

TEACHER EDUCATION IN TRANSKEI

A Critical and Comparative Study of the Evolution of  
Selected Aspects of its Administrative, Curricular  
and Course Structures as an Indicator of Future  
Policy and Planning in the Provision of Teachers

By

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## THE ABSTRACT

In any consideration of teacher education reforms, priority should be given to an examination of the formative forces and determinant factors which have combined to influence and shape the existing structure of the teacher education system of the country concerned. This study spans the development of teacher education in Transkei from the early days of simple tribal community education through the era of missionary endeavour and the colonial period to the application of the Nationalist Government's policy of separate development to education in the country. The main thrust of the investigation, however, is concerned with the achievement of independent internal administration and the granting of sovereign independence in 1976 and their effects upon teacher education. Considerable attention is devoted to the period of independence and the respective roles of the University of Transkei and the Government Department of Education in the development of a new approach to teacher education in the Republic of Transkei.

Teacher education in the post-independence era is not properly planned, is fragmented and split into a bewildering number of agencies. Problems of co-ordination between the University of Transkei and the Colleges for the education of teachers and between the University and the Government Department of Education, point to an urgent need for an effective instrument of College-University affiliation which will replace the existing Affiliated College Board and make possible the establishment of cordial wholesome interpersonal and institutional relationships. A comparative study of models of affiliation which have been tried in some selected countries of the world is provided in order to suggest possible alternatives.

The role of the University in teacher education is examined in some considerable detail and central to this is the analysis of the concepts of 'Africanisation' and 'pragmatisation'. The study of the curricula and courses offered by the University of Transkei reveals that their current proliferation is not the answer. It is instead the improvement, modification, careful implementation and consolidation of existing programmes which are required. Other issues which arise in this connection are the overloading and improper weighting of courses, lack of organic unity amongst them and sound co-ordination in their design and implementation, readiness to accept and adopt without modification every innovation in the Republic of South Africa and the low quality of College lecturers.

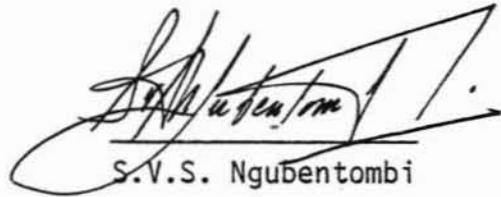
The final upshot of the study is a recommendation in respect of a National policy for the education of teachers based upon aims and objectives which are clearly outlined. Priorities formulated in a smaller number of general categories are determined and it is recommended that these be adhered to in the strictest style. Effective communication between institutions and organisations concerned with teacher education, involving, in the main, radical changes in the Affiliated College Board structure and recognition of the status of the Colleges, is strongly recommended. To achieve these ends, a firm proposal is made for the creation of: (i) A Teacher Education Division within the Government Department of Education; (ii) A Professional Planning Council representative of all bodies concerned; (iii) An Institute of Education based on the English model to replace the existing Affiliated College Board, and representative of all the institutions concerned.

A view is stressed, however, that an approach to the solution of the

major teacher education problems identified, will to a great extent depend not only on the institution of the proposed structure, but also on the will, cordial wholesome interpersonal and institutional relationships and commitment. It is suggested that this should be implemented without delay.

DECLARATION

I hereby state that the whole of this thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other University.



S.V.S. Ngubentombi

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This study was undertaken during the busiest period in the history of the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei. Some of the main features were the establishment of the Faculty itself of which I have since been a member, the designing and provision of College syllabuses and the subsequent monitoring of their implementation. There was, as a result, so little time available for research that without the compassionate encouragement, unreserved hospitality and abiding patience of my supervisor, Professor J.M. Niven, Head of the Department and Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, this work could not have been completed. The value of his dedication, kind and untiring guidance and warm-hearted advice in the organization of the research and the design and presentation of this thesis is not only difficult to estimate but also very hard to express adequately by means of the usual terms of acknowledgements. However, in these humble terms I wish to record my sincere thanks and appreciation to my supervisor for his guileless, ever ready and invaluable help in the prosecution of this study.

My thanks are due to the senior officials of the Transkeian Government Department of Education at Head Office in Umtata and in particular to the Secretary for Education, Mr M.B. Potelwa, who most willingly made access possible to the many required relevant official records of his Department and also gave me permission to consult and hold interviews with some of the members of his staff. In this last regard, I am particularly indebted to Messrs C.S. Magazi, Deputy Chief Director for In-Service Education, Curriculum Development and Publications, and P.G. Qokweni, Educational Planner for the Teacher Training Colleges, who not only at all times proved very helpful in answering questions of both general and specific nature but also were indefatigable in the provision where possible of the required copies of unpublished official documents of the Department.

Equally deserving my sincere thanks and appreciation are the Senate and Council of the University of Transkei which gave me financial support,

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The invaluable assistance rendered by the staff of the libraries of the University of Transkei, Transkei Government, University of Natal and Natal Society in Pietermaritzburg must be recorded. These people were very helpful not only in the matter of provision of published and unpublished material but also in the making of useful suggestions as to where and how to secure the required sources and information in the cases where they themselves could not offer direct help.

Thanks must also be expressed to the Human Sciences Research Council for an *ad hoc* grant which enabled me to travel regularly between Pietermaritzburg where I spent the 1984 academic year and Transkei in order to conduct direct interviews and secure the information I strongly needed in order to complete the research.

Finally, my sincere thanks must go to my wife for her patience and acquiescent dedication to family responsibilities including the caring of my three young children when quite often I had to be away from home for several days, weeks and sometimes months.

PREFACE

No study of this kind has ever been undertaken and devoted entirely to an investigation of teacher education provisions in Transkei. All studies which have hitherto been undertaken in connection with the Transkeian educational system investigated other aspects of the system and gave very little attention to this important field on which the success of the system depends. Amongst others, for example, the Cingo Commission (1962) concentrated on the teaching of Afrikaans and English and the use of the mother-tongue as medium of instruction. The K-N-N Commission (1973) investigated the high wastage and dropout rates in Transkeian schools and the possibility of a system of selection and guidance for admission to the senior secondary schools. S.V.S. Ngubentombi (1977) studied the factors and influences underlying the development of Transkeian educational policy. The Taylor Commission (1979) investigated the essential features of the entire educational provisions in Transkei and suggested guidelines for future planning, development and improvement. J.N. Du Preez (1980) concentrated on the description of the system and needs assessment. Studies connected with other aspects of the educational system other than teacher education have also been undertaken by some of the senior officials of the Government Department of Education under the auspices of the University College, Cardiff, Wales.

It would therefore appear that a comprehensive study devoted entirely to an investigation of formative factors and determinant forces and influences as well as the main problem areas in teacher education in Transkei has long been overdue. The need has certainly been more strongly felt since the beginning of the present decade as a result of unprecedented changes in teacher education. Catching the spirit behind similar events in Great Britain during the middle years of this century, Pitman published in 1961 a book by M.V.C. Jeffreys under the title 'Revolution in Teacher Education'. The title was not a pleasant one but was evidently chosen deliberately in order to emphasize the main thesis of the book. Jeffreys summarized it all in the opening lines of the preface as follows :

*"When the history of education in the twentieth century comes to be written, the middle years (from the 1940s to the 1970s) will stand out as a time of remarkably rapid and far-reaching change, not least in the field of teacher training ... But, though we cannot yet see the end of the changes in which we are now involved, we can see enough of what is going on to realize that we are taking part in one of the important revolutions in educational development."*

Teacher education in Transkei at the present time can well be described in similar terms. Events are moving so fast that this study may be out of date before the ink is dry. That liability, however, is no reason for not making the attempt. To survive the future depends on altering the means by which teachers are being educated and basing teacher education upon policies which draw institutions and authorities together upon a professional basis of common interest rather than upon divisive and separatist tendencies. To this end, sound and careful planning is a *sine qua non*. However, for such planning to be complete and viable, the historical development and present situation of the teacher education system must be taken into account. It is along these lines that this study attempts to provide guidelines for the future planning of teacher education in the country. Notwithstanding its limitations which are outlined in Chapter One, it can be hoped that it will meet the challenge and serve a valuable purpose. In order to fulfil its task, it will have to break the vicious cycle in the education system, serve as a meaningful contribution to educational studies, provide pragmatic applied research to assist teacher development and provoke and instigate further research of teacher education in Transkei.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION : THE RESEARCH PLAN AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

#### 1 The Research Plan

##### 1.1 Statement of the Problem and Hypothetical Basis

The Republic of Transkei can by all standards be classified as an under-developed country. The country has in common with the other countries of the Third World widespread poverty, high population growth rate, severe unemployment, very low *per capita* income and such other features like poor diet, poor health and poor housing which are concomitants of a low income. If the country is to survive and prosper, a complete restructuring of the economy, including the creation of industry and the reorganization of agriculture, must be achieved as soon as possible. These required changes will be heavily dependent upon the availability of trained manpower and the positive support of an educated people.

However, the education and training systems are at the present time most unfortunately in disarray. Some of the problems which seriously beset the education system are :

- (a) a high enrolment growth rate in the schools;
- (b) a high pupil-teacher ratio;
- (c) an unprecedented expansion of secondary education;
- (d) irrelevant curricula which are largely bookish; and
- (e) an acute shortage of teachers especially in the secondary schools where the majority of teachers are under-qualified and specialist teachers almost non-existent.

Since schools can be no better than the teachers who teach in them,

teachers are a keystone in any education system. Whatever the programs of studies may be, whatever standards are established and whatever experiments are tried, the solution to all educational problems depends ultimately on the quantity and quality of the teaching staff. For Transkei, therefore, teachers are a critical factor in development and the only hope for the accomplishment of educational reforms intended to break the circle of poverty and other features of under-development.

The implications of the above for teacher education are vast. Any serious attempt to improve the efficiency of an education system must involve a concentration of effort on the design and execution of teacher education programs of considerably high quality since, as has been pointed out in the preceding paragraph, crucial to the attainment of more efficient and more relevant educational programs is the quality of the teaching force. Given the multiplicity of problems which currently bedevil the teacher education system in Transkei, it would appear that the highest priority in any consideration of educational reforms should be given to teacher education. The situation has not improved from what it was when the Taylor Commission observed in 1979 that:

*"With all the physical facilities available, teacher supply in Transkei leaves much to be desired in both quality and quantity of the teaching force ... The teacher training institutions are unable to cope with the demands for teachers ... The physical plant and learning resources in the training institutions are inadequate ... One limiting factor to all attempts at teacher education reform is the lack of well qualified teacher trainers ..."*<sup>1</sup>

The implementation of the majority of the recommendations of the Commission has not by any means improved the deplorable conditions outlined above. Instead, there has emerged quite prominently an

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1. Republic of Transkei, The Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei (renamed 'Taylor Commission' after its Chairman Professor A. Taylor), 1979. Paras 14.4, 14.5, 14.9 and 14.10.

absence of a clearly defined teacher education policy which should of necessity entail a statement of goals and objectives including a general plan or programme of activities as a means of achieving those goals and objectives. Some of the predominant features of decision-making in teacher education in Transkei are the prevalence of arbitrary decisions and extensive chopping and changing with the result that the system has become highly amorphous in character. The greatest impediment to progress, however, is the lack of organic unity, sound co-ordination and peaceful close co-operation amongst the authorities and institutions concerned with the preparation and provision of teachers. Some of the features of this phenomenon include moments of severe strife and bickering amongst them with the result that the general atmosphere underlying their relationships is always one of lack of mutual trust and serious tension. The total result of all the problems enunciated above is that the curricula and courses for the preparation and provision of teachers are in a state of quandary and require serious and urgent reconsideration. Under the circumstances, a re-examination of the whole system becomes imperative.

## 1.2 The Purpose of the Study

In any consideration of teacher education reforms, a precise identification of problems which beset the system and a clear determination of priorities should of necessity form the initial stage in the planning of change. This in turn involves an examination of the inevitable interaction of the past with the present in order to put in a clearer perspective the formative forces and factors as well as the constraints imposed and opportunities offered in the development of the system.

Along the same lines, the present study investigates into the kinds and nature of reforms necessary for the improvement of conditions and facilities for the preparation and provision of teachers in Transkei. The development of Transkei teacher education system, buttressed by the experience of some relevant countries of the world, is followed up through history, indicating at the same time the

formative forces and factors, the constraints imposed and opportunities offered and the achievements attained and problems and shortcomings encountered. Finally, conclusions are drawn regarding future possibilities and priorities and also some concrete suggestions regarding the necessary changes and improvements are made.

### 1.3 Some Limitations of the Study

When reference is made to teacher education, a daunting multiplicity of issues come to mind, which indicates very clearly the vastness of this field of education. At a time like the present when there is much insistence that research, in order to be of any utilitarian value, should be restricted to a narrowly defined field, it may well look like a wild-goose chase to attempt to investigate into the entire field of teacher education all at once. Herein lies one of the limitations of the present study. Following upon this, is marked inconsistency in breadth and depth in the treatment of the various selected aspects of teacher education. This feature reflects the personal predilections of the investigator. In another perspective, however, this broad field of study may be seen as representing a modest attempt to identify some of the landmarks in this increasingly crowded field so that those who might in future wish to penetrate further may have some idea of where they might begin.

The above assertions reveal another important aspect of the study namely, its incompleteness. As with the majority of similar studies in the field of the social sciences, the study represents, not a finality of all possible progress, but, instead, a start on which improvements, modifications and further research may be based. The study will have thus served an important purpose if it does provoke, not just to argument, but to further research in teacher education for this is the field in which research is sadly lacking in Transkei.

The need for further research is made even more crucial by the fact that the present study was undertaken during the most turbulent and unstable years in teacher education in the post-independence era. During this time, the entire field of teacher education in Transkei was

being subjected to serious reconsideration, reconstruction and re-organization. The study was particularly made more difficult by the plans of the Government Department of Education to establish an education complex comprising a new group of relevant tertiary level educational organizations.

These will include a College of Education and an In-service Teacher Education College to be built on an already chosen site adjacent to the University of Transkei, the Umtata Technical College, the University of Transkei, six Teacher Training Colleges, two regional Colleges of Education and the Government Department of Education itself. Under the circumstances, and given the fact that the establishment of some of the institutions referred to above is still a matter *sub judice*, the present study cannot by any stretch of imagination be conclusive. It may well be that the conclusions drawn should more modestly be seen as hypotheses for further research.

#### 1.4 The Scope of the Work and Demarcation of the Field of Research

The thesis is divided into the following NINE chapters :

- Chapter One - is an outline of the research plan and a general introduction involving an elucidation of concepts.
- Chapter Two - examines the origins and early development of teacher education provisions, and embraces the methods of indigenous teacher education as well as the contributions made by the early missionaries in Transkei and by the British Colonial Government towards the provision of facilities for the preparation of teachers in Transkei (+1820-1953/4).
- Chapter Three - represents a watershed in the development of teacher education in Transkei under the system of Bantu Education (1953/4-1963). In this Chapter the rise of the Nationalist Party and the philosophy under-

lying its policy of separate development as well as its application to the theory and practice of teacher education are examined.

Chapter Four - is devoted to a description of the development of teacher education during the Self-Government era (1964-1976). Since the influence of the natural and cultural factors and forces on the evolution of the individual and unique structure of an educational system of a particular country cannot be ignored, the Chapter examines such natural factors like the geographical, demographical and physical features as well as such cultural factors like the political, social, linguistic, historical and economic factors to the extent that they have an influence on the education system and on teacher education in particular. There is, towards the end of the Chapter, a noticeable transition from the historical past, which has been descriptive, into the actuality of the present, which uses a detailed analysis rather than the technique of the historical survey. This feature has been unavoidable since this period overlaps with the next namely, the current in the sense that for four years after Self-Government had been replaced by full independence (1977-1980), there were no major policy changes in the field of teacher education. Old practices were carried over into this new period.

Chapter Five - comprises an expanded last part of Chapter Four and represents in effect a period of massive teacher education policy revisions (1977-to date). The Chapter examines in detail the bases and nature of policy reforms comprising the formulation of new goals and development and implementation of new administrative and organizational structures as

a means of achieving the new goals. These trends involve in essence an attempt to raise the academic and professional standard of the teacher education provisions and facilities as well as the general status of the profession by affiliating all the Teacher Training Colleges to the University of Transkei. The problems inherent in this move and its implementation are critically explored and compared with similar experiences of other countries. It is in this Chapter that the development and growth into an explosive situation of the problem of lack of organic unity, co-ordination and peaceful co-operation amongst the authorities and institutions concerned with the provision of teachers are critically examined.

Chapter Six - looks specifically into the role of the university in teacher education with special reference to the contributions the University of Transkei ought to make towards the improvement of the provisions and facilities for the preparation of teachers in the country. The bases for expanding the role of the university beyond its traditional concern with the provision of teachers for the secondary schools are subjected to critical scrutiny. The increasing intimate relationship between the university and the colleges of education as well as the problems inherent in this move are also critically examined. There is, in this Chapter, heavy reliance on the historico-critical approach and comparative techniques.

Chapter Seven - comprises a detailed critical assessment of the structure of the University curricula and courses for the initial preparation of teachers. The organizational framework of the University Faculty

of Education within which these curricula and courses are provided is also critically considered. The courses themselves include those for graduate teachers as well as the diploma courses for non-graduate teachers. The strengths and weaknesses in the structure of courses are examined and suggestions regarding the possible reforms and improvements where necessary made.

Chapter Eight - is actually a continuation of Chapter Seven. The Chapter is devoted to the critical examination of two kinds of courses namely, the in-service diploma courses provided at the University for the upgrading of the qualifications of serving teachers and the pre-service teacher education diploma courses offered in the Teacher Training Colleges. In the case of the latter, special attention is also given to a critical assessment of the role of the University in the form of provision of academic and professional guidance to and monitoring of standards in the Colleges.

Chapter Nine - draws together the conclusions reached in the previous chapters. Thus, it comprises an identification of emergent problems in current Transkei teacher education policy and practice as well as a determination of priorities in future policy and planning. In the case of the latter, concrete suggestions are made regarding the necessary reforms in respect of the administrative, curricula and course structures.

### 1.5 Methods of Research

In this study the following methods have been used :

- (i) historico-critical approach
- (ii) comparative techniques
- (iii) personal interviews and discussions
- (iv) observation and analysis, and
- (v) survey of primary and secondary literary sources.

#### 1.6 Summary of Sources

A complete list of all sources used appears as a bibliography at the end of the thesis. The following is merely a summary in a broad outline :

##### A. Primary Sources

- (i) Reports of the commissions of inquiry.
- (ii) Journal Articles.
- (iii) Legislation, Government Notices and Agreements.
- (iv) Personal Interviews and Discussions.
- (v) Press Reports.
- (vi) Public Addresses.
- (vii) Official correspondence, statistics, reports, publications and circulars of Government Departments and Education Departments in particular.
- (viii) Official documents, statistical records, publications and correspondence of the universities and the University of Transkei in particular.
- (ix) Observation and analysis of the structures and facilities of relevant institutions and their working.
- (x) Educational Conference Papers and Reports.

##### B. Secondary Sources

- (i) Books.
- (ii) Theses.
- (iii) Research project reports.

## 2 The Clarification of Concepts

It has been argued that "Conceptual analysis, in a sense, leaves everything as it is. In other words, getting clear about a concept does not, of itself, provide reasons of a conclusive kind for doing one thing rather than another."<sup>2</sup> This does not, however, imply a total condemnation of all attempts at conceptual analysis for with such words as 'religion', 'justice', 'education', 'equality', 'democracy' and so on which are employed in a much looser way in ordinary language, conceptual analysis is indeed essential.

The foregoing assertion calls to mind the following two connected questions: What is a concept? What is it to analyse a concept? According to Hirst and Peters, a concept is not, as many are apt to think, the same as an image for one can have a concept without necessarily having a picture in mind. On the contrary, a concept is the ability to relate words to each other and this goes along with the ability to recognize cases to which particular words apply. The possession of this ability involves the experience of grasping a fundamental principle which enables one to classify, discriminate and use words correctly.<sup>3</sup>

To analyse a concept is not the same as definition although conceptual analysis, of necessity, involves definition. Hirst and Peters distinguish between a strong and a weak sense of definition. The weak case is when another word can be found which picks out a characteristic which is a logically necessary condition for the applicability of the original word. The strong case is when conditions can be produced which are logically both necessary and sufficient but, in actual practice such definitions apply only in artificially constructed symbolic systems, such as geometry, where tight conditions are laid down for the use of words such as 'triangle'.<sup>4</sup> Conceptual analysis on the other hand consists in defining characteristics in the weak sense.

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2. Hirst, P.H., and R.S. Peters, The Logic of Education. p. 39.

3. Ibid. p. 3.

4. Ibid. p. 5.

In the words of Hirst and Peters :

*"In conceptual analysis we settle for making explicit defining characteristics in the weak sense ... Thus if we are attempting an analysis of concepts by examining the meaning of words, we usually proceed by taking cases within their denotation and trying out suggestions about defining characteristics ... The point is to see through the words, to get a better grasp of the similarities and differences that it is possible to pick out ... We have to study carefully their relation to other words ... And this requires reflection on the different purposes, both linguistic and non-linguistic, that human beings share in their social life."*<sup>5</sup>

The advantage that conceptual analysis has over definitions, especially those of the dictionary and glossary variety, is that it leads to a better understanding of how a concept is connected not only with other concepts but with a form of social life that rests on a network of interlocking assumptions. As Hirst and Peters put it :

*"... our understanding is thereby increased about how things are in the world and of the possible stances that we can adopt towards our predicament in it."*<sup>6</sup>

In the light of the preceding, it is essential to give early prominence to conceptual analysis with a view to indicating the implications of the modern concept of education and of those other related concepts such as training and teaching for the much desired revolutionarized teacher education programmes.

## 2.1 Education

Richard D'Aeth has most aptly qualified education as :

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5. Ibid. p. 11.  
6. Ibid. p. 12.

*"... inherently a controversial field of theory and practical action, for it is connected both with fundamental human rights and the nurturing of personality and also with social change and the ideals at which it should aim. Thus, it is personal, social and political."*<sup>7</sup>

It is, thus, evident from the foregoing that education is first and foremost concerned with the development and positive formation of the entire human personality. This conception of the purpose of education has made possible the common distinction between a wider sense and a more restricted meaning of education.<sup>8</sup> The wider sense applies to the spontaneous, inadvertent and mostly unintentional influence through which the child as a result of his interaction with his entire environment is nurtured into the life pattern of the social group into which he is born. Thus stated, education in its broadest sense refers to that informal and functional activity which involves all the positive forces that come to bear on the child in the course of his development and, the most important of these is the influence exerted by adults and peer groups in all kinds of situations. "The process of education," writes Cropley,

*"may be very broadly defined as involving changes in understanding the external world, oneself, and one's relationship to people and objects in the environment. These changes facilitate interpretation of experience ... Thus, education is closely connected with learning : learning is the process through which education occurs."*<sup>9</sup>

However, whilst all educational processes are processes of learning, not all processes of learning are processes of education for, as Peters points out, education "... is a concept that has standard or norm, as it were, built into it. To speak of 'education' ... is to commit oneself, by implication, to a judgement of value."<sup>10</sup> The

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7. D'Aeth, R., Education and Development in the Third World. p. 1.

8. Raymont, T., The Principles of Education. p. 4.

9. Cropley, A.J., Lifelong Education-A Psychological Analysis, p.36.

10. Peters, R.S., Authority, Responsibility and Education. p. 123.

value criterion for education implies that distinction must be made between the broad meaning of the concept 'learning' on one hand and educative learning on the other. There is much which can be learnt and yet be excluded from education as being undesirable or trivial. Van der Merwe has this in mind when he purports that "Somebody may be learned without being educated; so there are people who have received little systematic education, yet are well educated,"<sup>11</sup> which implies that systematic education remains mere 'schooling' if it does not take into account those fundamental educational principles which underlie educational practice in a cultural context. The contemporary concern in systematic education for learning clearly has, therefore, behind it the important principle that learning is logically necessary to education. This concern is evinced especially by the extensive research on the learning process with a view to explaining first, how learning occurs and, secondly, what manipulation of the classroom situation is needed to ensure optimum conditions for effective educative learning.

The preceding reference to systematic education has a direct bearing on the restricted meaning of education to which attention must now be focussed. In this sense, the term 'education' is used in common speech as well as in legal enactments to denote the intentional, directed and systematic influences which are consciously and designedly brought to bear upon the young by the adult members of society. Defining education in this more restricted sense, Raymont has this to say : "... the process of education, strictly so called, includes only the operation of measures expressly intended to modify the child's development, and devised in accordance with a more or less clearly conceived purpose."<sup>12</sup> Thus defined, education is a formal social institution granted that a social institution is, according to Stalcup, "... the totality of relationships, processes and facilities which people develop to meet a specific social interest or need."<sup>13</sup> John Vaizey traces the development of institutionalized education from

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11. Van der Merwe, B. de V., The crisis of Authority. Fort Hare Inaugural Lectures. No. C.8. p. 3.

12. Raymont, T., op cit., p. 5.

13. Stalcup, R.J., Sociology of Education. p. 10.

the time of the Renaissance : "Since the Renaissance ... knowledge has become systematized and based upon scholarship and research. The functioning of society has itself come to depend more and more upon a highly abstract and complex body of knowledge, predominantly technical and scientific, which has to be transmitted in a formal manner ..." <sup>14</sup> It is evident, therefore, that schools were established to perform this very important social function.

However, modern political and socio-economic priorities have grossly affected the conventional rationale for the establishment of schools. Pulliam and Bowman have most correctly noted that : "... there is no consensus about what is wanted from schools ...; educators are developing ambiguous goals to satisfy ambiguous societal needs." <sup>15</sup> There is, therefore, no doubt that the rejection of the school and all it stands for by the deschoolers represents the culmination of the state of uncertainty as to the essential nature and purpose of formal education.

There is currently much talk among educationists about the dire need for the re-definition of societal needs as the latter determine the purpose of formal education. Nonetheless, the concerns of education in modern societies as outlined by D'Aeth <sup>16</sup> have not been lost sight of by those who have made attempts at explaining the purpose of formal education. According to Gezi :

*"Viewed culturally, the functions of the school can be described as : (a) cultural transmission, (b) cultural maintenance, (c) cultural improvement, (d) enculturation, and (e) maximum development of the potential of each pupil. As an agency established by society for the purpose of perpetuating culture and contributing to its continuity, the school must share in the process of passing on to the young the nation's heritage and developing the competencies needed for its upkeep. The school cannot help but reflect the*

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14. Vaizey, J., Education In The Modern World. p. 8.

15. Pulliam, J.D., and J.R. Bowman, Educational Futurism. p. 67.

16. Cf. Supra. p. 12.

*continual change and innovation in culture. But, if education is to become an instrument of culture change, it (the school) must become itself the vanguard and the setting for change."*<sup>17</sup>

It is evident from the above that the conventional rationale for the establishment of the school has itself not withered away. As a product of cultural development and, as such, as a mirror reflecting culture, the school is a miniature society enjoined (a) to enable children to acquire the necessary cultural forms and contents and to integrate these forms and contents into their own personalities, (b) to develop the ability of each individual to deal with change intelligently by equipping him with such knowledge and skill as will enable him to cope effectively with the forces of change and, (c) to develop in the individual the ability to perceive, think and act creatively for by so doing it (the school) would be inadvertently contributing through its climate and clientele to changes in society.

The above wide and seemingly contradictory concerns of the school can be realized through teaching and training. One must agree with Ryans that "... the 'goodness' of an education programme is determined to a large extent by the teaching."<sup>18</sup> It may thus be appropriate to consider at this stage the meaning of the concept 'teaching'.

## 2.2 Teaching

The term 'teaching' applies to the transfer and interpretation of knowledge including knowledge related to values, norms and skills. Teaching, therefore, is based on understanding the facts and their relation and is largely an intellectual activity. Gunter has most aptly defined teaching as :

*"... the acquisition of knowledge and skills by the pupil accompanied, throughout the entire range of teaching and*

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17. Gezi, K.I., (Ed.) Education In Comparative and International Perspectives. p. 87.

18. Ryans, D.G., Characteristics Of Teachers. p. 1.

*learning activity, by the development on the part of the pupil of the power of independent and correct thinking, and the application of his acquired knowledge to new problems."*<sup>19</sup>

The relationship between teaching and education is so close that McClellan speaks of them as "cousins and competitors."<sup>20</sup> In the first instance, teaching, like education, does not refer exclusively to the teaching activities that take place in the school where the contents, the types of activities and the aids are all selected purposefully. Teaching also takes place away from school; the difference is that teaching which occurs outside school is generally much more informal, less organized and less systematic than that which occurs at school. Furthermore, as John Adams has pointed out :

*"Education is a much wider conception than teaching. It is a whole of which teaching is part. Teaching is largely, though not exclusively, concerned with instruction ... Education has for its aim to modify the nature of the educand, and not merely to supply a certain amount of knowledge. On the other hand, instruction (teaching) is one of the essentials of the educator. A teacher is never a mere instructor. Whatever he teaches and however he teaches, he is bound to influence his pupils to a greater or lesser degree for good and for ill. He is always to this extent an educator ..."*<sup>21</sup>

It is, however, important to note that Hirst and Peters argue that the relationship between teaching and education is only true in so far as teaching implies education and not *vice versa*: "Education can go on without any teaching ... There are many forms of learning that go on without any teaching, and 'educative learning' does not imply the additional criterion that learning must take place in a teaching situation. It may be a general empirical fact that most things are

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19. Gunter, C.F.G., Aspects of Educational Theory. p. 11.

20. McClellan, J.E., Policy and Education. Chamber's Encyclopaedia Vol. IV, (New Ed.). p. 170.

21. Adams, Sir John, Evolution Of Educational Theory. p. 16.

learnt more rapidly and more reliably if the situation is explicitly structured by the educator. But, it certainly is not a conceptual truth that either 'learning' or 'education' implies 'teaching'.<sup>22</sup> Thus stated, teaching is the art of stimulating pupils to learn. In fact, unless the pupil learns, it would be difficult to maintain that teaching has taken place. The teacher then becomes the means by which the pupil educates himself.

Throughout the ages, changing views about how to teach have been propounded but the present exceptionally strong pressure for change in teaching techniques can be attributed to the development of psychological research which is still progressing at a rapid pace. Its roots, as Vaizey indicates, are complex: "Partly they ... rest in the great development of formal knowledge. Research, learning and teaching are now inextricably intertwined in a complex social process which has little relation to education as it used to be known. This 'industry' of education is basic to economic development, since it produces both the 'know-how' of industrial advance, and the trained workers who operate the economy. But, partly the basis for the educational explosion is social. Increasingly the idea has grown up that the rights of citizens include the right to be educated ..."<sup>23</sup> In addition to the above socio-economic factors, Vaizey also mentions the cumulative pressures inside the education system itself such as the pressure of numbers of pupils, the cumulative pressure of new subjects in the curriculum and the increase in the content of existing subjects.

The results of psychological research have proved that effective development of education can only be undertaken by developing new techniques of teaching and learning. Psychological knowledge is concerned with such matters as :

- (A) the realization that traditionally teaching has been concerned with information rather than with education in the moral, ethical or socio-affective domains. Even where information is

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22. Hirst, P.H., and R.S. Peters. op cit., pp. 76-77.

23. Vaizey, J., Loc. cit.

concerned, the emphasis has been on mastering bodies of facts, not on acquiring skill in educative learning. The pupil has been conceptualized as "a mere receptacle" or 'stockpot' of knowledge. One of the effects of this traditional concept of teaching has been, in the words of Cropley :

*"... not only to divorce schooling from day-to-day real lives of students, but to dissociate learning in school from other sources of knowledge such as libraries, museums, the home, work, social organizations and so on."*<sup>24</sup>

- (B) the realization that knowledge has to be presented to children in a way which will interest them and which is suited to their own interests, aptitudes and abilities.
- (C) the realization that the function of play in young children is exactly the same as learning about themselves and the world about them, and that, therefore, a distinction between lessons and play is quite an arbitrary one.
- (D) the realization that a child will learn as much as he wants to and that all teaching is concerned with is only to stimulate his interests, imagination and enthusiasm and to present knowledge in a simple and logical order so that the way in which he learns seems perfectly normal. The child, after all, has been learning with tremendous efficiency from birth about the world around him. The rate of progress of children in understanding what is going on around them is always a source of astonishment and wonder to parents. It is the process of continuation of this derivation of stimulation from the environment which must underlie the attitude towards teaching in the school.
- (E) lastly, there is a shift in the attitude towards rewards and punishment and a realization that encouragement rather than fear

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24. Cropley, A.J., op cit., pp. 20-21.

is a more suitable environment for effective learning.

Most evidently, the ideology of child-centred education which has now become a universal slogan is based on the above fundamental educational considerations and its implications for teacher training are invaluable especially when one considers the following statement by the Quebec Report: "In every country it is thoroughly understood that to embark upon such new courses and to perform these new functions, the educational system needs highly competent teaching personnel. Teachers are the keystone of any system and the only hope for the accomplishment of educational reforms. Whatever the programs of studies may be, whatever standards are established, whatever experiments are tried, the solution depends ultimately on the teaching staff."<sup>25</sup> However, before the concept 'teacher training' can be analysed and explained, the term 'training' with which it is closely related must be briefly examined.

### 2.3 Training

The term 'training' implies learning through drill or repetition and applies in the acquisition of skills, actions and to the reproduction of certain patterns. Training largely implies learning without insight or rote learning and, for this reason, the term is often used in connection with the training of animals where the animal is taught through the repeated presentation of the same stimulus to carry out a particular action. The training given in this case is usually accompanied by some form of reward or punishment. Training, therefore, can well be likened to classical conditioning.

Training, in the case of human beings, involves that form of learning which may be termed 'habit-formation' upon which education may on a later stage build. The training of human beings differs from the training of animals in that the former does have some meaning for the trainee though he has no real insight into it and does not really choose to adopt the forms of behaviour such training inculcates. Although the trainee may be willing to adopt a habit out of regard

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25. The Quebec Report (Canada), cited by J. Vaizey, op cit., p. 136.

for the person who prescribes it, he may in time gain insight into the meaning of that habit and may then choose either to follow it or discard it. Training in the case of human beings would then apply in the preparation by means of instruction, practical exercise and coaching of the trainee for a specific vocation or task. In this sense, training implies some form of vocational teaching or other. It is indeed in that sense that the term 'teacher training' is, as will be noted later, used in the field of education. In the education of teachers, a number of skills such as the chalkboard mastery, competence in the handling of audio-visual devices and so on are necessary and, in their acquisition training has a valuable role to play and is thus always necessary. When formalised 'teacher training' was introduced in England in the middle of the nineteenth century, the idea was of training the teacher to deal with every situation which was likely to arise in the classroom. Thus, the emphasis in the preparation and provision of teachers was on the learning of the 'tricks of the trade' or 'craft training' rather than on their education as persons. Herein lie the distinction and relation between 'teacher training' and 'teacher education'. There is, therefore, a seeming antinomy between the two concepts and since both are to play a significant role in this study, their further clarification is imperative.

#### 2.4 Teacher Education

When reference is made to the preparation and provision of teachers the concepts 'teacher education' and 'teacher training' are, in common parlance, used synonymously. In professional circles, however, the debate about 'teacher education versus teacher training' has created so much tension that there is currently a tendency to avoid the conceptual jargon by either using the two terms interchangeably or adopting the concept 'teacher education and training'. A study of the evolution of the formal preparation and provision of teachers reveals, however, that while teacher training dates back to the classical periods of Greece and Rome, teacher education which is in fact a wider concept and includes teacher training is itself relatively new and can be traced back only to the last half century.<sup>26</sup>

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26. Wragg, E.C., Teacher Teaching, p. 22.

In the light of the preceding, it seems appropriate to consider the evolution of teacher preparation and provision with a view to resolving the controversy about 'teacher education versus teacher training'.

Arrangements of one kind or another for the education of the young have existed at all times and in all societies. What is missing in most cases, however, is the formal preparation for those who do the teaching. Teaching is a process undertaken chiefly by means of personal contact between children and full-fledged adults and sharing in common activities.<sup>27</sup> The concern for more organized and systematic preparation and provision of teachers emerged during the so-called 'classical' periods in Greece and Rome, and earlier still in China and India.<sup>28</sup>

Although the classical model was essentially identical with the primitive pattern, certain features of teacher preparation distinguished it from the primitive system. First, some of the methodology in classical societies was written in books for student-teachers to learn. Secondly, the attachment to a distinguished scholar, orator, philosopher or religious leader was sufficient to qualify a person to teach what he had learned. Thirdly, teaching methods were systematically analysed and some attention was being given to how children learned. Lastly, the nature of teacher preparation was contingent upon what was deemed to be important for children to learn in a particular society, and also upon the philosophy of the person entrusted with the task of preparing teachers; thus, both teaching and teacher preparation were stereotyped and unrelated to the needs of the pupils and the student-teachers.<sup>29</sup>

In many European countries more serious concern for the preparation and provision of teachers developed as a result of the pressures of the Industrial Revolution in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth

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27. Cf. Raum, O.F., An Evaluation of Indigenous Education, P.A. Duminy (Ed.), Trends and Challenges in the Education of the South African Bantu. pp. 91 ff.

28. Wragg, E.C., *op cit.*, p. 22.

29. *Ibid.* p. 27.

centuries.<sup>30</sup> Before the Industrial Revolution, much of the preparation of teachers was done by the church and the universities. For example, Queen Elizabeth I of England issued, in 1559, an injunction which forbade anyone from teaching without a licence from his bishop, and such a licence was granted only after an examination of the applicant's learning and dexterity in teaching, honest 'conversation', and right understanding of God's true religion.<sup>31</sup> Also, later on, some of the teaching orders, notably the Jesuits, analysed teaching strategies in considerable detail. Each pupil was to be matched with another member of the class whose task it was to expose his mistakes (small teams of two or three pupils were also to be matched against each other).<sup>32</sup>

The universities themselves concentrated to a large extent on the subject matter, and, with few exceptions, ignored the preparation in teaching methods. The University of Paris, for example, trained future teachers in the skills of lecturing, and further asked them to dispute a thesis with a master before a board of examiners, and, if successful, granted them the Chancellor's licence to teach.<sup>33</sup>

With the advent of large-scale industrialization in many countries there was pressure for compulsory education for children, and the lack of sufficient teachers was clearly an obstacle to progress. Some of the German states were the first to react positively to the problem by establishing, during the early part of the eighteenth century, the so-called 'normal schools' or seminaries for the preparation and provision of teachers. The normal school not only equipped future teachers with the knowledge of the human mind, and of the principles of education as a science and of its methods as an art, but also maintained contact with all the teachers working within a six mile radius.<sup>34</sup>

During the first thirty years of the nineteenth century, teacher pre-

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30. Ibid. pp. 27 ff.

