereof...by creating a policy department with, for the first time , overall control over the determination of national policy in respect of education affairs...has ensured that the achievement of the goal of equal quality education has become a feasible one - although without impairing the autonomy of the different education institutions" (Pittendrigh 1986:314).

This was considered an achievement in government circles.

3.11 SECOND NATIONAL EDUCATION COMMISSION OF 1985-1986 REPUBLIC OF BOPHUTHATSWANA

In 1978 the Lekhela Commission considered aspects of

education in Bophuthatswana. The second Commission reported in 1986 after looking both backwards and forwards. It therefore provides an interesting account of educational needs and developments in a southern African black State.

The greatest challenge facing the educational system of Bophuthatswana was identified as that of values and attitudes. Clear statements of principle, containing themes of equity, quality, co-responsibility and efficiency were elucidated to form the basis of educational provision.

As a new nation, emphasis was placed by the first Commission on dismantling the inherited system and the building of a new nation.

The Commission identified the particular challenges faced by education in a third world context as being:

- Rapid cultural and social change make the process of gradual cultural development difficult and leave many young people without a sense of belonging and self-worth;

- Many young people have difficulty in respecting the older generation and identifying with their value system;

- Educationists have difficulty in understanding youth in its political awareness and apparent disregard for authority;

- Motivation of pupils is too often directed towards the memorisation of facts and the acquisition of a certificate; and

- Unemployment and political turbulance do not promote the desire for a broad humanistic education. (Bophuthatswana 1986:9).

Economic goals are implicit in the Commission's aims. The need for a proper balance between legitimate manpower demands and the requirements of a broad general education are stressed. Relevance is stressed in terms of personal needs within an evolving society, including national development. Citizens need to be able to contribute to, and benefit from, the community.

In terms of teacher education, the problems associated with a developing third world country are highlighed. A shortage of physical and manpower resources is of central concern in teacher training. Among the practising teachers, underqualification, inadequate in-service provision and less than optimal conditions of service are of concern. However the second Commission notes that the number of teachers being trained has increased by 65% and that the level of teacher qualification has notably improved. The number of teachers being trained however falls substantially short of what would be required if compulsory education were to be introduced.

In-service education receives especial consideration by the Commission. The ambit of in-service provision is interpreted widely to include induction and probationary aspects for the first year teacher. Emphasis falls on three areas *viz.* the professionally unqualified, the academically underqualified (i.e. no standard 10 certificate) and those teachers seeking

additional qualifications. It is felt that in-service efforts should be coordinated with pre-service training, be unified organisationally, and delivered to the teacher, rather than being centralised.

The in-service initiative in Bophuthatswana is based on school examination results, with priority being given to the weaker schools. Although the colleges have been designated ideally to serve as focal points for INSET, the efforts are decentralised with certain schools being selected for in-service work and circuit subject committees are involved in the process. Attendance at in-service courses is compulsory for those teachers selected to attend a course. Real and severe problems have been encountered in the in-service provision, centering around the lack of financial and manpower resources. The service is also poorly equipped in learning materials and accommodation. One aspect of the problem appears to be that no separate provision has been made in the budget for in-service education.

The Commission reiterated the need for a college-based regional in-service provision for secondary education providing that the organisation is clearly delineated, adequately provisioned and properly established. Primary teacher development is handled *via* a Primary Upgrade Programme which is more school based. The in-service initiative, it is felt, should focus on the development of classroom skills and expertise and not on formal academic qualifications, which should be offered through the university and the colleges.

It is recommended that INSET should be planned and coordinated centrally, with other colleges delivering the service for middle and high schools and primary in-service being offered through the schools. As an adjunct, the Commission recommended the establishment of Teachers' Resource Centres to support teachers in terms of media, copying facilities, low cost materials, in-service courses and to stimulate innovative teaching (Bophuthatswana 1986: 84). It is envisaged that short courses would be offered at these centres as part of the in-service provision. The aim is to utilise existing facilities, especially the colleges which already contain the facilities, materials and staff expertise. The link with pre-service training would thereby be promoted.

The affiliation of the colleges with the university will be discussed in detail later in this work, but this arrangement was an integral part of the Commission's recommendations. Longer term recommendations included the proposal that opportunities for higher education be expanded through the development of community colleges, which would be based initially at the colleges of education and the technikon, and provide diverse programmes of a formal, non-formal and cultural enrichment nature.

It was proposed that a Teaching Service Commission be considered for the administration and planning of teaching matters.

3.12 REGIONAL INITIATIVES AND PERCEPTIONS

A number of regional initiatives in the Natal region (incorporating KwaZulu) have addressed the future of educational provision in the region.

3.12.1 KWAZULU NATAL INDABA

The KwaZulu Natal Indaba reported in 1986 on its perceptions of a future education system within the parameters of its constitutional proposals. Education in the region was characterised by "...differing levels of development and sophistication, of different scales of provision of staff and facilities, and of different levels in the qualifications of teachers". The system of education recommended was one which would be the same for all and would address the backlogs in provision, based on the following principles and objectives:

- The provision of open-ended, non-racial, public education in a common system which respects and protects the language and cultural rights of all its inhabitants shall be the responsibility of the province, which shall also be charged with the maintenance of high educational standards;

- Mindful of the enormous backlog in education, the province shall, as a matter of urgency, place a high priority on the achievement of equal provision of, and access to, education of the highest quality to enable all learners to achieve their full potential;

- Recognising that the achievement of this objective will require well qualified and dedicated teachers in sufficient numbers, the province must accept the responsibility of providing facilities and opportunities for the training of teachers to meet the needs of the public education system;

- The system of formal school education shall be child-centred, providing for the preservation of cultural identity, yet consciously seeking to promote positive universal values, as well as developing the child's interests, aptitudes and abilities. It shall be relevant to his effective participation in the future in the life of his community and the South African society of his time and age;

- The province shall respect the rights of parents to ensure education for their children in conformity with their religious, cultural and philosophical convictions;

- The organisation and administration of education should furnish opportunities for cooperation among all those concerned, including teachers, parents, pupils, education authorities, private enterprise and the community at large;

- The value of non-formal education as a supplement to the formal system should be recognised and such non-formal education should be encouraged;

-The management of all relevant educational resources should be devolved to the lowest appropriate level of authority; and

- In recognition of the contribution of private schools to education in South Africa, the province should continue to provide assistance to private schools.

The proposed management structure envisaged was a single department of education coupled with a provincial tier and devolution of decision-making and administrative power, right down through the regional level to the district level and to school committees, with power over school matters, all to be coordinated at a regional and a national level. A regional Education Council, representative of the stake holders in education, would advise the Minister and coordinate and monitor education and would be consulted on proposed legislation and regulations.

Of particular importance to education in the region was a sound initial preparation of teachers and the enrichment and upgrading of underqualified teachers.