31. The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1979. Vol. 18. p. 4.

32. Wragg, E.C., op cit., p. 28.

33. Loc. cit.

34. The New Encyclopaedia Britannica. 1979. Vol. 18. p. 4.

paration in the United States, Britain and elsewhere was dominated by the so-called 'monitorial methods' introduced by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster. These methods involved a master instructing a number of senior pupils or 'monitors', who then passed on their acquired knowledge to a larger number of pupils. Such methods were cheap and simple, and only required emphasis upon facts, drill, repetition, mechanical learning, and ease of teaching.<sup>35</sup>

Within the same period, Napoleon established in France the *ecole normale* which, in fact, owed much to the pattern that had been established in Germany. The French *ecole normales* prepared teachers for the 'lycees'.<sup>36</sup> The normal schools in several countries, such as the Glasgow Normal Seminary established by David Stow and the Massachusetts Normal Schools established by Horace Mann, date from the third decade of the nineteenth century.<sup>37</sup>

In the early second half of the nineteenth century, churches and other voluntary foundations in England and elsewhere were also in the process of establishing institutions for the preparation and provision of teachers, and in these institutions observation and practice were combined with formal instruction.<sup>38</sup>

With hindsight, it can be concluded that up to this stage all the models of teacher preparation were severely practical. They all tended to maintain an emphasis upon the practical techniques of school management and to limit the range and level of the teacher's intellectual accomplishments to mastery of only such subject knowledge as was needed at the school level. Teacher preparation was, thus, quite aptly termed 'teacher training' because the emphasis was only on the practical training in teaching methodology and mastery of only such knowledge as the teacher would need in his classroom work. The concept of the teacher was that of him as only a craftsman, a master of his art. The modern teacher educator would, however, contend like

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35. Wragg, E.C., *op cit.*, pp. 29 ff.

36. *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*. 1979. p. 4.

37. Wragg, E.C., *op cit.*, p. 29 ff.

38. *Loc. cit.*

R.S. Peters that "... though the main emphasis at the level of initial preparation must be on the training of teachers, we cannot altogether neglect our duty as educators to educate them as persons."<sup>39</sup> The concept of the teacher implied here is that of him as both a craftsman and a professionally educated person.

The latter conception of the teacher emerged during the second half of the nineteenth century and can be attributed to issues which arose at that time and which, by and large, still prevail even today. At that time, human knowledge was already becoming more diverse and scientific, and was being organized into new disciplinary systems. As a result of such great thinkers as Rosencrantz, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Dewey, Thorndike, Herbert, and many others, the universities in Europe and in the United States began to establish education departments, and to introduce into teacher preparation programmes a larger element of general education with a view to reconciling the student-teacher's own personal need for education with his professional need for classroom technique.<sup>40</sup>

By the end of the first half of the twentieth century, the students of education had a wider and more clearly structured range of disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, and sociology to draw upon for their data and perspectives, and to provide a scientific basis for their pedagogic principles. The work of the above-named pioneers and of later contributors to the *corpus* of ideas which underlie the processes of teacher preparation also led to a clearer recognition of the developmental needs and character of childhood. As a result, the processes of teacher preparation continued to provide philosophical, psychological and sociological justification for particular views of the nature of education and of teaching, and this, in turn, continued to have a definite influence on the methods to be employed in the classroom.<sup>41</sup>

Today, in nearly all countries of the world, teacher preparation con-

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39. Peters, R.S., Education and the Education of Teachers. p. 137.

40. The New Encyclopaedia Britannica. 1979. p. 5 ff.

41. Loc. cit.

tain three main elements: The first is the study of one or more academic subjects for the purpose of continuing the future teacher's own education and of providing him with knowledge to use in his subsequent teaching career; the education of teachers has become even more essential with the adoption by many countries of compulsory education and of the subsequent expansion of secondary education. The second element is the study of educational principles, increasingly organized in terms of social science disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, sociology and history; the study of educational principles is seen as both an adjunct to the professional sequence, serving to illuminate and enrich the student-teacher's method courses and practical work, and as contributory to the future teacher's general education and personal development by providing an introduction to a systematic exploration of human conduct and affairs. The third element consists of professional courses and school experience.<sup>42</sup>

In the light of the preceding, it is fitting to refer to the modern processes of teacher preparation and provision as teacher education. In teacher education, the training component is included, and the latter refers to that component of teacher preparation which is professionally or technically and practically oriented in the sense that the skills taught are intended to have a direct effect on professional practice. Also, the very justification or rationale for teacher education namely, the exponential rate at which knowledge is expanding and the crisis of ever-increasing school population, demands that the preparation of teachers should involve the whole process of initial preparation, further professionalization, and the development of the teacher throughout his career; in other words, in teacher education, the initial preparation of teachers is not terminal, instead it is preparatory for an on-going process of professional education. The early stages of teacher education form, as it were, an integral part of a system of permanent education of teachers. Thus stated, the implication is that the educational sphere within which the teacher works must itself be transformed so

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42. *Ibc: cit.*

that it can provide some more scope and opportunities for the teacher's further education. It must be borne in mind, however, that this conception of teacher education as permanent education raises, as Bertrand Schwartz has most wisely noted, a series of problems because teachers, as adults, will only accept education when it provides them with the possibility of solving their problems in their situations, and when such education is linked to possible or actual changes in their daily lives.<sup>43</sup>

## 2.5 Teacher Education Curricula and Courses

Literature on curriculum is replete with attempts at definition, but its survey leaves one clear on only one point namely, that there is no common agreement on the precise meaning of the word. It is, however, possible to distinguish between its narrower and more restricted meaning on one hand and, on the other, a much broader sense in which it is commonly used. In a narrower sense, the term 'curriculum' covers the combinations of subjects which form themselves into recognizable patterns generally known as courses of study.<sup>44</sup> The broad definitions of curriculum focus on the concept of experience. The key phrase in almost all broad definitions of curriculum is 'experience' or 'learning experience'. Defining curriculum in its broadest sense, Glen Hass writes :

*"The curriculum is all of the experiences that individual learners have in a program of education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives, which is planned in terms of a framework of theory and research or past and present professional practice."*<sup>45</sup>

The concept 'program of education' in the preceding definition is very significant because it is utilized instead of the phrase 'under the direction of the school' which is used when the term 'curriculum'

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43. Schwartz, B., A French Model For Teacher Education. D.E. Lomax, (Ed.), European Perspectives In Teacher Education. p. 117.  
 44. Cf. Zais, R.S., Curriculum. Principles And Foundations. pp.6-20.  
 45. Hass, G., Curriculum Planning. A New Approach. pp. 4-5.

is intended to denote courses of study. The concept 'program of education' indicates that the planned experiences referred to in the definition may take place in any suitable place, in and outside the educational institution such as the school. The definition further emphasizes a wide range of factors which should be considered and included when reference is made to the curriculum. The curriculum is preplanned. Planned objectives, and theories and research concerning social forces, human development, learning, and knowledge should guide the preplanning at all levels including the school systems, the educational institution or school itself, the instructional group, and the individual learner. Planning of instruction by the teachers themselves is a major part of curriculum planning since it often has greater influence on the learners than the preplanned curriculum which may be used or ignored by the teacher. In planning instruction, the teacher, or whoever plans it, should be guided by his knowledge of planned objectives and of theories and research concerning the four bases of the curriculum namely, social forces, human development, learning, and knowledge. Lastly, to the learner, the actual curriculum is his experiences as he participates in the learning opportunities provided and as he shares in their planning.

Viewed from that perspective, the term 'curriculum', in its widest sense, refers to the whole programme of education and not merely to courses of study which are only that part of the curriculum which is organized for classroom use and which suggest content, procedures, aids, and materials for the use and guidance of the teachers, learners, and administrators. In this sense, curriculum is synonymous with 'educational programme' and comes perilously close to being synonymous with 'education' itself. The concept 'teacher education programme', therefore, refers to the 'curricula for the education of teachers' and applies to all planned experiences which are made available to future teachers during their initial preparation, and to already practising teachers who are certificated and employed. The concept 'pre-service teacher education programme' is generally used when reference is made specifically to those planned experiences which the future teacher is expected to acquire during the period of initial preparation. The concept 'in-service teacher education programme' is used to refer to

those planned experiences which the already certificated and employed practising teacher is expected to acquire if he is to avoid lapsing into rapid professional obsolescence. Also, the operating objectives of in-service teacher education programme are, in the words of Cogan :

*"... to remedy and repair omissions and weaknesses of collegiate preparation; to refine and enlarge the scope of existing competencies; and to support innovations or tests of new curriculum methods, and materials of instruction."*<sup>46</sup>

Finally, the conception of teacher education programme as curriculum implies that it is preplanned too, and includes planned objectives and theories and research concerning social forces, human development, learning, and knowledge which should guide the preplanning at all levels including the school systems, the teacher education institution itself which prepares teachers, the instructional group, and the individual learner. Also, each future teacher and each certificated teacher experiences his programme as a set of actual experiences and perceptions as he participates in the learning opportunities provided and as he shares in their planning.

Closely connected with the concept 'curriculum' is the term 'course'. This concept always causes serious problems in writing about tertiary level studies. In this study the concept 'course' will be used variously to denote that aspect of curriculum which comprises a group of courses of study which are organized for classroom use and which suggest content, procedures, aids and materials, or a period of study of a subject over a single academic year, or a major subject extending over a longer period. Efforts will be made to avoid ambiguity in the use of the term and to achieve maximum clarity in its application. Attempts will be made to express the desired connotation unambiguously in any context in which the concept will be used. Thus, a distinction

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46. Cogan, M.L., Current Issues in the Education of Teachers. K. Ryan and K.J. Rehage, Teacher Education. The Seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. p. 220.

will be made in this study between 'curriculum' in the widest sense as explained in the preceding paragraphs and a 'course' as denoting a group of meaningfully organized subjects, procedures and materials, for example, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course, or a period of study of a subject over a single academic year, for example, an Educational Psychology course, an English course and so on, or a major subject extending over a longer period, for example, courses in English, courses in Psychology and so on.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THE ORIGINS AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISIONS IN TRANSKEI (+-1820-1953/4)

#### 1 The Indigenous Teacher Education Practices

The concept of 'indigenous education' is relatively new in educational discourse and its origin lies in the early anthropological studies which described the way children grow into a total culture and the way cultural tradition is passed on from the older to the younger generation. For a long time, education itself was recognized only where something on the general pattern of a school could be identified. Modern studies, however, prove beyond doubt that education is a universal human phenomenon in the sense that only man, regardless of space and time, educates, is educated, and depends on education for his survival. It has been falsely reported by some that parents in primitive societies "... leave the kids to bring each other up or to just grow like Topsy ...", and that education "... is haphazard, laissez-faire, based on non-interference with the natural development of the child, rarely if ever standardized and so variable as to be virtually within norms."<sup>1</sup> Haphazard and fragmentary though it appears from the outside, indigenous education is based on the assumption of a definite system of values and, therefore, involves specific objectives which again points to a certain amount of direction or guidance by educators.

Arising from the preceding are three questions of great relevance to this study, namely: Who are Transkeian indigenous educators? What are their educational roles? What preparation procedures are followed to ensure their constant provision? While it is imperative that all these questions be given immediate attention, a brief preliminary account of the nature, scope and aims of Transkei indigenous education is essential so as to provide background that will help illumine and give fulness of meaning to all attempts at answering these questions.

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1. Cf. Hart, C.W.M., cited by Duminy P.A., African Pupils And Teaching Them, p. 27.

### 1.1 The Nature, Scope and Aims of Indigenous Education

It must be reiterated that no human society is without education and that such education can be traced back into the palaeontological past of man. However, the first documented report of Xhosa indigenous education appeared one-and-a-half centuries ago when Captain Alberti, adjutant to Governor-General Jansens, brought out well the aims of Xhosa education: the correct performance of a person's role in society, and mutual respect between the generations and the sexes. Restated in more definite and precise terms, the aim of Xhosa indigenous education is to conserve and transmit from one generation to the other the cultural heritage of beliefs, behaviour patterns, emotional dispositions, skills, tools and knowledge as well as the appropriate ritual behaviour for all occasions.<sup>2</sup> This socialization of the child is indeed a universal phenomenon for in all societies the world over the child is taught to accept, value and reproduce the behaviour and sentiments of the society into which he is born but, of course, the specific aims and methods of the process will vary considerably depending on the nature and needs of that society.

An exposition of the nature, scope and aims of indigenous education of any society must of necessity outline the sort of curriculum which a child growing into the total culture has to master and, also, indicate clearly how the child learns the aspects of the culture of the society into which he is born. From the earliest days of infancy the Xhosa child comes into contact with the culture of the group or tribe into which he is born. The acquaintance with culture starts immediately after birth and, then, develops with cumulative effect until the individual attains maturity. The family, represented by parents, is a primary group in which close personal relationships are established. The home, then, is the first institution which carries out the task of socializing, rearing and introducing the child to the culture of the society into which he is born. Home education aims at training the child in the norms of conduct appropriate to family and kinship groupings. Through the family the child approaches the wider

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2. Cf. Raum, O.F., An Evaluation of Indigenous Education. P.A. Duminy, op cit., p. 89.

social environment of his society and the key with which he works is the system of kinship terms. The extended application of a term corresponds with the extension of the associated behaviour and the extension of expectations which such behaviour arouses. The web of kinship brings the child into a real relationship with all those adult members of his society.

The child is also taught to acquire and embrace all the knowledge of and attitudes towards the physical or geographical environment such as the rivers, mountains, trees, poisonous plants, edible fruit, wild and domestic animals, grassy plains and so on. Also, the child is trained to master all the skills required in adult life for the provision and use of the material aspects of culture such as baskets, hoes, assegais, clay-pots and so on.

Studies of the African child's world of play generally reveal that the African child, too, has his own determination to understand the world around him and his own will to secure for himself a place in society. Generally, the child plays by himself or with his peers and the characteristics of the play-world are unique rules of linguistic perversions and diverse procedures of punishing those who deviate from the norms of the play-group. In creating their play-world through imitation of the adult-world, the children make use of elements of the adult world, and, in this sense, it becomes a symbolic world anticipatory of the real world into which they will later advance. As a rule, the development of the African child is marked by the rhythmical repetition of the developmental rites in which the child's stages of growth, as culturally determined, are accentuated. To this, the child amongst Transkei indigenous communities is no exception. These developmental rites find their culmination in initiation which is, as Van Gennep defines it :

*"... a dramatized passage from one status to another with pre-liminal rite of separating the youth (or maiden) from his childhood social environment, a liminal stage of isolation from profane life and a post-liminal rite of aggregating the initiand to the new status and social*

*environment.*"<sup>3</sup>

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that Transkei indigenous education is determined by the demands of the tribal ethos. The expression of the latter ranges from the self as it defines itself in relation to its physique and to the human environment of classes of persons and the social system as a whole, then, society as it conceives itself in relation to the non-human environment of plants, animals and astronomical factors and, lastly, values which range from organic to symbolic values. It is, indeed, a system of education which involves specific objectives and this, in turn, points at a certain amount of direction or guidance by educators.

In the light of the preceding, attention can now be appropriately focussed on Transkei indigenous educators, their roles and their preparation and provision.

## 1.2 The Indigenous Educators : Their Preparation and Provision

The child amongst the indigenous communities in Transkei belongs to all the adult members of the community into which he is born. They all cherish and correct him. Every adult member of the community is an approved educator and is expected to act under the demands of the tribal ethos in rearing the young. Another striking feature of indigenous education in Transkei is, as amongst all primitive societies, reliance on self-elected or communally approved teachers without formal qualifications and training whose pupils use them as their models. A brief description of these self-elected or communally approved teachers and their roles is essential.

First in line is the mother. The mother is, for the child in his earliest stages, his all-important contact in life. Carried on her back in a skin or blanket, the child goes about with the mother. More than anything else, she is concerned with the child's needs and well-being. She provides nourishment in the fullest sense of the word,

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3. Van Gennep, A., *The Rites of Passage.*, cited by O.F. Raum, P.A. Duminy, (Ed.), *op cit.*, p. 99.

and, since the infant is considered to be exceptionally weak and in need of special treatment and protection, medicines and amulets against specific childhood dangers are administered to it by the mother. It is partly for these reasons that the most enduring sentiment for the child is normally formed with regard to the mother.

Next to the mother is the child-nurse, typically the child's older sister, cousin or merely a girl of the household. The child's grandmother may also assist at this stage in caring for the child while the mother performs other household chores. The young nurse at first acts under the strict guidance and supervision of the mother and other female adults in caring for the child and, in this way, she is prepared for motherhood in her own adult life. Later, the young nurses congregate with their young charges and the toddler is thus introduced into a play-group of contemporaries. At play, the young nurses often imitate their own mothers in caring for their young charges thus anticipating the real world of motherhood into which they would later on advance.

The next stage is a long drawn-out educational process which introduces boys and girls into their respective spheres of life as adults. While such social values as respect for elders, obedience to those in authority, generosity, responsibility, willingness to share and ability to live in peace with others all receive priority, the young are also taught economic behaviour at this stage and this involves learning of specific manual skills needed to exploit the raw materials available in the environment. While the boy learns from a wide range of male members ranging from his father, including male relatives and playmates up to the unrelated adult male members of the community, the girl remains tied to the household, learning all the skills she will need in adult life as a housewife. It is interesting to note that even at a stage as late as this, knowledge is not consciously passed in an artificial situation; learning is mainly by imitation. The child learns all the skills and tasks required of adults simply by doing them. Education is not carried on in an institution divorced from everyday adult activities; thus, the child feels that he is an essential part of the society in that whatever he does as he learns, is a direct

contribution to the domestic and societal economy.

The educational role of the peer-group cannot be underestimated. The child's peer-group, watched over by those just a little older, lay down rules for acceptable conduct and is in a strong position to see that they are obeyed. Sanctions such as mockery and ostracism enable them to deal effectively with displays of bad temper, selfishness and poor sportsmanship. Therefore, while the father remains the main authority and disciplinarian in the family, the strictest discipline outside home is in the hands of the peer-group.

The final stage is initiation in which the chief educator in the case of boys is the master of initiation ceremonies; this is usually the father of the boy in the group who is senior by hereditary status and he must be a man of charisma to be able to transmit special qualities to the inmates of the camp. Next to the master of initiation ceremonies is the guardian who acts as a supervisor and teacher of moral, marital and legal lessons to the initiates and who sees to it that the initiates submit to the *taboo-regime* of the ceremony; this man is selected amongst the relatives of the boys and must be a man of upright conduct who is held in respect by the community. Another leading educator is the surgeon who is not necessarily related to any of the boys and whose only duty is to carry out the incisions; it is believed that this man is annointed by both God ('Unkulunkulu') and the ancestors and is, therefore, ritually pure. The owner of the lodge who is the most senior boy by hereditary status and, who is by syllogism the son of the master of ceremonies, has some educative duties which involve largely assisting the guardian in supervising and teaching the other initiates moral, sexual and legal lessons. Of lesser significance, are the teachers of different ranks who voluntarily act as casual assistants of the guardian. The carriers of food to the camp also assist in the teaching of the initiates. In the case of female initiates, the teacher is the father's sister of every female initiate, and, in her absence, a guardian is elected to serve as a teacher. All lessons are intended to prepare the initiates for marital life as housewives and mothers. As a rule, all those who come into contact with the initiates during both male and female

initiation ceremonies must be ritually pure.

Viewed from that perspective, initiation can be regarded as a formal educational arrangement similar to the modern type of formal school system. However, in spite of the evident teaching of norms and values and deliberate influence exerted by adults on the initiates during initiation ceremonies, much of the information is given in obscure and esoteric *formulae* and rituals with the result that the initiates most invariably come to understand the meaning of the lessons fully through subsequent participation as assistants or teachers in later ceremonies. It can, therefore, be concluded that amongst the indigenous communities in Transkei the formal preparation of teachers is non-existent. Largely, the child first learns by imitation; and, later, through participation in everyday activities. Even those individuals who act as teachers in the formal sense are self-elected and, for social approval, they must possess rare and unusual knowledge and skills and, in addition, must be ritually pure.

## 2 The Early Beginnings of Formal Arrangements for the Preparation and Provision of Teachers

Any consideration of the history of teacher education of any country must of necessity take into account the formative influences which produced and determined the development of the school system of the country concerned. Such an approach would indeed be inevitable when one remembers that the development of formal teacher education in any country runs closely parallel to the history of schools and also to that of the society concerned. In the majority of cases, the formative influences comprise a combination of a certain theory of human nature deriving from religion and the social structure itself in its political, economic and social class aspects.

In Transkei, the religious groundmotive underlying the work of the early missionaries and the political and socio-economic factors of the time all combined to produce and shape the early formal teacher education structures. It is, therefore, imperative that anyone who

ventures to write about the early beginnings of formal arrangements for the preparation and provision of teachers in Transkei must at the same time seek to bring out clearly the extent of these formative influences. The following is an attempt to do this.

## 2.1 The Evolution of Teacher Education Through the Missionary Zeal of Churches

The partition of Africa by the European Powers had a most profound effect. However, Africa south of the Sahara, guarded by the cruel Sahara itself, at first lay beyond the current of civilization in the Northern Hemisphere because people belonging to the civilization which had its origin around the Mediterranean did not, for many centuries, know much of the vast continent that lay south of the Sahara until the new era was heralded by Diaz who, in 1488, discovered what he called the 'Cabo de Boa Esperanca', a name given to reflect the renewed hope of discovering the sea route to India. Diaz's famous voyage of discovery was in fact a forerunner of the permanent White settlement nearly two hundred years later and subsequent first contacts between the White colonists and the Xhosa people after the passage of about a century after this.

Meanwhile new ideas were causing a great revolution in Europe. The French Revolution had produced a romantic humanitarianism which blended with the doctrine of 'free grace' of the Evangelical Revival. The sentiment of humanitarianism which later gained international acceptance was popularized, amongst others, by people like Jacob Rii and Jane Addams. In religious groups, the movement was represented by an emphasis on the 'social gospel' for while the missionary would always be concerned with personal conversion, he was now told in explicit terms to seek the social regeneration of society. The concern for social reform and human welfare became the hallmark of the overseas effort. In the words of D.G. Scanlon :

*"A religious revival, a concern for the social gospel, financial and moral support never before combined to*

*make the golden period of missionary effort."*<sup>4</sup>

Enthusiasm for missionary work resulted in the formation of different missionary societies which sent missionaries to distant lands including Southern Africa to spread the Christian Gospel among the Aborigines. The early missionaries, realizing that their work would be futile if the Xhosa people were not made to immerse themselves in the Church Catechism and understand the church hymns through their own study of them, found it expedient and logical to establish schools as an ancillary to their evangelical work. In addition to the necessity of education for conversion, there was the powerful thrust of the social gospel.

Although the first school in the Xhosa territory was opened in 1799 by Dr Van der Kemp at Ngqika's territory on the Tyhume River in the present Ciskei area, it was not until after 1820 that mission work in Transkei was pioneered mainly by the Methodist and the Anglican missionary societies. The early Methodist mission schools in Transkei were, in order of their establishment, founded at Butterworth, Clarkebury, Buntingville, Shawbury, Palmerton, Emfundisweni and Bensonvale. The early Anglican mission schools were All Saints, St John's, St Marks, St Cuthbert's and Holy Cross. Other outstanding contemporary institutions in Transkei were Blythswood whose establishment is attributed to the joint effort of the then Chief Magistrate in Transkei, Captain Blyth, and the Church of Scotland, and Mariazell which was established in East Griqualand by the (Catholic) Trappists from Marianhill in Natal. In the majority of these mission schools, the curriculum included both industrial training and the three R's and only a few concentrated on industrial training alone. Some, and most notably the Methodist mission schools did offer teacher training on a very limited scale. The beginnings of better organized teacher training facilities cannot be discussed without reference being made to Lovedale near Alice on the Tyhume River where Transkeians for a long time sent their pupils for post-elementary education.

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4. Scanlon, D.G., (Ed.), Church, State and Education in Africa, p. 5.

During the sixth of the long series of wars between the Xhosa and the White colonists in 1834, the old mission school to which reference has already been made was destroyed, but by the end of the following year a new site for the Lovedale mission was chosen about four miles to the west of the earlier one on land made available by Chief Tyhali (son of Ngqika). An elementary school was started which, by April 1839, had 139 pupils. The missionaries suggested to the Glasgow Society that a full-time educationalist should be sent out there to establish an institution for training, in the first instance, of school-masters and catechists. The Reverend William Govan, who was selected for this work, arrived in 1841. In the meanwhile the missionaries had erected buildings, two of which still stand today. This was the beginning of the well-known Lovedale institution. Pells makes an important remark that although the South African College was founded twelve years earlier than Lovedale, it is of interest that Dr Govan began training African teachers before the Colonial Government had provided such facilities for Whites at the above-mentioned College in Cape Town.<sup>5</sup> Lovedale opened with eleven Africans and nine White male students, the latter being the sons of the missionaries. Entrants were required to be at least twelve years of age and to have had some elementary education. During the seventh war in 1846, the Government ordered the missionaries to close Lovedale so that the buildings could be used as a barracks by the soldiers under the command of Colonel Hare, after whom the University College of Fort Hare founded seventy years later was named.

## 2.2 The British Colonial Government and the Preparation and Provision of Teachers

During the second half of the nineteenth century the socio-economic and political forces surrounding the Africans in the Cape tended more and more to bring them into the field of industry and to effect their transition into an industrial people. The British Government, anxious to bring the Africans under the influence of civilization and to end

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5. Pells, E.G., Three Hundred Years of Education in South Africa, p. 131.

the costly frontier wars, adopted in 1854 a scheme for 'Native education' similar to the system gradually developed in England from 1833 when the first Parliamentary grants to voluntary education societies were made. The architect of the scheme, Lieutenant-Governor Sir George Grey, explained it to the Colonial Office in Britain as follows :

*"The plan I propose to pursue ... is to attempt to gain an influence over all the tribes included between the present north-eastern boundary of this colony and Natal, by employing them upon public works, which will tend to open up their country; by establishing institutions for the education of their children, and the relief of their sick, by introducing amongst them institutions of a civil character suited to their present condition; and by these and other like means to attempt gradually to win them to civilization and Christianity, and thus to change by degrees our at present unconquered and apparently irreclaimable foes into friends who may have common interests with ourselves."*<sup>6</sup>

With the granting of representative government to the Cape in the same year, came a decision to place public money in the Aborigines Department's funds to "subsidize missionary institutions ... to train Bantu youth in industrial occupations ... (and) as interpreters, evangelists and schoolmasters..."<sup>7</sup> The system was based on methods of financial aid and consequent inspectorial control. The assistance given by the Colonial Government partly took the form of grants to various religious bodies already engaged in missionary work. Each Native Mission which received financial aid from the Government was specifically placed under the superintendence of a White missionary or any other person recognized by the Government as competent to exercise

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6. British Parliamentary Papers, Cape of Good Hope, July 1855. Despatch from the Governor, Sir George Grey to the Colonial Secretary dated from Cape Town, 22nd November, 1854, p. 38.

7. Behr, A.L., and R.G. MacMillan, Education in South Africa, p. 378.

sufficient control. The object of the grant was to give instruction in the ordinary mission school in the elements of speaking, reading and writing the English language, and in simple arithmetic and in other elementary subjects including manual training up to a stage corresponding to Standard III. In respect of teacher training, the Government undertook to assist in the training of 'Native' teachers on the lines of the syllabuses specified. The teacher training course prescribed by the Government provided for professional training, instruction in English and in other elementary subjects up to a stage corresponding to Standard VI and instruction sufficient to enable the teacher to teach at least one industrial subject. Other conditions which applied were that the Superintendent-General of Education claimed the right to inspect all the mission schools and to call for returns; pupils of any denomination had to be admitted and religious instruction previously given during school hours had to be confined to the Scripture lessons; the English language had to be taught and, where practicable, used as the medium of instruction. Lovedale continued to train a small educated class from which teachers could be selected and these teachers received salary grants according to their qualifications. In 1855, Healdtown, near Fort Beaufort, was opened as a teacher training institution with 95 scholars some of whom came from as far afield as Transkei. With the growth of Government expenditure on African education, there was a corresponding increase of State control of mission schools.

As a result of a recommendation by the Cape Education Commission, the Superintendent-General of Education took full responsibility for the Aborigines Department's funds in 1863 and, in that year Langham Dale, the Superintendent-General, visited the Eastern Cape to report on the educational work being done. Dale was impressed by the progress being made but reported that the standard of secular education provided at most of the state-aided mission schools then in existence was a very low one: few of the teachers had passed even Standard IV; at outstations unqualified African assistants were in charge of the so-called schools, with the nearest missionary some days' journey away; no school books were available in the African languages. Dale went on to propose a series of grants to schools which would encourage the teaching of

needlework to girls and carpentry, shoemaking and printing to boys and, which could also create blacksmiths, gardeners and domestic servants.<sup>8</sup> In spite of this rather gloomy picture, Pells points out that Lovedale was nonetheless still the centre of hope :

*"Lovedale was now producing about forty Native teachers a year, and the other institutions a dozen or more between them. These teachers had passed Standard IV and had then learned a little more Arithmetic, English, Geography ... This gave them the elementary teachers' third-class certificates. None of these teachers could teach any handwork."*<sup>9</sup>

When Dale made another tour of inspection in 1868 he noted a number of problems which were to recur throughout the development of African education namely, lack of employment opportunities after training, irregular support for education from tribal society, denominational rivalries and the disintegrative effects that education can have on tribal mores. Reporting on denominational rivalries in so far as it especially affected the preparation and provision of teachers, Dale pointed out that "The ministers of religion are apt to regard education from a narrow and exclusively religious point of view, so that the training of children for the occupations of practical life is made in many cases subordinate to that instruction in the catechism, and other tenets and services of religious bodies, which is likely to influence them in after life and keep them within the pale of their church. Teachers are too often selected for their usefulness as religious agents, without due regard to their aptness for school-keeping."<sup>10</sup> Dale then went on to make the following recommendations :

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8. Rose, B., and R. Tunmer, (Eds.), Documents in South African Education, p. 207.

9. Pells, E.G., op cit., p. 134.

10. Cape of Good Hope, Appendix I to Votes and Proceedings of Parliament for 1869. Report of an inspection of schools in the Middle and Eastern Districts by the Superintendent General of Education during the months of March, April, May and June, 1869, (G. 31-69), pp. 3-6.

"I am inclined to discourage the special preparation of a few Native lads here and there, at a great expense, and to assist only in the training of sufficient number of Native teachers to occupy the various school-stations at the kraals. Native lads have been well educated, and have completed their course in England, and, on returning to this Colony, have found no sphere or occupation but that of teachers, at a salary of about £40 per annum. This is distasteful to most of them: a long period of comparatively easy and refined life at school and at colleges had led them to expect something better. To the educated Kaffir there is no opening;... To give a high education to Kaffir boys, and then to leave them isolated from their own people in thoughts and habits, and to some extent in language, and without any prospect of useful and settled occupation in another sphere of labour, is only to increase the existing temptations of the so-called schooled Kaffir to fall into the vices of the low Europeans with whom they are brought into contact. We require Native teachers without that over-refinement which elevates the individual too much above his fellows. There is considerable repugnance on the part of heathen Kaffirs to send their children to school. Besides feeling that school instruction weakens the hold which native customs and superstitions have over the mind, the Kaffirs say that they are very well content as they are ...; they wish their children to be as themselves."<sup>11</sup>

It is evident therefore that to Dale, since teaching was the only opening for African education, all the education of the Africans had to aim at preparing and fitting them as teachers in their own communities and, what is more, such education had to be very simple so as not to alienate the Africans from their tribal values and customs.

Dale's insistence on the provision of simple education for the Africans can again be noted in his last report as Superintendent-General of

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11. Loc. cit.

Education in 1891 after his final visit to the Eastern Cape and shortly before his retirement at the end of that year. Also, in this report, Dale placed his plea for a slow but determined and steady development of African education against his concern that education without concomitant development of other aspects of society could be a disintegrative instead of a constructive force :

*"It has not been the practice of this Department to force on the instruction of the Aborigines, but rather to wait for the spontaneous action of the people ... If I could produce 60 000 educated Tembus or Fingoes tomorrow, what would you do with them?; their education must be gradual; ... the schools are hostages for peace, and if, for that reason only, £12 000 a year is given to the schools in the Transkei, Tembuland and Griqualand, the amount is well spent ... What the Department wants is to make all the principal day-schools places of manual industry, as well as of book-instruction ..."*<sup>12</sup>

The emphasis on industrial education for Africans persisted with greater momentum even after Dale's retirement for in his verbal evidence to the Commission of Inquiry into Specific Problems of Education in the Cape, the historian, G.M. Theal had this to say in 1892 :

*"If the natives are to be taught at all, they should be taught industry. I do not see much use in teaching the natives to read and write without you teaching them to make use of their hands as well. Industrial instruction should form the most important part ... Practically it seems to me there is a very large number of natives on the frontier who attend these mission schools and are taught to read and write, and they become really unfit for other work, and that*

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12. Cape of Good Hope, Appendix I, Vol. III to Votes and Proceedings of Parliament for 1892, Report of the Superintendent-General of Education for the year 1891 (G. 9-92), pp. 11-12.

*class of person is increasing, and they are doing no good to themselves and no good to the country."*<sup>13</sup>

To remedy the situation, evidence was submitted to the Commissioner that :

*"The Missionary might be aided to meet the expense of an Agricultural Teacher; this teacher might be a trained native agricultural labourer ...; the principal institutions might provide teachers, who may, in addition to other qualifications, be qualified to teach at least the elements of agriculture. One of the principal subjects for the teachers' examinations should be the use of the spade ..."*<sup>14</sup>

In the final report, the Commissioner followed the opinions of the witnesses and recommended an education system almost entirely vocational in nature for some but not all Africans and added that :

*"One institution of the nature of a normal industrial training school for teachers ought to be undertaken by the Government. In such an institution, what is sometimes spoken of as the 'Europeanizing' of the teachers and scholars, ought not to be the paramount aim for the present at least. A new branch of the teachers' art has to be discovered; and the Government normal training school should try to make the discovery."*<sup>15</sup>

The temptation to compare the preceding views with the modern trends of thoughts in African education, not only in Transkei and in South Africa, but in other parts of the Continent as well, is irresistible. These were most succinctly summarized by A.R. Thompson when writing in Tanzania in 1968 :

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13. Cape of Good Hope, Third and final report of a commission appointed to enquire into and report upon certain matters connected with educational systems of the Colony, 1892. (G.3-92) - Evidence of G.M. Theal, pp. 31, 32 and 36.
  14. Ibid. p. 92.
  15. Ibid. pp. 32-34.

*"The educational system of Tanzania is under fire. The school system, it is argued, is an alien thing torn from a European environment and set down in a society to which it is unrelated. The curriculum is criticized as bookish, oriented towards higher levels of education which are beyond the reach of the majority of pupils, divorced from the life of the local and national communities and failing to prepare the school child for life within them ... The schools encourage a selfish individualism foreign to the traditional African society and at variance with the socialist principles of the new society now in its birth throes. Education, it is said, ... continues to encourage a white-collar mentality and a contempt for manual labour; it is responsible for a profound cleavage between the educated 'elite' and the masses; it has failed to stop ... the loosening of moral standards and the decay of traditional society."*<sup>16</sup>

The fervent revival today of the trends of thought in African education, and in the preparation and provision of teachers in particular, which were prevalent during the second half of the nineteenth century can be seen to appear more glaringly in the following statement by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco) in 1980 :

*"The education system ... has been based on the systems of the advanced countries, without any reference to local conditions; as a dispenser of book-learning, it has done nothing to prepare the young for the real working world but has accelerated the drift from the countryside to the towns, where, no longer productive, they have often found nothing but unemployment, slums and delinquency ... In its present form, education communicates a bookish knowledge,*

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16. Thompson, A.R., "Ideas Underlying British Colonial Education Policy in Tanganyika," in I.N. Resnick, (Ed.), Tanzania : Revolution by Education, p. 15.

very often unrelated to surrounding realities so that the children lose interest and learn by rote, mechanically; what little they learn alienates them from their environment rather than attaching them to it. If the school is to become a source of culture and development, it must develop capacities of thought, action and creativity, relying for this purpose not only on the teacher - whose training will have to be remodelled accordingly - but on all development agents (agricultural extension workers, health workers, industrial technicians, craftsmen), as well as having recourse also to all local 'specialists' (crop and livestock farmers, fisherman, carpenters, masons, carpet weavers and potters). Obviously, it will also make use of books and other forms of documentation, the press, radio and television ... The teacher will remain the keystone of education. It must be acknowledged that, invested as he is with the aura of authority, the teacher exercises a considerable influence on the children at a particularly impressionable age. To place his authority on a sounder footing and to make his day-to-day life more agreeable, the teacher may, like any other villager, have his own plot of land, a few domestic animals or chickens ...; he should be able to draw on the community itself, using the facts of its existence as material for his teaching. In the classroom, he will prepare his pupils for their future life as citizens and workers. Together with them, he will explore the local area and region, rounding out his teaching with elements of local geography, economics, industry and agriculture. The development plan, the administration and its organization, the environment itself (climate, geology, nature of the soil, vegetation) crafts, traditional and modern patterns of agriculture, customs, language, etc., will also contribute to his lessons."<sup>17</sup>

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17. Unesco, Education in a Rural Environment-2. pp. 17-25.

Coming back to the development of teacher education for Africans in the Cape during the British Colonial era, what may perhaps be regarded as the zenith in the development of African education and of teacher education facilities in particular during the period under review came in 1905 when the South African Native Affairs Commission, which had been appointed in 1903 " ... to gather accurate information on certain affairs relating to the Natives and Native Administration and to offer recommendations ... with the object of arriving at a common understanding on questions of native policy in view of the coming Federation of South African Colonies,"<sup>18</sup> reported, amongst others, that :

*"The Commission is impressed with advisability of establishing some central institution or Native college which would receive Native students from them all. The immediate advantages of such a scheme appear to be, the creation of adequate means for the efficient and uniform training of an increased number of Native teachers, and the provision of a course of study in this country for such Native students as may desire to present themselves for the Higher School and University Examinations."*<sup>19</sup>

The first principal of the College, Alexander Kerr, has this to say about the College which in fact came into existence in 1916 :

*"Before the Union in 1910 it was proposed to name it 'The Inter-State Native College', as serving the four colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal, and Natal. By force of circumstances the foundation of the College was delayed until the political union of these colonies had been consummated. When in 1915 the Union Government agreed to recognize and subsidize the College it was re-named 'The South African Native College', and when, in 1952, it became affiliated to Rhodes*

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18. Cf. Rose, B., and R. Tunmer, op. cit., p. 222.

19. Report of the South African African Native Affairs Commission, 1905, p. 73.

*University it was again re-named 'The University College of Fort Hare'. In 1966 it celebrated fifty years of active teaching service."*<sup>20</sup>

Since the College was in actual fact established after the Union, it will be most appropriate to examine its academic activities especially in relation to the preparation and provision of teachers in the next and the subsequent chapters.

The final official report on African education during the first decade of the twentieth century and on the eve of the Union was by the Superintendent-General of Education Sir Thomas Muir in 1906. He stated in his report that the supply of teachers for the African schools was most inadequate; he deprecated denominational rivalry in the establishment of mission schools; the attendance at the schools was hopelessly poor and in the majority of cases the kind of education provided continued to be bookish and impractical; some teachers used English as the medium of instruction as early as possible, but many African members of staff were not qualified to teach in this language.<sup>21</sup> On the issue of the medium of instruction, the then principal of Lovedale, the Reverend James Henderson, was of the opinion that whereas a knowledge of English was essential, until it was well understood it should not be used as the medium of instruction in subjects having an educational value of their own or intended to develop the reasoning power of the pupils; otherwise, the children acquired mere words and phrases instead of ideas.<sup>22</sup>

What was the position at Lovedale? By this time, a department of higher education had been started at Lovedale and, there were eleven Africans who held Teachers' certificates but wanted further training in the high school department.<sup>23</sup> However, apart from the higher

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20. Kerr, A., Fort Hare, 1915-48. The Evolution of an African College, p. ix.

21. Cf. Shepherd, R.H.W., Lovedale, South Africa, 1841-1941, pp. pp. 294-296.

22. Cf. Horrell, Muriel, African Education. Some Origins, and Development until 1953, p. 14.

23. Pells, E.G., *op cit.*, pp. 134-136.

department at Lovedale, the only post-elementary course open to the Africans during the first decade of the twentieth century, there were the teacher-training courses at the various African institutions of education. During these years the entrance qualification for the teachers' course in the Cape had been gradually raised to Standard V in 1899, and to Standard VI in 1906.<sup>24</sup>

To sum up the developments in African education and in teacher education in particular during the period under review, it must be conceded that at the time of the Union in 1910, considerable progress had been made. Pells reports that "... there were 770 schools with an enrolment of 45 000 while 920 students were training as teachers ..."<sup>25</sup> Admittedly, there were many faults in the system but, besides the elementary schools, to which these weaknesses applied, a few numbers of excellent institutions had been founded in Transkei and some of these, namely, Blythwood, St John's College, Bensonvale, Clarkebury and Shawbury later developed into prominent institutions for the preparation and provision of teachers in the territory.

### 2.3 Towards the Complete Secularization and Co-ordination of Teacher Education Provisions (1910-1948).

The development of African education during the period under review progressed at a very slow rate but towards the full secularization and co-ordination of educational provisions in the post 1935 period. There was on the part of the Union Government and many members of the White community in South Africa fear of competition with the Africans in the labour market, both rural and urban. A series of Acts, all limiting the advancement of Africans, were therefore passed during this period. These were, amongst others, the Apprenticeship Act of 1922, the Native Urban Areas Act of 1923 and the Mines and Works Amendment Act of 1926, (the 'Colour Bar Act'). Also, as an indication that the Union Government was little concerned about African education, by the Union Act of 1910,<sup>26</sup> the control of matters affecting the Africans,

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24. Loc. cit.

25. Loc. cit.

26. Cf. Whollheim, O.D., "Crisis in Native Education" in Race Relations Journal, Vol. 10 No. 2, 1943.

except for education, was placed in the hands of the Minister of Native Affairs while African education itself was placed under the control of the Provincial Councils. The various Councils had each their own different systems of African taxation, differing materially from those of the others. As a result of this, there were serious anomalies, and education progressed at greatly differing rates in the four Provinces until 1922. A paragraph in the Act of Union declared in the most explicit terms that the Provinces would be responsible for the control and financing of African education.<sup>27</sup>

The control and administration of African education by the Provincial Councils continued to involve prescription of courses of instruction, conducting of examinations, determination of the conditions of service of teachers, exercising general supervision and control and laying down the minimum requirements with regard to buildings and equipment.

The missions continued as before to provide and maintain suitable buildings, provide a minimum of equipment, nominate a manager or superintendent who exercised local control and, to nominate and appoint teachers subject to approval by the Provincial Education Department.

A well-founded mission institution might comprise, in addition to the teacher training college, one or more of the following schools: primary, secondary and industrial schools. The popular teacher training course of study that was being pursued by the various African institutions was the 3rd Year Teachers' Course which was based upon the completion of Standard VI in the primary school. During the three years combined additional instruction in the three R's was given in addition to elementary professional training.

The birth of the University College of Fort Hare, then known as the South African Native College, at Alice in the Ciskei, near Lovedale, in 1916, was a milestone in the development of African education and of the system of teacher training in particular. It is indeed

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27. Republic of South Africa Act 1909. Section one.

interesting to note that on the occasion of the opening of the new institution the then Prime Minister of the Union, General Botha, reported that, "The Natives of certain districts of the Transkeian Territories were in a position to take united action, and through the Transkeian Territories General Council contributed the substantial sum of R20 000"<sup>28</sup> towards the founding of the College. It was decided that for a limited period a senior high school course would be offered at the College but that as soon as there were enough matriculated Africans university courses would be introduced.

In 1920, all primary education for Africans in the Cape was made free and shortly afterwards the Cape Provincial Government assumed responsibility for the full salaries of all approved teachers in the aided mission schools. Two years later, new teacher training courses were introduced following the adoption in the same year of a new differentiated primary school course for African schools. This new course, which embodied the recommendations made by the 1908 Select Committee on Native Education, made the teaching of the vernacular compulsory in all primary classes. It also laid down that hygiene, handwork, and where possible gardening and elementary agriculture for boys, and housecraft and needlework for girls be taught. The home language was to be the medium of instruction in the early stages, but an official language had to become the medium as soon as pupils were able to benefit from instruction in that language. The latter, however, had far-reaching implications for teacher training for it was introduced at a time when, against the acute shortage of qualified African teachers, there was a rapid increase in African primary school pupil population. Also, the introduction of mother-tongue instruction was likely to have an adverse effect on the policy that had hitherto been adopted even at the early stages of primary school course namely, use of recruited European teachers. Reference has been made to the introduction in the same year of new teacher training courses. These were a three-year Lower Primary Teachers' Course and a two-year Higher Primary Teachers' Course. The admission requirements to the Lower Primary Teachers' Course was the possession of a

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28. Cf. Kerr, A., Fort Hare 1915-48. The Evolution of an African College. pp. 25-26.

Standard VI certificate, and to the Higher Primary Teachers' Course the entrance qualification was a Standard VIII or Junior Certificate. This step helped to ensure that the standard at the primary school was kept high. It is worth noting that this level of entry is today rejected as being too low. The curriculum for both courses included the study of academic subjects and of such professional subjects as principles of education, educational psychology and method.

A significant break towards the development of secondary education for Africans was also made in 1922 when for the first time facilities were provided at the South African Native College for the training of African teachers for secondary schools. The course, for which the entrance requirement was matriculation, extended over two years and the courses of study included principles, history and psychology of education, elementary biology, physiology, hygiene, methods of teaching and school organization. Also, in the same College a curriculum towards a post-graduate Teachers' University Diploma was arranged and this included professional training courses which proceeded concurrently with degree studies. The opportunities for actual practice in teaching during the period when theoretical instruction was being given were found in those schools within easy reach of the College and in the adjacent High School at Lovedale. Some of Alexander Kerr's personal experiences in the training of teachers while he was principal of the College merit attention because they illustrate clearly the humble beginnings of teacher training facilities for Africans. He reports that :

*"As at that time the number of students taking the course (the Secondary Teachers' Diploma) was small and the distance to the nearest village school time-consuming, I packed the half-dozen or so into my Ford car and spent the best part of one morning a week watching them dealing with the problems of the village teacher, problems which were formidable enough because of the simplicity, indeed poverty, of the accommodation and furnishing. The school building, like most of the type, was an erection of wattle and daub, a one-roomed structure used as a church on Sunday and as a*

*school during the week. Until we ourselves supplied some furniture, its seating accommodation was of the crudest. Its single blackboard rested insecurely upon an easel. Its limewashed walls were bare except, perhaps, for a picture advertisement of some cigarette or tobacco. There was no locked cupboard, but the teacher had the use of a table with a drawer in which he kept the register. There was also one chair."*<sup>29</sup>

Humble were thus the beginnings of teacher training facilities for Africans but, it is not claiming too much to say that, although the College students so trained were employed as teachers mainly in the upper classes of the primary schools and the lower classes of the secondary, the rapid development of secondary education in the African schools after 1923 and the establishment of day-secondary schools in the rural areas some years later would hardly have been possible had it not been for the increasing recruitment of such teachers. A case in point was the establishment in 1940 of the first day-secondary school on an experimental basis at Nqabarha in the district of Willowvale in Transkei with Mr N. Honono, BA, as the first African principal of a secondary school in the whole of the Cape Province. The resounding success of the experiment induced the Cape Education Department to circularize all Inspectors in both Transkei and Ciskei, asking them to consider centres at which day-secondary schools might be started and, in so doing, to look for places where there were a number of Standard VI schools within easy reach of the centre.

Another development of significance, and the one which accorded the Africans some minimum of participation in their system of teacher preparation and provision, was the appointment in 1924 in each of the four Provinces of a staff of African Supervisors of Schools, a type of itinerant headmaster, whose functions were to assist at school inspections, and to help in improving the methods of teaching in the primary schools.

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29. Ibid. p. 106.

The promulgation of the Union Acts of 1922<sup>30</sup> and 1925<sup>31</sup> respectively marked the birth of a new era in the development of African education. By these two Acts, the taxation of the Africans was changed from a Provincial to a Union matter, and the provision of funds for African education became entirely the responsibility of the Central Government. Although the administration of African education still remained with the Provinces, it was evident that the Union Government could no longer afford to delegate its responsibility for African education entirely to the Provinces and the missionaries. The step further pointed to full participation in future by the Union Government in the control and administration of African education because with the increase in expenditure there was of necessity going to follow increased measure of control and administration of African education. One important factor which induced the change of attitude on the part of the Union Government was by then observable gradual integration politically, socially and economically of the Africans within the structure of a united South Africa. The trend was soon followed, in the educational field, not only by Government's expenditure, but also, much later, by the development by central authorities of curricula, modification and improvement of teacher qualifications, an expanding system of inspection and teacher guidance, and tentative efforts towards the establishment of State schools. Although gradual evolution of formal education from missionary educational provisions to complete secular education had been the general trend in the development of many systems of education in the world, the greatest defect in the evolution of Transkei education system so far was, as with all the education systems of the former colonial countries in Africa, the total exclusion of the Africans from what in fact was their inalienable right namely, full participation in decision-making regarding the education of their children.

The remaining period (1926-1948) was marked by the general maintenance of the *status quo* in African education and in the system of teacher training. Uncertainty of aims was seen by the Inter-Departmental

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30. Union of South Africa, Act No. 5 of 1922, Financial relations fourth extension act, Sections 1 and 4.

31. Union of South Africa, Act No. 41 of 1925, Taxation of natives. Section 4.

Committee,<sup>32</sup> which was appointed in 1935 to examine and report on the system of "Native education" of the Provinces, as one of the reasons why there was no further advance in African education. The difficulty in determining what the aims of African education should be was, according to the Inter-Departmental Committee, due to the complexity of the issues involved: it was as much a political and economic problem as it was a cultural one. The difficulty was due to uncertainty in regard to what place the Africans were to occupy in the political and socio-economic structure of the Union of South Africa as it then still was. Secondly, there were the difficulties arising from the cultural background of the Africans and the fact of the irresistible acculturative process. It must be noted, however, that educational aims, once they are clearly formulated and defined, prescribe to a very large extent the qualifications and traits which are desirable and necessary for a teacher who must realize them in practice and, an education system without clearly defined aims must of necessity flounder because of the consequent haphazard and *laissez faire* policy regarding the preparation and provision of teachers who are expected to serve that system. It was indeed from this point of view that the Inter-Departmental Committee declared :

*"The best school organization and syllabuses are so many dead bones unless they are quickened by the life-giving breath of the inspiring teacher. The selection and training of teachers is, therefore, the foundation stone of the whole system and should receive first consideration in any scheme of reform."*<sup>33</sup>

During the period under review African education was purely a matter of joint control by the provinces and the Union Department of Native Affairs. The Provincial Education Departments administered the funds available for the maintenance and expansion of schools. The legislative authority controlling the schools was the Provincial Council of the province concerned. The policy pursued was, except

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32. Union of South Africa, Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Native Education, 1935-1936 U.G. 29/1936. pp. 105-108, 57-60

33. Loc. cit.

in so far as finance played a role, formulated and carried out by each province with little or no consultation. At local levels, however, the control and administration of education still remained virtually in the hands of the missionaries who, amongst others, nominated and appointed teachers subject to approval by the Education Department of the province concerned. African education was, therefore, a task undertaken by three partners: the missionaries, the Provincial Government and the Department of Native Affairs of the Union Government. The Minister of Native Affairs advised by the Native Affairs Commission, decided how much money would be made available to each province, and the total amount was determined by the amounts paid into the Native Development Fund which was set up in 1935 and to which was paid annually a percentage of direct taxation paid by the Africans together with a fixed sum of R680 000.<sup>34</sup>

Amongst the few events which occurred during this period, mention must be made of the adjustment of teachers' salaries. The salaries of teachers had been for many years extremely low and there were many anomalies. To remedy this urgent matter, the Native Affairs Commission laid down a salary scale for primary teachers in all provinces in 1928. Owing to lack of funds, this salary scale was applied only in so far as the initial salary for each grade of teacher was concerned. No annual increments could be paid, but in 1932 an increment of R6.00 for each five years service was allotted. These scales were never fully implemented, and it was not until 1946 that new scales were introduced. The Native Affairs Commission also introduced during this time salary scales for European and African teachers in the post-primary schools. Also, as matter of conditions of service for teachers, boarding and lodging for teachers was free or at a nominal cost in the State-aided mission schools while in the pure Government schools the teacher was expected to provide for himself and cost of living allowances were paid. Another event, and one that was later going to lead to a serious controversy first in the whole of South Africa and, secondly, and much later, in Transkei was the

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34. Horrell, M., African Education. Some Origins and Development Until 1953. pp. 27 and 31-32.

introduction in 1933 of Afrikaans in the African institutions for teacher training on the explicit instructions of the Minister of Native Affairs.

The expansion of African education was, however, not completely halted for Dr Wollheim<sup>35</sup> reported that during the years 1925 to 1935 the enrolment of African pupils increased by nearly 75 percent. Against this rapid increase of school-going pupil population, there was an acute shortage of qualified teaching personnel. By 1935, there were 30 percent of African teachers in the Union who were not in possession of any professional qualification. In the Union as a whole, only 56 percent of the teachers were males. There were also a number of white teachers employed in African schools. By 1943, the situation had not changed for in that year Dr Wollheim reported :

*"The salaries paid to teachers are ... appalling ... The teachers are seriously overloaded, and one teacher will occasionally be found to be teaching from eighty to a hundred pupils in two or three different standards all in the same room."*<sup>36</sup>

Reference has already been made to the Inter-Departmental Committee which was appointed in 1935 to examine and report on the systems of Native education of the Provinces and to make recommendations in regard to the future. The appointment of the Committee was brought about by no other factor than the gloomy picture outlined in the preceding paragraph. In its report which it submitted the following year, the Committee recommended increased Government aid to the Mission Societies and the retention of the direct influence of the missionaries in a South African system of African education. It further recommended that African education be transferred from the control of the Provincial Councils to that of the Union Government and that the administration and financing of African education be dissociated from the Native Affairs Department and the Native Affairs

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35. Wollheim, O.D., Loc. cit.

36. Loc. cit.

Commission and be placed under the Union Education Department. No action was taken, however, until 1945 when by Act No. 29 of 1945 the control of financing of African education passed to the Union Department of Education advised by the Union Advisory Board. Apart from its financial aspects, which involved the appropriation, with the approval of the Minister and the Advisory Board, of funds for African education from the newly established Consolidated Revenue Fund, this change made very little difference to the administration and conduct of African education. As before, the Provincial Councils remained the legislative authorities in their respective provinces. During the brief period between 1946 and 1948, the Board fixed with the approval of the Minister, salary scales for primary and secondary teachers throughout the Union. But, in essence, the control of and responsibility for African schools including the preparation and provision of teachers had not substantially changed since before Union although forces, mostly financial in nature, had been at work and had tended towards an increased measure of Central control.

By the end of the period under review there were in the Cape, including Transkei, five different types of teacher training programmes, namely :

- (a) A two-year course leading to the Primary Higher Certificate, to which the entrance qualification was the Junior Certificate or Standard VIII or equivalent.
- (b) A three-year course leading to the Primary Higher Certificate, to which the entrance qualification was the Junior Certificate or Standard VIII or equivalent.
- (c) A one-year course leading to the Infant Teachers' Certificate, to which the entrance qualification was the Native Primary Lower (N.P.L.) Certificate or equivalent.
- (d) Programmes of different types leading to the Specialized Teachers' Certificate in such areas as Physical Science for men, Post-Matriculation Domestic Science, Housecraft, Woodwork and Agriculture.

- (e) A two-year diploma course at the South African Native College, Fort Hare, to which the entrance qualification was matriculation and, at the end of which a Secondary Teachers' Certificate was issued.

Thus it was to be noted that a discernible move toward central control was evident before the significant developments of 1948 which are dealt with in the following chapter.

### CHAPTER THREE

#### THE BANTU EDUCATION ERA : THEORY AND PRACTICE IN TEACHER EDUCATION (1949-1963)

##### 1 The Rise of the Nationalist Party and the Philosophy Underlying its Policy of Separate Development

So violent in nature and revolutionary in scope were the Post-War events in Europe and in the Colonial World that they transformed the whole socio-economic and political sense. The changes which dominated the scene were decolonization and the moves to abolish all forms of imperialism in Africa. In South Africa, the trend led to the rise of nationalizing movements in the field of politics. New political movements wrestled with questions of the future position of Africans in the political and socio-economic structure of South Africa. At the helm of the struggle there was the Afrikaner nation whose aspirations for political power developed in them, according to John Martell, a firm idea of White racial superiority in South Africa and, hence, led them to "... adopt an even sterner approach towards Blacks. Their idea of White superiority was sustained both by a close awareness of their historic struggle to establish themselves in South Africa and by the teachings of the Dutch Reformed Church, of which most Afrikaners were loyal members."<sup>1</sup> The historic struggle of the Afrikaner nation which in reality involves the difficulties in Afrikaner-British relations in South Africa dates back to the earliest years of White settlement on the southern shores of Africa. However, it was the Afrikaner loss of the War (the Anglo-Boer War, 1899-1902) and the subsequent humiliation which the Afrikaners suffered at the hands of the British-dominated government which really alienated them. What was in fact felt by the Afrikaners to be the greatest humiliation was the attempt by the British to force their own culture and language on the Afrikaners. The Afrikaner culture, traditions and Afrikaans language were all discouraged by the British. The Afrikaners also felt dissatisfied with the then dominant political party, the South

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1. Martell, J., (Editor), The Twentieth Century World. p. 325.

Africa party, which appeared not to be advancing real Afrikaner interests in spite of the fact that its leaders, Botha (1910-1919) and Smuts (1919-1924), were both men of Afrikaner origin. Even Hertzog's National party, to which Afrikaner support was given, proved a disappointment when it ultimately assumed power in 1924. In 1932, a secret society, the Afrikaner Broederbond, came into existence and aimed eventually at achieving control of the government of South Africa. The society gave much encouragement to the development of the Afrikaner way of life and, it was also responsible for the founding of a new political party, the Afrikaner Nationalist party, to take the place of Hertzog's National party with which many Afrikaners were disillusioned.<sup>2</sup>

The general election of May 1948 was crucial for South Africa's history. There arose triumphantly at the polls the Afrikaner Nationalist party under the skilful direction of Dr D.F. Malan who subsequently became Prime Minister. The Afrikaners in South Africa had at last fully triumphed over the British. The Nationalist party did not intend to lose the power which it had secured, neither to an opposition party nor to any form of majority rule which would include the Africans. Against these internal dangers and regardless of the increasing hostility of world opinion, the Nationalist party adopted and held firmly to the policy of separate development, also termed apartheid, as opposed to racial integration. This policy, which was introduced in order to separate Africans and Whites in every sphere of life and to maintain White dominance over the Africans, was to be implemented in all fields of human activity in South Africa. The policy, it was claimed, would allow and encourage the fullest development of each population group in the country. In his statement of the policy, Dr H.F. Verwoerd, who was Prime Minister from 1958 to 1966, referred to it as the "policy of good neighbourliness"<sup>3</sup> the ultimate aim of which was the creation of separate zones in South Africa for the Whites and the different African ethnic groups. Transkei, whose inhabitants comprised very largely the Xhosa-speaking group of the South African population, took the lead in

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2. Cf. Martell, J., op cit., pp. 324-325.

3. Loc. cit.

this direction when in 1963 she was zoned and declared a self-governing territory under the direct administration of the Africans. On 26 October 1976, the territory was granted full independence. Of those territories in South Africa which gained self-government after Transkei, three namely, Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei and Qwaqwa have hitherto attained full independence.

Undisputedly evident in the foregoing is the fact that the Afrikaners adopted and applied the policy of separate development to further their ideological motives. Apartheid was seen by the Nationalist party as being the only strategic device to keep the Afrikaners in the position of power and authority over all other population groups in South Africa. Viewed from that perspective, it was a policy without a philosophical base or justification. The Afrikaner, on the other side, could claim that his policy was grounded in the fundamental beliefs characteristic of Afrikaner philosophy of life. The following statement by G.A. Rauche confirms this view :

*"But what is of interest to us is that, even as the new Prussia built itself a truth in the form of Hegel's philosophy, the Afrikaner nation constructed itself a truth in a religious form. But if we pause to think that Hegel's philosophy was really a rationalized theology and that his absolute reason is grounded in the Christian religion as well, then we realize a similarity between Hegel's truth and the religious truth of the Afrikaner. Today the Afrikaner no longer merely posits his truth against the other truths that constitute South African actuality, that is, Africans and other non-European sections as well as the English-speaking section, but he has now arrived at the stage of consolidating his truth, that is, of applying it to the other sections ... What is the truth of the Afrikaner like? It is firmly rooted in Calvin's theology and its foundation is the will and the law of God ...; but while Hegel rationalizes Christianity, Calvin christianizes the world and reason. Hegel starts with highest reason of which man is a part*

*... Calvin begins with the absolutely free will of God, Who created the world and man ... In other words, while Hegel starts from a rational a priori, Calvin starts from a religious a priori as he finds it in the Bible. Both, however, have their ground entirely in God and have to be- have according to His will and His law."*<sup>4</sup>

The Afrikaner's view of the world and man is summed up by Van der Merwe as follows :

*"God created the entire reality and subjected it to His Laws. Although creation has been 'broken' by man's fall into sin, its structure has not been affected - even though many events take place in transgression of these divine norms. With His regenerative death of atonement, Christ did not substitute this structure with another but opened the way for the restoration of the original harmony within the same structure."*<sup>5</sup>

On the ground of this religious *a priori* underlying his philosophy, the Afrikaner considers his truth as being absolute and, as such, his policy of separate development as having evolved only through God's will. In this regard Rauche has this to say :

*"It was the duty of the Afrikaner, whom God's will had led to this country, to teach the heathen the law of God ... The measures of the government as regards the African spring from a high sense of responsibility and are inspired by the idea of trusteeship which, we believe, has its origin in the deep religious conviction of the Afrikaner."*<sup>6</sup>

The same idea is, however, expressed with even greater conviction by Keet who claims that they, as the Afrikaner nation, see White

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4. Rauche, G.A., The Philosophy of Actuality. pp. 157-158.

5. Van der Merwe, B. de V., Pedagogics as Science. Fort Hare Papers. Volume 5. November 1972. Number 5. p. 361.

6. Rauche, G.A., *op cit.*, p. 159.

domination in South Africa, which can only be secured through the policy of separate development, as the only precondition for the fulfilment of their calling :

*"We are guardians of the non-whites ... We must protect them against dangers ... We must promote their interests ... The fulfilment of our calling is therefore dependent on our survival as a White nation in this country, and for that Apartheid or development along one's own lines is necessary."*<sup>7</sup>

What is more, Rauche has been able to provide a religious justification for the political independence envisaged by the Nationalist government for the different population groups in South Africa :

*"... the authority with which God has endowed the Afrikaner in order to lead the African to Him is a temporary authority which diminishes in proportion to his (the African) coming of age."*<sup>8</sup>

It has, however, been repeatedly stressed by both the Nationalist government and the leaders of the already independent territories in South Africa that such political and economic independence must not be taken to imply complete isolation but, on the contrary, it implies continued maintenance of the principles of peaceful co-existence, interdependence and co-operation amongst them.

Although the Nationalist Government continued for many years to adopt an extremely rigid pursuit of its policy of separate development in spite of the growing internal opposition especially from those who suffer most from it namely, the Africans, as well as external opposition from the member states of such international organizations as the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and the United Nations Organization (UNO), some minimal concessions have lately been made and, it seems that some more are still likely to come about in future.

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7. Keet, B.B., Whither South Africa? p. 20.

8. Rauche, G.A., op cit., p. 162.

Nothing bears better testimony to this than the insistence by the State President, P.W. Botha, on 'power-sharing' in spite of the fiery opposition from some of the leading Afrikaner Nationalists.

## 2 The Application of Apartheid to Education with Special Reference to the Evolution, Theory and Practice of Bantu Education System

### 2.1 The Evolution and Theory of Bantu Education System

The Nationalist Government, soon after it had taken office, set up in January 1949 a Commission on Native Education under the chairmanship of Dr W.W.M. Eiselen with the following as its terms of reference :

- "(a) *The formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under ever-changing conditions are taken into consideration.*
- (b) *The extent to which the existing primary, secondary and vocational education system for Natives and the training of Native teachers should be modified in respect of the content and form of syllabuses in order to conform to the proposed principles and aims, and to prepare Natives more effectively for their future occupations.*
- (c) *The organization and administration of the various branches of Native Education.*
- (d) *The basis on which such education should be financed.*"<sup>9</sup>

The Commission submitted its report in 1951, and it proved to be one of the most important and controversial documents on education ever to

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9. Union of South Africa. Report of the Commission on Native Education. 1949-1951. U.G. No. 53/1951. Chapter 1. p. 7.

produced in South Africa. The report was very comprehensive and divided into three main parts: an outline of the prevailing system of education for Africans, a critical appraisal thereof and, proposals and recommendations. In the main, the weaknesses which the Commission found in the prevailing system of education were as follows: the educational programme was not part of a socio-economic development; there was no active participation of the Africans in its control; inspection and supervision of schools were inadequate; the school life of the pupil was too short; the general orientation of the schooling was too academic; teachers were not sufficiently involved in the broader planning of general development schemes for the Africans.<sup>10</sup> The Commission further presented a detailed criticism of all prevailing particular schools and of these the teacher training institutions merit special attention.

The preparation and provision of teachers was split into a bewildering number of different agencies and was not planned. At least fifteen different churches were directly concerned with thirty-seven training institutions in the Union. The state neglect to plan and direct the development of the training institutions was clearly illustrated by the following defects :

(a) *"Their geographical distribution is not as good as it should be. Denominations in founding training institutions were concerned naturally with the way in which training schools were situated in respect of their own schools, not of schools in general ... Various missions could never agree on spheres of influence and consequently their schools are inextricably mixed up ... This has led to difficulties in respect of practising facilities for the student-teachers."*<sup>11</sup>

(b) *"Many have become polyglot institutions"*<sup>12</sup> in the sense

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10. Ibid. Part II. Chapter VII. paras. 545-571.

11. Ibid. para. 595.

12. Loc. cit.

*that they admitted students who came from different home backgrounds and, as such, spoke different home languages.*

(c) *"The size and composition of institutions vary considerably. Some are very large and consist of primary, secondary, industrial and teacher training schools with large hostels."*<sup>13</sup>

(d) *"The internal arrangements in respect of control of boarders and hostels, practising schools etc. are very variable."*<sup>14</sup>

The Commission noted with great regret that the teacher educators themselves were not specially prepared for their tasks but were recruited as opportunity served :

*"With all the special problems and difficulties facing the training of Bantu teachers it is very regrettable that no suitable steps have been taken to train specially at least a proportion of the members of each training college staff. Teachers of method should be thoroughly oriented in the problems their students will have to face."*<sup>15</sup>

What comes to be felt with even greater lamentation is the realization that throughout the long period of thirty years nothing worthwhile has been done to remedy the situation as the following statement by the recent Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei purports :

*"One limiting factor to all attempts at teacher education reform is the lack of well qualified teacher trainers. Most teacher educators are themselves non-graduates ...*

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13. Loc. cit.

14. Loc. cit.

15. Ibid. para. 696.

*In the prevailing circumstances the need for training and upgrading teacher educators is indicated."*<sup>16</sup>

The Eiselen Commission also deplored the insufficient use of African teachers in training schools and further regarded as undesirable the fact that "in general Bantu teachers are used to teach the vernacular languages and very little else except in a few institutions."<sup>17</sup>

Dissatisfaction with Standard VI as an entrance qualification into the teacher training institutions was also reported. Another weakness which has most evidently prevailed till today in the teacher training institutions and which was reported by the Eiselen Commission is that :

*"The academic and 'subject' background of the students is so weak that much time has to be given to the teaching subjects to the detriment of teaching method and practice."*<sup>18</sup>

It was this Commission which sparked one of the most burning and debatable issues in African education today namely, mother-tongue instruction. To the Commission, the prevailing use of English or Afrikaans as medium of instruction in African schools was educationally unsound and detrimental to the advancement of African education as a whole. In the case of teacher training institutions a variety of reasons could be advanced to explain why a foreign medium of instruction was preferred: the very large percentage of European instructors; the polyglot student population; the difficulties in connection with text books, orthographies and technical terms in the African languages; the use of secondary school curricula set for European pupils as preparatory stages in the training of teachers; the policy of the Departments in connection with increments and salary scales based on the possession of certificates which necessitated the writing of secondary and university examinations in the official languages; and the distrust of the Africans of knowledge not imparted in the

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16. Republic of Transkei. Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education 1979. Para. 14.10. p. 136.

17. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. para. 697.

18. Ibid. para. 699.

official languages. It was most evidently the strong opposition to mother-tongue instruction in African schools which hampered the recommendations of the Commission that "... steps should be taken to increase gradually the use of mother-tongue instruction, particularly in subjects like principles of education, educational psychology and method"<sup>19</sup> in the teacher training institutions. The greatest opposition to mother-tongue instruction in African schools was, however, of a political nature in which case the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction in African schools was seen as a deliberate attempt to enforce the Nationalist political ideology of separate development and to keep the Africans in an inferior position. Mother-tongue instruction was further seen as the inhibition of communication among the various African groups and there was fear that it would ultimately cut off the Africans from the highly scientific and technological world forming part of the South African environment.<sup>20</sup>

The Commission further noted that the training of teachers was too generalized and not sufficiently directed towards the tackling of specific problems in more or less clearly defined areas and, that it was, as a result, something common to find a teacher who did not know the language of his pupils very well. To remedy the situation, the Commission recommended that training schools should be sited in areas typical of those for which they were to train teachers and that training schools should prepare teachers for schools in certain definite areas and should give them the necessary orientation in socio-educational problems. To this end, the training school staffs should be able to study the problems typical of their area, together with its history, language, traditions and so on.<sup>21</sup> The proposals were undoubtedly in agreement with the views expressed by the educationists all over the world: Hugh Hawes, for example, contends that "an obvious desirable situation is for a country to have a sufficiency of well educated and trained teachers working for reasonable lengths of time in areas where they are familiar with the people and their

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19. Ibid. para. 700.

20. Cf. Horrell, M., Bantu Education to 1968, p. 60.

21. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. op cit., paras. 701-702.

culture."<sup>22</sup> Though concerned primarily with education in a rural environment, the following statement by Unesco is even more fitting in this context :

*"Present training programmes are generally town-oriented, and must undergo a dual transformation. One side of this transformation relates to the need to include in the curriculum an environment component - although this does not mean that teacher training methods will differ, depending on whether the teachers are to be appointed in rural or urban schools ... Training colleges for primary and lower secondary teachers should be situated in a rural environment, in order for future teachers to have first-hand knowledge of the economic and social problems of such areas. Study of these problems should be an integral part of their training, as should teaching practice in practical work classes associated with the college."*<sup>23</sup>

The objection to the move in this direction in South Africa has been that, in the words of the Conference of the Institute of Race Relations, the Africans

*"... are not culturally, economically or politically independent, but that they are an integral part of South African society ...; the solution to the difficult social and economic problems in South Africa is political and not educational inasmuch as separate development in education may result in the development of a caste system of education."*<sup>24</sup>

Finally, on its appraisal of the prevailing system of teacher education, the Commission mentioned the limited supply of practising

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22. Hawes, H., Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools. p. 16.

23. Unesco. Education in a Rural Environment. (Second Edition). pp. 48-49.

24. Cf. Horrell, M., Bantu Education to 1968. p. 137.

school facilities,<sup>25</sup> a defect that has continued to scourge African teacher education in South Africa and especially in Transkei up to the present day. Teaching practice is indeed of central importance to any kind of pre-service teacher education programme for in the words of Cohen and Garner :

*"A craftsman becomes a skilled technician by the slow process of acquiring specific skills and patiently accumulating knowledge about his medium. The student, particularly while on school practice, is an apprentice to his craft, and the deliberate use of the words 'slow' and 'patiently' must indicate that the process of becoming a teacher in the real sense of the word, takes a considerable time."*<sup>26</sup>

However, Stones and Morris are among several writers who have questioned this direct analogy between practice teaching and craft apprenticeship, and who have further invited a reappraisal of the form and purpose of practice teaching.<sup>27</sup> This aspect will be examined in greater detail later, but for now it must suffice to indicate that certainly there is now a strong body of opinion that practice teaching should no longer be the sole practical experience, largely divorced from other elements of the training programme. Yet, it remains, for the student, the closest approximation to the real job available to him, and as an integrated part of a much wider exploration of practical skills, it has a very important part to play. Indeed training programmes for many jobs have an 'application course' element to them, this being the time when what has been learned must be applied in conditions as similar to the real ones as possible.

As a prelude to its recommendations, the Commission set out its views on the aims of African education. In determining the aims of education, it adopted as a guiding principle the time-honoured general conception of education as a process whereby the culture of a society

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25. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. op cit., para. 703.

26. Cited by E.C. Wragg, Teaching Teaching. p. 174.

27. Stones, E., Morris, S., Teaching Practice. p. 7.

is transmitted from its more mature to its immature members. The Commission further indicated that the school was a social institution which had been deliberately set up for the purpose of transmitting elements of culture not easily or necessarily transmitted by other social institutions. Culture was defined in its widest sociological sense as the sum total of all those patterns of thought, behaviour and feeling which characterize the social life of a group or society. Stress was laid on the necessary harmonious co-existence between the schools and other social institutions because where such harmony existed

*"... the individual experiences little difficulty in belonging to a whole series of institutions in his society for their values or basic attitudes are in harmony ...; ... the work of the school is based upon the training given by other institutions and is supplemented and reinforced by the latter, while the school education, in turn, benefits these institutions and reinforces them (e.g. family, trade and school)."*<sup>28</sup>

On the basis of the foregoing, the Commission drew up the following conclusions about the prevailing African school system :

*"... schools of a western type have been introduced, schools which are concerned primarily, not with reinforcing or being reinforced by the other social institutions of Bantu society, but more largely with the transmission of ideas, values, attitudes and skills which have not been developed in Bantu society itself and are often not in harmony with its institutions ... Consequently the modern school, unless Bantu social institutions can evolve to bridge the gap between themselves and the schools, must tend to develop persons who are compelled to reject either the school or those ideas*

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28. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. op cit. paras. 754-757.

*which are basic to their own social institutions ... The march of events and the staggering power and glitter of western culture have tended to make the educated Bantu despise their own culture. Any proposal intended to focus attention on the importance for the Bantu of preserving their institutional life is regarded with great suspicion."*<sup>29</sup>

The Commission cited as a case in point the attitude of the African teachers which had been affected adversely by the prevailing African school system :

*"Teachers of all races and of almost every country and time have been keenly concerned, and rightly, with the future development of the people they serve. Many critics allege that Bantu teachers show little interest in the social and economic development of the communities they work in, and tend to concentrate too narrowly on the interests of the school and their private affairs."*<sup>30</sup>

Since teaching has been for many decades the most popular career amongst the Africans, the observations by N. Katiya regarding the adverse effects of an alien system of education amongst the Xhosa people in particular must be seen to be specially pertinent to teachers. Katiya explains that amongst the Xhosa people there emerged as a result of the westernized school system a class of individuals who were neither Black Englishmen nor Xhosa. The so-called educated looked upon themselves as being civilized and despised, neglected and rejected with contempt Xhosa tribal life. Although they were estranged from their own social institutions, they did not fully adopt the social institutions of the European which they were blindly striving to imitate. The whole being of the so-called educated Xhosa man was characterized by a slavish admiration and aimless aping of everything

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29. Ibid. paras. 759-763.

30. Ibid. para. 744.

European. To him, the mastering of European culture was panacea. He worshipped the English language and looked down upon his own language as inferior. He became the victim of unsatisfied postulate who neither belonged fully to the social institutions of the European nor to those of his own environment and culture. He eventually led a life of mental, moral and physical disturbance and frustration.<sup>31</sup> In view of the preceding weaknesses of the prevailing African school system, the Commission proposed the following definition of the aims of African education :

*"(a) From the viewpoint of the whole society the aim of Bantu education is the development of a modern progressive culture, with social institutions which will be in harmony with one another and with the evolving conditions of life to be met in South Africa, and with the schools which must serve as effective agents in this process of development.*

*(b) From the viewpoint of the individual the aims of Bantu education are the development of character and intellect, and the equipping of the child for his future work and surroundings."*<sup>32</sup>

Having thus briefly outlined the aims of African education and the reasoning on which these were based, the Commission proceeded to examine certain guiding principles which might contribute to the realization of the suggested aims. In the main the guiding principles were as follows :

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31. Katiya, N., The Development of Bantu Rural Secondary Education in the Ciskei, 1941-1968. (A Historical Survey). A thesis submitted to satisfy the requirements of Master of Education. Alice. Lovedale. 1974. pp. 84-87.
32. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. op cit., para. 765.

*Education had to be broadly conceived so that it could be organized effectively to provide adequate schools with a definite Christian character. Education had to be coordinated with a definite and carefully planned policy for the development of the African societies. Increased emphasis should be placed on the education of the mass of the Africans to enable them to co-operate in the evolution of new social patterns and institutions. Active steps should be taken to produce literature of functional value in the African languages with a view to eventually overcoming the prevailing lack of terminology for describing modern scientific concepts. Schools would have to be linked as closely as possible with the existing African social institutions. The mother-tongue would have to be used as the medium of instruction for at least the duration of the primary school. African personnel should be used to the maximum to make the schools as African in spirit as possible as well as to provide employment. African parents should as far as practicable have a share in the control and life of the schools for only in this way would children realize that their parents and the schools were not competitors but that they were complementary. Finally, the schools would have to provide for the maximum development of the African individual, mentally, morally and spiritually.*<sup>33</sup>

To anyone who ventures to examine the African system of education since the inception of the policy of separate development in South Africa, the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission inadvertently present themselves as the starting point since they represented the blueprint of Government legislation in respect of African education and also served as the basis for future developments and trends in African education. For this reason, the recommendations of the Commission will hereunder

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33. Ibid. para. 766.

be considered together with the provisions of Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 as well as with the pronouncements by the then Minister of Native Affairs, Dr H.F. Verwoerd.

The Commission recommended the establishment of a separate education system for the Africans and, in respect of control, a separate department under the central government. The title 'Bantu Education', to denote the whole education system for Africans, was considered fitting for "Bantu education does have a separate existence just as, for example, French education, Chinese education or even European education in South Africa, because it exists and can function only in and for a particular social setting, namely, Bantu society."<sup>34</sup> The education of the African had to "... recognize that it has to deal with a Bantu child, that is, a child trained and conditioned in Bantu culture, endowed with a knowledge of a Bantu language and imbued with values, interests, and behaviour patterns learned at the knee of a Bantu mother. These facts must dictate to a very large extent the content and methods of his early education."<sup>35</sup>

It is abundantly clear that the views expressed in the preceding paragraph represented an articulation of the Government policy of separate development and could undoubtedly be most acceptable to the Nationalist Government as the following extracts from an address delivered by Dr Verwoerd in the Senate on June 7, 1954 indicate :

*"It is the policy of my department that Bantu education should have its roots entirely in the Native Areas and in the environment and Native community. There, Bantu education must be able to perform its real service. The Bantu must be guided to serve his own community in all respects."*<sup>36</sup>

*"Up till now he (the African) has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his own community and*

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34. Ibid. para. 777.