The duration of compulsory schooling was predicated on equal financing and the capacity of the State to finance it. Additional funds should be raised to eliminate the backlogs in the provision of physical facilities and to improve and extend the educational services. Compensatory provision to eliminate backlogs in physical facility provision and in providing sufficient appropriately qualified teachers was necessary to ensure equal education.

3.12.2 NATAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT INVESTIGATION

In 1986 the Natal Education Department investigation into

Teacher Education for the 21st Century was completed. Given the demographic differentials between the various racial groups, and the surpluses of teachers in the Natal Education Department alongside the serious shortfalls in the other departments, it was considered prudent, in the long term interests of the region, to enable teachers to move from one department to another. This was a radical suggestion from an 'own affairs' department, but reflected a pragmatic awareness of the educational needs and issues in the region.

The committee endorsed the equal opportunities stance of the de Lange Commission. It decried the lack of qualified teachers and the wastage implicit in the high drop-out rate in black primary schooling and urged that the distinction should be made between essentials and desirables in financing education. Finances were seen as a joint state/citizen responsibility, as both benefited from the investment, with lifelong learning being the joint responsibility of the education authorities and the private sector. Taking its lead from the HSRC research '*Investigation into Intergroup Relations and Future Prospects*' (1985) the NED Committee considered teacher education *vis-a-vis* intergroup relations.

It acknowledged that the segregation of groups along racial lines was a major source of conflict and recommended that a systematic in-service programme dealing with the development of positive white group relations should be instituted. Teachers should be assisted to develop skills and

sensitivities related to multi-cultural education in colleges and *via* in-service training. Curricula should be adapted to meet the above ends. Colleges of education should be permitted to open their admission's policy to include all races, thereby reducing the shortage in teacher education and sensitising teachers in training to intergroup matters and cross cultural competence. Non formal educational provision and training should be instituted, and education should be more relevant to pupil needs in society (vocational and personal).

It was stressed that teacher education needed to be integrated with educational planning and curriculum renewal, and to be perceived as a continuous lifelong process. Provision should be made for educational authorities, teacher education institutions and the organised teaching profession to share the responsibility for in-service teacher education.

3.13 LATTER DAY LEGISLATION

Recent developments in legislative initiatives are presented below.

3.13.1 CERTIFICATION COUNCIL LEGISLATION

During the course of 1986 legislation enabled the establishment of the SA Certification Council (Act 85 of 1986) and a similar council for technikons (Act 88 of 1986). The object of the South African Certification Council was specified as being "...to ensure that the certificates

issued by the Council...represent the same standard of education and examination." In effect, these councils were designed to coordinate and liaise between examining bodies, or their representative boards, to work towards some level of equivalence in certification.

3.13.2 'OWN AFFAIRS' LEGISLATION

The National Education Policy Amendment Act (House of Assembly), 1986 (Act 103 of 1986) rationalised educational matters in terms of the 'own affairs' dispensation and the demise of the provinces as an elected tier of government. Moves were made to allow for a greater participation of the organised teaching profession and the organised parent community in education, in schools, and in the training of teachers. The National Education Council was abolished and provincial education councils were provided for in the Act to:

> "...advise the Minister, the Department and the provincial education department in regard to matters relating to education referred to it by the Minister, the Department or the provinial education department, or which the education council wishes to bring to the attention of the Minister, the Department or the provincial education department".

The Natal Education Council was convened on 26 August 1987. It is purely an advisory body and it:

- is consulted in connection with teacher training;
- appoints a provincial advisory committee for teacher training;

- is consulted in connection with national education policy and draft legislation;

- takes the necessary steps to bring about the implementation of the policy determined by the Minister;

- provides the Minister, the Department and the provincial education department with advice, either on request or on its own initiative;

- receives recommendations from the Committee of Heads of Education on the way in which education policy should be carried out on a coordinated basis;

- receives advice on educational matters at its own request or on the initiative of the Committee of Heads of Education; and

- determines its own rules and procedures for meetings.

Matters submitted to the Education Council for comment, advice and recommendations include:

- draft budgets and expenditure;

- capital expenditure: major works, minor works, maintenance according to priorities;

- the purchase and alienation of grounds and buildings;

- the composition of specific statutory boards;

- bus transport: routes and contracts;

- school funds and trust funds;

- tuition fees;

- services at own cost;

- the annual report of the education department; and

- other educational matters not indicated in the powers specified.

3.13.3 TERTIARY EDUCATION ACT

The Tertiary Education Act, 1988 (Act 66 of 1988) provided that the Minister could establish colleges to provide tertiary eduction. University, technikon and teaching qualifications and other courses could be offered in conjunction with the relevant institutions/certification bodies.

3.13.4 EDUCATION AFFAIRS ACT

Under the Education Affairs Act (House of Assembly), 1988 (Act 70 of 1988) provision was made, *inter alia*, for the establishment of regional councils, which control districts in the region, each district being controlled by a school board.

3.14 REVIEW

The above review of issues and events in education, including teacher education, have been predominantly from a white perspective. This is because of the historical indices at play in the past.

However, this research is not limited to white teacher

education provision and a brief review of black, Indian and coloured educational provision is necessary to give a more complete picture.

3.15 COLOURED EDUCATION

Coloured education fell under the aegis of the provincial councils from 1910 to 1963. The Coloured Persons Education Act, 1963 (Act 47 of 1963) transferred the responsibility for the education of the coloured community from the provincial administration to the Department of Coloured Affairs of the central government in 1964. An education council was established to advise the government on all matters affecting the education of coloured people.

The Coloured Persons Representative Council Act, 1968 (Act 52 of 1968) created a legislative council to control coloured affairs, including education matters, with the concurrence of the Minister. The precise nature and influence of such a legislative mechanism changed over time and with the political forces at play. With the advent of the new Constitution in 1983, coloured education obtained a degree of legislative autonomy *via* the House of Representatives, an 'own affairs' legislative chamber for coloured persons.

Coloured education has over the years been influenced by political issues and movements, in the early years by apartheid strictures and in later years by school boycotts. The factors cited as instrumental to the school boycotts were the lack of sporting, library and laboratory

facilities, overcrowded classrooms, lack of qualified teachers, inequality in funding of the divided education system and a call for a unitary policy.

Coloured teacher education was carried out primarily *via* the church in the early days. In the 1920's coloured teacher training colleges came into being. A three year post standard 6 and a two year post standard 8 training were offered for pre-service students initially. Post senior certificate courses commenced in 1943.

A variety of courses was offered over the years with differing admission requirements and duration of studies. Since 1982 the three year Diploma in Education (DE), with a senior certificate admission requirement, has been standard for primary teachers and the four year Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) for the secondary teachers, with the same minimum admission requirements. The degree and post graduate teacher's diploma qualifications are also a common training for high school teachers, although a partially completed degree can permit admission to the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) (Behr 1984:254-257).