35. Ibid. para. 773.

36. Senate Debate. 1954. Cols. 2595-2622.

*practically misled him by showing him the green pastures of the European but still did not allow him to graze there."*<sup>37</sup>

*"In Native territories Bantu education can complete its full cycle by which the child is taken out of the community by the school, developed to his fullest extent in accordance with aptitudes and ability, and thereafter returned to the community to serve and to enrich it."*<sup>38</sup>

The noticeable disproportionate emphasis in the theory on the cultural variable to the exclusion of other determinants of education provisions has been seen in some circles as one deterrent to the necessary changes in education. This is what Torsten Husén had in mind when he wrote :

*"One of the catchwords used to characterize current needs in the world of education has been 'innovation'. Behind the attempts to 'innovate' has been the growing realization that education in modern society is operating under quite new conditions which necessitates a thorough rethinking and an abolition of time-honoured conceptions and practices."*<sup>39</sup>

Freeman Butts is even more precise in his criticism of the over-emphasis that is generally placed on culture as a determinant of education systems :

*"There was a time when I thought that the concept of 'culture' could give education the larger context that it needed for sure understanding. But now, I now feel that the term 'civilization-building' can stand us in better stead. The*

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37. Loc. cit.

38. Loc. cit.

39. Husén, T., Responsiveness and Resistance in the Educational System to Changing Needs of Society, in K.L. Gezi, (Editor), op cit., p. 180.

*recognition that formal education played an important role in the creating of the first civilizations of the Eurasian ecumene, in the original development of the modern civilization of the West, and in hastening modernization of the contemporary traditional civilizations of the non-West leads me to believe that the civilization concept is superior to the culture concept as a framework for interpretation of the role of education. This is not to say that the culture is not exceedingly useful in the practice of education ..., but I believe that (it) ... may lead to an overriding concern with the uniqueness of different societies, a neglect of the interactive influences of one society upon another, and a neglect of the dynamics of social change through time."*<sup>40</sup>

It must be pointed out that the latter was the greatest weakness in the theory evolved by the Eiselen Commission and endorsed and implemented by the Nationalist Government in respect of the education of Africans. A modern African academic, and undoubtedly a representative in this regard of a large majority amongst Africans, P.C. Luthuli, expresses the same view when he writes :

*"Since all people who came to South Africa were representatives of Western culture, bringing different languages, a different economy, a different religious attitude, a different political system and many other different patterns of living, this meant that an entirely new culture was introduced in South Africa, which led to extensive acculturation ... It was in this context that most Black people in South Africa came into contact with Western culture. Among Blacks in general a new social fabric started emerging, which became more akin to Western way of living of Whites in South Africa than to traditional Black culture. Though this is true of Black*

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40. Butts, F., Comparative Education: Some Theoretical Perspectives, in K.L. Gezi, (Editor), op cit., pp. 24-25.

people this is not to deny, of course, the persistence and continuity of traditional cultural values ...; present action is in some form based on traditional culture and there is nothing that is educationally wrong with this. What emerges from the acculturation is its effects on the philosophy of life of Blacks and consequently on their aim of education ... Colonization, industrialization and finally urbanization brought a diversity of material culture to Black people which has drastically affected the educational aim of these people. Their children are now being directed towards a new image of adulthood, because all these changes in material culture do change the aim of education ... On the whole the Black family has undergone tremendous changes and the contemporary Black family is inclined to adopt a Western culture based on a capitalist economy. This marked diversity in the family life is also evident in the norms of education and particularly in the aim of these people's education."<sup>41</sup>

The disproportionate emphasis on traditional culture, the neglect of the forces of acculturation which had already transformed the African traditional philosophy of life, and the exclusion of the Africans themselves from decision-making on matters affecting their lives and those of their children all combined to make Bantu Education a theory to be viewed with distrust by the Africans. In the words of N. Katiya, the Africans "... immediately identified the whole system as a deliberate effort on the part of the Government to keep them backward ...; they identified Bantu Education with inferiority."<sup>42</sup> The following report by Muriel Horrell depicts the neglect of the forces of acculturation :

*"Critics challenged the view that Africans and Whites are inherently different and can never live together in peace.*

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41. Luthuli, P.C., The Philosophical Foundations of Black Education in South Africa. pp. 35-39.

42. Katiya, N., op cit., p. 95.

*They pointed out that even the most isolated rural Africans accepted Westernization as an ideal, and that a considerable proportion of urbanized Africans had lost all touch with tribal background."*<sup>43</sup>

In Nigeria, a country where there is currently much talk about relating formal educational provisions to traditional African culture, Otonti N. Nduka has indicated quite clearly that traditional culture tends to stifle progress and critical attitude towards beliefs, theories and customs :

*"It was the adoption of this critical attitude in ancient Greece which led to the development of intellectual techniques culminating in logic and epistemology and ultimately to Western science and philosophy. Since the Renaissance the West has been busy developing 'a tradition of questioning what is traditional'. The existence of the tradition of questioning what is traditional has led to the development and sharpening of intellectual and other tools not only for evaluating and dealing with alternatives but also - and herein lies the sophistication of modern scientific culture - for giving alternatives. The effectiveness of the tools of Western culture and the superiority of its technology over that of African traditional culture derive from the fact that the tools and the technology of the former are based on knowledge - scientific knowledge ... In contrast, lacking the stimulus of a tradition of questioning what is traditional, African traditional societies have for centuries, even for millenia, operated systems of thought whose epistemological underpinning is largely religious and mystical. In such systems knowledge is often derived from a once-for-all insight into reality and incapsulated in the prescriptive sanctities of religion*

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43. Horrell, Muriel, Bantu Education to 1968. p. 6.

*and custom ... The poverty of such knowledge vis-à-vis knowledge that is discursive and analytic, that has passed through a sensitive epistemological filter, is as evident as the technological difference between a traditional society and a highly industrialized one ... The real problem is that of developing a system of education which will leaven up the society and effect a real and more rapid transformation from a predominantly traditional cultural pattern to a scientifically oriented one."*<sup>44</sup>

To sum up the argument about traditional culture and education, it must be acknowledged that culture indeed continues to serve as an extremely useful instrument for educational analysis as a means of grasping the distinctive style of life or overall patterns of thought, beliefs, values and behaviour in a whole society, or of viewing the continuity of ways of behaving within a single society at a particular point in time, or of highlighting the importance of informal education processes, or of recognizing the varieties of outlook, attitude, and personality types among different societies. But, changes in the cultural aspects as a result of, *inter alia*, the ongoing interconnectedness among societies and cultures and their influences upon one another will of necessity inevitably involve changes in a people's total outlook in life. Consequently, it is the prevailing culture and, so to speak, the prevailing philosophy of life of a people and not their traditional culture which must at any given point in time determine the educational provisions needed for those people. In the words of P.C. Luthuli :

*"Human life is dynamic and the history of a people includes the story of various developments and the unfolding or evolution of their particular form of culture. The changing patterns of the life-style of the individual person-in-society implies a changing image of man. This means that as society and its life-style change, the image*

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44. Nduka, O.N., Western Education and the Nigerian Cultural Background. pp. 6-8.

*of adulthood as the intrinsic aim of education, is constantly being transformed. Thus the dynamic nature of culture and society is also apparent in the changing nature of the aim of education."*<sup>45</sup>

In terms of control, the Commission recommended, as has been previously indicated that Bantu education should be removed from the provincial administrations and vested in a separate department under the Central Government. This department was to make provision for a measure of decentralization by establishing six regional divisions, each with a staff of administrative and professional assistants. The division into regions would ensure that homogeneous population elements would be grouped together. The designation of Transkei as one of the six regional divisions of the Bantu Education Department followed as a logical step because of the more meaningful geographical setting of the territory together with its homogeneous population comprising very largely the Xhosa ethnic groups who share the same customs, common traditions and the same language. To ensure the active participation of the adult African population in matters affecting the education of their children, the Commission recommended the creation of local authorities which would gradually take over the control of schools run by the missionary societies or the provincial administrations. The local authorities would only be entitled to take control of the schools if they complied with "the threefold test of cash, competence, and consent,"<sup>46</sup> that is, if they were able to collect school fees, were capable of administering schools, and were acceptable to the local authorities. Although the concern about the involvement of the Africans in the education of their children was not a new issue it was, however, for the first time that local administrative arrangements were proposed in order to ensure and facilitate the direct participation by the African communities in what was their inalienable right namely, the education of their children. Notwithstanding the weakness inherent in the system and to which it will be returned later, the local control of the schools by the community had such

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45. Luthuli, P.C., op cit., p. 36.

46. Report on Native Education, 1949-1951. para. 789.

positive effects as, on the part of the parents and of local communities, the increased active participation in, and a change of attitude towards the education of their children and the schools. The keen interest in education amongst the African communities manifested itself nowhere more significantly a few years later than in the phenomenal growth of the school-going population especially in the sub-standards and in the keen competition in the communities for positions on school boards and school committees. The Africans indeed became more education conscious than they had ever been before.

Still on the recommendations of the Commission, the following types of schools were proposed :

- (i) A Lower Primary school catering for pupils in the age range seven to ten, offering a four-year course starting from Sub-Standard A to Standard II and directed at the acquisition of numeracy and literacy in the mother-tongue.
- (ii) A Higher Primary school for pupils in the age range eleven to fourteen, offering a four-year course starting from Standard III to Standard VI and required to extend the work of the previous years, but including instruction in the official languages namely, English and Afrikaans, and in other subjects like handwork, and where possible, agriculture and horticulture.
- (iii) A three-year Junior Secondary course at the end of which the pupils would take the Junior Certificate examination.
- (iv) A two-year High School course leading to Matriculation or Senior Certificate examination and the successful completion of which would open the door to a university or teachers' training course, or to technical training of post-matriculation standard.

Other schools recommended by the Commission included polytechnic schools, vocational and agricultural schools, private schools and teacher train-

ing schools. Of all these, the last merit special attention.

The very slow development during the period under review of the African teacher education system in general in South Africa and, the rapid deterioration of conditions in Transkei teacher training institutions in particular can undoubtedly be attributed to a recommendation by the Commission and to subsequent legislation by the Government that :

*"The transfer of teacher training schools, practically all of which are at present under mission control, to the Regional Authorities must inevitably be effected more gradually than that of the junior schools."*<sup>47</sup>

Since the state assumed some of the duties, especially those of professional nature including the control of teacher educators, the inspection of the teacher training institutions and the payment of teacher educators' salaries, the missions could not easily pursue their original motives for establishing the institutions and, there developed, as a result, amongst them an attitude of indifference and lack of commitment to the preparation and provision of African teachers. To many of them, the institutions only remained of great value as 'industries' for spurning church funds. Appalling conditions were generally reported at some teacher training institutions in Transkei where even today divided control between the state and the missions still prevails.<sup>48</sup>

In respect of the policy that would have to be followed and regarded as of a long term nature to be introduced as and when possible, the Commission made the following recommendations :

*"(a) The organization of training schools should be based on the special requirements of schools existing within their particular regions.*

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47. Ibid. para. 907.

48. Conditions at the mission-controlled hostels at Shawbury and Clarkebury teacher training Colleges appear to have been so bad that these institutions were on several occasions forced to close down.

- (b) *The location of training schools should be determined in accordance with this criterion. It is important that a training school should be situated within the region it is to serve and, indeed, in a locality as typical of that region as possible.*
- (c) *Every training school should fulfil the special function of satisfying the needs of the region it serves and of assisting with the solution of its particular problems. It should be specially equipped with this in view. So, for example, a training school, situated in a region in which stock-farming is the main activity, should hold reckoning with the future work of teachers and train them to understand the community and to contribute to the improvement of the standard of stock-farming.*
- (d) *The staff of such a training school should be specifically selected and trained.*
- (e) *It is essential that the staff have a thorough knowledge of the language and life of the group they are to serve.*
- (f) *Special attention should be given to the preparation of teachers for this work in the practical subjects of the primary school.*
- (g) *Student teachers should be given an orientation in the social problems of the region in which they are going to work; they would also benefit greatly by an elementary training in social work."<sup>49</sup>*

This acknowledgement of the cultural variations in South Africa together

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49. Ibid. para. 960.

with the proposed policy to relate fully the prospective teachers to the specific cultural environments in which they would be expected to work must on educational grounds be commended but, in so doing one must not lose sight of the ulterior political motive namely, the implementation of the programme of separate development which most certainly influenced the policy.

Concerning the training courses for teachers, the following pre-service training programmes were proposed :

- (i) A three-year course leading to the Primary Lower Certificate should be provided and would have to aim at producing teachers who could be employed more particularly in the lower primary schools. The entrance qualification would be a Standard VI certificate. The syllabus for the first year would have to be largely academic, but an introductory course in the methods of teaching could be introduced. In the second and third years, great emphasis would, since the aim of the programme would be to prepare a teacher for the primary school, have to be placed on the principles and methods of teaching the 'tool' subjects in their initial stages.
- (ii) To provide the teachers necessary for the higher primary school, a two-year course of training after the Junior Certificate was proposed. The course would lead to a Primary Higher Certificate. In the first year the general principles and methods of education would be taught but in the second year there would be some specialization in so far as females would have to be trained specially for the work in Standards III and IV while males would normally be trained for teaching the upper classes namely, Standards V and VI. The latter group would also have to receive special training in organization and school management. Also, a specialized third year course would have to be offered in certain training schools and such a course might include language teaching,

history and geography, handicrafts, physical training, agriculture, and for women, needlework, and domestic science.

- (iii) Lastly, post-matriculation teacher training courses leading either to a separate post-graduate diploma or a non-graduate diploma comprising some degree courses and professional training were deemed necessary to provide the staff required for secondary and high schools. Such courses could be conducted by the then existing universities and colleges which catered specially for African students, with a subsidy from the Department of Bantu Education.

Most significant in these recommendations was, in the first place, the provision for the preparation of teachers in relation to the actual levels of the primary school at which they would be expected to teach. It must, however, be regretted that the provisions were a few years later phased out and replaced with a single general teacher training programme for both the lower and the higher primary school phases. The provisions for specialization in the higher primary teachers' courses are very difficult to account for in terms of teacher effectiveness. Other than the celebrated illusion that females have a natural urge over males in their capacity to handle the lower primary school pupils, one can only attribute the proposed specialization to the inferior roles then generally accorded to females in all fields of human activity. The phenomenon of teacher-shortage especially in the secondary schools has, in spite of the Commission's recommendation in respect of post-matriculation training of teachers, continued to rank among the most chronic problems which hamper and impede educational progress. The Commission's recommendation regarding the possibility of establishing a number of institutions especially for the training of post-matriculation teachers for the secondary schools indeed heralded the current transformations in teacher education whose major characteristics include, *inter alia* :

*strong emphasis on possession by all prospective teachers of a matriculation or Senior Certificate before they can be admitted into the teacher training institutions,*

*affiliation of the teacher training institutions to the universities, and the offering at the teacher training institutions of some university degree courses concurrently with professional training.*

One of the thorny questions in the teacher education system in Transkei today relates to the in-service education of teachers. In spite of the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission about three decades ago in respect of the in-service training of teachers, the provisions for the in-service education of teachers in Transkei today are so limited that it can almost be categorically stated that they are non-existent. It appears, however, that until very recently this has been a world-wide phenomenon as the following statements by Louis Rubin indicate :

*"Throughout the long history of the school, provisions for the improvement of the in-service teacher have rarely been adequate ... In-service education was treated so casually that clumsy and inept programs survived ... Remarkably little was known about the mechanics of teacher improvement. As long as the nature of schooling remained relatively static there was little incentive to improve matters. However, we have now reached the point where our ancient infirmities may well do us in."<sup>50</sup>*

*"The need for a sustained programme of retraining that counteracts outdated or defective teaching is hardly new. In-service education has been a standard educational trapping for most of the twentieth century. Although the need has been recognized, few workable remedies have been suggested. Humans tend to survive whatever does not cause them too much bother, and seemingly, the futility of most in-service education has not been much of a bother. Of late, however, a need to interrupt this prolonged complacency has emerged. First, bad situations, once their*

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50. Rubin, L., (Editor), The In-service Education of Teachers. Trends, Processes and Prescriptions. p. 4.

*nature becomes known, should not go uncorrected. Second, the availability of new technology now permits an approach to retraining that promises greater efficiency and precision. Third, there is much to suggest that teachers are more responsive to professional training after they are in service rather than before. And fourth, the recent period of experimentation has greatly enlarged the potential for improvement."*<sup>51</sup>

Furthermore, there seems to be great similarity between the factors in Transkei that have for many years militated and still continue to militate against proper planning and organization of in-service education of teachers and those to which the steady development of this aspect of teacher education in countries like the United States of America and Great Britain have generally been attributed. Writing about these factors as they affect the development of in-service teacher education programmes in the United States of America in particular Louis Rubin proceeds as follows :

*"Although the precise meaning of the term remains vague, and there is considerable disagreement as to the proper criteria for assessing pedagogical effectiveness, the importance of enhancing teacher proficiency is now taken a good deal more seriously than in the past. Sovereignty has also become a major point of contention. The rise of teacher autonomy has raised serious questions as to the following :*

- (a) who determines the substance of in-service activities,*
- (b) who serves as the training expert, and*
- (c) who evaluates the outcomes.*

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51. Ibid. pp. 5-6.

*The answers are being hotly debated since control converts into power. The stewardship of in-service training is a significant political issue and substantial controversy has developed over who governs it. The result, not surprisingly, is that with a great many actors contesting for parts in this drama, competitiveness may overshadow reason ..."*<sup>52</sup>

To demonstrate Rubin's contention, for example, teachers may argue, with reasonable cause, that the skilled practitioner is an infinitely better trainer than the university professor who is knee-deep in theory and removed from the real world. The academics, on the other hand, may be quick to point out that without the infusion of insights derived from scholarly analysis the state of the art would remain static. To complicate matters further, school administrators may suggest that academics and teachers are not in a good position to sense the public pulse and that public expectation, not professional or teacher opinion, should serve as the primary basis for revitalizing teaching and improving professional retraining programmes.

Much of the chaos surrounding the extension of in-service education can, according to Rubin, be attributed to three sources of confusion namely :

- (a) differing ideological conceptions regarding teaching and the teacher's role;
- (b) conflicting notions regarding what in-service education should accomplish; and
- (c) the absence of a tested system for implementing of professional growth activities within the work day environment.

Rubin's illustration of the manifestations of these sources of confusion is significant :

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52. Ibid. pp. 9-10.

"From the moment when the first school opened its doors, ideas regarding the purpose of teaching have been the subject of endless debate ...; when beliefs regarding the technical requirements of teachers are inconsistent, the same inconsistency must exist with respect to appropriate training and retraining programs. A second source of confusion is therefore inevitable. Many educators still regard in-service education as a mechanism for the remediation of technical defects. Others view in-service training as a vehicle for open-ended professional development, especially in areas that seem important to the individual practitioner. Moreover, the question of retraining objectives is itself subject to disparate sentiments. The liberal and humanistically oriented are committed to the belief that teachers can determine and organize their own self-development. In contrast, conservatives remain convinced that at least minimal external direction is mandatory. Differences persist even within the ranks of the theorists ... Consequently, it comes as no shock that since knowledgeable people disagree about the legitimate function of in-service professional development, current activities are a discrepant collection of miscellanea. Besides conflicting ideologies and contradictory conception of purpose, difficulties also stem from the conspicuous absence of systemization. There is, for example, no standardization with respect to the kind of professional development activities that should be offered, when, where, how and by whom. Nor is there any uniformity in legal mandate. Participation is sometimes voluntary and sometimes compulsory."<sup>53</sup>

The preceding examination of Rubin's views on in-service education is of utmost significance inasmuch as it depicts more precisely than can be

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53. Ibid. pp. 10-12.

done otherwise, the past and contemporary impediments and dilemma in Transkei in-service teacher education. It also becomes evident that the observable traces of in-service teacher education practices in Transkei are largely administratively-determined and such a pattern is in line with the recommendation of the Eiselen Commission about thirty years ago namely, that there should be provided :

*"... a system of refresher courses and in-service training which would be compulsory for every teacher for a fixed period, and which would be recognized as ordinary service. These courses should be included functionally in the education system by the introduction of three efficiency barriers in the salary scale. To progress beyond such a barrier a teacher would have to attend a special course for from four to six weeks and pass an ad hoc examination. Such in-service training examinations should be conducted by the regional education authorities, but particulars with regard to the nature and duration of the courses should be determined by the Examinations Committee and Research Division of the Bantu Department of Education."*<sup>54</sup>

Although the above recommendation was never implemented to the letter especially in regard to the three efficiency barriers in the salary scale, the duration of the in-service training courses and in-service training examinations, its appropriateness as a device to encourage and sustain the interest of the teachers in their own continuous professional growth and development is indisputable. However, the effectiveness of such an approach to in-service education remains an open question until one is really certain about the nature and objectives of this highly desirable aspect of teacher education. Harry Bell and John Peightel distinguish between the traditional in-service teacher education programmes which are normally characterized by one or two workshop sessions on one hand and the modern in-service teacher education programmes on the other which are continuous, set in an informal, non-threatening environment and

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54. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. para. 878.

integrated within the teacher's day-to-day job description with enough time allocated within the school day for the professional growth and development. In their own words :

*"The last thing teachers want or expect from in-service education is a waste of time ... Teachers want to explore new methods and develop skills, to try out new materials, and, in a non-threatening way, meet their individual needs ... Teachers want in-service education programmes that are tailored to their individual needs. Group approaches treating all teachers alike are less likely to accomplish their objectives than programmes offering individualized training for different teachers ... Research provides ample evidence that an endless array of abilities and characteristics underlie effective teaching. Because of the absence of a single standard, any attempt to improve teaching must acknowledge its idiosyncrasies and provide conditions that are individualized as much as possible. The purpose of individualized in-service, then, is to define and implement training conditions for teachers that will more effectively meet individual needs than has been true previously. What makes this approach to in-service education so acceptable to teachers is an increased opportunity to help define individual needs to be met to improve their teaching effectiveness. School-based in-service programmes that emphasize self-instruction by teachers have a strong record of effectiveness. In-service education programmes using individualization are more likely to accomplish their objectives than programmes that have common activities for all participants. Any rethinking of in-service education must recognize that teachers prefer field-based approaches and individualized help to more traditional activities preplanned for large groups. It is important for teachers to see demonstrations of teaching techniques, skills and concepts in a classroom setting. Teachers want to see theory and practice*

*successfully integrated in the classroom before implementing change. New knowledge and techniques must be understood by teachers and made applicable to their own classrooms."*<sup>55</sup>

What appears to be the broadest and certainly the most acceptable definition of in-service teacher education is supplied by E.S. Henderson who refers to this controversial field of human activity as :

*"Structured activities designed, exclusively or primarily, to improve professional performance."*<sup>56</sup>

This definition embraces a very wide range of activities. It may involve attending a conference or listening to a lecture involving a group of participants. It may involve full or part-time attendance at a specific course of instruction over a few hours, days, weeks, months or even years in the company of a few dozen colleagues. It may involve a joint problem-solving exercise, perhaps in the curricular or the administrative field, with a small group of teachers from the same school or locality. It may involve discussion on a one-to-one basis with a person whose role is encouraging the development of teacher's professional skills. It may involve a personal scheme of systematic reading or research. It may, indeed, involve any combination of these. It may lead to the acquisition of some professional qualification; it may be undertaken with a view to securing a particular type of appointment, or there may be no expectation of financial or academic reward. It may imply voluntary involvement or compulsion.

In the light of the foregoing, and much against the view by Bell and Peightel that in-service teacher education which takes place in one or two workshop sessions and which puts stress on the acquisition of credits is "a waste of time", the recommendations of the Eiselen

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55. Bell, H. and J. Peightel, Teacher Centers and In-Service Education. Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation Series. Fastback. No. 71. pp. 10-14.

56. Henderson, E., The Evaluation of In-Service Teacher Training. p.12.

Commission to which reference has already been made regarding the in-service training of teachers were most certainly based on a sound understanding of the concept of in-service teacher education.

The time-honoured controversial issue of the medium of instruction did not escape the attention of the Commission. On this crucial issue, the Commission recommended :

*"That the generally accepted principle, viz. the use of the language which the child understands best (the mother-tongue) as medium of instruction, should also be applied in Bantu Education.*

*That education authorities should ensure that this principle is applied consistently.*

*That all education, except in the case of a foreign language should be through the medium of the mother-tongue for the first four school years.*

*That this principle should also gradually be applied in the subsequent four courses of study in the higher primary school by progressively extending the use of the mother-tongue to the higher standards year by year.*

*That in order to expedite the change-over to the proposed procedure, committees should be appointed to compile the terminology which will be necessary in the teaching of all primary school subjects through medium of the Bantu language.*

*That this committee or other committees also be entrusted with the compilation of suitable terminology for all secondary school subjects.*

*That according as this terminology, together with the necessary manuals, become available the principle of*

*mother-tongue medium of instruction be also introduced gradually in the secondary schools.*

*That the use of mother-tongue medium should be introduced into training schools in the teaching courses in general principles of school organization and method, and in child psychology.*

*That where a school subject in the primary school is taught through medium of the mother-tongue the method for that particular subject should also be taught through the mother-tongue medium in the training school."<sup>57</sup>*

So great was the antagonism towards and opposition to the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction in African education that its actual introduction never went beyond the primary school. The opposition to the introduction of mother-tongue as medium of instruction was that this state policy was the inhibition of communication among the various African groups, and would ultimately cut off the Africans from the highly scientific and technological world forming part of their South African environment. The conference of the Institute of Race Relations maintained that :

*"Since every child is the inheritor of world culture to the full extent of mankind's present attainments, he should have access to this common cultural heritage."<sup>58</sup>*

Representing African opposition to the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction in the African schools was, amongst others, J.C.M. Mbatha who had this to say :

*"The African desperately strives for unity ... and has accepted English as the lingua franca of the sub-continent.*

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57. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. para. 921.

58. Cf. Horrell, Muriel, *op cit.*, p. 6.

*To him, then, the retribalization of the schools and the emphasis it lays on the different vernaculars is a retrogressive step. A national awareness ... is perhaps the greatest single reason for his objection to vernacular tuition. To a stranger, national consciousness and opposition to mother-tongue may seem incompatible; to the African, in his present circumstances, there is nothing contradictory in it."*<sup>59</sup>

In defence of the state policy, the South African State President, J.J. Fouché later advocated for the separation of party politics from educational policy and proceeded to argue as follows :

*"To face the issue: where other countries believe in mother-tongue instruction, it is correctly regarded as the only sound educational policy, but when South Africa introduces this policy into our schools, it is state indoctrination and racialism."*<sup>60</sup>

So arbitrary was the comparison that the State President made between the South African education system and those of other countries that it cannot be accepted on educational grounds because the education systems of the different countries of the world vary just as much as the cultural and other contingent circumstances which have shaped them vary.

About a decade after the Commission had released its report in 1951, Dr H.J. van Zyl, then Under-Secretary for Bantu Education, re-affirmed the official view on the question of medium of instruction at a teachers' conference on mother-tongue medium held at Umtata in Transkei in 1961 :

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59. Mbatha, J.C.M., Vernacular Tuition : Why Africans Object to the Compulsion. The Black Sash, IV, September - November. 1960. p.26.  
 60. Fouché, J.J., Commentary on A.P. Hunter's article entitled 'Republic of South Africa' in D.G. Scanlon, (Editor), Church, State and Education in South Africa. p. 313.

*"When the change in Bantu education came, one of the first new policies to be introduced was mother-tongue medium in the primary school ... This meant that in the Transkei English had to make way for Xhosa ...; mother-tongue medium is a generally accepted educational principle observed in all advanced countries of the world ... An enlightened country like South Africa cannot possibly expose itself to the criticism of experts for maintaining an unscientific approach to education. It would have been like cultivating our fields by using a primitive hoe while disregarding the much more convenient plough of modern times. Languages, like the human body, must be in constant use lest they deteriorate and ultimately collapse ... The Xhosa people are at the crossroads: they must choose whether they wish to destroy what they have inherited or whether they will jealously treasure and guard their true inheritance, their own language."*<sup>61</sup>

In resolving what Dr van Zyl had presented as a kind of dilemma, Transkei opted, when she attained self-government in 1963, for the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction in all classes up to and including Standard Two, and for English as medium of instruction in all classes beyond and including Standard Three. In arriving at this decision, the then Chief Minister, Paramount Chief K.D. Matanzima, said that it did not mean that the people despised their mother-tongue or disagreed with the principle that a child is best taught through the language he speaks at home but, "simply because our language was undeveloped and had not reached the stage when it could be used in all respects to put across the ideas found in the Western world."<sup>62</sup> In so choosing, Transkei indeed followed the example set by many other ex-colonial countries in Africa for A. Babs Fafunwa reports that in Nigeria, for example :

*"In a wholly Yoruba, Hausa or Ibo speaking area, the child*

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61. Van Zyl, H.J., *Bantu Languages at the Crossroads*, Bantu Education Journal, VII, June. 1961.

62. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 9 June 1964. Hansard. p. 207.

*starts out with the mother-tongue as medium of instruction in the first two or three years. The medium then switches to English in the third or fourth year either gradually or abruptly. In most schools some rudiments of English, e.g. alphabet and sight reading are introduced from the first year. In some areas where there are many linguistic groups, English is introduced actively from the first year.*"<sup>63</sup>

What is most interesting is that the upshot of an early introduction of a foreign language as medium of instruction in the primary school has been most disheartening both in Nigeria and in Transkei. In Nigeria, to begin with, Fafunwa reports :

*"The problem of bilingualism particularly at the primary level is perhaps the most baffling one to the Nigerian curriculum planners and teachers ... Parents, government officials, teachers and others complain that the products of these primary schools are neither proficient in English nor in the mother-tongue ... Even where fees do not constitute a problem, many children drop out before the end of the primary school education."*<sup>64</sup>

A decade after Transkei had declared and implemented her policy on the medium of instruction in the primary schools, the Commission of Inquiry into the Standard of Education in the Transkei (the K-N-N Commission) reported *inter alia* a low standard of tuition particularly at the primary school level and added that :

*"In any consideration of the standard of tuition the question of a medium of instruction looms large. Every educationist becomes vitally concerned if in the educational system of a people it should be necessary to*

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63. Fafunwa, A. Babs, "Education in the Mother-tongue ...": West African Journal of Education. Vol. XIX. No. 2.

64. Loc. cit.

replace mother-tongue as medium with a foreign language. The child learns best in its own mother-tongue. To him, 'earth has not anything to show more fair ...' His mother-tongue conjures up in him all sorts of pleasant associations; it is an embodiment of his culture and attitude to life, interests and ambitions, the family past and present, his successes and social status. Addressed in his own mother-tongue, he hears better, he understands better, and he learns better. Small wonder then that it is an accepted principle in education that the child should receive school instruction in his mother-tongue."<sup>65</sup>

The preceding profound ideas seem to be echoed far and wide for Fafunwa, writing in Nigeria in 1975, went on to say :

*"It is universally accepted that a child learns best in his mother-tongue and that the mother-tongue is as natural as the mother's milk ... The first twelve years is the most formative period in a child's life, for it is during this period that attitudes and aptitudes are developed. It is also during this period that the child requires intelligent care of his physical needs and trained guidance in his mental, emotional and social potentialities. It is our thesis that if the Nigerian child is to be encouraged from the start to develop curiosity, manipulative ability, spontaneous flexibility, initiative, industry, manual dexterity, mechanical comprehension and the co-ordination of hand and eye, he should acquire these skills and attitudes through the mother-tongue as the medium of education which after all is the most natural way of learning. This is where the average European or English child has a decided advantage over his African counterpart. While the former is acquiring new skills during the first*

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65. Transkei Government. Commission of Inquiry into the Standard of Education in Transkei. (the K-N-N Commission). Chapter 2, Section 2.4(d)(i). pp. 25-26.

*six years in his mother-tongue, the latter is busy struggling with a foreign language during the greater part of his primary education ...*"<sup>66</sup>

It was this driving thought that led the Institute of Education at the University of Ife, Nigeria, to launch under the auspices of Fafunwa himself :

*"a six-year Primary Project in Yoruba as a medium of instruction throughout the six-year primary course and English as a second language taught from primary one to six."*<sup>67</sup>

The actual work on the Project was commenced in 1970 and by 1975 Fafunwa could report that children in the 'experiment' classes, that is, those who were taught through the medium of Yoruba, showed more evidence of self-reliance, resourcefulness and happiness and, also expressed themselves more fluently in Yoruba and in English than their counterparts in the 'control' classes namely, those who followed the State syllabus and were taught through the medium of English with Yoruba occasionally used to interpret and explain certain aspects of the syllabus according to the general practice in the Nigerian primary schools. There were, of course, other observations of pedagogical significance such as the incorporation of many social and cultural items into the curriculum, the interest and direct participation shown by the parents in the education of their children, a situation that, according to Fafunwa, "... is unique in almost 150 years of formal education particularly in the West and perhaps in Nigeria as a whole,"<sup>68</sup> and, as a result, the bridging of the gap between the home and the school.

Of greater significance and more relevant to the question of teacher education was the preliminary and, later, an ongoing comprehensive

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66. Fafunwa, A. Babs, "Education in the Mother-Tongue ...": op cit., p. 216.

67. Ibid. p. 217.

68. Ibid. p. 226.

approach to teacher training comprising on-the-job training, weekend seminars, in-service programmes during the long vacations and periodic consultations all of which were directed at equipping the teacher with new instructional materials and appropriate methodology for the teaching of the new curriculum using the Yoruba language as the medium of instruction. The four-prong approach to teacher training as described above proved, according to Fafunwa :

*"... very successful indeed and the teachers have developed greater confidence in handling new materials and have freely criticized inadequate or inappropriate materials."*<sup>69</sup>

There is a striking parallelism between the above innovative language policy especially in so far as it was applied to teacher education and that of the Eiselen Commission, namely :

*"That where a school subject in the primary school is taught through medium of the mother-tongue the method for that particular subject should also be taught through the mother-tongue medium in the training school."*<sup>70</sup>

Having thus outlined the merits and demerits of the use of mother-tongue as the medium of instruction in African education, the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission regarding the place of a foreign language in the school setting where mother-tongue is used as medium of instruction must be considered. The Commission recommended that :

*"... provision should be made for instruction in both official languages (namely, English and Afrikaans) even in the lower primary school, and this should be done in such a way that the Bantu child will be able to find his way in European communities, and to carry on a simple conversation with Europeans about his work and other subjects of common interest."*<sup>71</sup>

69. *Ibid.* pp. 223-224.

70. Report on Native Education. 1949-1951. para. 921(K) p. 146.

71. *Ibid.* para. 924.

For this reason, it was necessary, the Commission pointed out, that in the training institutions the teaching of both official languages should be compulsory, that the ability to teach both official languages should be indicated on the teachers' certificate and, that as a temporary measure one salary increment on the fixed scale be granted to all African teachers who showed to the satisfaction of the Department that they were capable of teaching both official languages. The case of two foreign languages and a total of three with the mother-tongue included in the school curriculum as well as in the teacher education programme remained a subject of serious debate throughout the entire era of the Bantu education system. Amongst the Africans in particular it has been seen as one other contributory factor to the low standard of the teaching of the *lingua franca* namely, English and the general low standard of the education system as a whole. Elsewhere, it has been seen as educationally unsound, unheard of in such national systems of education as the USA, the United Kingdom, France, Australia and Canada. For Transkei, the Taylor Commission has thus recommended that Afrikaans should not be taught at all in the primary school, should be offered as a subject in the Senior Secondary school for Senior Certificate purposes and, should be included in the training of primary school and junior secondary school teachers on an optional basis only.<sup>72</sup>

Reference was made to the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 which followed in the wake of the report of the Eiselen Commission and in effect enacted the recommendations of the Commission. The Act has been described as "the watershed in the control of educational services for the Blacks."<sup>73</sup> The Act provided for the transfer of the control of African education, including teacher training but excluding higher education, from the Provincial Administrations to the Central Government.

Some of the main provisions of the Act are given below :

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72. Report of the Commission of Enquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei. 1979. p. 52.
73. Ackerman, G.J., "Education for Blacks in Historical Perspective" in Publication Series No. 3 of the South African Pedagogical Society. pp. 22-28.

"6. (1) *The Minister (of Native Affairs) may, out of moneys appropriated or set aside by Parliament for native education -*

*(a) subsidize any Bantu school established or maintained by any Bantu Authority, or any Native Council, tribe or community."*<sup>74</sup>

"7. (1) *The Minister may, out of moneys appropriated or set aside by Parliament for native education -*

*(a) establish and maintain Bantu schools which shall be known as Government Bantu schools;*

*(b) establish and maintain any hostel, teachers' quarters, school clinic, or any other accessory to a Government Bantu school."*<sup>75</sup>

Other provisions were that the Minister could, subject to the provisions of the Act, make grants-in-aid to any native school approved by him and that no person would be allowed to establish, conduct or maintain any "Bantu or native school other than a Government Bantu school, unless it is registered."<sup>76</sup> Also, the Minister was empowered to prescribe from time to time by regulation the courses of instruction to be given in schools, decide upon the medium of instruction, lay down the conditions of service of teachers and the conditions of admission and exclusion of pupils, provide for religious instruction in the schools and, ensure that advisory boards on Bantu Education were established.

In summing up, it is important to indicate that although few of the detailed recommendations of the Eiselen Report were mentioned specifically in the Act, it did set out the broad outlines of the new system whose very conception, immaculate planning and implementation won its

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74. Cf. Behr, A.L., New Perspective in South African Education. p. 169.

75. Loc. cit.

76. Loc. cit.

protagonists, Drs Eiselen and Verwoerd, a large measure of respect in Afrikaner circles in South Africa for, as E.G.Malherbe points out, their greatest contribution lay in the fact that they successfully secured for the Nationalist party lasting political power by providing the necessary academic rationalization in support of the theories of apartheid and by designing an education system for Africans particularly essential to the overall policy of separate development :

*"While the Bantu do not seem to be lacking in enthusiasm to maintain their own culture and to develop the use of their own vernacular (even to the extent of excluding Afrikaans as an official language in Transkei), they feel the necessity of having English as an official language to serve as an open window to the world beyond. A good deal of their tribal ways are undergoing a process of adaptation to modern conditions as a result of sheer economic pressure ... It has therefore been a matter of puzzlement as to why a White government should suddenly become so concerned over the preservation of the ethnic identities of these Bantu 'nations', particularly in the field of education ... Since earliest times there had been an awareness of the differences between the various Bantu tribes in Southern Africa ... It was, however, during the last half century that Bantu studies in the form of ethnography and social anthropology became an academic discipline at South African universities. It was, therefore, no coincidence that Dr W.M.M. Eiselen, who had been professor of social anthropology at the university of Stellenbosch and later Secretary of the Department of Bantu Affairs, provided the academic rationalization in support of the theories of apartheid which Dr Verwoerd later implemented in the Bantu Education Act of 1953. It also led to much of the ensuing legislation which classified the inhabitants of South Africa into hard-and-fast ethnic compartments. Both Dr Verwoerd and Dr Eiselen had studied in Germany where there had been at that time a great emphasis on racial differences and on*

*the superiority of the White Aryan race. Then too the preservation of ethnic identity and home language had a particular appeal to the Afrikaners, who themselves had achieved 'ethnic identity' and the recognition of their own language after a long cultural struggle. In the same way, it was felt, the various Bantu tribes should therefore be made to realize the value of their own vernaculars in preserving their own identity particularly in the socio-political sphere."*<sup>77</sup>

The influence which Dr Verwoerd, as then Minister of Native Affairs, exerted throughout the long process of the formulation of Bantu Education system needs to be looked at very closely so as to account fully for the view that this sudden solicitude on the part of the Nationalist Government about the cultural development of the Africans was an aspect of the apartheid policy designed to confine and isolate the Africans from the broad stream of South Africa's socio-economic life. The very first term of reference of the Eiselen Commission which was formulated by Dr Verwoerd himself pointed at and pre-empted the findings and recommendations of the Commission :

*"the formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude and their needs under ever-changing social conditions are taken into consideration."*<sup>78</sup>

When he later enunciated Government policy in connection with African education before Senate in 1954, he did not seem to realize or, at best, deliberately chose to ignore that there were at the time, according to figures supplied by Malherbe "... only 37 percent of the Bantu domiciled in their 'own communities', that is, in the so-called homelands where

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77. Malherbe, E.G., *Education in South Africa*. pp. 547-548.

78. *Report on Native Education*. op cit., Chapter I. p. 7.

'all the doors would be open'. The 63 percent worked in the White areas (31,8 percent in urban areas and 31,2 percent on farms owned by Whites)",<sup>79</sup> where they were frustrated because of the reservation that was made that only "certain forms of labour"<sup>80</sup> would be open to them in the White man's areas, a reservation that was made because it was found necessary for the continued prosperity of White industry. As political events subsequently proved, the aim was that the African child was to be taught that he is a foreigner when he is in White South Africa, or at best stateless. In short, Bantu Education would teach Africans "from childhood that equality with Europeans is not for them."<sup>81</sup> It is indeed in that sense that Dr Verwoerd is generally referred to as the architect of Bantu Education system.

Having thus outlined the evolution and theory of Bantu Education system, an attempt can now be made to examine the subsequent legislation, developments and trends in teacher education practice during the era of Bantu Education system in Transkei.

## 2.2 Teacher Education Practice During the Era of Bantu Education System (1955-1963)

### 2.2.1 The Transfer of Mission Educational Institutions

On 2 August 1954, the Secretary for Native Affairs sent a letter to all superintendents or managers of State-Aided mission schools asking them to indicate by the end of that year whether they wished to retain control of the schools and hostels under their care as private, unaided institutions, or to retain control of the schools as aided institutions with the subsidy reduced to 75 percent of the salaries and cost-of-living allowances of approved teachers, or to relinquish control to African community organizations. Whatever their choice, the Minister might later,

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79. Malherbe, E.G., op cit., p. 546.

80. Senate Debate. 1954. (col. 2595-2622).

81. Loc. cit.

in his discretion, transfer the schools to African community organizations in which case the Department of Native Affairs would, on constituting a new school committee, appoint at least one African member to represent church interests and, also allow the missions to retain the control of the hostels on a subsidized basis, but the latter arrangements would be made subject to revision especially if they resulted in difficulties of control.<sup>82</sup>

The institutions that were most seriously affected by the elimination of mission control were the teacher training institutions, the great majority of which had been conducted by missions under White teachers. The Government decided that the training of all teachers for Government and Government-aided schools should in future be conducted in State training institutions only. In a letter dispatched on the same day as the above, managements of mission teacher training institutions were invited to say whether they proposed (a) to rent or sell their schools to the department, or (b) to close the teacher training school and instead conduct a primary or secondary school in their buildings. If they were not prepared to do either they might train teachers for their own schools entirely at their own expense, but the department would not necessarily employ teachers so trained. However, if they chose to rent or sell their schools to the department, the teachers who were at the time in the teacher training institutions would be eligible to become departmental teachers.<sup>83</sup> The mandatory transfer of the teacher training institutions from the missions to the State is evident in the following statement by Dr Verwoerd :

*"If there is a church which is prepared to maintain schools entirely at its expense, then it is their affair. They have to be registered. For that purpose a church can train its own teachers but also entirely at its own expense. Or if it wants to use some of the teachers trained in our normal*

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82. Union Government, Reports of the Department of Native Affairs. 1954-1957. Chapter V. Section 5. p. 17.

83. Cf. Horrell, M., op cit., p. 10.

*colleges it can do so. We, on the other hand, shall not necessarily employ persons who have been trained at such private schools."*<sup>84</sup>

It may indeed be true, as Freire observed, that education cannot be neutral<sup>85</sup> for in South Africa, as in most countries of the world, teachers, as the keystone of the education system, seem to be required to teach *inter alia* allegiance to the government and to endorse the *status quo*, hence the State could not employ teachers trained at the private mission institutions. It was of utmost importance that the State should assume from the outset and completely the control of teacher training institutions and supervise the preparation and provision of teachers in order to ensure the immediate accomplishment of the aims of the Bantu Education system in South Africa. As Bismarck in Germany regarded every teacher as his representative in the classroom and referred with pride to all teachers as 'a race of noncommissioned officers', so also was the attitude of the South African Government towards the African teachers trained at the State teacher training institutions. The government was aware that the churches and missionary societies were opposed to the theory underlying the Bantu Education Act and, therefore, they would not produce at the private mission teacher training institutions the necessary type of teacher to further the purposes and ends of Bantu Education system.

Many major churches and missionary societies decided most reluctantly that they had no option but to lease or sell their educational institutions to the government since the result of refusal would be to throw teachers out of employment and to deprive large numbers of children the opportunity of any kind of instruction. Even the few which at first relied on subsidies decided to lease or sell their educational institutions to the government when the subsidy was completely withdrawn in 1958. In the words of Dr W.G. McConkey, former Director of Education for Natal :

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84. Republic of South Africa, National Assembly, 3 June 1964, Hansard 17. col. 6222.

85. Freire Paulo, Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Chapter 2.

*"... for most of the churches it was the end of the road. It was beyond the material resources of any church in the 1950s to provide education for great masses of very poor children without grants-in-aid from the state as tax raising authority ... Even had the money been available, there was no guarantee they would be permitted for long to continue their work ... They accepted the inevitable and surrendered or closed their schools."*<sup>86</sup>

The churches which successfully retained some of the few schools that they ran and had never sought subsidies were the Roman Catholic and the Seventh Day Adventist churches but their schools had, in accordance with the policy of the government, to be registered as private schools, follow departmental curriculum for all subjects except religious doctrine and be subject to departmental inspection.

The Education Act No. 70 of 1955 provided for the transfer of all existing technical and vocational schools to the State control while in terms of the Extension of University Act No. 45 of 1959 provision was made for the establishment of university colleges for the 'non-white' persons and the Minister of Bantu Education was empowered to decide that particular colleges should admit only students of specified 'non-white' ethnic groups. Consequently, the University College of Fort Hare Act of 1959 was passed according to which the control of the University of Fort Hare, which owed its existence to missionary effort and which had hitherto admitted students of different races, was transferred from its Governing Council to the Minister of the then newly formed Department of Bantu Education who was empowered to limit the admission of Africans only to the defined Xhosa ethnic groups. Thus, the concern over the preservation of the ethnic identities in South Africa was extended even to higher education.

Notwithstanding the far-reaching discontinuities that missionary

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86. Theoria, May 1972. 'Bantu Education : A Critical Survey with Illustrations'. p. 11.

education set up between education and the cultural background of the Africans the dominant feature of which was the emasculation of the African social institutions, it must be agreed with Lord Selborne as cited by C.T. Loram that :

*"Missionaries, like other people, make mistakes. Natives have often been educated on unsound lines. But instead of the missionaries being the subject of reprobation they should be regarded as the people who have taken far the most trouble, and who alone have sacrificed themselves in order to ensure that the education of the native, inevitable from the moment that he came into contact with the White man, should contain something good."*<sup>87</sup>

The biggest change came about at the local level in the shift of control from the churches to the local communities where two African bodies were set up namely, the school committee and the school board. According to the 1958 Yearbook for South Africa :

*"Lack of initiative by the Bantu is still a serious obstacle to their progress. The Bantu Authorities Act which made provision for self-rule in Bantu areas was intended by the Government as a means of stimulating the interest of the Bantu in their own progress. The decision by the Native Affairs Department to establish Bantu School Committees and Bantu School Boards for the control of Bantu school, and to appoint Bantu as school inspectors, was taken in pursuance of the above policy. They are a new departure in Bantu education."*<sup>88</sup>

A prominent African educationist, W.M. Kgware, explained at an educational

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87. Cited by C.T. Loram, The Education of the South African Native. p. 78.

88. State of the Union. Economic, Financial and Statistical Yearbook for the Union of South Africa. 1958. Chapter 25. p. 113.

conference held at the University College of Fort Hare as part of the fiftieth anniversary of that institution in 1966 that the lack of initiative on the part of parents and of local communities had been inevitable in the beginning because :

*"Those who, like the present speaker, spent many years as teachers in Bantu schools before 1954 became aware of the mistaken view of many parents that the education of their children was a free or semi-free service rendered to them by the good missionaries with or without government assistance. In the circumstances, it often proved very difficult to get the average parent to take an interest in the doings of the local school: parent-teacher organizations were difficult to establish and were short-lived. The transfer of local control of schools to the community has led to a change of attitude. Any inspector of Bantu schools can tell of the keen competition in the parent community for position on school boards and school committees."*<sup>89</sup>

The institutions which enjoyed State aid soon after the promulgation of the Bantu Education Act were the following :

- (a) Under the local control of the school committees and school boards there were community schools which were by far the largest category of schools, and most of which had formerly been mission schools.
- (b) There were also Government Bantu schools which were under the direct control of the Bantu Education Department and comprised schools where White teachers were employed including teacher training institutions, vocational schools, special schools and schools situated on Government property to cater for the

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89. Kgware, W.M., 'The Present Revolution in Bantu Education and its Implications for the Future'. P.A. Duminy, (Editor), Trends and Challenges in the Education of the South African Bantu. p. 57.

children of African labourers employed there.

- (c) The third category comprised farm, mine, factory, and hospital schools established by the owners of farms, mines and factories respectively on their properties for the benefit of the children of their *bona fide* African employees and, in the case of hospital schools, by the hospitals and convalescent homes for primary school children who needed medical treatment and were in isolation for a period of at least three months.

### 2.2.2 Subsequent Developments and Trends in Teacher Education Practice

Since educational practice at primary and secondary school levels in all the education systems of the world determines the development of teacher education system, it is necessary to examine the developments and trends in Transkei teacher education system during the period under review in conjunction with the developments and trends in primary and secondary education. However, as a prelude, and in order to clarify the position as at the time of the inception of the new system, the first five years of educational practice under the Nationalist regime in South Africa (1949-1954) will be considered.

The Department of Native Affairs reported that during the year 1949-1950 the enrolment at all types of schools in Transkei had continued to increase and that the most significant development had been in the rural secondary schools scattered throughout the area. In an effort to restrict enrolment in the schools, as there were no funds available to provide the additional teachers required, children were only admitted to the sub-standards in January and July, and a maximum of 50 pupils per teacher was fixed. The standard of entrance to the teaching profession was raised and the old Primary Lower Course with Standard VI as entrance requirement had almost disappeared while arrangements were being made for a post-matriculation course of training for teachers of the upper primary classes.<sup>90</sup>

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90. Union of South Africa. Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Year 1949-1950. Section 6. p. 37.

During the years 1950-1951, it was possible, as a result of more funds having been made available by central government, to assist in Transkei a further 40 primary schools and almost 200 additional teachers were appointed since April, 1951. The number of schools and pupils in Transkei in that year were as follows :

Table A  
Number of Schools and Pupils in Transkei in 1951<sup>91</sup>

Types of Institutions	Number of Institutions	Number of Pupils Enrolled
Training Schools	8	925
High Schools	4	862
Secondary Schools	27	3 745
Primary Schools	1 307	147 789
Industrial Schools	10	348
	1 356	153 669

Source: Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1950-1959

During the same year, St. John's College in Umtata introduced a new advanced two years' course for teachers while the Flagstaff Training School undertook the task of providing short refresher courses for employed teachers.<sup>92</sup>

The years 1951-1952 witnessed a further appointment of an additional 200 teachers in Transkei also as a result of the funds which were made available by central government to the Cape Provincial Administration.

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91. Union of South Africa. Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Year 1950-1951. Chapter XV. Section (a). p. 18.

92. Loc. cit.

Scholars on the roll increased by approximately 10 000, there being more than 163 000 children attending school in Transkei. This represented already approximately 50 percent of the children of school-going age. The first group of candidates for the post-matriculation Native Primary Teachers' Advanced Certificate sat for their examination at the end of 1951. In-service refresher courses continued to be offered for teachers at Flagstaff. A steady demand for higher education in Transkei was also reported.<sup>93</sup>

More than 200 additional teachers were further appointed in Transkei during the year 1952-1953 thus making the number so employed approximately 4 100 but the work in the secondary, high, and training schools continued to be gravely handicapped by the acute shortage of adequately qualified teachers which naturally imposed a limit on the expansion of post-primary education in the area. The refresher courses for teachers in service which continued to be conducted at the Frank de Villiers Training School at Flagstaff proved both popular and valuable and succeeded in arousing the enthusiasm of teachers for their profession and in raising the standard of work in the schools. A sidelight on the effect on education of the Department of Native Affairs' rehabilitation scheme was a marked increase in the attendance at the schools in those locations where as the result of fencing a large number of children who formerly herded stock were then able to go to school.<sup>94</sup>

It then becomes apparent that education in Transkei was at the time of inception of the Bantu Education system in the grip of two major forces, namely, ever-increasing school population especially at the primary school level and high teacher shortage particularly in the secondary, high and teacher training schools. It also appears that very little was done to provide facilities for the preparation and provision of post-matriculation teachers in Transkei, hence the steady development of secondary education during the period under review. This might as well

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93. Union of South Africa. Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Year 1951-1952. Chapter XV. p. 19.

94. Union of South Africa. Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Year 1952-1953. Chapter XV. Section 4. p. 22.

have been the cause of the noticeable high pupil wastage at the primary school level and, to a certain extent, also at the secondary school level. The statistical figures of the schools and pupils in Transkei supplied by the Department of Native Affairs in its Annual Report for the year 1950-1951 clearly reveal this defect.<sup>95</sup> In-service education facilities were most obviously inadequate if for the whole area refresher courses were only conducted once a year for all teachers at Flagstaff. These then were the problems which remained to be tackled under the new dispensation for African education namely, Bantu Education system.

By June 1957, Transkei already had the highest number of community schools in terms of the classification of African schools in the Union by the Department of Native Affairs. The total number of pupils enrolled in the community schools in Transkei surpassed by far those enrolled in similar schools in the other five regions namely, Northern Transvaal, Southern Transvaal, Orange Free State, Natal and Ciskei. This indicated the extent of responsibility for and control of the education of their own children already assumed by the communities of Transkei since the Bantu Education Act (No. 47 of 1953) became law on January 1, 1954, and with the subsequent establishment of the various categories of schools. Tables B and C (on Pages 118 and 119 respectively) show the number of schools in various categories and the total enrolment respectively in June, 1957.

The highest measure of responsibility for and control of education by the communities in Transkei as compared with similar involvement by the communities in the other five regions is further indicated by the fact that of the total of 4 328 schools controlled and run by the school boards in the Union in 1957, 1 421 were in Transkei, 717 in Northern Transvaal, 408 in Southern Transvaal, 832 in Natal, 310 in the Orange Free State, and 641 in the Ciskei while of the total of 18 312 teachers employed and controlled by the school boards in the Union in the same year, 4 268 served in community schools in Transkei, 3 029 in Northern

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95. Supra. p. 115.

Table B  
Number of Schools in Various Categories in June, 1957<sup>96</sup>

	N.Tvl.	S.Tvl.	O.F.S.	Natal	Transkei	Ciskei	Total
(a) Government Bantu Schools	34	24	18	77	35	24	212
(b) Community Schools	706	406	289	864	1 300	596	4 161
(c) Farm Schools	298	138	512	219	25	213	1 405
(d) Mine or Factory Schools	38	41	14	19	1	15	128
(e) Aided Mission Schools	31	37	33	241	39	33	414
TOTAL	1 107	646	866	1 420	1 400	881	6 320

Source: Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1954-1957.

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96. Union of South Africa. Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1954-1957. Chapter Five. Section I. p. 19.

Table C  
The Total Pupil Enrolment in June, 1957<sup>97</sup>

	N.Tvl.	S.Tvl.	O.F.S.	Natal	Transkei	Ciskei	Total
(a) Government Bantu Schools	6 781	5 140	4 783	17 449	6 026	5 520	45 699
(b) Community Schools	185 370	187 696	93 298	153 164	198 514	126 130	944 172
(c) Farm Schools	36 851	17 313	49 362	23 581	1 130	15 104	143 341
(d) Mine or Factory Schools	6 509	5 820	1 700	3 904	15	1 109	19 057
(e) Aided Mission Schools	8 157	15 174	8 641	34 340	4 249	4 187	74 748
TOTAL	243 668	231 143	157 784	232 438	209 934	152 050	1 227 017

Source: Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1954-1957.

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97. Loc. cit.

Transvaal, 3 331 in Southern Transvaal, 3 169 in Natal, 1 793 in the Orange Free State, and 2 722 in the Ciskei.<sup>98</sup> The distribution of school boards, schools controlled and run by the school boards and teachers employed and controlled by the school boards in inspectors' circuits in Transkei as at June 30, 1957 was as follows :

Table D

The Distribution of School Boards, Schools and Teachers  
in Inspectors' Circuits in Transkei in June, 1957<sup>99</sup>

Inspectoral Circuit	School Boards	Number of Schools	Number of Teachers
Umtata No. I	5	199	588
Umtata No. II	3	177	541
Kokstad No. I	5	261	716
Kokstad No. II	2	165	506
Butterworth	5	268	921
Engcobo	4	209	632
Matatiele	4	142	364
Total	28	1 421	4 268

Source: Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1954-1957.

It must be conceded, therefore, that the system afforded the people of Transkei greater opportunity to administer their own educational affairs, a fact that partly explains why Transkei took the lead in attaining self-government in 1963 and subsequently full independence in 1976.

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98. Ibid. Section 4. p. 22.

99. Loc. cit.

Further reference to this point will be made in the next Chapter when the constitutional development in Transkei and its effects on teacher education policies and practice are examined.

Regarding the courses and syllabuses, the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission as well as the provisions of the Bantu Education Act were adopted and implemented. New syllabuses for the following courses were drawn up and introduced throughout the country between 1954 and 1957 :

- (i) Lower Primary Course (Sub-Standard A to Standard II).
- (ii) Higher Primary Course (Standard III to Standard VI).
- (iii) Junior Certificate Course (Form I to Form III).
- (iv) A three-year post-Standard VI Lower Primary Teachers' Course.
- (v) A two-year post-Junior Certificate Higher Primary Teachers' Course.
- (vi) A two-year post-matriculation Bantu Teachers' Diploma.

The Senior Certificate syllabus of the Joint Matriculation Board was adopted for all High Schools. In accounting for the admission of women only to the Lower Primary Teachers' Course the Department of Education, Arts and Science had this to say in its journal, 'Lantern', in 1961 :

*"Only women are admitted to this course as it is felt that they are better equipped than men to deal with young children. For this reason an effort is being made to discourage men from teaching in the lower standards of the primary school where female teachers are available."*<sup>100</sup>

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100. Republic of South Africa, Department of Education, Arts and Science, 'Lantern : Journal of Knowledge and Culture'. Volume XI, No. 1. September. 1961. p. 84.

According to the Departmental report issued for the years 1954-1957, "... no men students have been enrolled for the Lower Primary Teachers' Course since 1955."<sup>101</sup> Small wonder, therefore, that Muriel Horrell reported by 1963 a sharp rise in the ranks of serving women teachers since 1959.<sup>102</sup> Of the total number of the students, but excluding the First year students for the Lower Primary Teachers' Course, enrolled for teacher training in the Union in June, 1957, 2 204 were women in their Second and Third years of the Lower Primary Teachers' Course, 987 in their First and Second years of the Higher Primary Teachers' Course and 11 in their First and Second years of the Bantu Teachers' Diploma while the corresponding figures of male students in the same year were as follows: 14 in their Second and Third years of the Lower Primary Teachers' Course against 2 204 female students, 879 in their First and Second years of the Higher Primary Teachers' Course against 987 female students, and 83 in their First and Second years of the Bantu Teachers' Diploma against 11 female students. Presented by means of a table, the picture was as follows :

Table E

Total Number of Male and Female Students Enrolled  
for Teacher Training in June, 1957<sup>103</sup>

Lower Primary TC 2nd and 3rd Years		Higher Primary TC 1st and 2nd Years		Bantu T Diploma 1st and 2nd Years		Total
M	W	M	W	M	W	M & W
14	2 204	879	987	83	11	4 178

Source: Report of the Department of Native Affairs for the Years 1954-1957.

101. Union of South Africa, 1954-1957. op cit., Section 7. p. 25.

102. Horrell, M., op. cit., p. 86.

103. Union of South Africa, 1954-1957. op cit., Section 7. p. 25.

The growth in enrolments of male and female teachers already in service between the years 1959 and 1963 were also illustrated statistically by the Minister in the Assembly on 12 March, 1963 as follows :

Table F

Growth Rate of Male and Female Teachers as on the First  
Tuesday of June of Each Year from 1959 to 1963<sup>104</sup>

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

Source: House of Assembly, 12 March 1963, Hansard 8. col. 2567.

A striking phenomenon, apart from the high growth rate of female enrolments, which the above statistics also reveal, is, a steady rise during the period under review in the total number of teachers as compared with the alarming high growth rate in the number of school-going pupils especially at the primary school level. In Transkei alone, of the total number of 189 006 pupils enrolled in the various classes and types of schools as on 31 December 1956, only 1 511 were enrolled in the teacher training institutions in the area. The total number of teachers in service and paid by the State in Transkei in the same year was 4 478.<sup>105</sup>

Concerning the subjects offered at the teacher training institutions, the

104. National Assembly, 12 March 1963. Hansard 8. col. 2567.

105. Union of South Africa, 1954-1957. op cit., Section 9. pp. 27-28.

following groups of subjects were taken for the Lower Primary Teachers' Course :

- Group I : Principles of education, child study and general method for the lower primary school, school organization, practical teaching, blackboard work and writing.
- Group II : Afrikaans, English, Bantu language, and arithmetic.
- Group III : Religious instruction, hygiene and physical training, environmental study, music and singing, needlework, arts and crafts.

For the Higher Teachers' Course, the general principles of education and method were taught in the first year, and in the second year there was a measure of specialization. Women students concentrated on the work of Standards III and IV, whereas men received training for Standards V and VI. They also received special training in organization and school management. The structure of the syllabus was more or less identical to that of the Lower Primary Teachers' Course, though the emphasis was naturally on the work of the Higher Primary school. The post-matriculation teachers' course, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma, was offered at the University Colleges for Africans, at Ngoye near Empangeni in Zululand for the Zulu ethnic group, at Turfloop near Pietersburg in the Northern Transvaal for the Sotho groups, and at Fort Hare near Alice in the Cape for the Xhosa ethnic group.<sup>106</sup> The curriculum which was common to all these institutions was as follows :

- Group I : A first-year degree course consisting of five approved B.A. subjects or four B.Sc subjects.

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106. The University College of Fort Hare was established in 1916 as the South African Native College, a name it retained until 1952 when it was renamed the University of Fort Hare. The University Colleges of the North and Zululand were established in 1960.

- Group II : (Academic) : Bantu languages, Afrikaans and English.
- Group III : (Professional) : Principles of teaching, empirical education, school organization, practical teaching, history of education.
- Group IV : (Professional) : A modern language. The method of teaching four of the following: General science, biology, physical chemistry, agriculture, arithmetic, mathematics, commerce, commercial arithmetic, typewriting, shorthand, Afrikaans, English, mother-tongue, Latin, social studies.
- Group V : (Practical) : Blackboard work and aids to teaching. One of the following: Needlework, arts and crafts, music, woodwork, gardening, and religious education or physical education.

The course was designed to train teachers for the first three classes in the high school namely, Forms I, II and III. Prospective teachers for the other two remaining classes in the high school namely, Forms IV (or Standard 9) and V (or Standard 10) had to take a one-year University Education Diploma after a bachelor's degree at the colleges. The curriculum for this course comprised professional subjects, practical teaching, methods of teaching any two secondary school subjects whose indepth study in the course of studying for the bachelor's degree was a prerequisite, and the practical subjects as listed under Group V above. The curriculum for the one-year University Education Diploma (Non-Graduate) also for the teachers of the upper classes of the secondary school was the same except that the possession of a bachelor's degree was not a prerequisite. It is significant to note that these two diploma courses shared a common curriculum structure with the universities for

Whites.<sup>107</sup>

To the last three courses for teachers of the secondary school classes, and particularly to the last two courses for teachers of the upper classes of the secondary school, B.O. Smith's characterization of teacher training courses in the USA most appropriately applies: "A basic liberal arts programme covered over with a thin veneer of pedagogy."<sup>108</sup> The statement can be substantiated by reference to T.H.B. Hollins's contention that :

*"The most common complaint of teachers about their initial training is that it is too abstract and gives insufficient preparation for the classroom. The Colleges aim to provide both a higher education and an adequate introduction to teaching. They do neither very well, particularly the second."*<sup>109</sup>

In the same vein, Fafunwa has this to say :

*"It is rather ironic that of all the world's leading professions ... the teaching profession which trains personnel for its own occupation as well as for all other professions, has the shortest period given to professional training, at least in Africa. It is believed by many well-meaning people that knowledge of the subject matter is the most important qualification a teacher should possess. Consequently in countries such as the United Kingdom and France, for instance, nine months training after a bachelor's degree is all that it takes to make a graduate teacher, while a doctor, engineer, or minister of religion takes a much*

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107. Cf. Behr, A.L., R.G. Macmillan, Education in South Africa. 1st Edition. p. 280.

108. Smith, B.O., S. Cohen, and A. Pearl, Teachers for the Real World. p. 24.

109. Hollins, T.H.B., 'Desirable Changes in the Structure of Courses'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), Teaching the Teachers. Trends in Teacher Education. p. 88.

*longer time to qualify for his profession. Yet the welfare of any country and its people depends on its teachers: for the quality and quantity of all the other professions are vitally influenced by the calibre of the country's teachers ...; unsure teachers will produce poorly prepared doctors, engineers, economists and so on, and good teachers, like mediocre, will tend to reproduce their own kind."*<sup>110</sup>

In order to appreciate fully the problem of the African countries as outlined by Fafunwa in the above passage, it is necessary to take into account the historical context because its occurrence could, and still can, be attributed to its historical antecedents. It is thus imperative to pause awhile and take stock of the historical events which contributed to the prevalence of the phenomenon under consideration. Historically, most African countries had been under the tutelage of one colonial power or another, and the educational systems prevalent in the metropolitan countries had been transported to the African territories with little or no modification. Consequently, the goals, the content and the methods of education were, and to a great extent still are, patterned after those of the metropolitan countries. So also were the goals, content and methods of teacher education. It will be demonstrated in the subsequent Chapters of this study that the professional courses in education plus the teaching practice do not by themselves constitute the preparation of the teacher. Neither do general education and specialized subject-matter competence together alone constitute the full preparation of teachers. What then constitutes good professional training for the teacher? This question, to which answers vary widely, will be returned to in due course.

The greatest weakness in the implementation of the curriculum for the primary school teachers' courses namely, the Lower Primary Teachers' Course and the Higher Primary Teachers' Course, pertained to the crucial issue of language medium. The position regarding the medium of

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110. Fafunwa, A.B., New Perspectives in African Education. pp. 97-98.

instruction in the primary schools was explained as follows in 1957 :

*"The mother-tongue as medium of instruction has been introduced in the Lower and Higher Primary school. This policy is also being applied progressively in classes on secondary level, but cannot be made compulsory until the problem of the lack of terminology and other technical difficulties which render its effective use impracticable, are overcome ... it is hoped that in a comparatively short time the two official languages will receive equal treatment in all schools. Wherever practicable Afrikaans is being introduced as medium of instruction in Secondary schools for half of the subjects taught."*<sup>111</sup>

What obtained in the secondary schools as a matter of practice in respect of the medium of instruction equally applied in the teacher training institutions; the students received their professional training, especially in method, in an official language. Circumstances in the schools, however, demanded that they conducted practical teaching lessons in the mother-tongue. In the circumstances, they had to transfer the knowledge gained through the official language into the mother-tongue. This involved the interpretation of new ideas and facts in terms of the mother-tongue and, in the words of R. Cingo :

*"... ideas which have been formulated in one language are so difficult to express through modes of another, that a person habitually faced with this task can readily lose his facility to express himself."*<sup>112</sup>

No matter how expertly the syllabuses of the teacher training institutions were designed, the total result of their implementation was adversely affected by the incompatibility between the medium of instruction used

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111. Union of South Africa, 1954-1957. op cit., Section 5. p. 24.

112. Cingo, R., 'Aspects of Mother-Tongue Instruction'. P.A. Duminy, (Editor), op cit., p. 147.

at the training institutions and that enforced in the schools.

On 20 October 1958, a separate Department of Bantu Education was established and placed under a separate Minister. The years which followed namely, 1959 to 1963, witnessed a continued increase in school enrolments. The number of pupils increased in 1961 by 100 129 or approximately eight percent, while 1 439 additional teachers were appointed and 1 083 new classrooms occupied.<sup>113</sup> A shortage of suitably qualified teachers for secondary schools was reported as being serious and posing a problem. In 1960 the Bantu Teachers' Diploma Course was discontinued at the teachers' training schools and replaced by the South African Teachers' Diploma Course at the University Colleges. The course covered two years, one year of which was academic and the other professional. However, against the sharp rise in the number of school-going pupils, there was high pupil wastage, and the disproportionate distribution of pupils amongst the classes ranging from Sub-Standard A of the Lower Primary School to Standard 10 or Form V of the High School as well as the disparity between the total number of pupils enrolled in all of the above classes and the total number of students enrolled in the Teacher Training institutions not only pointed at the incidence of a high drop-out rate in the schools but also indicated the prevalence of high pupil/teacher ratios in the classrooms. The foregoing shortcomings in Bantu Education system can best be illustrated by the statistical information which appeared in the 1961 Annual Report of the Department of Bantu Education (Table G. p.130 ) :

Apart from the total of 488 White teachers serving in the schools for Africans, the distribution according to qualifications of African teachers was in 1961 as illustrated in Table I (p. 132), and as it readily becomes evident, the great majority of teachers were qualified to teach in the primary schools only, while the total number of teachers without professional qualification was alarmingly high.

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113. Republic of South Africa, Department of Bantu Education, Annual Report for the Calendar Year 1961. Chapter 1. p. 1.

Table G

(a) Increase in the Total Number of Pupils at Schools During the Period 1950-1961<sup>114</sup>

Year	Lower Primary	Higher Primary	Post Primary	Total
1950	538 216	174 777	23 331	736 324
1951	561 659	193 794	22 880	778 333
1952	587 166	203 186	24 350	814 714
1953	616 030	217 488	26 437	859 955
1954	671 873	233 426	32 907	938 206
1955	731 170	239 069	43 119	1 013 358
1956	806 912	249 545	46 465	1 102 922
1957	930 967	279 471	47 767	1 258 205
1958	991 229	303 714	49 696	1 344 639
1959	1 026 038	337 586	50 636	1 414 260
1960	1 099 838	362 891	55 334	1 518 063
1961	1 158 120	397 695	52 853	1 608 668

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Bantu Education for the Year 1961.

A development of significance in 1961 was the taking over in Transkei by the South African Government of the church hostels at Sigcawu Teacher Training School and at St. Johns College in spite of the general policy of the Department of Bantu Education regarding the transfer of church hostels namely, that :

*"The general policy is wherever possible to have community control rather than Government control even if there are*

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114. Ibid. Chapter 8. p. 10.

Table H

(b) Distribution of Pupils in Classes During 1961<sup>115</sup>

Class	Number	Percentage of Total
Sub-Standard A	409 490	25,5
Sub-Standard B	294 938	18,3
Standard 1	253 627	15,8
Standard 2	200 065	12,4
Total Lower Primary	1 158 120	72,0
Standard 3	146 626	9,1
Standard 4	107 527	6,7
Standard 5	78 872	4,9
Standard 6	64 670	4,0
Total Higher Primary	397 695	24,7
Form 1	18 684	1,2
Form 2	15 481	1,0
Form 3	10 196	0,63
Form 4	2 046	0,13
Form 5	975	0,06
Teacher Training	3 697	0,23
Vocational Training	1 775	0,11
Grand Total	1 608 668	100,0

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Bantu Education for the Year 1961.

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115. Loc. cit.

Table I

Distribution of Teachers According to Qualifications in 1961<sup>116</sup>

	Primary Schools	Secondary and Teachers' Training	Vocational Schools	Total
1. Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate (LPTC)	14 433	227	8	14 668
2. Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (HPTC)	8 704	709	6	9 419
3. Bantu Teachers' Diploma	23	110	5	138
4. Degree Only	4	15	-	19
5. Degree and Professional Qualification	102	552	2	656
6. LPTC or HPTC Special Course	115	38	-	153
7. Without Degree or Professional Qualification	1 956	22	1	1 979
8. Technical Qualification	179	76	53	308
Total	25 516	1 749	75	27 340

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Bantu Education for the Year 1961.

116. Ibid. Chapter 7. p. 9.

*Whites on the teaching staff."*<sup>117</sup>

It was, however, explained that :

*"So far no Bantu Authority has been able to take over any of the Government or Church-controlled hostels (and that) it is, however, expected that as they gain administrative experience, Bantu Authorities will be able to take over this function."*<sup>118</sup>

The establishment and consolidation of educational services under the control of the Department of Bantu Education were continued during 1962 with the result that the year was characterized by steady growth, considerable development and expansion in almost every sphere. The main features of the activities of the Department of Bantu Education were outlined in the departmental annual report for the year. The enrolment at the schools increased by 75 758 (4,7 percent) and an appreciable number of new schools commenced activities during the year. It was further reported that during the year 1 April 1961 to 31 March 1962 the total number of teachers increased by 1 021 (3,7 percent) to a total of 28 849, the greatest increase being at community schools.<sup>119</sup> The disparity between the 4,7 percent growth rate of pupils and the 3,7 percent growth rate of teachers pointed at the prevalence of teacher shortage and incidence of high pupil/teacher ratio. A shortage of well-qualified teachers, particularly in some key subjects, such as Afrikaans, Science and Mathematics in the secondary schools, was reported. Continual changes and a shortage of trained staff often made it difficult to maintain a proper standard, and owing to the lack of funds for the full subsidization of all teachers, some local bodies employed teachers privately. It was not always the best qualified teachers, however, who were employed in this way. It was further conceded that since staffing

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117. Ibid. p. 16.

118. Loc. cit.

119. Republic of South Africa, Department of Bantu Education. Annual Report for the Calendar Year 1962. Chapter 2. p. 1.

was based on class attendance, some classes in the primary schools were very large. As regards the spirit and attitude of teachers an observation was made that :

*"On the whole good co-operation has been obtained from the teachers. In isolated cases the attitude of teachers towards their work left nothing to be desired, and some teachers showed a lack of a sense of responsibility."*<sup>120</sup>

Low teacher morale continued however, to be one of the most unfavourable features of the teaching profession all over the world and stemmed from the poor conditions of service some of the main characteristics of which included admission of untrained and unqualified teachers into the teaching profession, poor salaries, and poor public image of an erstwhile respected profession. The influence of the standard of morale of the teachers already in service on the quality of pre-service teacher education cannot be overemphasized for poor teachers, as was earlier on indicated, tend to reproduce their own kind just as good teachers tend to reproduce their own kind.

Notable changes in the form of re-organization of the teacher education programmes were effected during the year, 1962. First, the Department of Bantu Education decided to discontinue the Lower Primary Teachers' Course gradually as from the beginning of 1963 on the grounds that the course had become unpopular and, to re-organize the original structure of the Higher Primary Teachers' Course into a general Primary Teachers' Course for all prospective primary school teachers regardless of the level at which they would actually teach in the primary school. The revised syllabuses for both the Lower and Higher Primary Teachers' Courses which were published in 1962 were, therefore, adapted accordingly. For male pupil teachers the emphasis would be placed on the work prescribed for Standards III to VI, while for female pupil teachers the emphasis would be on the work prescribed for Sub-Standard A to Standard IV. It

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120. Ibid. Chapter 4. p. 6.

was further reported that new additional courses were instituted during the same year at some university colleges with a view to relieving the shortage of teachers of Mathematics, Physical Science and General Science, and the University College of Zululand was cited as one of such colleges.<sup>121</sup> The supply of suitably qualified teachers of the official languages was no better than that of the sciences. However, it appears that the universities still continue to concentrate on the teaching of English literature despite the recommendation by Branford that "The universities should make better provision for the study of English grammar, speech and communication."<sup>122</sup> Lanham, on the other hand, felt that :

*"To strive for self-sufficient teachers of English is to set an impossible target ... To aim at turning out the complete teacher may, in normal circumstances, be good educational practice, but in Africa it is a counsel of perfection without the slightest hope of realization."*<sup>123</sup>

Undaunted by the pessimism of the prophets of doom such as the above, the Cingo Commission, which was appointed in 1962 to inquire into the teaching of the official languages and the use of the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction in the primary schools of Transkei, recommended that English or Afrikaans should be gradually substituted for Xhosa as the medium of instruction in the primary schools.<sup>124</sup>

The forces which had continued to shape the structure of teacher education during the period under review were still active by the end

121. Ibid. Chapter 4. p. 7.

122. Branford, W.R.G., 'The English Language and the English-Speaking Matriculant'. Report to the Conference of the English Academy of Southern Africa, Johannesburg. July, 1966. p. 18.

123. Lanham, L.W., 'Teaching English in Bantu Primary Schools'. Star. 15 September 1966.

124. Republic of South Africa, Commission of Inquiry into the Teaching of the Official Languages and the Use of Mother-Tongue as Medium of Instruction in Transkeian Primary Schools. p. 131.

of the period, that is, by December 1963. Educational progress continued to be impeded by great teacher shortage especially in the secondary schools. Although the number of teachers had further increased and reached a total of 31 629, that did not have any positive effect for the number of pupils attending school had at the same time gone up by far to reach a total of 1 770 371. It was also quite evident that there was no hope for an immediate future solution because only 4 186 students were enrolled in that year at the teacher training schools whose number remained at eight in Transkei.<sup>125</sup> The reference made to the Cingo Commission pointed to the possible revival of another powerful force which had affected the quality of teacher education during the period under review namely, the changes in the content and method of education particularly a change in the medium of instruction in Transkei. There was still a steady development of secondary education despite the pressures from society for more differentiated education because of the insufficient supply of secondary school teachers. In any consideration of teacher supply, the recruitment and selection procedures as well as the staff retention measures, have to be considered. The common practice as regards the recruitment and selection procedures was that, in the cynical words of Shaw, "Those who can, do; those who cannot teach!"<sup>126</sup> Those who joined the teaching profession did so not out of any exalted sense of vocation, but rather out of necessity. Some came to the teaching profession as an escape-route or outlet from failure in some directions. Others used teaching as a launching pad on their way to professions of their choice. The result was instability, uncertainty and lack of commitment on the part of many teachers. Coupled with this, there was a perennial exodus of teachers, especially the graduate teachers, from teaching into occupations which seemed more lucrative and held bright prospects of advancement.<sup>127</sup> The need for such staff retention measures like continuous in-service education programmes and the amelioration of

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125. Republic of South Africa, Department of Bantu Education. Annual Report for the Calendar Year 1963. Chapter 1. p. 1.