3.16 INDIAN EDUCATION

Indian education followed a similar pattern to coloured education. Educational provision was poor and the parents shouldered the cost of buildings, with the province gradually taking over some of this responsibility. In 1943 the teachers in State aided schools were put on the Natal Education Department payroll.

Springfield Training College was established in 1951, offering a two year Natal Teahers' Diploma (NTD) and a three year Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma, (NTSD) these courses being identical to the courses offered for whites.

In 1965 the Indian Education Act, 1965 (Act 61 of 1965) brought the control of Indian education under a special division of the Department of Indian Affairs. The South African Indian Council Act, 1968 (Act 31 of 1968) created a legislative body representative of the Indian community to advise the Government of matters affecting the Indian people, including educational matters. These control arrangements evolved and changed over time and according to the ongoing political vicissitudes. Under the 1983 Constitution, Indian education fell under the Indian chamber of Parliament, the House of Delegates, as an 'own affair' department.

Teacher training consists of post senior certificate diplomas at Springfield college of education and university training, including a four year integrated degree course at the University of Durban-Westville. Enormous strides have been made in upgrading teacher qualifications *via* in-service courses.

3.17 BLACK EDUCATION

Education for black persons is commonly perceived by them to be an inferior education. A symposium held by the association of inspectors in Lebowa (Lebowa 1979:2) expressed this feeling forcefully:

> "It is common knowledge that the record of the education of the Black in the Republic of South Africa has been a sorry one over the years. It has been based on chronic statutory discrimination that has purposely handicapped full and free development and utilisation of talents of the black people. In the process the Blacks have been denied compulsory and free education, much to the dangerous deterioration of black-white relationships in this country".

From the time of Union, black education was placed under provincial control. The Eiselen Commission was requested to investigate and report on "...education for Blacks as an independent race in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes and their needs under ever-changing social conditions..." The report, published in 1951, was very controversial.

The Eiselen findings included:

- the educational programme was not part of a socio-economic development plan;

- the black persons had no adequate control in their education;

- inspection and supervision were inadequate;

- pupils were at school for too short a period of time;

- black schooling tended to be too academic; and

- teachers were not sufficiently involved in planning and developing.

The Commission highlighted the desire for education amongst black persons and the extreme aversion to any education

specially adapted for the Bantu (Behr 1984:179) and felt that any differentiation in education would be to their detriment and would not lead to certificates of equal value.

The Commission recommended that the control of black education should be removed from the provincial level of government and vested in a separate department at the central government level, administered through regional areas to accommodate ethnic differences, with local structures to accommodate parental participation in their children's education. The black local authorities would only be entitled to take control of the schools if they complied with the threefold test of cash, competence and consent, which was the ability to collect school fees, the capability of administering schools and their acceptability to the local authorities (Behr 1984:181). The appointment of black persons to senior posts in the teaching service was recommended.

The Black Education Act, 1953 (Act 47 of 1953) encapsulated few of the Eiselen proposals. This Act was described as the watershed in the control of black educational services (Ackerman in Behr 1984:181). Education was transferred to the central government, under the Department of Native Affairs and the Minister was given wide powers under the Act. The thrust of governmental comment was very patronising and deeply regretted by black persons, who saw black education as a means of suppressing their development. The resentment of so called Bantu Education endures widely to this day.

Subsequent to the 1954 Act, various of the black national states, whether gaining independence or not, have gained a measure of self direction, but have been severely hampered by the paucity of the financial provision. Although administratively independent, they remained closely linked professionally to the then Department of Bantu Education (Behr 1984:184).

It had long been felt that some measure of compulsory schooling was the first priority in black education. In 1953 only 41% of black children of school-going age were at school. This had risen to just over 70% by 1974. Of concern was the early schooling dropout rates. Of the children who commenced schooling, approximately half completed four years of schooling, 28% completed their primary education, 7% the Junior Certificate (including those who matriculated). Thus half of the children never attained functional literacy. The age rage of pupils was a complicating factor with 17 year olds in sub A not being uncommon. In 1977, parents entering their children into school in Sub A were required to undertake to keep them at school until they completed Standard 2. This gave a measure of compulsory schooling.

Other problems consistently highlighted in black education have been the high staff/pupil ratios, the paucity of classroom furnishing, the sharing of textbooks and poorly qualified teachers. All of these factors can be traced to the paucity of financial provision. Behr (1984:226-228) comments:

> "Government policy in regard to the financing of Black education has been controversial over the years. ...because all education is planned by Whites, on the basis of separate provision for different groups, Blacks remain 'suspicious and resentful towards the education system and its intentions'".

From 1980, the government has pledged itself to the goal of equal eduction for all population groups, and has moved in that direction. There is a long way to go however in obtaining parity of current provisioning, let alone addressing the considerable backlogs.

One of the most severe factors resulting in the poverty of schooling has been the politicisation of schooling and the resultant riots, boycotts and stayaways. The Soweto riots of 1976 were a turning point in this regard. The Cillie Commission investigated the circumstances surrounding the Soweto riots and the fators which led thereto. Before the riots, many pupils were refusing to attend school and intimidation was rife. This boycotting, often accompanied by violence, provided fruitful circumstances for the riots. The ostensible reason for rioting was the enforcement of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in black schools. This was the flashpoint for the welled up anger against racial discrimination to break out. Racial discrimination was an anathema to black persons and bred great hatred and discontent among the black people. Cillie stated that virtually all the legislation regarding the relations between the races was separationist and seen therefore by the blacks and coloureds as unjust and discriminatory. It was commonly felt that efforts to try to correct matters were futile as there was the impression that the authorities

were inaccessible and relentless. There was dissatisfaction with the standard of education, the quality of teaching, the school buildings and equipment. Underpinning all these grievances were the ideological parameters of the apartheid policy with its "... premeditated effort to educate the Black pupil in such a way that he would be submissive to the Whites" (Behr 1984:197). Dr Verwoed had expressed in Parliament in the 1950's that black education was to equip blacks for their station in life, which was to be "...the labourer in the country..." (Mungazi 1983:167).

The restlessness surrounding black education has never really abated since 1976, in spite of attempts by the government and the authorities to remedy those facets which are within their powers and the financial limitations imposed. They have moved towards parity of provision, encouraged the active involvement of parents, aimed at a greater coordination with other departments, professed the ideal of free and compulsory education and the language of instruction issue has been resolved. However, the issues in contention remain, exacerbated by poverty, unemployment and political violence. Schooling is not exempt from the tensions in society and this is evident in black schooling. The paucity of the black senior certificate results remains a symbol of what is not right in black education. Any proposals on the provision of teacher education, and its development, will need to address the frustrations and aspirations concerning black education.