126. Cf. Hilliard, F.H., 'Theory and Practice in Teacher Education'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), op cit., p. 33.

127. Kgwere, W.M., 'The Present Revolution in Bantu Education and its Implications for the Future'. P.A. Duminy, (Editor), op cit., p. 61.

the conditions of service cannot be overemphasized. These, then, were the problems which the Transkei Department of Education inherited from the South African Department of Bantu Education and with which it had to grapple during the next phase in the development of teacher education in the area.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### THE SELF-GOVERNMENT ERA : DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION (1964-1976)

#### 1 Some Formative Aspects About Transkei

Since the appearance of Kandel's pioneer work on Comparative Education about a half-century ago, there has been amongst educationists a growing realization that a number of forces and factors such as the geographical, demographic, economic and political conditions all combine to influence, determine and shape the education system of a nation. It was Kandel who first contended that education cannot be viewed as an autonomous enterprise but always in relation to the geographical features and the social, economic and political conditions of the environment.<sup>1</sup>

A preliminary examination of some of the formative aspects about Transkei is therefore desirable in order to determine those forces and factors in Transkei which favoured and led to the granting by the South African Government of self-government to the people of Transkei in 1963 and to the subsequent establishment by the Transkei Government in 1964 of a separate Department of Education, which constitutional events not only in turn influenced and marked a turning point in the development of Transkei teacher education system but also contributed directly to and shaped the current trends in teacher education in the country.

#### 1.1 The Geographical Setting

Transkei, located on the south-eastern coast of Southern Africa, has an area of 4,4 million hectares and a 300 kilometre coastline. The country, situated between the Drakensberg Mountains and the Indian Ocean,

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1. Kandel, I.L., The Methodology of Comparative Education. International Review of Education. Vol. V, No. 3, 1959. pp. 271-273.

and between Natal and the Great Kei River, is the largest single territory within the Republic of South Africa and is  $1\frac{1}{3}$  times larger than either Belgium, or the Netherlands, and about the same size as Switzerland and Denmark and considerably larger than either Lesotho or Swaziland.

Topographically the area divides into four main physical regions: the coastal belt, the midlands, the highlands, and the great escarpment. The coastal belt occupies the area from the seacoast to about 2 000 feet above sea level. Characteristic of this area is the fact that the grain of the land lies toward the sea. As a result the land is deeply dissected, trenched by the precipitous canyons of the rivers that flow eastward from the Drakensberg Mountains. The shoreline is extremely regular, and there are no good natural harbours. Generally, agriculture and cultivation are difficult in the coastal area.

Between the coastal strip and the highlands lies a corridor of plateau country that extends from the 2 000-foot to the 4 000-foot contour. This part of the Transkei is gently undulating and, since it is cut by the upper courses of the rivers that flow into the Indian Ocean, it is a region also of countless hills and valleys, mesas, and sharply pointed peaks. Toward the north the corridor becomes progressively more mountainous in the Tabankulu, Mount Ayliff, and Mount Currie districts, and here considerable afforestation projects have been initiated.

The highlands occupy the area between the 4 000- and the 6 000-foot contours and form a region of considerable variety. There are great mountain masses in the districts of Mount Fletcher and Matatiele, which are part of the foothills of the Drakensberg Mountains. The country is generally barren, with narrow valleys of shallow alluvial soil, but there are also areas of grass-covered flats, particularly in the Matatiele and Umzimkulu districts.

Finally, in the northwest are the mountain fastnesses of the Drakensberg, which mark the outer marches of Lesotho.

Six perennial rivers namely, the Kei, Bashee, Umtata, Tsitsa, Thina, and Umzimvubu, all take their rise in the uplands and flow eastward toward the sea. The climate is fairly equable. The average rainfall is more than thirty inches, and precipitation is never less than twenty inches, but the rainfall is unreliable, and frequent droughts make life hazardous for the peasant farmer using age-old, inefficient methods of agriculture and on occasion large quantities of grain must be imported into the area to prevent widespread starvation.

The country provides excellent grazing in most areas and is able to support a large cattle population, but because of the ritual place cattle occupy in African social life, the whole of the Transkei is greatly overstocked, in some areas rising to at least 40 percent in excess of normal carrying capacity. Overgrazing plus poor agricultural methods and occasional torrential downpours have caused much of the soil of the Transkei to be badly eroded. The typical vegetation is grass which has been cropped by thousands of cattle and sheep to a lawnlike shortness. Patches of forest, particularly in the coastal and on the slopes of the escarpment occur while in the river valleys vegetation changes to predominantly thorn shrub dotted with aloes which color the slopes in winter.

## 1.2 The Demographic Aspects

One outstanding demographic feature of the Transkei is high population growth rate. According to the 1960 census the total population for all races was 1 500 000 persons of whom the only non-Africans were 10 000 Coloureds, 30 Asians and 14 000 Whites. Ten years later a total population of 1 761 774 was recorded of whom 1 744 563 were Africans, 7 645 Coloureds, 9 556 Whites and 10 Asians. The latest statistics indicate a total population of 2,9 million persons and a 2,8 percent annual average growth rate.<sup>2</sup> According to demographers

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2. Republic of Transkei. Department of Foreign Affairs and Information. Population Projection 1970-2000. p. 4.

any figure above 1,25 population growth rate has serious implications for education, economy and job opportunities, and in the field of education in particular the problems which normally arise as a result relate to the provision of adequate educational facilities, high growth rate of the school-going pupil population and the adequate supply of well-qualified teachers.

Coupled with the above is a very high birth rate but this, however, is balanced by a high mortality rate particularly amongst infants and very young children. During the year 1969 a total of 20 259 births and 13 965 deaths were registered while a total of 3 436 marriages were solemnized. During the year 1972 a total of 32 372 births and 14 383 deaths were registered while a total of 3 394 marriages were solemnized during the same period. An average of 218 babies are born each day in Transkei according to the latest statistics.<sup>3</sup> During the year 1977 43 percent of the total population were children under fifteen years of age which indicated a very high average number of children to a family, and this too tends to have serious implications for education as the majority of parents cannot afford, due to lack of financial means, to provide all their children with the minimum standard of education required to enable them to be self-sufficient. Also, both the 1970 census which recorded a total of 715 032 African men and 1 029 531 African women and the 1977 statistics which revealed that the ratio of men along the age cohorts 15-19 to 75 was lower than that of women imply that the education of women, their employment and contribution to community development are all crucial.

Transkei, as with all the other independent African states, is characterized by a high rate of illiteracy, and the pagan-mythological world of culture with its magic cult still predominates though the scientific and conceptual way of thinking of the West has, since the days of contact with the White colonists around 1778, continued to make a deep impression as the more adequate way for the functional control of the

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3. Republic of Transkei. Department of Interior and Social Welfare. First Five Year Plan 1981/2-1986/7. p. 17.

environment than the magic cult. Rural-urban migration especially into Umtata and Butterworth is pronounced while migratory labour into the industrial centres of the Republic of South Africa is still a characteristic feature of Transkei as it is with the other neighbouring African states.

A marked characteristic of the majority of people's outlook to life is the general conformity to, conservation of, and blind love for the past. As D.M. Ntusi puts it :

*"A puzzling thing is the apparently rigid, unchanging mental attitudes of our people, their conservatism and inertia ... on the average the Xhosa people like any other African group, thinks and acts as a community and each member of the community wishes to act with the many. To him social approval is essential. It is only some powerful personality in the group that dare come forward boldly to initiate some new and unknown practice and thus set a new example for others to follow suit."*<sup>4</sup>

The demand for an immediate and definite break-through against opposition to progress and development seems to be very urgent and, to achieve this goal, Transkei, like the other relatively young African states, has put all her faith in education as a panacea for all her social ills and as a means to break with the past. Since the teacher is pivotal in the whole process of active education, Transkei realizes the need for a well-planned and organized teacher education system.

The average density of the population for the Transkei as a whole was recorded as 89,4 persons per square mile in 1967, but a considerable variation between districts was reckoned. The people of Transkei, like all Africans, live largely in homestead groups of four or five

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4. Ntusi, D.M., Education and Economic Development of the Transkei. W. Backer, (Editor), The Economic Development of the Transkei. pp. 43-44.

huts that dot the country, but tend to concentrate in river valleys along the tops of escarpments and on the sides of mountain slopes. Substantial areas of cultivation and grazing usually separate such settlements, thus allowing the Transkei to appear to be a thinly populated region.

The tribes of Transkei, save for a few Sotho chiefdoms in the north-western districts of Matatiele and Mount Fletcher, are commonly spoken of as the 'Xhosa' but ethnographers contend that this is incorrect usage for the tribes speak dialects of the Xhosa language and are divided among a number of mainly unrelated tribal clusters, each with its own history, customs, and strong sense of identity. There are twelve of these clusters: Xhosa, Thembu, Mpondo, Mpondomise, Bomvana, Bhaca, Hlubi, Bhele, Zizi, Mfengu, Xesibe and Ntlangwini. The Xhosa cluster on the other hand comprises the following chiefdoms: Gcaleka, Ngqika, Ndlambe, Dushane, Qhayi, Dange, Gasela, Ntinde and Hleke. All these clusters, however, are Xhosa-speaking and show a remarkable uniformity. Only the first Xhosa chiefdom namely, the Gcaleka, is found in Transkei; the rest comprise the population of Ciskei. Since all of these clusters share in the main one common culture, they are generally referred to as the Cape Nguni. Education, however, as an instrument for modernization, is expected to cut across the tribal barriers in Transkei.

### 1.3 The Economic Aspect

Transkei is renowned for great potential for agricultural development. However, the type of agriculture which is practised in the country at present is largely in the form of subsistence farming, mostly carried on with inefficient methods of uneconomic-sized plots. Thus the majority of the Transkeians can only be classified as peasant farmers who produce mainly to satisfy the immediate needs of their families. Free economic enterprise and initiative which are basic in a sound system of economy have not yet taken root in Transkei and, instead smack of hoarding, of taking an advantage of 'the other man' and of exploitation in the eyes of many Transkeians. The type of agriculture

practised cannot itself by any stretch of imagination be qualified as scientific in approach as it still lays little or insufficient emphasis on scientific agricultural methods. The concept of good economic returns from agriculture is unknown and animals like sheep and cattle are themselves owned more for admiration, social ritual and the enhancement of man's status and prestige than for breeding, milk, meat, wool or for marketing purposes. Transkei realizes that one way of changing or modifying the course of economic factors is to change or modify the habits and living conditions, tastes and thought-patterns of the people and to re-orientate their attitude and life purposes in the desired direction. The key-role of education as a means for the realization of the above objectives cannot be over-emphasized.

Industrial and business enterprises progressed very slowly in Transkei for many years till the Bantu Investment Corporation, later replaced by the Xhosa Development Corporation and still later by the Transkei Development Corporation, was founded in 1959 for the purpose of promoting in every possible way the economic and industrial development of the African communities. Today the industrial revolution can be seen at the two main industrial points in Transkei namely, at Butterworth and Umtata. Geological surveys have confirmed the availability in the Mount Ayliff and Tabankulu districts of some copper, nickel and cobalt as well as of low-grade coal in the Mount Frere district, but none of these deposits occur in economically significant quantities.

Realizing fully that her economy rests on agricultural development, Transkei has, since the inception of self-government, continued to demonstrate her keenness on agriculture by fostering the formation in 1965 of co-operative societies for the small peasant farmers, implementing tractor schemes for ploughing purposes, purchasing hybrid maize seed and fertilizers and constructing irrigation dams, the greatest of which is the R6 000 000 Lubisi Irrigation Scheme near Qamata in the St. Marks district. The farmers' co-operative provide the communities with facilities, sell members' produce and provide them with such farming commodities as fertilizers, seed, insecticides, stock feeds, stock remedies, fuel and lubricants. The Maize Belt scheme

which uses hundreds of tractors for food production covers more than 300 00 hectares and the area can also be more profitably used for dairying with export oriented dairy production. Demonstrations of modern farming methods are conducted and for this purpose use is made of mobile film units showing educational films to the farmer in order to improve farming production. In the livestock field, auctions are held on the weight and grade system and a turnover of R1 595 918 was realized in 1974/75 when 11 242 cattle were sold at 162 auction sales.<sup>5</sup> Communal shearing sheds to aid the marketing of wool are operated in central positions throughout the country. Afforestation is also promoted for timber production, game, wild life, tourism, and conservation of water supplies and soil. Even for the preceding agricultural activities, educational development, which in turn rests on a sound teacher education system, remains a foundation stone and provision of educational facilities including the preparation and provision of teachers should be studied in relation to manpower needs and anticipated demands for various skills as development takes place.

#### 1.4 The Political and Constitutional Events

A reasonably clear perspective of any educational system is contingent upon an understanding of the political developments which have shaped the country and the attitudes of its people. It is for this reason that early prominence is also hereunder given to the constitutional stages in the development of administration in Transkei and to the events which led to the birth of the Transkei Education Department in 1964.

##### 1.4.1 Annexation of Transkeian Territories

Since the early days of contact between the White hunters and the Africans in the Fish River there had been a constant infiltration of White missionaries and traders and moving of White farmers towards the present Transkei. A series of wars followed until a start was

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5. Cf. Campion, H., The New Transkei. p. 5.

made with the annexation of the African territories to the British Cape Colony. The annexation of the Transkeian territories to the Cape Colony by seven proclamations promulgated during the years 1879 to 1894 marked the completion of Sir George Grey's policy of integration and identity whose major purpose was, in his own words :

*"... to change by degrees our present unconquered and apparently irreclaimable foes into friends who may have common interests with ourselves."*<sup>6</sup>

Annexation was usually followed by the appointment of magistrates for the territories so annexed for the purpose of maintaining peace and order in such African areas. The chiefs who had hitherto maintained law and order in these territories became paid government officials who then became answerable to the magistrates.

#### 1.4.2 The Council System

In 1894 the Glen Grey Act (Act No. 25 of 1894) was promulgated providing for the so-called Council System. In 1895 the system was introduced to the southern districts of the Transkei. It was subsequently extended from district to district until 1926 when it functioned over the whole of the Transkei. In 1931, the Transkeian Territories General Council and Pondoland General Council were amalgamated to form the United Transkeian General Council, or 'Bunga' as it was called. Its jurisdiction extended over the 26 magisterial districts into which the territory was divided. The Council's local executive bodies, the district councils, were responsible for the maintenance of roads, cattle dipping and so on. The General Council was responsible for the financial aspects of the administration and met once a year. The network of district councils in Transkei functioned alongside the system of direct rule by the magistrates, and although the magistrates were members of the councils, the bulk of the councils' membership

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6. Cf. Union of South Africa. The Native Education Report. 1949-51. p. 205.

were Africans, about two-thirds of whom were elected. The district magistrates were the chairmen of district councils and *ex officio* members of the Transkeian General Council. The resolutions taken by the General Council were not binding unless approved by the White government in Cape Town, which nearly always accepted the advice of the Chief Magistrate and the district magistrates. The independence of the chiefdoms was therefore ended and the power of the chiefs was also radically reduced. The objective was not indirect rule through the chiefs, but direct rule through the White magistrates. The chiefs were seen as the nucleus of tribal resistance and the aim was to bypass them administratively and curtail their power. The chiefs were seen as a means of prolonging White rule and their status was reduced to that of government stipendiaries. The councillors in the General Council were supposed to confine their attention to local matters, but on many occasions they expressed definite opinions on issues of national interest such as the franchise issue. Cecil Rhodes clearly indicated the purpose of the Council System when he was piloting the Glen Grey Act through parliament :

*"... to keep the minds of the natives occupied. If ... allowed to think of their roads and bridges and even to deal with the appointment of scab inspectors and with the planting of forests, they will occupy their minds usefully."*<sup>7</sup>

It was this thinking behind the establishment of the Council System which later influenced the administration of the Africans. This thinking was to represent official attitudes in the middle of the century which, as has been noted, came to be expressed as Separate Development or Apartheid. The events in Transkei favoured the official attitudes as early as 1944 since in that year a motion was mooted in the General Council that :

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7. Cf. Hammond-Tooke, W.D., Command or Consensus, The Development of Transkeian Local Government. p. 88.

*"... as a post-war reconstruction measure (the government should declare the Transkei) a state with sovereign rights in the administration of government and its affairs and people."*<sup>8</sup>

As a result, the next decade saw a series of constitutional events which culminated in the attainment by Transkei of self-government in 1963. It is not surprising, therefore, that Transkei had to take the lead in this direction.

#### 1.4.3 The Bantu Authorities System

The Nationalist Party, the spearhead of Afrikaner nationalism, came to power in South Africa in 1948. Subsequently, in October 1950 Dr Verwoerd became Minister of Native Affairs. His first major action in pursuance of the Government policy of Separate Development or Apartheid was to introduce a Bill which soon became the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951. The Bantu Authorities Act, which embodied the Nationalist Government's view that the development of the Africans should be based, not on an extension of political rights in competition with the Whites, but on the traditional authority, did not immediately apply to the Transkei as the General Council was already functioning there. However, at the 1955 session of the General Council, a committee was appointed to investigate the matter, and its recommendations, presented in November 1955, were approved. The Bantu Authorities system was subsequently introduced in the Transkei by Proclamation No. 180 of 1955 which provided for the dissolution of the General Council and its 26 district councils as well as for the establishment of a territorial authority, and regional, district and tribal or community authorities.

The actual power given to the Bantu Authorities was minimal and among the responsibilities was control of grass-burning, combating soil erosion, supervision of water supplies, provision of sanitation and

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8. United Transkeian Territories General Council. Proceedings. 1944. p. 81.

education, construction and maintenance of dams and roads and any further matter assigned to them by the White central government. What was of significance in the Bantu Authorities system was the predominant place it gave to chiefs at every level, a feature which remained to form a foundation stone of the Transkei Government when the territory attained self-government status in 1963 and, subsequently, independence in 1976. Whereas the old system of direct rule through the district magistrates largely ignored the chiefs, and the old council system provided for elected members, the chiefs were chosen as the men to launch and lead the Bantu Authorities system. The arrangement was, as Dr Verwoerd pointed out in parliament, intended to serve a double purpose: first, it was essential to base the new system on the 'true roots' of African society and then to work gradually towards the western concept of elected representatives; secondly, in the changed circumstances of the time, the chiefs were no longer the focal point of resistance to White rule but the natural allies of the White government.<sup>9</sup>

The legitimate interest and participation in educational matters which the regional and tribal authorities have continued to demonstrate in Transkei have been and are still viewed and interpreted by the members of the professional group as an intrusion by laymen into the field which requires professional expertise and high scholarship. The situation has, since the attainment of self-government, been aggravated by the extension of the powers of the chiefs through the new constitution of the country which empowers the chiefs to make demands which very often appear, in the opinion of the professional group, to be unrealistic and, at times, in conflict with national educational policy or with the special educational programmes of the professional planners and administrators. The demands and educational expectations of the tribal chiefs, so goes the criticism, often lack foresight and the chiefs take very little or no heed at all of the implications that their demands have for educational financing, teacher supply, accommodation and many other educational facilities. On the contrary, the concern and

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9. Cf. Hepple, A., Verwoerd. p. 116.

sensitivity of the laymen about educational matters, as opposed to former tribal resistance, should, when exploited with great tact, facilitate educational planning and administration for, as Walton contends :

*"In the last analysis, decisions about what should be done by the schools are lay decisions; neither the expert in administration nor the scholar has demonstrated any superiority over the laymen in judgements about the purposes of education ... What we call knowledge has its origin in the practical needs of man."*<sup>10</sup>

#### 1.4.4 The Tomlinson Commission

The next major step in the constitutional development of the Transkei was provided by the appointment of the Commission for the Socio-Economic Development of the Bantu Areas within the Union of South Africa under the chairmanship of Professor F.R. Tomlinson. In its massive 17 volume report, presented to the Government in 1954, the Commission made recommendations in respect of the various facets of human development in the so-called 'Bantu Areas', such as the economic, ecclesiastical, educational, medical and other welfare services.

As a preamble to its recommendations, the Commission, after a detailed analysis of possible alternatives, proposed as follows regarding the full-scale development of the 'Bantu Areas' :

*"It is clear that a continuation of the policy of integration would intensify racial friction and animosity, and that the only alternative is to promote the establishment of separate communities in their own separate territories where each will have the fullest*

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10. Walton, J., Administration and Policy-Making in Education. p. 86.

*opportunity for self-expression and development.*"<sup>11</sup>

Amongst the principles which would have to serve as bases for the development of the 'Bantu Areas' the Commission proposed that :

*"the development of the Bantu Areas should take place in co-operation with the Bantu and as far as possible be undertaken by themselves."*<sup>12</sup>

Some of the implications of such a broad policy were, in the opinion of the Commission :

- (i) provision of opportunities for free development of the 'Bantu' in their areas;
- (ii) creation of a greater diversity of economic activities for the 'Bantu' in their areas;
- (iii) preservation, as far as possible, of the cultural aspects of the 'Bantu'; and
- (iv) creation of a basis for the political development of the 'Bantu'.<sup>13</sup>

Finally, the Commission set out its recommendations in respect of land tenure, primary development (agriculture, irrigation, sugar, fibre, forestry, mining), secondary development (industry, urban development), tertiary development, social services (ecclesiastical, welfare, education, health, nutrition), carrying capacity and tempo of development, administration and guidance, financial requirements and

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11. Union of South Africa, Summary of the Report of the Commission for the Socio-Economic Development of the Bantu Areas Within the Union of South Africa (The Tomlinson Report), U.G. 61/1955. Part III, Chapter 25, Section VIII, Sub-Section 30.

12. Ibid. Part V. pp. 194-195.

13. Loc. cit.

possible consolidation of areas - all as requirements of the development programme for the 'Bantu Areas'.

In respect of education, the Commission first outlined the following as "some thoughts on the general groundwork of the education in the Bantu Areas"<sup>14</sup> :

- (i) It was of fundamental importance that education should not be a loose cog in the mechanism of 'Bantu' society. On the contrary, education should be the large driving wheel which started the machinery of development and kept it going. Education should bind all parts of the tribe together into a unity moving towards a higher level of living. The traditional aristocracy should be qualified for the task of leading well and correctly under changed circumstances.
- (ii) The 'Bantu' should be actively engaged in their education and should not play a merely passive rôle.
- (iii) The school should be there to serve the community. The community through its natural leaders should have in sight a plan of development which they comprehended and the school should be an effective instrument to them. The community should consider the school as its own. This could only be achieved if the community was harnessed to take the initiative itself.<sup>14</sup>

The Commission proceeded to make the following long list of recommendations in respect of education :

- (i) Education would have an important part in any plan of development in which the 'Bantu' should necessarily play an active rôle.

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14. Ibid. Chapter 43, Section V. p. 166.

- (ii) It would have to evolve and train leaders equipped for the task. It would have to provide persons trained in the modern technique of progressive economy.
- (iii) To link the 'Bantu' actively with education, tasks and responsibility would have to be delegated to the tribal authorities.
- (iv) Primary and secondary schools should be provided for all areas on an equal basis as far as possible. Training schools and technical colleges would have to be established in the areas they were supposed to serve.
- (v) The planning of educational facilities should be linked with the planning of other development schemes so that the necessary personnel could be effectively trained.
- (vi) The active participation of the 'Bantu' was required within the educational machinery, in local government and in the management of schools in order that these institutions could be developed to reach their full social significance so that the people should realize that education was a means to spiritual development, social progress, increase of the national income and enrichment of cultural life.
- (vii) To function successfully, it was necessary that special attention should be paid to the education of paramount chiefs, tribal chiefs and councillors and to that of their wives and children.
- (viii) Development courses should be instituted for adults and especially for the leaders and such courses should take into account the needs and difficulties which the community regarded as important.

- (ix) Every teacher should acquaint himself with the plans for the development of his area and regularly communicate the meaning and contents of the plans to his pupils in order to influence them to adopt the correct attitude and make them favourably disposed towards such schemes.
- (x) A Bantu University of South Africa with colleges organized on a federal basis like the University of South Africa should be created. One of the colleges should be in the Transkei, one in the Zulu area in Natal and one in the Sotho area in the Transvaal.
- (xi) The schools for the training of tradesmen, artisans, technicians and workers for commerce and agriculture as well as schools for abnormal children and adults should be established in Transkei, Zululand and Northern Transvaal.<sup>15</sup>

Like the Native Education Report of 1951 (the Eiselen Report), the development programme for the Africans as proposed by the Commission for the Socio-Economic Development of the Bantu Areas within the Union of South Africa (The Tomlinson Commission) sparked, soon after the report of the Commission had been submitted and published, wide ranging criticisms, the most significant of which was that the programme was a preconceived plan designed and promoted by the Nationalist Government through the Tomlinson Commission and that the latter was only called into being in order to work out the details and provide academic rationalization in support of the theories of Apartheid. There was no other justification for the criticism beyond the obvious relevance of the Tomlinson investigation and recommendations to the Nationalist thinking on separate development. Despite the severe internal and external opposition, the Nationalist Government most courageously forged ahead with the plans to implement the recommendations of the Tomlinson Commission in the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959, and the Transkei, as the largest single African reserve within the Union of

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15. Ibid. Chapter 43, Section VI. p. 167.

South Africa, became the testing ground for the bold experiment to demonstrate separate development as a practical proposition.

#### 1.4.5 The Experiment : Self-Government for Transkei

The second half of the first decade of the Nationalist régime in South Africa was a period of political turbulence as a result of the escalation of racial tension, the impact of which on the wider world, particularly in the United Nations, prompted a redefinition and modification by the Nationalist Government of the policies of Apartheid. Hitherto the Nationalist Government had held firmly to the following conception of Apartheid which was given by Dr Verwoerd as Minister of Native Affairs in 1951 :

*"When we talk about the natives' right of self-government, we cannot mean that we intend by that to cut large slices out of South Africa and turn them into independent states."*<sup>16</sup>

In 1959 the so-called 'negative' Apartheid gave way, as a result of internal and external pressures, to 'positive' Apartheid and the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act<sup>17</sup> was promulgated according to which limited powers of self-government were to be granted to the African reserves as a prelude to eventual independence. This was, under the circumstances, considered the lesser of the two evils.

A combination of factors presented the Transkei as the most suitable testing ground for the experiment. In addition to the geographical and demographical factors to which reference has already been made, consideration was also taken of the many years of experience on the part of the Transkeians in exercising limited local authority through the Council system and the Bantu Authorities system. The process of constitution-making for the Transkei Self-Government was in fact

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16. Cf. Tatz, C.M., Shadow and Substance. p. 135.

17. Union of South Africa, Promotion of Bantu Self-Government, Act. No. 46 of 1956.

sparked locally when on April 21, 1961, during a session of the Transkeian Territorial Authority, Lingham Maninjwa, a commoner of Port St Johns, Western Pondoland, rose in the Bunga building in Umtata and moved :

*"That ... this Territorial Authority in session respectfully requests the Government to declare the Transkei Territories as a whole a self-governing state under the control of the Bantu people."*<sup>18</sup>

In the course of debate an amendment to the motion by Chief D.D.P. Ndamase was unanimously accepted and the Transkeian Territorial Authority thus resolved that :

*"... this Authority accepts the motion in principle and resolves to appoint a Recess Committee of 27 members with powers to co-opt such persons as it may deem fit to go into the implications of the granting or otherwise of self-government to this Authority during the next session and that the following terms of reference be taken into consideration :*

- (a) To consider the financial implications of the granting of self-government, bearing in mind, inter alia, all taxes, direct or indirect, payable by Bantu in these Territories;*
- (b) To consider, in the event of such self-government being granted and established, it shall not in any way tamper with the present set-up of chieftainship in these Territories;*
- (c) To consider the relations between the Government*

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18. Transkei Territorial Authority, Proceedings and Reports of Select Committees at the Session of 1961. pp. 49-52.

*and the proposed Bantu state;*

*(d) To consider the possible date of granting the self-government;*

*(e) To consider the manner of approaching the Government in order to effect self-government."<sup>19</sup>*

About the same time, the Minister of Bantu Administration and Development, M.D.C. de Wet Nel, announced in Cape Town that the government had no objection to the devolution of power to Africans to rule themselves in their own areas and that "all signs are there that self-government will come soon in the Transkei."<sup>20</sup> The Recess Committee of the Transkeian Territorial Authority did not meet for nine months, not until January 31, 1962. However, in December 1961, the executive committee of the Transkeian Territorial Authority had an unexpected interview with the Prime Minister, Dr Verwoerd, during their visit to Pretoria to meet with de Wet Nel. The Prime Minister told the Transkei delegates that the government was prepared to co-operate with the Transkeian Territorial Authority in obtaining self-government for the Transkei. He explicitly excluded, however, the possibility of a multiracial government elected by a multiracial electorate. The Prime Minister suggested that within these limits delegates would and should decide what sort of constitution they wanted.<sup>21</sup> On January 23, 1962, the Prime Minister told the House of Assembly that self-government would be in operation in the Transkei before the end of 1963.

When the Recess Committee eventually met, it went well beyond its original terms of reference and set about framing a constitution. A special five-man sub-committee of the Recess Committee was appointed to get together with the delegates of the Transkeian Africans residing in

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19. Loc. cit.

20. Statement reported in the press and read to the TTA by Paramount Chief Sabata Dalindyebo on April 26. TTA, Proceedings, 1961. p. 84.

21. State of South Africa, Economic, Financial and Statistical Yearbook for the Republic of South Africa, 1963. p. 90.

urban areas outside Transkei and meetings were arranged in Umtata for the third week of April, 1962. Before this time, however, the Recess Committee, after a second visit to Pretoria and another meeting with the Prime Minister on March 19, completed its report on March 30, 1962. The South African Government claimed that more than 40 urban representatives were received by the sub-committee in April, 1962,<sup>22</sup> but a press account maintained that when 64 urban delegates arrived in Umtata, they were handed a fully drafted constitution and merely asked their opinions on it. Their response, according to the press report, was to term Transkei self-rule a 'mockery' and to boycott the meetings with the sub-committee.<sup>23</sup>

When the Recess Committee finally submitted its report in May, 1962, the presence of a considerable number of officials, academics and foreign diplomats in the public gallery attested to the significance of the meeting. However, C.B. Young, Secretary of Bantu Administration and Development, discouraged from the outset in his keynote address all possible critical comments when he warned the members that :

*"... it rests in the hands of the Government of the Republic of South Africa to decide what it will concede to the Transkei in the form of self-government. The committee has been consulting with the Government for a long time and the basis of agreement has already been reached; ... accept what has been offered to you and be thankful for this great step forward in the historical and constitutional development of the Transkei Territories."*<sup>24</sup>

As a result no critical review was forthcoming in the course of the consideration of the report of the Recess Committee. All but one of the constitution's seventy sections were adopted either automatically

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22. Republic of South Africa, Department of Information, The Transkei, Emancipation Without Chaos. p. 20.

23. The Cape Times, April 19, 1962.

24. TTA, Proceedings. 1962. p. 33.

or without significant discussion. Only two amendments were made and voted on and both amendments were defeated. The amendments were made in respect of Section 24 on which the only controversy of the debate centred and which provided that the Transkei Legislative Assembly should consist of 109 members, of whom 64 would be chiefs sitting *ex officio* and the remaining 45 members would be popularly elected. In the end, the draft constitution was adopted without change.

Having adopted the Recess Committee's report in its entirety, the Transkeian Territorial Authority then carried a motion introduced by Chief Kaizer Matanzima, then Chairman of the Territorial Authority and member of the Recess Committee that :

*"... the Republican Government of South Africa be respectfully requested to draft the necessary legislation embodying the proposals contained in the Recess Committee's report and to take such other steps as are necessary to expedite the formulation of the Government of the Transkei."*<sup>25</sup>

A constitution bill, drafted by a small constitutional branch of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development was presented to the Transkeian Territorial Authority in December, 1962 and the Authority met on December 11, 1962 to consider the "Bill to Confer Self-Government on the Bantu Residents in or Deriving from the Transkei and to Provide for Matters Incidental Thereto." Again, curbing comment, Secretary Young declared at the opening session that :

*"The Government could have introduced the Bill into Parliament without further consultation with the Territorial Authority. In view, however, of the fact that there had been the closest consultation and harmonious relations, at a high level, between representatives of the Government and the Territorial Authority since the inception of these*

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25. Ibid. p. 71.

*negotiations, it was decided to give this body an opportunity to see each clause of the proposed Bill to be introduced into Parliament."*<sup>26</sup>

Nonetheless, opposition to the principles inherent in the bill was not wholly stifled. The issues which were challenged were the preponderance of chiefs in the Transkei Legislative Assembly, the exclusion of Whites from representation in the Transkei Legislative Assembly and the exclusion of Kokstad and Port St Johns from the jurisdiction of the Transkeian government. The challenges were, however, futile and the Transkeian Territorial Authority adopted the bill without change. The government of the Republic of South Africa could, therefore, rightfully contend that the idea of self-government for the Transkei originated with the Africans of the Transkei, that they drafted the Transkeian Constitution, and that they were consulted by the government at every stage of that Constitution's enactment. The foregoing account of the constitutional development in the Transkei also provides full explanation in respect of the source for the current discomfort on the part of the professional group in the field of education about the unlimited powers and decisive influence the chiefs tend to have on matters affecting educational planning, administration, and practice.

The consideration of the Transkei Constitution Bill shifted in January, 1963, from Umtata to Cape Town and on March 5 it was introduced in the House of Assembly. It passed the third reading on May 10, and, after passing the Senate, became law on May 29. One of the significant provisions of the Act (The Transkei Constitution Act No. 48, 1963) was that every bill passed by the Transkei Legislative Assembly would have to be approved by the President of the Republic of South Africa who would so act on the advice of the Republican government. Furthermore, the President would retain his powers to legislate by proclamation except with regard to the powers of Transkei Legislative Assembly scheduled under Section 37 of the Transkei Constitution Act. The

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26. Ibid. Special Session called to Consider Draft Bill for the Granting of Self-Government to the Transkei. pp. 5-6.

Constitution further provided for a Cabinet consisting of a Chief Minister and five other ministers administering six departments namely, Justice, Education, Interior, Agriculture and Forestry, and Roads and Works. The birth of a separate and semi-autonomous Department of Education for the Transkei was a milestone in the development of education in Transkei. The challenge was indeed an enormous one but, as evinced by the statement in Parliament by the first Minister of Education, the Transkeian Government felt equal to the task and was determined to face the challenge with courage and optimism :

*"The establishment of a Department of Education with its own Minister who, in consultation with the Transkei Cabinet, has full powers as to policy and control, has introduced an era which promises the people of Transkei educational opportunities and a rate of educational progress which will be limited only by the availability of funds and suitably qualified teaching staff. This new era presents this Assembly and the people of the Transkei with a challenge and an opportunity to shape the destiny of our country. History is now being made ..."*<sup>27</sup>

When the State President signed the Transkei Constitution Act, only seven months remained to fulfil Dr Verwoerd's pledge of limited self-government for the Transkei before the end of 1963. These months were filled with electoral activity at the end of which Chief Kaizer Matanzima emerged triumphant on December 6 and, addressing the Assembly immediately thereafter, promised to apply "the policy of separation of the white race now occupying the Transkei from the aborigines of the land as quickly as I possibly can", to "view with a broad mind the important task of liberating my people to independence", and to give priority to the Transkei's educational system.<sup>28</sup> It is

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27. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 20 May 1964. Hansard. p. 88.

28. Ibid. Proceedings of the Meeting of Members of the Transkei Legislative Assembly, held on December 6, 1963, for the Purpose of Electing Office Bearers, etc. p. 3.

to the latter, and particularly to the developments in teacher education during the next twelve years, that special attention will henceforth be given. In this regard, the problem facing the new Government of Transkei would, given the power of chiefs in constitutional terms as well as the indisputable fact that some of them were, and still are, more in touch with the aspirations of the people than certain members of the professional group, seem to be a need to formulate an acceptable policy through co-operation of the two groups. This would appear to be the ultimate justification for a high level Council of Education in which the two groups could, and can, be represented. With this in mind, the developments and trends in teacher education which followed must be examined.

## 2 Developments and Trends in Teacher Education

Any consideration of the trends in the development of teacher education within the system of education of a country must not only be made in the light of the factors outlined above which, as has been indicated, determine and shape the entire education system of the country concerned, but should in addition also take into account the ever-changing daily practices and conditions within the education system itself namely, curricular changes involving content and teaching methods and approaches because these in turn determine the quality of the teaching personnel required at any one point in time. The period under review witnessed vast and manifold curricular revisions and re-organization of the school system in Transkei, a watershed of which came about in 1975 when the differentiated system of education was introduced. The entire period can thus be sub-divided into two major phases namely, the pre-differentiation period (1964-1974) and the differentiation era which commenced in 1975.

Differentiation of education is, according to Ida Hart, "... a broad concept involving the adjusting of both content and methods and pace of teaching to the differential abilities, aptitudes and interests of

individuals ..."<sup>29</sup> The system requires, as a means by which it can be implemented, different types of schools such as the academic or vocational schools, different streams of curricula or courses to suit a variety of occupational intentions, different syllabuses either with respect to level or orientation of content, different teaching methods and approaches, and a variety of homogeneous or heterogeneous pupil groupings for particular educational purposes. Undoubtedly, the introduction of such a system would indeed in any country place a formidable challenge at the door of the teachers, teacher educators, educationists and educational planners because of its implications in terms of re-assessment of prevailing teaching methods and classroom practices as well as revaluation of teacher education programmes in order to meet the new demands and shortcomings. It is in that sense that the introduction of differentiated education in Transkei in 1975 is herein referred to as the birth of a new era in the development of teacher education in the country. However, a question may well be asked as to what extent had the first decade of self-rule (1964-1974) provided the Transkeians with the necessary experience to face the challenge. A preliminary examination of the developments and trends in Transkei teacher education during the pre-differentiation period (1964-1974) is therefore necessary.

## 2.1 The Pre-Differentiation Period (1964-1974)

Soon after its inception, the Transkeian Government appointed a Select Committee<sup>30</sup> with a mandate to go into the Cingo Report and submit its recommendations for consideration by Parliament. The Committee adopted the recommendations of the Cingo Commission and shortly after Parliament had approved the report of the Select Committee in May 1964, a Departmental circular to all school principals was issued on 28 July 1964 according to which "Instruction through the

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29. Hart, I.E.J., *The Junior Secondary Phase*. B.F. Nel, (Editor), *Differentiation*. Papers Read at the Tenth Congress of the South African Association for the Advancement of Education Held in Durban from 20-22 January, 1972. p. 77.