A compounding factor in the discontent surrounding the provision of education is the differential wealth of the population groups. The Chief Minister of KwaZulu indicated in an address to CORDTEK (1990:31) that household earnings in the KwaZulu-Natal region were R6000 *per annum* for whites, R1600 *per annum* for blacks (urban) and R450 *per annum* for blacks rural.

3.18 CURRENT PARAMETERS

Some indication of the current position in education in South Africa, and the current issues and trends will complete the picture of educational provision and provide a basis for discussing future developments.

According to the latest available figures (in 1988), the financial provision for education was as follows (SAIRR 88/89:245):

	Amount	% increase
Department of Education & Training	R1,64 billion	10
Homelands	R2,45 billion	25,6
Coloured	R1,1 billion	10
Indian	R46,3 million	14
White	R3,73 billion	12
Total	R9,4 billion	16

Table 1 - The financial provision for education

The *per capita* expenditure was as follows:

	Including capital Expenditure		Excluding capital Expenditure		Difference
DET	595,39	(25)	503,78	(37)	91.61
Coloured	1507,55	(48)	1286.15	(45)	221.40
Indian	2014.88	(6)	1857,24	(8)	157.64
White	2722.00	(9)	2538,00	(10)	184.00
KwaZulu	411.58	(n/a)	355,21	(n/a)	56.37

The percentage increase is given in brackets.

Table 2 - *Per capita* expenditure on education

It can be seen that the ratio of spending when compared to white spending is as follows:

DET	1:4,57
Col	1:1,81
Ind	1:1,35
KwaZulu	1:6,61

Table 3 - Ratio of spending on education

Although the KwaZulu/White ratio represents a substantial expenditure differential, it also represents a significant improvement from the 1:12,8 at the time of the de Lange Commission in 1981 (SAIRR 1981:334). The paucity in the

capital expenditure differential, given the enormous backlog and need, identified in the Buthelezi Commission report for physical amenities, indicates that in this area of expenditure the government is not keeping up with current needs, let alone catching up with deficit needs.

The costs of teacher training are relevant to this research and are as follows:

Department	teacher training expenditure	total expenditure	% of total
DET	88 126 000	1 640 728 000	5.37
Coloured	63 298 000	1 103 369 000	5.74
Indian	10 010 000	463 240 000	2.16
White	121 661 000	3 727 539 000	3.26

Table 4 - Expenditure on teacher training

In a study in 1988 entitled *Race against the ratios*, Vanessa Gaydon calculated that the government would save R40 million if it allowed black student teachers to fill empty places in white colleges of education. It was expressed in Parliament by Mr Andrew that, if black student teachers were allowed to fill the empty places in white colleges, the number of black student teachers would be increased by almost 50% without any additional cost (SAIR 88/89:281). In 1986 the white college potential intake was 11270 whilst the actual intake was 8872 giving a vacancy figure of 2398 places.

Of consequence in any educational planning is the fact that in 1987 an estimated 1051189 children of school-going age (i.e. 7 to 16 years) were not attending school. Other estimates are closer to double this figure. In black education, schooling is only compulsory in those schools where the school committees have requested it. This means that 25155 school children are subject to compulsory education, whilst 1669885 are not in school.

Pupil/teacher ratios are still of concern. The latest figures are (SAIRR 1988/89:260):

	Overall	Primary	Secondary
DET	41 to 1		
Coloured	25 to 1		
Indian	20 to 1		
White	16 to 1		
Bophuthatswana		37 to 1	34 to 1
Ciskei		43 to 1	25 to 1
Gazankulu		43 to 1	32 to 1
KaNgwane		41 to 1	35 to 1
KwaNdebele		40 to 1	37 to 1
KwaZulu		54 to 1	40 to 1
Lebowa		44 to 1	39 to 1
QwaQwa		32 to 1	31 to 1
Transkei		62 to 1	21 to 1
Venda		34 to 1	25 to 1

Table 5 - Pupil/teacher ratios

It is evident that white education is overly favoured in this regard, whilst black education is underprovided. With an average of 62 pupils *per* primary school teacher, as in the Transkei, the range is likely to be excessive in many

instances, as an average must incorporate many smaller classes, thereby requiring some very large classes indeed. J van Zijl (Mentor Volume 72, Number 1, 1980:5) mentions the Lindelinse area which has one school for a population of 140000 persons.

Pillay (in Nasson & Samuel 1990:39) warns that, although teacher pupil ratios provide some insight into the the situation in schools, they do not give any indication of the level of training reached by the teachers. Although the numerical shortage of African teachers is serious, a critical problem remains the poor qualifications of the majority of the teachers. Unfortunately the pattern is a vicious circle of poorly qualified teachers, producing poorly qualified pupils who in turn go on to become poorly qualified teachers.

The total number of teachers and pupils is of concern in any revision of teacher education systems. The figures are:

	Teachers	Pupils
DET	50 331	1 885 373
Non independant homelands	63 549	2 818 640
Independant homelands	50 964	1 940 846
Coloured	34 837	812 889
Indian	11 013	234 476
White	52 688	954 454
Total	263 382	8 646 678

Table 6 - Numbers of teachers and pupils

The gross average teacher/pupil ratio for the country is 1 teacher for every 33 children. Consequently it can be seen that white education has approximately twice the number of teachers when compared to the national average. It is obvious that with between one and two million children of school going age not in school, and with the high pupil teacher ratio throughout black education, and the fact that 136926 children are taught *via* the platoon or the double session system, a significant number of additional teachers is required. It is also evident that teacher education is servicing, *via* pre-service, in-service and further education, a considerable work force. It has been calculated that if a post standard 10 teacher's certificate or diploma is regarded as the minimum qualification for a teacher, the

numbers of teachers who would not be adequately qualified would be for the DET and non independent homelands 54%, and for the coloured department 34%. If the minimum qualification is set at three years of recognised post standard ten training, then 89% of the black teachers (DET and non independent homelands) are not adequately qualified.

In spite of the shortages of teachers elucidated above, and because of the lack of finances and classrooms, there was talk, some confirmed and some speculation, that qualified teachers were in fact unable to gain employment in certain areas. In coloured education in 1989 for example, there were 1227 teachers unemployed, and for the 1700 bursary holders, only 700 posts were likely to be available when they qualified. At the beginning of 1988 only 35 of the 120 newly qualified teachers on department loans had been placed in schools. Because of insufficient funding, the possibility existed of 2300 teachers being dismissed (SAIRR 1988/89:277).

A similar position has emerged in Indian education. It was reported that in 1988 of the 287 student teachers who had graduated from the University of Durban-Westville, only 87 had received teaching appointments. Statements were made that teachers would have to be put off if additional funds were not provided.