30. Cf. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 9 June 1964. *Hansard*. pp. 206-213.

the mother-tongue will be retained in all classes up to and including Standard II."<sup>31</sup> As from Standard III mother-tongue would have to be superseded as medium of instruction by English or Afrikaans. In arriving at this decision the Chief Minister said that it did not mean that the people despised their mother-tongue or disagreed with the principle that a child is best taught through the language he speaks at home but, "simply because our own language was undeveloped and had not reached the stage when it could be used in all respects to put across the ideas found in the Western world."<sup>32</sup> Similar reservations about the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction in primary or secondary schools have been repeatedly expressed in other ex-colonial African countries. A case in point relates to the use of the Yoruba language as medium of instruction in Nigeria about which Fafunwa has this to say :

*"One such reservation was that Yoruba was not fully developed as a language to cope with science, mathematics, social studies, etc. A major reservation was that the children would be so immersed in Yoruba language and culture that such exposure would undermine national unity. Yet another objection was that the children would be at a disadvantage linguistically and cognitively when they enter a secondary school at the end of their primary education."*<sup>33</sup>

Whatever arguments may be advanced in favour or against the use of mother-tongue as medium of instruction, the truth of the matter is that the question of medium of instruction in all the African countries bristles with many problems of a socio-economic and political nature, and that all other reasons given in order to account for the use of a foreign language as medium of instruction cannot be accepted, for any actively spoken language, be it Xhosa or Yoruba, like English, German or any other language, does not have adequate vocabulary to cover all

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31. Transkei Government, Department of Education. Circular to All Primary Schools. 28 July 1964.

32. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 9 June 1964. Hansard. p. 207.

33. Fafunwa, A. Babs, 'Education in the Mother-Tongue: A Nigerian Experiment'. J.A. Majasan and Yoloye E.A., (Editors), West African Journal of Education. Volume XIX. No. 2. pp. 218-219.

situations, new discoveries, and so on, but like other dynamic languages it has tremendous capacity or elasticity in accommodating new situations by coining words, changing coverage in terms of meaning and by borrowing. Regarding the educational significance of the mother-tongue as medium of instruction, the K-N-N Commission appointed to inquire into the standard of education in the Transkei reported as follows in 1973 :

*"Every educationist becomes vitally concerned if in the education system of a people it should be necessary to replace mother-tongue as medium with a foreign language. The child learns best in its own mother-tongue. Here he is faced with the task, viz. to understand new information or ideas rather than the meaning of the 'medium' tongue employed as well ... His mother-tongue conjures up in him all sorts of pleasant associations; it is an embodiment of his culture and attitude to life, interests and ambitions, the family past and present, his successes and social status. Addressed in his own mother-tongue he hears better, he understands better, he learns better and achieves better."*<sup>34</sup>

The regrettable state of affairs was, according to the K-N-N Commission, that the average Standard III teacher conducted his lessons in English and took no notice of whether the pupils understood or not. The position was reported as being much worse where the teacher himself had low proficiency in English.<sup>35</sup> It would appear that these most unfavourable classroom practices still prevail today not only in the primary schools but in the junior and senior secondary schools as well.

Another change which was introduced shortly after the inception of Transkei self-government and which marked a further shift from the

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34. Transkei Government, Report on Standard of Education in the Transkei. K-N-N Commission of Inquiry. 1973. pp. 24-25.

35. Loc. cit.

Bantu Education system came about in 1965 when in terms of Act No. 2 of 1964 the school boards were abolished in Transkei. The changes were in line with the policy announcement of the Minister of Education that :

*"The Transkei Government in accepting the policies of the Republican Department of Bantu Education as a basis upon which to work, intends to improve upon and to expand these policies and to introduce, as necessity arises, its own policies to meet the requirements of this territory."*<sup>36</sup>

According to the Minister of Education, the complete control by school boards had created a multiplicity of administrative units with widely diverse conceptions as to the aims and practices of education and had also complicated the appointment and control of teachers.<sup>37</sup> It however became apparent during debates on the subject in Parliament that the school boards had in fact become unpopular with the people of Transkei because of their corruption which involved acceptance of bribes especially from the teachers and embezzlement of school funds.<sup>38</sup> With the abolition of school board and community school systems, all teachers became Departmental servants and all the functions of school boards in regard to the appointment of teachers, their transfer, dismissal, enquiries in cases of misconduct and financing of their salaries were taken over by the Department.

Since then no difficulty was experienced both by the teachers in finding employment as had been the case before and by the Department in finding suitably qualified teachers for vacant posts in the primary schools. However, the shortage of experienced qualified teachers to take up vacant posts in the post-primary schools was so acute that the Department had to employ in many cases primary school teachers to do

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36. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 20 May, 1964. Hansard. p. 89.

37. Ibid. p. 127.

38. Ibid. p. 128.

secondary school work. One contributory factor to the shortage of teachers in the secondary schools was, as Table J (Page 168) illustrates, the ever-growing number of pupils who sought admission to the secondary schools and the accompanying increase in the number of secondary schools which were established. The latter, given the average enrolments per school, was not only uneconomic but also aggravated the problem of teacher shortage.

Thus, the average enrolments per school in 1964 and 1972 were as follows: 191 and 418 in the junior secondary respectively and 75 and 125 in the high school respectively. The preponderance of non-graduate over graduate teachers in the secondary schools as illustrated by Table K (Page 169) could be attributed to the new Junior Secondary Teachers' Course which was started at Lovedale Teacher Training College near Alice and at Cicira Teacher Training College near Umtata as a desperate effort to solve the acute shortage of teachers in the secondary schools. However, the teachers prepared at these institutions were made to teach beyond their capacity and training inasmuch as they also taught classes beyond the Junior Secondary School phase for which they were primarily prepared. There were, however, even at this level teachers who taught beyond their capacity and training as Table K further illustrates. These were teachers with Junior Certificate and some professional training of one kind or another as distinct from the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course to which the academic entrance qualification was the Senior Certificate.

One striking feature about the picture portrayed in Table K was the number of teachers, especially the graduate teachers, who within such a short span of time (1971-1972) withdrew from the service of the Transkei Education Department. It is, however, highly probable that of the 117 teachers who taught at the secondary schools with only the Junior Certificate as their highest academic qualification in 1971, some withdrew from the secondary schools in 1972 in order to take up teaching posts in the primary schools. It is also possible that some left teaching altogether or went into administration not only in the

Table J

Distribution of Secondary Schools and Pupils. 1964-1972<sup>39</sup>

Year	No. of Secondary Schools (Forms I-III)	No. of Pupils	No. of High (Sen.Sec.) Schools (Forms IV-V)	No. of Pupils	Total No. of Secondary Schools	Total No. of Pupils
1964	43	8 220	8	596	51	8 816
1965	43	8 687	8	623	51	9 310
1966	43	11 132	8	607	51	11 739
1971	55	21 556	17	2 255	72	23 811
1972	56	23 428	21	2 621	77	26 049

Source: Departmental Reports for the Years 1964, 1965, 1966, 1971 and 1972.

39. Transkei Government, Department of Education, Annual Reports. 1964-1966, 1971-1972.

Table K

Distribution of Teachers According to Their Academic  
Qualifications in the Secondary Schools. 1971-72<sup>40</sup>

Academic Qualifications of Teachers in the Government Post-Primary Schools	1971 Number	1972 Number
Junior Certificate	117	96
Senior Certificate	384	479
Bachelor of Arts	133	124
Bachelor of Science	25	27
Bachelor of Commerce	2	1
Master of Arts	3	3

Source: Reports of the Department of Education. 1971-1972.

Department of Education but also in other departments such as the Departments of Justice, Agriculture and so on.<sup>41</sup> One cannot dismiss a further possibility that some of them went away to join other education departments namely, the Ciskeian and the Republican Education Departments.

The courses set down by the Bantu Education Department were adopted in the eight teacher training schools in Transkei, five of which offered the Higher Primary Teachers' Course only, two both the Higher and Lower Primary Teachers' Courses, and one only the Lower Primary Teachers' Course. The final examinations for the student-teachers

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40. Transkei Government, op cit., 1971, 1972.

41. It is significant to note that in Transkei as in other newly independent countries of Africa, the teaching profession has been and continues to be the basic source for the provision of the required qualified personnel to staff the various sectors of civil service such as health, agriculture, roads and works and so on.

were conducted by the Bantu Education Department and the question papers answered by candidates in Transkei teacher training schools were the same as those for similar schools under Bantu Education except in School Organization where alternative questions in certain sections were set to conform to conditions in the Transkei. However, changed circumstances in Transkei necessitated as from 1966 a new approach in the teaching of School Organization and since that year special examination question papers were set in the subject for the student-teachers in Transkei.

It is therefore quite clear that the Transkei Education Department did not during the period of 'homeland' government take over full control and administration of teacher education. It must be commended that the Department decided not to venture into this important and most vital area without prior proper planning, hence the creation in 1965 of a Teacher Training Planning Council whose task was to plan the quota of student-teachers at the different training schools, investigate new methods of instruction and decide on new courses to be followed in Transkei. Also charged with the task of planning future development and investigating thoroughly new courses and methods and approach was an inspector who was appointed in the same year to the rank of a Circuit Inspector primarily in order to take up special control of the teacher training schools. The highly commendable emphasis on prior proper planning and thorough investigation as indispensable prerequisites for any conceivable introduction and effective implementation of new changes was in line with the "sound policy of hastening slowly" enunciated by the Minister of Education in Parliament in 1964 :

*"It should be obvious to any person of intelligence that to make drastic changes overnight without thought and planning can only result in disaster and I have decided, consequently to follow the sound policy of hastening slowly ... All along our education has been determined by people other than African people themselves and today we are given this autonomy. We*

*must, however, be careful not to take that for a licence. If you get a driver's licence for a motor car, it does not mean that you can swing your car all over the road as you please ... The oak tree takes a long time to grow and its timber is very strong ... We must not ask for change for the sake of change ..."*<sup>42</sup>

If the principle of gradualism as outlined above worked well for the Transkei Government in so far as the education matters were concerned at the time when the territory was still constitutionally an administrative part of and in all aspects the responsibility of the Republic of South Africa, that is, during the period of self-government (1964-1976), then it would be inconceivable that the Government would lose sight of and dispense with such a valuable principle at a time when it would be most desirable namely, during the most unstable post-independence era (1977-to date). It, however, remains to be seen in Chapter Five whether the "sound policy of hastening slowly" was adopted at least during the first five years of the post-independence era.

During the 1966 session of the Transkei Legislative Assembly, the new Transkei Education Act was passed in order to replace the Bantu Education Act of 1953. The Act was a comprehensive one and enabled the Transkei Education Department to deal effectively with all types of education at all levels except that of university education. The Act defined amongst others in detail misconduct on the part of teachers and the procedure to be followed in cases where teachers were charged with misconduct and further laid down the procedure in respect of the admission of student-teachers to the training schools as well as the conditions for their expulsion and termination of their training.

Another achievement in 1966 was the separation of the training schools from the high schools in accordance with the recommendations of the Cingo Commission. Hitherto the training schools had been without ex-

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42. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 20 May 1964. Hansard. p. 89.

ception integral parts of the multi-purpose institutions which were concerned, in addition to teacher-training, with primary, secondary and in some cases even trade education. The Commission recommended that teacher training should be concentrated in fewer but much larger institutions where the services of better qualified staff who would specialize in their particular direction could be better utilized in order to improve the quality of the teachers produced.<sup>43</sup> Following this recommendation, the two sections at the Shawbury and Clarkebury Institutions were opened as separate entities at the beginning of 1966 and each was placed under the control of its own principal. This was followed by the re-organization of the Mfundisweni and Sigcawu institutions so that teacher training could be provided solely at Sigcawu while academic training from Form I to Form V was retained at Mfundisweni. In the same year the Lower Primary Teachers' Course was abolished in 1966 at Osborn and Mvenyane. Osborn became a high school and Mvenyane provided for the Higher Primary Teachers' Course. The number of training schools was therefore reduced to seven, and all provided for the Higher Primary Teachers' Course to which the minimum entrance qualification was the Junior Certificate. Thus, in accordance with the recommendations of the Cingo Commission, the Lower Primary Teachers' Course was abolished and the last two groups sat for their final examinations at Osborn and Mvenyane at the end of 1966.

In an attempt to improve the standard of achievement in the secondary schools and to reduce the size of the classes in Form I, the Department introduced in 1967 an in-service teachers' training course for secondary school teachers at Cicira and a Form I teachers' course at Shawbury. The introduction of the in-service teachers' course at Cicira, the purpose of which was to retrain teachers over a period of six to seven weeks in the various subjects of the secondary school and to bring them up-to-date in the new approaches and contents of the newly revised syllabuses was indeed a step in the right direction and a valuable contribution to the development and improvement of teacher

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43. Cf. Transkei Government, Department of Education. Annual Report. 1966. Chapter 5, p. 9.

education in Transkei. It may well be said that any teacher education system, no matter how sound its pre-service teacher education programmes, is foredoomed to failure if it completely ignores the necessary provisions for the continuous professional growth and development of the in-service teachers. Remarking about the introduction of the Form I teachers' course at Shawbury the Minister of Education referred to the problem of the expansion of secondary education :

*"There has been of late an ever-increasing demand for post-primary education. New secondary schools are being applied for from all over. This is a development I wish to welcome, but at the same time it is necessary that our people should understand that secondary education is on the point of becoming more specialized and more advanced. To provide this type of education successfully, adequately and suitably qualified teachers and well equipped laboratories are necessary ... The Form I teachers' course has been introduced to train teachers for Form I work only ...; this may not be the ideal solution, but the vicious circle must simply be broken ..."*<sup>44</sup>

There was during the period under review such unprecedented educational expansion in Transkei that after only four years since the introduction of self-government, the Minister of Education could report in 1968 that :

*"... during the past four years, 30 new primary schools have been established; the curriculum of more than 100 primary schools has been extended to Standard VI; Senior Certificate classes have been introduced at 7 schools; and 11 new secondary schools have been opened."*<sup>45</sup>

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44. Transkei Legislative Assembly, 9 May, 1967. Hansard. p. 125.

45. Ibid. 14 May, 1968. Hansard. p. 147.

In addition to the proposed Technical High School in Umtata, reference was made to future plans regarding the establishment of a high school and a teacher-training school in the Maluti region, a teacher-training school at Butterworth and a vocational school at Lusikisiki. Despite a total increase of 1 616 teachers or an average of almost 359 additional posts per annum recorded in 1968,<sup>46</sup> the implications of all the above-mentioned plans in respect of teacher supply were vast. Added to these, there was the phenomenon of ever-increasing pupil population in the schools which had also implications for teacher preparation and provision.

In order to improve the qualifications of primary school teachers, the Lower Primary Teachers' Course was phased out in Transkei in 1968 and the Higher Primary Teachers' Course was re-organized and called the Primary Teachers' Course. In 1969 the last Higher Primary Teachers' Course examination was conducted. It was explained that the re-organization of the course was necessary in order to cut down on the amount of external examining and to give greater responsibility to the training schools themselves in determining whether student-teachers were competent enough to be certificated. The results of the latest surveys conducted on the qualifications and effectiveness of the teacher educators (or teachers of teachers) in the training schools in Transkei have raised some doubts about the capability of the training school to determine alone whether student-teachers are competent enough to be certificated. This aspect of teacher education will be returned to later. In revising the old Higher Primary Teachers' Course and designing the new Primary Teachers' Course, the following changes were made :

1. More specific emphasis was to be placed on practical teaching under normal classroom conditions, rather than by making use of the artificial conditions of the so-called 'practising schools' attached to the training colleges.

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46. Loc. cit.

2. In order to raise the standard, preference was to be given to those applicants who had obtained a first or second class pass in the Junior Certificate examination.
3. At the end of the first year, all the Group II subjects which comprised the basic primary school subjects as well as General Method in Group I were to be internally examined for promotion purposes while Practical Teaching would be a compulsory credit subject.
4. Certain basic primary school subjects were not to be taken in the second year of the course but student teachers would still be expected to give lessons in these subjects during practical teaching.
5. Instead of the large number of examination subjects, more emphasis would be placed on the students' efforts during the year. Projects, assignments and practical work would therefore have to be emphasized. Subjects treated in this way would be granted 'credit' passes and this would place much more responsibility on the principal and staff of the colleges to see that high standards were maintained.
6. The syllabuses of all professional subjects such as Theory and Psychology of Education and General Methods of Teaching were revised and updated and Blackboard Work and Teaching Aids formed part of the General Method syllabus.
7. The Course further allowed for specialization in one practical subject during the second year and this necessitated a specialist in each of the practical subjects at the training colleges.<sup>47</sup>

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47. du Preez, J.P., in the Lecture Notes on 'Educational Administration' entitled 'Present Position and Planning of Teacher Education'. B.Ed. Course. Fort Hare. 1973.

In an attempt to deal more effectively with the serious problem of teacher-shortage in the secondary schools, a two-year post-matriculation course, the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (JSTC) was introduced at Cicira Teacher Training College in 1970. The Course was divided into the following four main streams: (a) languages and Social Studies (b) Mathematics, Arithmetic and General Science (c) commercial subjects and, (d) Homecraft and Needlework and Clothing. All the student-teachers obtained bursaries of R100 per annum and were required to enter into a contract by which they agreed to teach in Transkei for at least two years. The Course provided an outlet for further education for the majority of matriculants who otherwise, on failing to secure for themselves for one reason or another admission to or places at the University of Fort Hare would have easily joined the work force. The popularity of the Course can be illustrated by means of Table L (Page 177) which shows the distribution of JSTC student-teachers at Cicira between 1971 and 1974. An interesting feature in the table is the evident gradual increase in the number of student-teachers who enrolled for the Course between 1971 and 1974. From 1971 to 1974 the total JSTC student enrolment rose from 67 to 120.

The Junior Secondary Teachers' Course proved to be so effective in alleviating the problem of the shortage of teachers especially for the junior secondary school classes namely, Form I, II and III, that the Department decided a few years later to start the same course at two more other institutions namely, Butterworth and Maluti Teacher Training Colleges.<sup>48</sup> However, because of the acute shortage of graduate teachers for the senior secondary school classes, the teachers produced at Cicira and later at Butterworth and Maluti, were made to teach the senior secondary school classes as well and, in so doing they, as it was pointed out earlier, taught beyond the level of their training and capacity. The teachers of the senior secondary school classes namely, Forms IV and V, continued to be prepared at the University of Fort Hare near Alice where the following advanced courses in education were provided: (a) a Secondary Teachers' Diploma, (b) a University

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48. Transkei Government, Department of Education. Annual Reports. 1971-1975.

Table L

JSTC Cicira: Analysis of Students Following:  
A - Languages; B - Science; C - Commercial<sup>49</sup>

	JSTC I				JSTC II				Totals			
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1971	1972	1973	1974	1971	1972	1973	1974
	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	M F
A	18 3	19 7	19 11	40 15	11 6	16 2	18 17	18 10	29 9	35 9	37 28	58 15
B	14 9	7 3	6 9	0 10	5 1	8 9	6 2	6 8	19 10	15 12	12 11	15 18
C	- -	2 1	2 2	4 2	- -	- -	2 1	4 4	- -	2 1	4 3	8 6
Totals	32 12	28 11	27 22	53 27	16 7	24 11	26 20	28 22	48 19	52 22	53 32	81 39
	44	39	49	80	23	35	46	50	67	74	85	120

Source: Reports of the Department of Education for the Years 1971, 1972, 1973.

49. Loc. cit.

Education Diploma (non-Graduate) and, (c) a University Education Diploma (Graduate). The Transkei Education Department continued to provide bursaries in order to enable students to take these advanced education courses.

Concerning the in-service education of teachers, very little attention was paid by the Department of Education to this very important aspect of teacher education. The strongly needed ongoing professional development of teachers especially in the face of so many teachers who were not adequately qualified in the post-primary schools was haphazard, unplanned and entirely left in the hands of the inspectorate who only conducted in-service courses for teachers on an *an hoc* basis and intermittently. Very short in-service courses for a few selected teachers of various subjects in the post-primary schools were occasionally conducted at a permanent centre namely, Mamelodi Training Centre near Pretoria. The result was the low teacher morale which manifested itself in the low standard of tuition according to the report of the K-N-N Commission in 1973. In a way the continual breaches of professional behaviour by the teachers as outlined in Table M (Page 179) could be partly attributed to absence of opportunities for in-service education.

There is a feature in the catalogue of official crime whose cause cannot be explained namely, the normal growth pattern of discharges in 1973 against the general low incidence of crime in that year. The appointment on February 14, 1973 of a Commission of Inquiry into the Standard of Education in the Transkei was an attempt by the Education Department to gain a deeper insight into the weaknesses, impediments and shortcomings inherent in the education system as a whole. Thus, the Commission was assigned relatively broad terms of reference one of which was to investigate and inquire into "... any related matter which could influence adversely or improve the standard of education in the Transkei."<sup>50</sup> The Commission, which subsequently came to be known as the K-N-N Commission, and so called after the names of the three members who constituted it namely, Kakana G.L., Ntusi D.M. and Nkungu T.M., submitted its report in December 1973. Chapter Two of the

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50. Transkei Government, The K-N-N Report. 1973. p. 7.

Table M  
Disciplinary Steps Taken Against Teachers  
During 1971-1975<sup>51</sup>

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Written warnings	857	1 009	430	1 151	1 251
Principals reverted to assistant teachers	25	35	18	59	80
Court convictions reported	208	231	9	256	321
Departmental fines	11	17	30	69	115
Salary increments withheld	441	512	196	554	668
Discharged	56	63	80	126	167
Transfers effected	12	11	39	111	160
Leave without pay authorized	9	35	31	52	101
Abscondment	243	360	140	402	597
Excessive corporal punishment	34	41	50	61	118
Misappropriation of school funds					
No co-operation					
Negligent driving, bigamy etc.					

Source: Reports of the Department of Education for the Period 1971-1975.

Report was devoted to a detailed description and analysis of the state of the Primary schools with special reference to school-going population, staffing, facilities, standard of tuition and extra-mural activities. Although compulsory education was no feature of the Transkeian education system, the total enrolment of the primary schools was reported as almost reaching the half million mark, a factor which had overwhelming implications for teacher preparation and provision. Already the pupil/teacher ratio was above the level recommended by the

51. Transkei Government, Department of Education. Annual Reports. 1971-1975.

Cingo Commission in 1962 namely, that in the single unit classes from SSA to Standard IV the maximum enrolment should be 50 pupils per teacher and from Standard V to Standard VI, 44 pupils per teacher. For 1973 the pupil/teacher ratio was worked out to indicate identical clusters of schools in each range as follows :

Table N

Number of Schools with High Pupil/Teacher Ratio (1973)<sup>52</sup>

Pupil/Teacher Ratio	From							
	50	61	71	81	91	101	111	121
	To							
	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	more
Number of Schools	472	381	234	80	35	15	5	10

Source: K-N-N Report (1973).

In the circumstances such as are depicted above, the teacher finds it next to impossible to give the children the necessary amount of individual attention. It is for this reason that 'over-sized' classes always militate against successful teaching.

As regards the qualifications of the primary school teachers, The Commission explained the position by means of the following table :

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52. Transkei Government. The K-N-N Report. 1973. op cit., p. 17.

Table 0  
Teachers' Qualifications (1972)<sup>53</sup>

Qualifications	Number of Teachers With Such Qualifications	Percentage
Standard 6 only	1	0,01
Form 1 + 2 years	2 144	30,52
Junior Certificate	9	0,12
Junior Certificate + 2 years	4 567	65,11
Junior Certificate + 3 years	19	0,27
Senior Certificate only	3	0,04
Senior Certificate + 2 years	270	3,78
Senior Certificate + Degree Courses + 2 years	11	0,15
Total	7 024	100,00

Source: K-N-N Report (1973). Information extracted from Departmental T.E. 12 Statistical Forms, 1972.

It must be noted that about half of the total number of teachers did not possess even a Junior Certificate and only 270 teachers were matriculated in 1972. The Commission expressed great concern about the high drop-out rate in the primary schools and, poor organization and insufficient supervision especially by the Principals, and to the same extent, low teacher morale, motivation to hard and consistent work and accountability were given as the chief school-based causes of weak retention of pupils by the schools. It need hardly be repeated that in-service teacher education would, in circumstances such as these, be of utmost importance.

53. Transkei Government, Department of Education, T.E. 12 Statistical Forms, 1972, also cited in the K-N-N Report, 1973. p. 19.

Concerning staffing in the post-primary schools, the Commission found that a minority of these schools were adequately staffed numerically while the majority were under-staffed. All schools on the whole were numerically staffed in the sense that for many subjects, specialist secondary school teachers were very few in number. Some schools, however, did have at least one specialist though often non-graduate for such subjects as Home Economics, Mathematics, Science, Arts and Crafts, Vocational or Technical subjects and Agriculture. In line with the observations which were made earlier,<sup>54</sup> the Commission came to the conclusion that :

*"The absence of specialists in some subjects is not surprising for teaching is often a second choice profession and vocational guidance has played a full part in the selection and recruitment of teachers for teaching but some absences reflect genuine deprivations."*<sup>55</sup>

According to the information submitted by the respondents to the commissioners, there were shortages of specialists to teach Mathematics, English, Afrikaans and Science. Thirty seven percent of the schools had no specialists whatsoever while 35 schools required 60 specialist teachers.<sup>56</sup>

It was pointed out earlier that the majority of the education systems of the world are crippled by the high rate of the incidence of staff losses.<sup>57</sup> To this, the education system of the Transkei is no exception and, as in all countries of the world, the majority of teachers leave the teaching profession in order to take up more lucrative jobs in commerce and industry. According to the Commission, over 11,4 percent of the women left the teaching profession in order to marry or to have a baby while almost half, mostly men (20 percent)

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54. Cf. Supra. Chapter Three p.136.

55. Transkei Government, The K-N-N Report. 1973. p. 60.

56. Ibid. p. 61.

57. Cf. Supra. p. 167.

than women (10 percent), left either to take up a better paying job or to receive some other form of promotion.<sup>58</sup>

Other findings of the Commission especially those which related to the preparation and provision of teachers were as follows :

- (i) The training of teachers was unsatisfactory and a closer check had to be made on teacher-training and in-service training of teachers.
- (ii) The dearth of graduate teachers necessitated appointments to the positions of principalship of teachers who had not yet had sufficient experience of school work and organization.
- (iii) Many teachers possessed qualifications which were too low for the work they were required to do.
- (iv) There were a few brilliant teachers and many were indifferent and not dedicated.
- (v) There were loose morals amongst the teachers and pupils, and the moral standards of the teachers had in fact lowered the status of the profession.
- (vi) There was a shortage of teachers generally and as a result a high pupil/teacher ratio, especially in the primary schools, and heavy teaching load.
- (vii) There was a positive lack of teacher specialists for the post-primary schools and the teachers available were used as jack of all trades and master of none.
- (viii) Teachers lacked guidance in their efforts and the principals did not efficiently and sufficiently supervise and guide their assistants.

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58. Transkei Government, The K-N-N Report. 1973. p. 62.

- (ix) The teachers lacked confidence in themselves and many could not cope with rapid changes in education.<sup>59</sup>

On the general standard of tuition in the schools, the Commission made the following observations: (i) Formal teaching or lecturing was the method used by the majority of teachers and the presentation of lessons was very theoretical. (ii) Teaching aids and pupil participation were rarely used. (iii) Some of the teachers could not express themselves in the medium of the official languages and their tutoring standard was very weak.<sup>60</sup>

As a preamble to its recommendations, the Commission made the following general remarks :

*"The key component in the whole education system is the training of teachers. Teachers require specialized training in the art of teaching, an art that is continually changing. From a study of evidence submitted your Commission concludes that -*

*there is need for an enlarged teaching force,  
there is need for quality,  
there is need for a flexible teaching force capable of teaching in any sector of education as need arises for general and specialist teachers,  
there should be ample facilities for specialist training, research should continually be focussed on problems that arise.*

*The Commission fully realizes that current costs in teacher training schools will rise considerably but emphasizes that this is inevitable. A degree of social priority should be placed upon this sector of the public service. Hence the*

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59. Ibid. pp. 73-82.

60. Loc. cit.

*Commission recommends a shift in the priorities of educational expenditure from the primary to the post-primary sector."*<sup>61</sup>

It is now exactly ten years since the statement as enunciated above appeared, but, in the face of the crucial problems presently encountered regarding teacher preparation and provision, the standard of teaching in the schools and the general low teacher morale, it may well be reiterated that unless there is a shift in the priorities of educational expenditure and preparedness to spend more on teacher education, all other attempts to develop and improve the education system are foredoomed to failure and all those particularly concerned will be moving in vicious circles.

The recommendations of the Commission in respect of teacher education can be summed up as follows :<sup>62</sup>

- (a) More attention had to be given to practice teaching at the training schools and at the serving schools, teaching methods, selective recruitment of teachers, expansion of the training at post-matriculation level, and employment of re-entrants to the profession by giving incentives or by concessions in service conditions.
- (b) A permanent in-service training centre in the Transkei was in the opinion of the Commission largely the best solution to such problems as the low standard of tuition in the schools and the low teacher qualifications. This would enable in particular the outdated teacher to catch up with the modern methods of imparting knowledge and, the shortage of qualified teachers for the post-primary schools could be partly met with the training of in-service primary school teachers with matric qualifications on post-primary school work.

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61. Ibid. p. 87.

62. Ibid. pp. 73-82.

- (c) It would be to the benefit of the pupils if the teacher trainees on probation were visited regularly by the inspectors for guidance purposes and if the principal teachers themselves made it their special duty to guide teachers new to the profession.
- (d) There was need for more careful recruitment, selection and placement of professional staff. The quality of the teacher and principal is a paramount consideration - the skilled performance of those hired to educate the child.
- (e) Teachers' unions could assist in spreading the necessary idea of accountability and productivity to every teacher. To reinforce such a determination, the working conditions of teachers would have to be improved and regular programmes for staff development and in-service training for new teachers would be required.
- (f) Regarding staff development including the in-service training of teachers, the Commission had this to say :

*"It is the feeling of your Commission that staff development programmes should have their justification and rationale related to the basic goals of education and at the same time recognize that each school and community has its own unique concerns and aspirations. The programme should have a three-pronged thrust: (1) initiated at Central Office level; (2) evolved from the office of the inspector; and (3) originated from the individual schools or cluster of schools in the district. Provision is then made for workshops, seminars, demonstrations, orientation programmes, re-tooling and updating of skills, creative dramatics, art, and so on. Training is then given in the use of multimedia and multimodal approaches to the teaching of reading, computation science, mathematics and*

*social studies.*"<sup>63</sup>

- (g) The need for the appointment of Departmental Visiting Teachers for guidance of teachers and not for inspection was expressed. Even in the case of inspection, the inspection reports should diagnose weaknesses, suggest remedies, give correct assessment and, the findings should be discussed in detail not only with the principals after inspection but with the teachers as well.
- (h) Working parties of teachers and advisers, brochures of training activities, inter-school discussions by headmasters and assistants, conferences, addresses, exchange of teachers, visits and teachers' centres for new teaching techniques particularly audio-visual equipment were all considered to be important imperatives.

Finally, the Commission supplied a progress report on the New Education Structure (NES) which it explained as the re-organization of primary schools by the introduction of Standard VII classes over and above the Standard VI classes at approved centres and commencing in 1975. In this connection, the Commission warned that additional teachers would be required before the effects of the NES could be felt and suggested that recruitment of more teachers or release of more experienced teachers for work with the NES group of classes in Standard V to VII and later Standards VIII to X was necessary and, for this the post-matriculation qualifications would be essential requirements.<sup>64</sup>

With hindsight, it can be concluded with great certainty that very little has been achieved in Transkei by way of implementing the recommendations of the K-N-N Commission and, although yet another Commission of Inquiry (the Taylor Commission of Inquiry) has since been appointed, the K-N-N Report remains a valuable document and source of reference which when used intelligently can modernize the whole

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63. Ibid. p. 86.

64. Ibid. pp. 102-103.

education system and contribute very largely towards the improvement of teacher education programmes in the country. Inaction during the period under review could be attributed to the fact that teacher education was professionally undertaken under the aegis of the South African Department of Education and Training.

Reference has been made to the New Education Structure which was introduced in Transkei in 1975. The remaining two-year period (1975-1976) was characterized by great activity in education involving the re-organization of the school system and introduction of the differentiated curricula and syllabuses. As it was indicated earlier it is considered appropriate to examine the trends and developments in teacher education during this period separately and under a different sub-heading namely, Teacher Education Within the Framework of Differentiated Education.

## 2.2 Teacher Education Within the Framework of Differentiated Education (1975-1976)

When all the education departments in the Republic of South Africa, including those of the homelands, introduced a differentiated system of education in 1974, the school systems and courses in Transkei were also re-organized and revised in accordance with the regulations promulgated for the implementation of the provisions of the Republican National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967. The Act provided *inter alia* that :

*"education shall be provided in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil, and the needs of the country, and that appropriate guidance shall, with due regard thereto, be furnished to pupils;*

*the parent community be given a place in the education system through parent-teachers'*

*associations, school committees, boards of control or school boards or in any other manner;*

*consideration shall be given to suggestions and recommendations of the officially recognized teachers' associations when planning for purposes of education."*<sup>65</sup>

Clearly evident in these statements is the acknowledgement of the key role teachers are always expected to play in the smooth and successful functioning of any education system and one cannot help but recall a similar acknowledgement by the Quebec Commission namely, that :

*"In every country it is thoroughly understood that to embark upon new courses and to perform new functions, the educational system needs highly competent teaching personnel. Teachers are the keystone of any system and the only hope for the accomplishment of educational reforms. Whatever the programs of studies may be, whatever standards are established, whatever experiments are tried, the solution depends ultimately on the teaching staff."*<sup>66</sup>

Introducing the new differentiated system of education in respect of Bantu Education in the Republic of South Africa, the then Minister of Bantu Education and Development, M.C. Botha announced in December, 1972 that :

*"The present 13-year structure of Bantu Education will be reduced to 12 years. The class which will disappear is the present standard VI. The work previously done in standards V and VI and in Forms I and II will now*

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65. Republic of South Africa, Education Policy Act. No. 39 of 1967 as amended by No. 73 of 1969.

66. Supra, Chapter One p. 19.

*have to be done in three years."*<sup>67</sup>

The Minister of Education in Transkei dealt at length with the plans for the implementation of the 12-year structure in his policy speech in 1973. He explained that the structure would be made up of four three-year phases namely, the Junior Primary (Sub-Standard A to Standard I), the Senior Primary (Standard II to Standard IV), the Junior Secondary (Standard V to Standard VII) and the Senior Secondary (Standard VIII to Standard X). In the primary phases the task of the teacher would be to create situations which would enable pupils to acquire modes of thinking through topics of interest rather than through subjects in the traditional sense. The concentration would be on intellectual and personal skills as well as attitudes that would lay the foundation and provide tools for further learning. The Junior Secondary phase would be a stage at which diversification would be introduced and a pass at this level would be a pre-requisite for admission to vocational, technical, agricultural, commercial and academic senior secondary courses and schools.<sup>68</sup>

When the system was actually introduced in Transkei in 1975, the bulk of the Standard VI schools were upgraded to the Junior Secondary school status by granting them Standard VII and the implications in terms of teacher supply were, as a result, so vast that the Education Minister announced in his policy speech in 1976 that :

*"My department is also conducting a survey on the number of teachers engaged in Junior Secondary classes who are studying to fulfil the requirements of the Senior Certificate examination. Matric is the minimum academic requirement for teaching in Junior Secondary schools. In the not too far distant future the*

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67. Statement issued by the Hon. the Minister of Bantu Education and Development, M.C. Botha, in December, 1972. Cited by J. du Preez, Loc. cit.

68. Transkei Legislative Assembly, Minister of Education: Policy Speech. May, 1976.

*entrance qualification to our teacher training schools will be matric ... The needs of the Junior Secondary Schools are vast and, practically, our only source of supply is the Cicira Training College ..."*<sup>69</sup>

Although the inclusion of two additional districts namely, Herschel and Glen Grey, to Transkei came along with two more teacher training schools namely, Mount Arthur in the Glen Grey district and Bensonvale in the Herschel district, the problem of getting suitably qualified teachers to man the new Junior Secondary schools in particular remained acute. The phenomenon of teacher shortage was more pronounced in the Junior and Senior Secondary schools especially in respect of such subjects as Mathematics, Science, English and Geography. The problem did not escape the notice of the Education Department and some of the plans which were under way and directed towards the solution of the problem included :

- (i) providing at all new schools special Social Science Rooms or Geography laboratories;
- (ii) establishing a Social Science Centre in one of the Training Schools;
- (iii) establishing an in-service training centre about which the Education Minister had this to say in his policy speech in 1976 :

*"Education is not static but dynamic - it is undergoing changes almost every day. If our teachers are to keep pace with these changes the establishment of an in-service training centre should receive absolute priority. In other Education systems, it forms the pillar on which the department leans for development. To my*

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69. Loc. cit.

*mind an in-service training centre is a sine qua non of any up-to-date system of Education."*<sup>70</sup>;

- (iv) and, introducing (as from 1977) a one-year Senior Secondary Teachers' Course at Cicira Teacher Training College for teachers who had already completed the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course successfully.

It is, however, worth noting that the emphasis above was on the provision of physical facilities rather than teachers. As regards the general quality of the teacher needed for the successful implementation of the differentiated system of education, Hart pointed out at the Tenth Congress of the South African Association for the Advancement of Education held in Durban from January 20-22, 1972 that teachers of pupils in the Junior Secondary school phase would have to be rather special people in view of the immense formative importance of early adolescent education. A sound school guidance programme, according to Hart :

*"... lies at the heart of an efficient system of differentiation. It is important for teachers and guidance personnel to reach the individual child in his totality, including his cultural and social level and, to think not merely of assigning a pupil to an educational category but to pay due regard to his future development as an individual personality ... The good classroom teacher guides as he teaches, and he will naturally perform much of the day-to-day guidance and remedial work. Teacher training programmes need to give more attention to these aspects during the training of all teachers ... Much of the success of the guidance programme will depend on the co-operation and harmony between the teacher-*

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70. Loc. cit.

*psychologists and the professional teachers."*<sup>71</sup>

In order to meet the above requirement, the Transkei Education Department established a section of Psychological Services within its central establishment and Mr M.T. Tonjeni assumed duties as a teacher-psychologist and school counsellor on an itinerant basis on February 1, 1976. Six additional posts of teacher counsellors were later created. The teacher counsellors were expected to visit the schools and administer standardized tests developed by the Human Sciences Research Council. The extent to which the Psychological Services Division has since succeeded to achieve its objectives remains to be evaluated.

The Education Department continued to offer bursaries each year to successful senior certificate candidates who wished to proceed to the University of Fort Hare in order to take a degree course plus a one-year programme of professional training or the two-year Secondary Teachers' Diploma Course in an attempt to provide teachers for the post-primary schools.

A development of by no means small significance was the establishment in February 1976 of the Umtata Branch of the University of Fort Hare. The announcement by Fort Hare in 1974 of its intention to open a branch of the University in Umtata marked the translation into reality of an old dream which was first mooted by the Tomlinson Commission in 1954 that the Union Government of South Africa should consider the establishment of constituent university colleges, one of which should be in the Transkei, organized on a federal basis and attached to a Bantu University of South Africa.<sup>72</sup> The dream later became music of the future of the Transkei Government soon after the inception of self-government in 1963. The pressure for a university in Transkei gathered momentum soon after W. Backer, then Senior Lecturer in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare, had issued a statement in August 1969 that :

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71. Hart, I.E.J., *The Junior Secondary Phase*. B.F. Nel, (Editor), op cit., pp. 80-81.