The number of students in training at colleges of education in 1988 were as follows (author research):

	Students	Colleges
DET	8767	14
Non independant homelands	24805	27
Coloured	8064	13
Indian	1174	2
White	8487	15
Total	51197	71

Table 7 - Number of students in training at colleges of education

The number of white teachers graduating from the Universities in 1988 was 2224 as compared with the 2457 graduating from colleges. The number of vacant places at white colleges of education had risen to 4 137. Most of the figures for black student teachers training at universities were unknown, but the figures for the Universities of the North, Vista and Zululand were 19869 student teachers in training.

Based on 1984/85 figures (Education Statistics 1984 & 1985: Summary, 1985) the staff/student ratio for colleges of education and universities were as follows:

White	Colleges	1:9.29
	Universities	1:11.32
Coloured	Colleges	1:12.49
	Universities	1:20.46
Indian	Colleges	1:10.17
	Universities	1:16.30
Black	Colleges	1:14.39
	Universities	1:19.25

Table 8 - The staff/student ratio for colleges of education and universities

The average staff/student ratio for colleges was 11.98 and for universities 12.71.

The total enrolment of students at all the universities in South Africa (including the independent homelands) was 276538. It is not known what percentage of these students were teachers in training or upgrading their qualifications, but it is likely to be a reasonable proportion. Possibly it is not an unreasonable guess that approximately 100000 teachers were studying at colleges, technikons and universities in 1985.

Dreijmanis (1988:114-115) quotes the figures for college enrolments in 1985 and provides an interesting insight by

giving the male/female figures, which may be expressed as a ratio:

White	1:4.1
Coloured	1:2.1
Indian	1:2.6
Black	1:2.3

Table 9 - Ratio of men to women students at colleges of education

The differential income of tertiary institutions (Dreijmanis 1988:123-129) for 1984 /85 were as follows:

	Coloured	Indian	African	White
College	13 078 000	5 260 000	18 097 000	31 032 496 (1978/1979)
University	20 873 000	26 061 000	80 364 000	421 532 000
Technikon	12 457 000	8 429 000	9 004 000	79 536 839 (1983)

Table 10 - Differential income of tertiary institutions by race

The excessive expenditure on white tertiary education is evident. The *per capita* expenditure for universities and technikons is as follows:

	University	Technikon
White (1983/1984)	3391	1680
Coloured (1984)	1915	5485
Indian (1984/1985)	1765	2605
Black (1984/1985)	2303	3161

Table 11 - *Per capita* expenditure for universities and technikons by race

The coloured technikon figures for 1983 was 3172. Presumably the 1984 figure was greater because of sudden growth or new spending priorities associated with the establishment of the House of Representatives.

If the college expenditure is estimated very roughly in 1984/85 terms, by extrapolating 1978 white expenditure to 1984/85 terms *via* various comparative figures, the gross expenditure would be a 120 million rands for an estimated 200000 students, or a *per capita* cost of R600 *per annum per* student which is very modest when compared with the university and technikon figures.

The Department of Education in its annual report committed itself to employ every means at its disposal to upgrade all facets of teacher education. This department built 52 schools in 1987 out of the estimated 300 schools required each year for black pupils. The Minister of Education and Development Aid, Dr Viljoen, confirmed that, according to

calculations based on 40 primary pupils *per* classroom and 35 secondary pupils *per* classroom, there was a shortage of 1084 classrooms at primary level and 2194 classrooms at secondary school level under the Department of Education and Training alone. These facilities would cost R262 million to provide. If the primary and secondary pupils *per* classroom ratio were lowered to 35 and 30 pupils respectively, the cost would escalate to R617 million. The implication was that pupils were being turned away from school.

V. Gaydon (1987:32) gives some idea of the task that lies ahead in developing the qualifications of the teacher educators, let alone the teachers. In 1985 the qualifications of the teaching staff at colleges of education under the control of the DET and in the non-independent homelands (NIH) were as follows:

Qualifications	DET	NIH	Total	Percentage
1 Without teaching diploma:				
Technical certificate	5	13	18	1.34
Standard 10	4	4	8	0.59
Degree	12	39	51	3.79
Sub-total	21	56	77	5.52
2 With teaching diploma:				
Standard 8	1	8	9	0.67
Technical certificate	14	3	17	1.26
Standard 10 & P.T.C.	23	87	110	8.17
Standard 10 & S.T.C.	33	144	117	13.15
Standard 10 & 3 years	48	7	55	4.09
Degree incomplete	8	46	54	4.01
Degree	337	450	787	58.46
Special certificate	26	34	60	4.46
Sub-total	490	779	1269	94.28

Table 12 - Qualifications of the teaching staff at colleges of education under the DET and the non-indepedent homelands

Moulder (1989:62) has stressed the importance of programmes that will educate and train the people who will educate and train the teachers, which he perceives to be more important than teacher enrichment courses.

Gray (Journal of Education University of Natal, Volume 17, November 1985:61) warns against the technicist approach to the upgrading which concentrates exclusively on providing materials and instructing teachers in their use. Technicism refers to the conceptual misuse of scientific and technological modes of reasoning to the point of dominance over other interpretations of human existence, thereby ignoring the complexity of actual experience in applying theoretical constructs to problem solving (Buckland in Kallaway 1984:371-373). Gray holds:

> "The problem with the technicist response to the situation is that it does not give proper consideration to the people in their situation - their motivation, interest, confidence, attitude and the myriad of contextual factors that affect these".

Gray enumerates eight points for effective education:

(i) the strategy used must be consistent with the goals to be achieved;

(ii) the strategy must be perceived globally in its totality, rather than as a one-off discrete intervention;

(iii) the learning aimed at must be *via* the process approach rather than a content approach;

(iv) the time scale must be realistic and cannot be rushed;

(v) the learner must take an active part in what is learned and how it is learned;

(vii) the learning strategy must be provided within an infrastructure that enables the development to be ongoing; and

(viii) the programme should be integral to the institution and its ongoing procedures and business, and not a matter apart.

The KwaZulu Education Department, apart from plans to build new colleges, has a programme to upgrade their present colleges to take 1000 students each, which will expand their teacher education capacity considerably. J van Zijl reported (Mentor 1990:5) that there was a shortage of 24600 teachers in KwaZulu. In order to accommodate the increasing pupil numbers and address the backlog, 13 new classrooms would be required to be built *per* working day for the rest of the century. Even with 1:50 teacher pupil ratio, the classroom backlog in 1986 stood at 2370 units which were required. If this ratio were adjusted to 1:35 for primary schools and 1:30 for secondary schools, the shortage would esculate to 10740 and 2760 classrooms respectively. Dr Dhlomo in an unpublished address indicated that between 1986 and 1990 an additional 550000 pupils had to be provided for in KwaZulu schools.

Research in the Durban Functional Region highlighted the education problems associated with massive urbanisation, as a result of the depopulation of the rural areas. It was

estimated that by the year 2000, one and a half million squatter children aged between 5 and 18 years would not be able to go to school in that area. The Indaba highlighted the fact that in a three year period, 13 thousand classrooms would need to be built in KwaZulu in order to maintain the present 56 to 1 pupil classroom.

In the face of this need, 58 white schools had ceased to be used for schooling and there were at least 278000 empty places available at white schools.

Demographic trends and possibilities are an area of concern, which need to be taken into account in considering educational provision and development. In the KwaZulu Natal region, by the year 2000, the proportion of black persons to white persons will have changed substantially. Over 80% of the population will be black, whilst the white population will be less than 7% of the total population.

In spite of backlogs and current deficits, the future will provide additional problems in educational provision. Grobbler (Natal Town and Regional Planning Commission, 1985, Report Number 65) has indicated the proportion of the various population groups which are aged 14 and lower in 1990 thus:

Black	42.15%
Indian	31,45%
White	22,35%
Coloured	33,33%.

Table 13 - Proportion of the population groupings aged 14 and under in 1990

This demonstrates the extremely rapid population growth which is being experienced. Further, it was estimated that in 1985, 44% of the population in the Durban Functional Region consisted of the informal black sector, with all the economic ramifications for schooling contained in this set of circumstances. Rapid urbanisation within a context of high population growth has a deleterious affect on the organisation and administration of education, and bedevils attempts at education planning and provision.

Ironically, if the present trends continue, the unemployment figure for the region is expected to be 60% by the year 2000, whilst a 200000 figure for the shortage of skilled workers is predicted.

3.19 EDUCATIONAL CRISIS IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa is said to be in an educational crisis. Education has become highly politicised and schooling has been largely dysfunctional with boycotts, riots and intimidation to the point of violence and burning down

schools. Engelbrecht and Nieuwenhuis (in Marais 1988:149) typified the education problems as follows and attribute them in part to universal problems in education:

- educational expectations are too high;
- an extraordinary increase in the number of pupils;
- increasing unaffordability of education;
- inadequate facilities and untrained teachers;
- educated unemployed persons;
- inappropriate curricula and an over-emphasis on academic oriented education;
- a shortage of certain categories of manpower (particularly the technically skilled) in the face of mass unemployment; and
- questionable standards of education.

These authors feel that the underlying problems are political and point to the demands which have been commonly made for:

- the establishment of compulsory black education;
- free education for all;
- a fair division of the funds available for education;
- equality with regard to the pupil-teacher ratio;

- the uniform provision of facilities such as libraries and laboratories;

- text books that are objective, uniformly prescribed and provided for all groups;

- parity of salaries;

- adequate training colleges for all teachers;

- all education falling under one ministry; and

- educational opportunities accessible to all.

Whether these are in fact political demands, as opposed to educationally sound requests, would be hotly debated.

The black perception of deficit related to the poor senior certificate results was highlighted in the Network television programme of 31 January 1989. The problems were described as being:

- inferior teaching standards;

- insufficient government expenditure on black education;

- boycotts, intimidation, violence, disruption of classes and the general unrest and dissatisfaction; and

- the accumulative effects of the above, especially in the lowered morale of the teachers and the pupils.

The black perception as to where to commence in correcting the situation was given by Dr Dhlomo in an addresss to the Natal Education Board on 20 August 1990:

- it must be acknowledged that education is in a state of emergency;

- the system must be completely transformed, rather than merely readjusted;

- no single player, including the government, can design a new system in isolation;

- all the key stakeholders must be involved in the process;

- the widest range of stakeholders must be involved;

- the process should include all in the consultation (i.e. bottom up approach included);

- the needs of the economy are as important as the needs of the community, and the private sector should be involved;

- the reality of the position with regard to available resources must be taken into account;

- administrators and educationists must also be involved in the process;

- all must move beyond ideological differences and cooperate to transform education; and

- the ultimate responsibility is to the children.

Kotze (1983:108) provided a breakdown in more general terms. He sees education as being highly valued by all Third World countries in general, this being particularly expressed in

black communalism, which places great emphasis on education as a development agent. Four premises of black communalism regarding education have been highlighted *viz.*:

(i) Education must be a tool to effect national unity;

(ii) Education must be geared to raise the cultural, social, economic and intellectual level of the population;

(iii) The substance of education must be conciously aimed at fostering self-confidence, critical awareness, a sense of community and positive self identification; and

(iv) Education must be geared towards breaking down tribalism and sectionalism. Education should be compulsory and free, and open to all population groups.

The aim in the provision of teacher educators is to correct deficiencies in the system, such as the pupil/teacher ratio, classroom shortages and the heavy pupil drop-out rate. Education should be seen to be relevant and related to the current societal situation, inluding political manifestations. The patent political overtone is what separates the black outlook from the western, where politics is more likely to be latent, albeit as a powerful hidden agenda.

The result of such an outlook *vis-a-vis* the perceived injustices of apartheid Bantu education, has resulted in education becoming an instrument of political reform. Van den Aardweg (quoted in Marais 1988:152) comments on the manifestation of violence in schools:

> "The primary causes can be found in the practice of a nation which allows over-crowding, poverty, and unemployment and nurtures feelings of isolation, powerlessness and frustration. Prolonged exclusion of any group from a nation's life and from decision-making processes which directly affect a group, culminating in feelings of not-belonging, have been found to be primary to unrest and violence".

Black persons' socio-economic reality includes unemployment, urbanisation, poverty, poor living conditions and rapid population growth. Education alone cannot promise a better dispensation, certainly not in the short to medium term.

The tensions in education are also felt in tertiary education. Despite the population indices, in 1985, whites held 90% of the degrees in the country. Whites currently attend university at a rate of 30 *per* 1000, as opposed to a 2.2 *per* 1000 for black university admission rates. South Africa has a disproportionate academic orientation in its secondary school courses for all population groups. Hence enrolment at tertiary institutions is 66% for universities, 17% for technikons and 16% for colleges of education. There is a disproportionately high 52% registration for humanities courses. Black persons repeatedly enter university on the basis of poor secondary schooling, with high aspirations coupled with educational deficits, and the attainment of the degree qualification does not guarantee employment.

Government, commerce, industry and the professions talk of manpower planning and the needs of the economy. Technikon education is vaunted in the media. Unfortunately, such well intentioned homilies are often perceived as whites yet again manipulating matters for their own ends.

The long term solution lies in upgrading education to be relevant and sound, without it becoming entirely instrumental or vocational in nature. The key lies in providing the quantity and quality of teachers that will enable an equitable system of education to evolve, thereby decreasing the tensions associated with education. This cannot happen in a vacuum. To be effective, educational reform must proceed with tangible progress in employment, housing and those matters which constitute 'quality of life'. From an educational perspective however, Marais (1988:167) perceives the goals to be:

- credible education with status and recognition in the community and the world of the employer;

- no stigmatisation of inferior or unequal education;

- education must be accessible to all groups regardless of race, colour or creed;

- it must meet the demands of the employer; and

- it must be experienced and perceived as relevant education by the student and parents in terms of their own educational demands and expectations.

It is necessary when considering future perspectives to gain some idea of how some of the key players and stakeholders would perceive a future dispensation for the provision of schooling and teacher education. In the current state of flux, and the radical changes being wrought in the South African society, and with a future educational dispensation

likely to be the result of protracted negotiations, no fully articulated and definitive models have been presented. However, some perspective can be gleaned from a consideration of certain well considered and articulated ideological documents.

3.20 IDEOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISION

Any proposed changes in the provision of teacher education must take into account the ideological considerations, arising from the communities, which they would expect to see incorporated in any new dispensation. Certain statements of principled intent have been published as considered opinion and a brief review of those that have been articulated, with a new dispensation in a new South Africa in mind, will be discussed.

3.20.1 FREEDOM CHARTER

The Freedom Charter is a seminal document propounding ideas such as a non-racial society, liberty and individual rights. It was articulated by the African National Congress and other organisations, after wide grassroots consultation, and it was adopted at a Congress of the People in Kliptown on 26 June 1955 (Readers Digest 1988:488).

The Freedom Charter is an idealistic document in that it proposes ideals, without any clarification as to how these ideals may be achieved in practice. This observation is not

an implied criticism of the Charter, but merely to put it into perspective.

The central tenet of the Freedom Charter concerning education is that:

> "The doors of learning and of culture shall be opened" (Polley 1989:135).

It is perceived that the development of person talent is a governmental responsibiliy. All citizens should have access to the materials of education and culture, including the basic freedoms to achieve educational ends. Education is perceived as a socialising influence to promote interpersonal understanding and group identification. Access to education should be universal and education should be paid for by the State, including programmes such as adult literacy. Colour should not be a factor in educational access and provision. Teachers' citizen rights should be guaranteed. It is further held that: "Education shall be free, compulsory, universal and equal for all children" (Polley 1989:135).

The Freedom Charter ideals have formed the basis for later statements of ideals and the ideals propounded in the Freedom Charter are still held dear by a large segment of the South African population, according to press reports.

3.20.2 BOPHUTHATSWANA PRINCIPLES FOR THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION

Bophuthatswana became an independent country under the apartheid dispensation. It falls completely within the

greater boundaries of South Africa and is irrevocably linked to the South African ethos, so that the principles for the provision of education, as articulated in the *Report of the Second National Education Commission of 1985 - 1986* may be considered as akin to a South African black viewpoint on the provision of education.

The educational principles, which the Commission felt should form the basis of educational provision, were perceived as a unified whole and were not to be separated into independent entities. The fundamental themes on which the principles are based were seen to be equity, quality, co-responsibility and efficiency. The ten guiding principles are:

1. Access to schooling must be available to every child, regardless of religious belief, cultural background, racial origin or social position.

2. Every child is entitled to equal educational opportunities and to the same quality of basic education, irrespective of the area in which the child lives or the financial means of the parents.

3. The responsibility for providing formal education rests with the State. It is the responsibility of the parents and the commuity to continue to cooperate in this enterprise.

4. Provision of education must take into consideration the needs of the individual as well as the development needs of the country.

5. The educational programme provided for the children should reflect the cultural and social norms of society, whilst maintaining accepted standards of scholarship.

6. The education system should seek to preserve and protect the best of society's norms, whilst preparing students for a future which may be characterised by rapid change.

7. The formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education are all of basic importance. All three areas demand coordinated planning.

8. Provision of education must be based on sound planning, administration and evaluation.

9. Strategies of innovation must be built into the educational system.

10. Effective provision of education demands the recognition of the professional status of the teacher.

It is the contention of the writer that these principles would find wide favour from many segments of the South African community and therefore these aspects should be accommodated in any proposals on the provision of teacher education.

3.20.3 CHARTER FOR TEACHER UNITY

The moves in South Africa amongst the various organised teacher professional bodies and organisations, represents some level of accord on the principles appropriate to the

provision of education. Such a common view emerges from the Charter for Teacher Unity. The basic principle of this Charter is a declaration in favour of the establishment of a non-racial society, based on respect for human dignity and a respect for civil liberties.

Appropriate to this central tenet is the establishment of a single central education authority, the eradication of race as an educational criterion, and the raising of educational standards, including the improvement of teachers' qualifications.

Educational aims and principles perceived to be integral to the concept of a democratic educational system include a concern for the welfare of all the people, equal opportunities for all, including the equal standards of education, and mechanisms for the people to have the right to share in determining the purposes and policies of education. The educational system should be adapted to meet specific manpower needs and to empower persons to acquire the skills necessary to participate in the vocational sphere. Education should be differentiated to accommodate the needs, abilities, aptitude and interests of all persons.

The Charter for Teacher Unity promotes the idea of free, universal and compulsory education to the age of sixteen years, with equal funding of educational institutions. Adequate teacher training facilities are perceived to be a *sine qua non*, with non-discriminatory admission criteria.

It is apparent that common themes run through the above documents of intent. These principles are geared, in the main, to reflect a fair and equal educational system within a fair and equal society. Ngubentombi (1984:passim) has applied these principles specifically to teacher training.

3.20.4 NATIONAL POLICY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE TRANSKEI

Nguntombi suggests teacher training objectives which should be built into the general educational policy in the Transkei (1984:506-509). More educational facilities need to be provided to ensure the rapid improvement in the quality and quantity of teacher supply. These facilities should be coordinated into an organic unity.

Teachers should be prepared to handle social change and should be capable of understanding social, political and cultural phenomenon. The teacher should be able to understand and promote the development of the community, within a framework of the social values of the community and the social responsibilities of the citizen.

Teachers need to be aware of, and able to impart an understanding of, the changing functioning of society, societal values, and economic and vocational opportunities. Scientific understanding is considered important in that it aids, *inter alia*, insight into agricultural and health matters. Forms of knowledge (in the Hirstian sense) are necessary to develop qualities of mind, such as rationality, critical thought, creative imagination and judgement. A

teacher also needs to be aware of child development, the dynamic between the school and society, socio-economic perspectives and the teacher's role in each of these areas. In order to be a professional person, a teacher must develop an occupational consciousness, including the ability to evaluate education and his teaching, and to be innovative where required. Technical skills should reach a specific level to ensure the achievement of professional competence, with conceptual skills to aid a critical appraisal of teaching dynamics. Apart from high academic and professional competence, a teacher should develop a good character and interpersonal skills. In-service education is considered ncessary to ensure continuing professional and personal development.

These factors would be found desirable, in essence, in most of the developed and developing countries of the world. What is important to note is that this set of ideals has not been postulated as an academic exercise, but to ensure that a deficient state of affairs obtaining in teacher education is ameliorated and corrected. These deficits, encountered in the Transkei, are also found in South Africa and need to be considered when establishing a new teacher education order.

3.21 CURRENT INITIATIVES

As South Africa moves towards a new educational dispensation, discussion documents are being circulated as a form of debate on the possible nature of the future

provision of education. Two such documents are of primary concern.

3.21.1 DISCUSSION PAPER OF THE ANC ON EDUCATION POLICY

The ANC highlights its concerns, arising out of the crisis in education, as being, *inter alia*;

- the lack of resources, such as schools and books;
- overcrowded classrooms and inadequate educational facilities;
- poorly trained, under- and unqualified teachers;
- high drop out rates;
- high failure rates; and
- a shortage of pre-primary schooling.

The point is made that education policy needs to be related to social, political and economic changes, as well as structures within society. Consequently the principles of education provision include:

- a democratic basis to education, including political and social justice, institutions for active and informed participation by the community in decisions about education, and democratic access to education;

- the development of an integrated education system based on clear strategies, and better use of available funding; and

- the development of human potential, including pre-school provision and free compulsory schooling to the age of 16.

Referring to principles which would affect colleges of education, the ANC calls for a development and sharing of expertise and materials, and demand that existing educational institutions should be fully utilised, including the immediate opening up of the colleges of education.

It is clear that the proposals outlined in this research would accord with such aims and ideals.

3.21.2 EDUCATIONAL RENEWAL STRATEGY DOCUMENT (ERS)

The ERS proposals were articulated by education department officials as a discussion document on the future provision of education. The proposals are very similar to those of the de Lange Commission published a decade or so earlier. The proposals are sketchy, and do not address multicultural education and the alleviation of backlogs, for example, but the broad thrust of the document is an attempt to come to terms with the current crisis in education.

Strong social, economic and political demands for education of a high quality, and the need for a developed and skilled labour force, are acknowledged. In the face of this need, some of the problems are articulated.

Economic growth has been slower than the growth in pupil and student numbers. For example, in 1990 based on population growth rates, 325000 additional black pupils should have entered the education system. This would require 325 additional schools, at a cost of R650 million. In addition, 10000 additional teachers would be required, as well as additional textbooks, supplies and services.

The demands for the provision of schooling do not only arise from the population growth rates. If the school retention rates improved, considerably more teachers and facilities would be required. For example the dropout rates of pupils entering schooling and leaving prior to obtaining a senior certificate are as follows:

Whites	18%
Coloured	80%
Black	84%*

*Note that this figure would be considerably higher if those pupils who have not attended school at all were taken into account.

Table 14 - Dropout rates prior to obtaining a senior certificate

If all the figures approximated 20%, and noting that black pupils form the most populous group, the strain on resources would be prohibitive. The unprecedented demand for education

would have to be balanced with the need to maintain standards.

Further economic provision factors are the need to bring the teaching profession to a minimum common qualification norm. If this is, as suggested in the ERS document, 12 years schooling and three years teacher training, then according to the 1989 figures, +- 45% of the teachers in South Africa do not meet this minimum requirement.

The need is also highlighted to bring the pupil/teacher ratios to an acceptable minimum level of 30:1. Although the white, Indian and coloured communities are favourably provided in this regard to varying degrees, the black education ratio is 51:1 and the number of black pupils is numerically far greater than all the other racial groupings.

The accumulative effect of population growth, school retention rates, a properly qualified teaching force, and acceptable pupil/teacher ratios, highlights the urgent need for a fully articulated system of teacher education provision, such as that presented in this work. The principles implicit in the ERS document are similar to those presented in the collegiate model. They are:

- equality of provision;

- race should not feature in structuring the provision of education;

- decentralised control, in order to eliminate bureaucratic inertia and to encourage community involvement;

- the creation of a single ministry of education;

- a balancing of the need for central control with the need for accommodating diversity;

- the maximum devolution of power, with coordinating structures at the central level;

- provision for the sharing of responsibility for education between the political authorities and the various stakeholders in education; and

- justice in educational opportunities.

The ERS document (Education Renewal Strategy 1991:39) states that "General policy for eductional programmes for teacher training has not yet been determined..." but underlines the need to review the programmes fundamentally. The senior certificate is recommended as the minimum admission requirement for teaching qualifications, with the proviso that eight years of continuous teaching experience should result in senior certificate status being granted to those teachers who wish to further their studies (i.e. a grandfather clause). It is recommended that pre-service training for non-graduate teachers should be a minimum of three year's duration, with greater mobility between institutions and concomitant accreditation mechanisms. The possibilities of an internship year and distance teacher education, after a certain period of contact education, for serving teachers, are mooted.

The ERS Committee refers to the uncoordinated approach to planning teacher training at the national level, such planning hitherto having been undertaken separately by some 18 education departments in an uncoordinated manner. It is queried whether universities should hold a monopoly on training teachers for secondary schools.

The ERS document highlights the shortage of teachers in certain areas and the abundance of teachers and facilities in other areas. Assuming a norm ratio of 30 pupils to 1 teacher in primary education, in 1989 an excess high of 37% for white education is noted compared with 50% below the norm in black education. It is further noted that the maximum utilisation of all the present teacher education facilities would probably allow for sufficient primary school teachers to be trained as required up to the year 2000. This statistic was evolved prior to the announcement in June 1991 of the intention to close nine colleges of education nationally. The surplus capacities are highlighted by the college occupancy rates in 1990:

House of Assembly (White)	65%
House of Delegates (Indian)	69%
House of Representatives (Coloured)	74%

Black teacher education: a shortage of places in colleges and a significant overutilisation of facilities in many colleges.

Table 15 - Occupancy rates in colleges of education in 1990

The need is acknowledged in the ERS document to set a general policy and to address the problem of underutilised facilities. In addition, a distance teacher education facility is proposed, which should be established on a national basis, and articulated with the full time training facilities.

In line with the 'devolution of power and authority' principle, the possibility is seen for decision-making autonomy to be granted to the indiviual councils of the colleges of education.

Many of the suggestions in the ERS document are compatible with the collegiate proposals encapsulated in the current piece of research.

3.22 SUMMARY

An overview of the history of teacher education in South Africa from 1910 to the present has been presented in such a way as to highlight the issues which are pertinent to this piece of research. The antecedents of the current problems in teacher education, and education in general, have been sketched. The current position of education in crisis has been explicated. Finally, central ideological position papers and documents addressing proposals for a new education system, and the principles which are felt should be inherent in such proposals, have been considered.

NOTE

The core references used in this chapter, apart from

official documents such as commission reports and acts, are acknowledged as follows as being used in the formulation of this chapter:

Behr (1984)

Le Roux (1980)

Malherbe (1977)

Nguntombi (1984)

Niven (1971)

Most of the statistical data, unless otherwise acknowledged, was derived primarily from extrapolating figures gleaned from the South African Institute of Race Relations publications.

Some information was obtained from unpublished sources and in discussion at conferences, where the speaker could not be identified by name.