72. *Supra*, p. 154.

*"We have here an ideal opportunity for Fort Hare to consider opening a branch of faculties which could be of most practical use to the Transkei in Umtata or any centre in the Transkei near the point of requirement, but no more suitable place than Umtata could be envisaged."*<sup>73</sup>

The new University, which was granted full autonomy soon after the attainment by Transkei of full independence as a sovereign state, did not, however, until four years later provide for teacher training. The only available course comprised a group of subjects arranged into a meaningful curriculum and leading towards a Bachelor of Arts degree. A foundation stone had, however, been laid for future unprecedented changes in teacher education and the role that the University was to play in transforming the whole scene of teacher education was formidable. Stating one of the principles on which the new University should be founded, the first Principal of the University of Transkei, Professor B. de V. van der Merwe said :

*"... not only the compilation of the curricula for the degrees and diplomas should take cognizance of the cultural background of the Xhosa nation, its problems, its wishes and desires but the spirit and direction and the campus design and buildings of the new University must speak of an understanding of the complex nature of higher education - of preserving the essential roots from which the future must of necessity spring ... (Yet) it must remain detached so as to be able to listen to the voice of science without bias or prejudice, even without concern about the outcome of the research project it is engaged in."*<sup>74</sup>

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73. Backer, W., Employment Opportunities for Graduates offered by the Transkei. W. Backer, (Editor), The Economic Development of the Transkei. pp. 68-69.

74. Van der Merwe, B. de V., 'Ambitious Plans for University'. Transkei Independence Review. Supplement to the Daily Dispatch. Monday, October 25, 1976.

The attainment by Transkei on October 26, 1976 of full independence together with the granting with effect from January 1, 1977 of autonomous status to the University of Transkei as well as the subsequent establishment at the University in 1979 of a Faculty of Education all marked the onset of a new era in the development of teacher education in the country. Although these developments did not allow enough time for the consolidation of the teacher education programmes and other innovations which had been started during the period under review (1964-1976), they nevertheless promised an even more illustrious and prosperous future. However, the implications thereof, considering the formidable challenges which always face a young independent and sovereign state as well as the nature and functions of a university faculty of education in a so-called Third World country, nullified all verbal fisticuffs and mud-slinging. It, however, remained to be seen what the Transkei Government including the University would make of the opportunity accorded the people of Transkei by the Republic of South Africa to shape their own future. For the University Faculty of Education, whose task it was, and still is, to improve the education system of the country the challenge was even greater.

It was pointed out that despite a wide range of problems and pressing needs which were identified in teacher education by the K-N-N Commission, there was, however, an obvious state of inaction in Transkei during the period under review. This phenomenon could be attributed to problems of dual control of teacher education. The administration of teacher education was in the hands of the 'homeland' Government Department of Education while all professional matters including the determination and provision of curricula and courses as well as examinations were the sole responsibility of the South African Department of Education and Training. This state of affairs prevailed for four years after the attainment of independence in 1976. It was only in 1980 that meaningful teacher education reforms were introduced and since then teacher education has been in a state of flux in Transkei. Practically, the period reviewed in this chapter clearly overlaps with the next namely, the post-independence era (1977 to date)

inasmuch as the practices of the former period were carried over into the latter. For this reason, there is in the next chapter a noticeable transition from the historical past, which has been largely descriptive, into the actuality of the present, which in the main uses a detailed analysis rather than the technique of the historical survey. With this in mind, some progress can then be made to consider the developments and trends in teacher education in the new era.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA IN TRANSKEI : CURRENT GOALS AND STRATEGIES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

#### 1 The Political and Socio-Economic Changes and Pressures

When Macmillan as Prime Minister of Britain visited Africa and used the phrase 'winds of change'<sup>1</sup> to describe the world events of the time which involved the final twilight of the empires and the granting of independence to many former colonies in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean, Dr H.F. Verwoerd, then Prime Minister of the Republic of South Africa, catching the spirit behind the British Prime Minister's statement, announced in Parliament in 1961 that the South African Government would have to allow the development of "separate Bantu states, possibly even to the point of full independence."<sup>2</sup> The dream came true fifteen years later when Transkei became the first 'Bantu state' to be granted full independence on October 26, 1976. The process of gaining independence and the nature thereof differed in many ways from those of other former colonial territories. In the latter territories, the process of gaining independence had been, according to Richard D'Aeth :

*"... accompanied by bitter fighting at times ... In many instances the boundaries of these new states made little sense in terms of geography, race, language, religion or history for they were artificial units formed out of the haphazard rivalries of the colonial powers. Moreover, the changes had often come with unexpected suddenness, and there had been little preparation for independence; ... Zaire ... had fewer than thirty university graduates when it was hurriedly granted independence; ... Libya did not have a secondary school for its own people until four years before independence was granted in 1961."*<sup>3</sup>

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1. Cf. De Kock, W.J., History of South Africa. p. 48.
  2. Union of South Africa, House of Assembly Debates, 10 April 1961, Col. 4191.
  3. D'Aeth, R., *op cit.*, p. 5.

On the contrary, and in terms of the geographical and demographic features to start with, Transkei qualified for independence. Furthermore, the territory had gradually evolved to independence in accordance with the tacit pre-war assumption that the colonies would grow slowly to maturity over an indefinitely long period. Some of the former colonial territories which were granted independence before Transkei, had not been accorded opportunity for rigorous, peaceful and thorough preparation for independence like Transkei. The granting of formal political independence to Transkei by South Africa in 1976 occasioned a wide-ranging controversy in international, academic and political circles as to the nature, meaning and likely consequences of such independence and of the South African homeland policy. The movement, which was at first spearheaded by journalistic writing in the middle of 1976 and only a few months before Transkei became independent on October 26, was highly critical and viewed the whole notion of Transkei independence as the perpetuation by the Republic of South Africa of its racial and discriminatory policies. Only days before Transkei independence, Ravan Press in Johannesburg published a book by Patrick Laurence entitled The Transkei : South Africa's Politics of Partition in the opening paragraphs of which the writer compared the decision of Transkei to choose independence in 1976 with the suicidal decision of the Xhosa people 120 years before to slaughter their cattle and consume their grain, as the prophetess Nongqawuse had directed, in order to drive away the White man.<sup>4</sup> While the independence celebrations were in process at the Independence Stadium in Umtata on the evening of October 25, 134 countries marked the day at the General Assembly of the United Nations 7 000 miles away in New York by supporting a resolution declaring Transkei independence 'invalid' and prohibiting any future dealings with the new state.<sup>5</sup> A common premise was that any form of race separation in South Africa was both morally and historically indefensible and no positive answer whatsoever to the awful tensions of the country. In a nutshell, the Republic of Transkei was seen by its critics as a temporary phenomenon and Transkei independence as a re-

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4. Laurence, P., The Transkei : South Africa's Politics of Partition. p. 1.

5. United Nations, General Assembly. Resolutions Adopted by the General Assembly. New York. 1976. Res. 31/6A.

versible step and, thus, the new state was denied acceptance as an independent entity into the world community of states.<sup>6</sup>

Shortly before and soon after the attainment of independence on October 26, 1976, the Transkeian authorities embarked on a serious battle for recognition. Recognition of Transkei was urged upon a variety of grounds: The colonial Transkei, which was initially ruled by the Cape, was a separate politico-legal entity akin to the former Higher Commissioned Territories, but one which had had the misfortune of being absorbed into South Africa when the Colony had joined the Union in 1910, whereas 'the conspiracy of history' had earlier decreed that these other lands should become British Protectorates (after Basutoland and British Bechuanaland had earlier been annexed by Cape Colony and Swaziland by the Transvaal Republic). Had it not been for this 'accident of fate', Transkei would have been decolonized by Britain rather than by the apartheid regime, and would thus have been accepted without demur into the international community of states. Secondly, the new republic met the criteria generally demanded of a state such as defined boundaries, a settled population, a stable government in effective control of its territory, absolute sovereignty over its own affairs, and so on. Thirdly, the Transkeian citizens had been the unwilling victims of apartheid, should not be further penalized and that international ostracism would reinforce dependence upon South Africa. Fourthly, as Transkei favoured a free enterprise system it would serve as a bulward against communism. And, finally, the 'oppressed people of Transkei' had never once abandoned their idea of regaining self-determination and the right to rule themselves.<sup>7</sup> Whatever the merits of such arguments, their impact upon the international community have hitherto been very minimal and the pendulum may now well be swung towards the consideration of such positive minimal effects.

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6. Cf. Stultz, N.M., Transkei's Half Loaf : Race Separation in South Africa. pp. 116-123.

7. Cf. Southall, R.J., South Africa's Transkei. The Political Economy of an 'Independent' Bantustan. p. 249.

First, the support that the notion of Transkei as a separate state received came from the members of the legal profession who, arguing from the perspective of constitutional law, pointed out the denial of international recognition to Transkei as an independent territorial entity was not sufficient to counter its legal claim to existence as a state for 'recognition does not create a new state as it is a declaratory and not a constitutive act', and accordingly, the critical issue was the fact that the South African legislature had chosen to divest itself of legal responsibility for the administration of part of its territory, this having been passed on to a separate parliament which then formed a legally constituted sovereign authority.<sup>8</sup> Representing the anti-Transkei independence movement, Roger Southall admits that :

*"... the reason why recognition of Transkei as a state has been withheld by the entire world community (except South Africa) is clearly neither because Transkei is a small, dependent and impoverished territory, nor because of any inherent inadequacies of its constitution, but rather because it is specifically a creation of apartheid, a doctrine and policy founded on racial distinctions which is regarded as abhorrent or impolite to legitimize at the level of international law."*<sup>9</sup>

Secondly, and quite paradoxically, and as a result of continuing efforts by the Transkeian Department of Foreign Affairs and Information to promote the image of the country abroad, the few contacts that have hitherto been made not only indicate the positive attitude of the countries concerned but also point to undeclared recognition of Transkei by such countries. An official delegation from Ecuador was received in Umtata in April 1977. A similar group from Transkei visited Taiwan later in the same year. Kenya granted Transkei permission to use Nairobi as a base for a so-called 'roving

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8. Cf. Dugard, J., 'Transkei and International Recognition', *Race Relations News*, 38, 10 October 1976. pp. 1-2.

9. Southall, R., *op cit.*, p. 6.

ambassador'. The Transkeian Foreign Minister, Digby Koyana, visited the Ivory Coast as a guest of the Ivorian government in August 1978.

The position of the present investigator is explained by the very possibility of this work which treats Transkei as a *de facto* state and regards the question and doubts about the legitimacy of the notion of the country as a separate entity as being separable from the issue of recognition for whether we like it or not, the Transkeian regime exists and so long as the territory continues to retain its present degree of political and legal independence, we fly in the face of reality if we fail to confront the fact of its being a discrete political entity. The fact of the matter is, as Newell Stultz puts it :

*"Once across a low bridge (the Kei Bridge) one has left South Africa and is in Africa's fiftieth state. Some individuals of course choose to deny this, but if they wish to enter the territory they too must deal with the representatives of the Umtata government at the border. Whatever the standing of Transkei in the world-at-large, once across the Kei River the Transkei state is an unavoidable fact."*<sup>10</sup>

The world map was changed on October 26, 1976 when Transkei emerged to full independence and the occurrence marked the repetition of those significant events in world history connected with the return to self-determination of many former colonial territories. Hence, additional millions of people had found a new purpose and a new identity *albeit* non-recognition by the world community of states. The socio-economic pressures that characterized the post-independence era in the former colonial territories soon set in as well in the newly independent Transkei. The rise to nationhood brought about a new set of aims and aspirations all of which were fortified by the newly acquired personal dignity, self-respect, sense of responsibility, self-determination and positive co-operative endeavour which the national slogan 'Imbumba Yamanyama' (Unity is strength) was adopted to express. Weakness and

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10. Stultz, N.M., *op cit.*, p. 18.

poverty were to be cast aside and the notion of development became of paramount importance. Modernization in the form of industrialization, updating agricultural techniques, and positive planning of change became the goals.

Added to the political pressures of non-recognition in the main and social pressures for modernization came severe economic crisis. Although agriculture is the principal economic activity, the land has been badly overgrazed because of the value the traditional African culture places on the possession of cattle, and this, together with primitive farming methods and periodically heavy rains, has resulted in serious soil erosion in many places. The human resources of the territory are limited. A more serious fact is that the migratory labour system continually removes many of the most productive individuals from the territory, at least temporarily. The Institute for Management and Development Studies at the University of Transkei revealed in April, 1981 that "the number of Transkeian migrant workers employed outside the country has increased over recent years, reaching a current level of almost 70 percent of all able-bodied men."<sup>11</sup> At the time of the 1970 census it was found that 56,1 percent of the black population of Transkei had received no schooling at all, while those who went to school commonly stopped going after a few years.<sup>12</sup> The limited human resources were also portrayed by the Assistant Secretary for the Transkei Government Public Service Commission when he presented the following statistics in 1971 which reflected the needs in the Transkei Government Service for technical and professional personnel and the position regarding them (Table P. p. 203).

The position portrayed in Table P was one of sombreness and with the Secretary himself in his concluding remarks it can be agreed that "a connived society of skilled labour amidst an abundance of human

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11. University of Transkei, Institute for Management and Development Studies, Transkei Development Review. Vol. 1. No. 1. April 1981. p. 9.
  12. Republic of South Africa, Bureau for Economic Research and Bantu Development, Transkei : Economic Review. 1975. pp. 56-57.

Table P  
Distribution of Technical and Professional Personnel:  
Public Service Commission. 1971

Designation of Post	No. of Posts	Filled by Non-Transkeians	Vacancies	Officers in Training
Intern	10	2	2	-
Pharmacist	22	2	15	8
Medical Officer	141	79	41	37
Clinical Psychologist	2	-	1	-
Pathologist	1	-	1	1
Dentist	5	3	1	-
Psychiatrist	4	-	3	-
Specialist	12	7	5	-
Dietician	2	1	1	9
Regional Planner	3	1	2	-
Inspector: Co-operatives	-	-	-	-
Societies	6	-	1	-
Engineering	18	2	14	5
Land Surveyor	44	2	31	4
State Veterinarian	14	13	1	-
Prof.Officer(Agric.)	41	-	13	15
Prof.Officer(Forestry)	17	5	11	1
Architect	2	1	1	2
Geologist	1	-	1	-
Trade Inspector	3	-	2	-

Source: Address delivered at the Faculty of Science Workshop, University of Transkei, for Technological Educational Needs in Transkei. October, 1979.<sup>13</sup>

13. University of Transkei, Faculty of Science, Addresses delivered at the Faculty of Science Workshop for Technological Educational Needs in Transkei. Document 1. October 1979: Address by Mr P.M. Mdunge - Assistant Secretary, Public Service Commission. p. 5.

material capable of being trained makes neither economic nor political sense."<sup>14</sup> Transkei has in common with the other former colonial territories now commonly referred to as Third World countries or merely as underdeveloped countries a very low *per capita* income, poor diet, inadequate housing and poor health all of which are concomitants of economic pressure. Transkei, however, is even in a worse situation because as result of failure to obtain international recognition the country is not considered for the great international aid 'industry' which came into operation in the early 1960s and comprises the multiple United Nations organizations, the World Bank, bi-lateral agencies and numerous private and autonomous bodies all of which continue to provide personnel, equipment, and development funds to the underdeveloped or Third World countries. The greatest share of international aid went to education because pressures for educational innovation as the only key that would unlock the door to modernization were, according to Ponsioen, stronger in the Third World countries than in any other part of the world.<sup>15</sup> The idea can be traced back to the recommendations of the great international conferences of the early 1960s namely, Addis Ababa, Karachi, Santiago de Chile and Tananarive. The 1961 Addis Ababa Conference, for example, recommended that :

*"Considering that economic and social progress is indissolubly linked with the development of education, (the conference) invites the African countries concerned to devote as ample resources as possible to the development of education in their territories."*<sup>16</sup>

Capturing the spirit behind these and many such other recommendations which were invariably couched in such slogans like 'education develop-

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14. Ibid. pp. 9-10.

15. Ponsioen, J.A. (Editor), *Educational Innovations in Africa: Policies and Administration*. J. Ponsioen, 'Innovations in Education - A Conceptual Framework'. p. 18.

16. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and Unesco., *Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa. 15-25 May, 1961. Final Report.* p. 11.

ment', 'economics of education', 'education for self-reliance', 'education and manpower planning', 'revolution by education', and so on, Transkei also embarked, soon after independence, on massive educational revisions and devoted a larger share of the national budget to education. However, in the words of Philip Coombs, "Teachers, next to students, are the largest, most crucial inputs of an educational system"<sup>17</sup> and the ability of an education system to innovate depends in large measure upon the ability of its teachers to innovate and to bring about the acceptance and pursuance of new educational objectives within the system. A question may now be well asked as to what extent was this indisputable fact acknowledged in Transkei?

## 2 The Changing Concept of Education and its Implications for Teacher Education

In any consideration of the post-independence educational trends in the new ex-colonial territories the concept of neo-colonialism looms large. Kwame Nkrumah, President of Ghana until he was toppled by military *coup* in 1966, located the cause of this malaise in the continuing domination of the former African colonies through new means by the imperialist powers. In his own words "The essence of neo-colonialism is that the state which is subject to it is, in theory, independent and has all the outward trappings of international sovereignty. In reality its economic system and thus its political policy is directed from outside."<sup>18</sup> In the educational field the phenomenon of neo-colonialism was fostered by the powerful magnetism of Western influences and was represented by the great aspirations of the ex-colonial territories to copy the features of education in developed Western Countries. The great surge at independence was in the first place to provide schooling for all children, even if it meant only four years of schooling in cheap buildings with ill-paid teachers and often with curricula and textbooks based on those of former colonial powers or other advanced countries. The same trend in the development of Transkeian education, though fostered by political rather than economic pressures, came to be represented by

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17. Coombs, P.H., The World Educational Crisis. p. 34.

18. Nkrumah, K., Neo-colonialism : The Last Stage of Imperialism. p. ix.

the adoption shortly after independence and even without prior planning of the curricula and textbooks of the Cape Province. Thus, the criticisms of the education systems in the ex-colonial countries apply *ipso facto* to the current education system in Transkei and these criticisms were most succinctly expressed by A.R. Thompson when he described the education system of Tanzania in 1968 :

*"The educational system of Tanzania is under fire. The school system, it is argued, is an alien thing torn from a European environment and set down in a society to which it is unrelated. The curriculum is criticized as bookish, oriented towards higher levels of education which are beyond the reach of the majority of pupils, divorced from the life of the local and national communities and failing to prepare the school child for life within them ... Education, it is said, has failed to decolonize itself, continues to encourage a white-collar mentality and a contempt for manual labour; it is responsible for a profound cleavage between the educated 'elite' and the masses ..."*<sup>19</sup>

There were two obvious reasons for this rather hasty and unexpected switch over to the Cape Provincial system of education and both reasons were inspired more by political rather than educational ground-motives: First, in order to consolidate the new independent Government and its policies, it was imperative to impress the voters as soon as possible and to strengthen their confidence in the Government and one of the best ways to achieve these objectives was to rid the country as soon as possible of the stigma of the much hated racial and discriminatory system of education formerly known as Bantu Education whose curricula were hitherto still followed in Transkeian schools. Secondly, shedding of all the shackles of Bantu Education system amounted to the elimination of one of the most important factors which militated against the recognition of the new independent Transkei by

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19. Thompson, A.R., 'Ideas Underlying British Colonial Education Policy in Tanganyika. I.N. Resnick (Ed.), op cit., p. 15.

the international community and, as such, the move was more of a political strategy than a demonstration of an educational improvement. Despite much talk, especially amongst the members of the teaching fraternity, educationists and politicians alike, about the need for an education system geared towards the manpower and economic needs of the country, elimination of poverty and improvement of the general quality of life, the reality of the situation was and has hitherto continued to be that the type of education given remains neither relevant to the needs of Transkei nor is it guided by a clearly formulated educational policy. The Taylor Commission most unreservedly expressed its greatest concern about the absence of clear educational objectives in Transkei as follows :

*"In the course of the inquiry, in discussion, and from the study and analysis of reports and syllabuses, it became evident that there were no agreed objectives, either for the system as a whole, nor for any of the primary, secondary nor vocational school curricula, although the aims for individual syllabuses at each level were stated. The Commission felt that the absence of such objectives had resulted in a disjointed approach to curriculum planning, both within each level and between successive levels. This had contributed to the often voiced complaint that the system was not geared to the needs of Transkei."*<sup>20</sup>

Consequently, teacher education system was also without direction and purpose and was like a ship that had lost both its anchor and rudder for the objectives and structure of the teacher education system of any country are determined first and foremost by the objectives and structure of the country's whole education system itself. In Transkei, the teacher education programmes of the South African Department of Education and Training were by contrast still offered at all the nine Teacher Training Colleges during the first few years of the Cape Education syllabuses in Transkeian schools. All the teacher

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20. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei. Umtata. 1979. para. 1.21. p. 13.

education programmes at the University of Fort Hare, which hitherto continued to supply the much needed teachers for the Transkeian senior secondary schools, were also offered in the light of the educational policies and objectives in South Africa and modelled after and based on the school syllabuses of that country.

The magnitude of the contributions made by the University of Fort Hare towards the development and expansion of educational provisions and teacher education in particular in Transkei will, however, remain as one of the most eminent records in the history of the educational development in the country. The hallmark of these contributions was the opening in 1979 at the newly established University of Transkei of a separate Faculty of Education which soon afterwards, not only instituted a series of pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes within the University itself, but also assumed complete and entire responsibility for the professional planning and implementation of all professional teacher education programmes in the country's nine Teacher Training Colleges. Transkei will thus ever remain highly indebted to the University of Fort Hare for the many years of dedicated and fruitful service which culminated in the establishment of its Branch in Umtata in 1975, the attainment by the Branch of autonomous University status in October, 1976 and, the opening shortly thereafter of a separate Faculty of Education in 1979. It was of utmost significance and likely to have far-reaching implications for the future development of teacher education that the Dean of the Faculty of Education at Fort Hare in person, Professor B. de V. van der Merwe, was appointed first, the Fort Hare Rector's representative at the Umtata Branch and, soon after, the first Principal of the new University.

Soon after taking over, the University of Transkei embarked on wide-ranging and massive reforms which soon transformed the whole teacher education scene in the country. Policy guidelines for future teacher education structures were most timeously provided by the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei (the Taylor Commission)<sup>21</sup> in 1979. The report of the Commission has continued to

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21. Loc. cit.

serve as the blueprint for all educational provisions in the country. A preliminary examination of the recommendations of the Commission therefore seems essential.

### 3 The Taylor Commission and its Recommendations on Teacher Education

#### 3.1 General Matters Pertinent to Teacher Education

Early in 1979, the then Minister of Education, the Honourable Mr A.N. Jonas, appointed a commission of inquiry under the chairmanship of Professor Andrew Taylor of the University College, Cardiff, to inquire into education in the Republic of Transkei. The commissioners were Professors R.G. MacMillan, former Vice-Principal of the University of Natal and J.M. Noruwana, who was then Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei and Messrs C.P. Songca, Deputy Secretary-General for Education in the Government Department of Education, D.M. Ntusi, former Chairman of Council of the University of Transkei, P.N. Tshaka, President of the Transkei Teachers' Association and F. Degbor, Inspector of Technical Education in the Government Department of Education. Of far-reaching implications for teacher education was the fact that the newly appointed Dean of the new Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei, Professor J.M. Noruwana, was also member of the seven-men Commission, a step which ensured the full implementation of the recommendations of the Commission especially in respect of teacher education. The terms of reference of the Commission were very wide and comprehensive and, amongst others, the Commission was asked to compile a report embodying the findings, comments and recommendations in respect of the quality of education in all sectors of the formal system, steps and issues relating to the introduction of compulsory school attendance, provision of the facilities for education, control and organization of selection procedures and provisions for teacher education, issues relating to the establishment of a curriculum development unit and skilled manpower needs for the accelerated development of the country.<sup>22</sup>

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22. Ibid. p. vii.

A few months later, the Commission submitted its comprehensive report which has generally come to be known as the Taylor Report. The significant and indispensable role that teachers play in the improvement of the quality of education is preponderant throughout the six parts of the 253 page report. Part One deals with the interpretation of the terms of reference and also provides theoretical considerations of an evolutionary pattern along which educational systems generally pass in their development as well as the factors which largely influence the direction and rate of the development of educational provisions namely, motivation, manpower provision and financial resources.<sup>23</sup>

Although motivation is a wide concept affecting a variety of sources namely, national and local Government, employers, voluntary educational agencies, parents and children, the adequacy, skill, dedication and loyalty of the teaching profession furnish a critical area of motivation. Lack of enthusiasm in the manner teachers conduct their teaching duties has been repeatedly reported in Transkei by both the Government Department of Education in its annual reports and the members of the public whenever reference is made to the quality of teaching in the schools. The second factor namely, manpower provision, refers in the field of education to, amongst others, those strengths and weaknesses which stem from the present and the likely situation in the immediate future of the teaching profession and these will always relate to the basic educational background of teachers, the level of professional skill of teachers, the teacher-pupil ratio and the pre-service and in-service training facilities for teachers. This in effect constitutes the whole broad spectrum of teacher education the quality of which in Transkei remains in all respects very low. The quality of teacher education as well as of teacher effectiveness in the performance of teaching duties are also to a greater degree determined by the level of financial resources and these include the provisions of both capital and recurrent finance, estimates of probable economic growth and other sources of income such as fees and contributions by non-government agencies. Many progressive ideas and schemes proposed by experts in the field of teacher education are often abandoned in

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23. Ibid. paras. 1.1-1.34. pp. 1-24.

Transkei because of lack of funds needed to implement them. A case in point relates to the poor infrastructure of the country which makes it impossible to utilize at the Teacher Training Colleges the highly sophisticated and yet educationally good technological and audio-visual equipment ordered by the University Faculty of Education. The limiting factor in this regard is the absence of electricity at the majority of the Colleges and owing to poor financial resources the Government Department of Education cannot afford this facility. This seems to suggest a need, through the establishment of logical goals, to develop a priority programme for improvement of teacher education in Transkei.

Regarding the evolutionary pattern through which all education systems have to pass in their development, the Commission outlined in great detail four different stages and, in its analysis of each of the four stages,<sup>24</sup> restricted itself almost entirely to the supply, quality and roles of teachers obviously because of the indisputably key position that teachers occupy in any education system. The first stage is characterized by little or no Government involvement in education which is provided instead by private agencies and individuals and, as such, lacks legal requirements regarding the provision of buildings and equipment, fees, minimum teaching qualifications, curriculum content and the nature and standard of examinations. This stage represents the earliest world-wide provisions of education and corresponds to the educational provisions of the various early missionary societies in Transkei.

The second stage coincides with a great increase in demand for education, and the acceptance by the State of its role as the main provider of finance. The incomplete nature of the system from which it grows means that there is a shortage of personnel with advanced educational qualifications, so that the teachers have to be recruited, either from those who themselves have just completed the lowest level of education or from a level a little above. Because of their limited

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24. Loc. cit.

educational background, the teachers are trained to teach strictly to the syllabus, by approved methods, and their success is measured by the percentage of passes in external examinations. During this stage the emphasis is on class teaching, with no provision for individual differences or for handicapped children. Although the onset of this stage in Transkei can be traced back to about seventy years ago, so predominant are its features in current educational practice that the Transkeian education system can even today be said to be virtually still in the second stage of development. According to the Departmental Report on Teacher Training College Panel Inspection conducted between May 16 and May 20, 1983 :

*"... one Principal taught 35 periods a week because many of his staff could not, in terms of academic competency, meet the academic demands of the enrichment programme. As such these lowly qualified teachers remained with a little more than 10 periods, not because there was no more work to share but because in the interest of the students and therefore of the Department they better be left to idle - another form of resource misallocation, where teachers who could be profitably used in the primary and junior secondary schools are kept at the colleges for they cannot be summarily dismissed but gradually and diplomatically (transferred) from the colleges ... in recognition of the services they have rendered. Worse still, the College was characterized by non-attendance at classes by the teaching staff presumably due to academic ill-qualifications and concomitant diffidence."<sup>25</sup>*

Although in terms of educational practice, the Transkei education system is still in the second stage of development, there are signs that the demands of the third stage are already being strongly felt. New possibilities are beginning to appear. It is possible to recruit

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25. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education, A General Report on Teacher Training College Panel Inspection. 16-20/05/1983. para. 6. p.2.

teachers who have completed a higher level of education. A large cadre of expatriate teachers now teaching in Transkeian senior secondary schools and in the teacher training colleges bear witness to this. However, the sooner the expatriate teachers are replaced by properly trained and qualified local staff the better for the position of a Transkeian-born and trained teacher can never, on cultural grounds, be fully replaced by that of an expatriate teacher. That is why the Departmental Panel Inspection "considered (it) improper to have a professional subject such as School Organization taught by an expatriate teacher."<sup>26</sup> What is more, an expatriate teacher cannot, because of innumerable problems of cultural identity, interpret the subject content in the light of the national ethos and thereby inculcate in the young the desired and cherished cultural values and norms. Effective teaching does not only imply knowledge of the subject content by the teacher but also equally requires understanding of the children's personalities which in turn depends largely on the knowledge and understanding of their cultural home backgrounds. Another feature of the third stage is the awareness that provision for individual differences should be made and that syllabuses should be structured more in the light of local needs. Reliance on a single approved teaching method is at this stage superseded by the provision of source material which permits the teacher some choice, in both what should be taught, and how it should be taught. There is no doubt that attempts are currently being made in Transkei to develop the education system in the direction of the third stage: plans are underway to establish a Curriculum Development Unit and an In-Service Teacher Education College to which reference was made<sup>27</sup> and once these two large institutions begin to function it will be possible to enter the third stage of development. If the following observation by the Commission is to be accepted, it would seem, however, that for a considerable period Transkei will be poised between the second and third stages of development :

*"In examining the present state of the educational system,*

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26. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. op cit., para. 4. p.2.

27. Cf. Supra. Chapter One, p. 5.

*it was felt that all sectors below the University sector displayed many of the characteristics of the stage II level of development, especially with regard to teacher qualification, class size, classroom teaching equipment, and supplementary learning resources provision, syllabus content and teaching methods."*<sup>28</sup>

Under the circumstances, the fourth and final stage is then an illusion in Transkei. Some of the features of this stage include an increasing supply of personnel with advanced educational qualifications, a production of teachers who are fully prepared professionally and keen to accept continued in-service training as necessary and desirable and the responsibility of initiating and selecting the activities they would wish to promote, the disappearance of external examinations and so on.

Using stage II as a departure point, the Commission projected a smooth and unhindered transition to stage III by the year 2000 provided :

- (a) the large element of wastage is reduced to more acceptable levels;
- (b) bases both for further formal and non-formal education are provided;
- (c) the needs of the pupils and the community are more clearly related than hitherto;
- (d) provision for the continued expansion of each level is made as opportunity offers, and according to changing priorities.<sup>29</sup>

In so doing, the following would have to be taken into account :

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28. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. op cit., para. 1.18. p. 11.

29. Ibid. para. 1.19. pp. 11-12.

- (a) the relevance or otherwise of the current curricula;
- (b) the appropriateness of the present classroom learning conditions;
- (c) the status and professional competence of the present teaching force;
- (d) the likely type of professional training of new entrants to the teaching profession;
- (e) in-service training needs;
- (f) the provision of supervisory personnel;
- (g) the managerial structure;
- (h) the type, quality and extent of physical resources required;
- (i) the need to strengthen public confidence in the system.<sup>30</sup>

In its consideration of the evidence the Commission referred, amongst others, to the brief first hand experience that it had had with pupils and the teachers and which reaffirmed the Commission's view that much of the instruction suffered because of teachers' lack of understanding of the content and purpose of the syllabuses. According to the Commission, the situation was made worse by the unsatisfactory nature of much of the learning material, or indeed by the lack of it.<sup>31</sup>

In order to improve the standard of tuition in the primary schools, the Commission recommended that :

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30. Ibid. para. 1.20. pp. 11-12.

31. Ibid. para. 1.30. p. 22.

- (a) curriculum content should be related as much as possible to teachers' abilities;
- (b) staffing be provided at the level of one teacher to every 50 children which would necessitate a cadre of 21 700 primary teachers compared with some 12 600 in 1978 and, if the teachers and classrooms were to be provided at the beginning of 1985 this would mean an annual increase of teachers and classrooms of 1 820.<sup>32</sup>

One of the most important recommendations made by the Commission was in connection with the modification of the curriculum content. In this respect, the Commission recommended the establishment of a Curriculum Development Unit :

*"This is conceived of a permanent establishment with a small full-time professional, administrative and secretarial staff, based in the Department of Education so as to ensure a close liaison with schools and Departmental policy, but drawing on the expertise of the teaching profession, the University and other relevant organizations, through the use of syllabus committees and acting also as a stimulus and monitor for text-book material."*<sup>33</sup>

In respect of the preparation and provision of teachers the Curriculum Development Unit would, through its zone teams :

- "6.1 Organize and direct in-service courses;*
- 6.2 Ensure the understanding, co-operation and support of teachers;*
- 6.3 Maintain essential liaison with training colleges and other local sources of expertise."*<sup>34</sup>

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32. Ibid. paras. 2.1-2.6. pp. 25-29.

33. Ibid. para. 3.3. p. 33.

34. Ibid. para. 6.1-6.3. p. 250.

With effect from September, 1981, the Education Department has managed to send abroad annually a small team of officers to study the various facets of curriculum planning in preparation for the staffing of the Curriculum Development Unit which has become one of the first priorities in the attempt to revolutionize the country's education system. In this respect, the Minister of Education reported as follows in Parliament in 1982 :

*"This (Curriculum Development Unit) is a newly created division in the organizational structure of my Department ... I have pleasure to mention to this House that my Department has sent four of its planners to the University College of Cardiff to study in detail educational planning and curriculum planning ... In October this year ten more officers will be sent to the same University to study various spheres of educational planning and curriculum development."*<sup>35</sup>

However, only six officers were sent abroad in 1982 and three more were sent in 1983 to follow the same programmes as the first and second teams. By the end of 1984 a total of thirteen officers will have, since September 1981, been exposed to international influence,<sup>36</sup> and five years will have lapsed ever since the Taylor Commission made its recommendation in respect of the Curriculum Development Unit. That the Unit has not yet been established along the lines recommended by the Commission is another illustration of a grand educational plan or design whose implementation is, like many others, restrained by financial constraints. One then wonders whether it is not misallocation of funds to send officers abroad annually even at the expense of such pressing and important demands.

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35. Republic of Transkei, House of Assembly, The Policy Speech of the Department of Education for 1982. para. 2. p. 3.

36. Republic of Transkei, House of Assembly, The Policy Speech of the Department of Education for 1983. para. 8. p. 6.

Another important recommendation of the Commission which had a strong bearing on teacher education programmes related to teaching and learning materials. The Commission noted that the range of teaching and learning equipment and materials in the schools and colleges was on the whole inadequate, in many cases being confined to the blackboard and textbook. The Commission did see enough evidence however to suggest that if the approach in the pre-service training were made more practical, teachers were taught to produce their own materials and to use them, then such a 'survival' kit could be used effectively. The Commission recognized that much of the shortage was due to lack of money, so that it therefore became essential for teachers to be trained to exploit local resources, and to make teaching materials. In addition to teacher made materials, the possibility of local manufacture of durable aids should be explored. In this connection the vocational training schools equipped to make furniture could be engaged since they also manufacture equipment for sale so as to raise funds for their own activities.<sup>37</sup>

Regarding the acute shortage of books which was found to be due very largely to financial constraints, the Commission recommended, especially in respect of the Teacher Training institutions, that the possibility be explored of adding fifty cents a term to the College fees to be earmarked for the building up of supplementary reading resources.<sup>38</sup>

Part III of the Commission's comprehensive report dealt with the educational provision level by level. Truly, any teacher education system in order to be fully effective needs to be closely related to the school system as a whole. Regarding pre-school education, the Commission made the following recommendation :

*"In view of the serious and urgent needs of education in Transkei, ... the Department (should) take no steps in respect of pre-school education, other than to ensure that nursery schools obtain registration with the Department and*

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37. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. op cit., para. 3.4-3.7. pp. 34-36.

38. Loc. cit.

*that registration be granted only when certain basic requirements have been met ... Only qualified primary teachers should be regarded as 'qualified'. In the course of time this could be limited to those having infant school qualifications."*<sup>39</sup>

The Commission noted with grave concern the over-size classes in the primary school and re-iterated its view that :

*"The pupil-teacher ratio in the Primary School should be reduced to 1:50 ensuring that the lower Primary reaches this figure. Target date, the end of 1990. Thereafter the aim to be 1:40 by the year 2000 AD."*<sup>40</sup>

The Commission further noted that teachers in the primary school were mainly women and that men were employed only as principals of schools. In this respect, the Commission's recommendation was as follows :

*"More men should be encouraged to enter the primary school, especially in the upper primary where disciplinary matters, practical work, sport are best handled by men and where the male teacher's presence is important. Of great importance, however, is the need for women to figure far more prominently in the promotion lists to Principal and Vice-Principal. The vice-principalship of a primary school should, as a rule, be a woman teacher who is placed in charge of the lower primary section."*<sup>41</sup>

The idea of a separate institution for the in-service education of teachers which has become the subject of strong debate in Transkei over the past five years was most probably stimulated by the Commission's recommendation in respect of primary school teachers, namely, that :

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39. Ibid. para. 8.7. p. 58.

40. Ibid. para. 9.5/(40). p. 64.

41. Ibid. para. 9.20. pp. 74-75.

*"There is need for a massive upgrading programme in terms of general education and professional training, particularly for those teachers in charge of lower Primary classes. Such upgrading could be by means of in-service courses. A great deal could be accomplished (and reasonably quickly) by setting up a College for Further Training conducted on correspondence lines which would do much to solve the difficult problems of upgrading teachers in rural areas; would allow teachers to work consistently on their own and would have the effect of bringing the need for study into the community, thus creating a more understanding attitude towards education."*<sup>42</sup>

The Education Department subsequently took up the matter and appointed an Educational Consultant to consider the feasibility of establishing the said in-service teacher education college to which reference has already been made.<sup>43</sup>

One of the recommendations of the Commission which, as will be noted later, received an immediate attention of the Education Department related to the admission requirements into the institutions for the initial preparation of teachers. In this regard, the Commission argued that :

*"There is a clear need for primary school teachers to be better educated in the sense that a Junior Certificate is not enough; ... for qualifying teachers, the need for the conversion of training schools to centralize colleges (as well as) for an admission level of Senior Certificate is crucial."*<sup>44</sup>

This would, indeed, be a move in the right direction for the senior

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42. Loc. cit.

43. Cf. Supra. p. 213.

44. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. op cit., para. 9.21. p. 75.

For Transkei, the Commission recommended that :

*"... all teachers should spend say two years of the first five years in rural areas. Future promotion should depend on this."*<sup>47</sup>

The Commission also noted that many weaknesses of the Transkeian education system either resulted from or were aggravated by poor administration of schools by the principals. A school principal is the key person in the total operation of the school. He is the generator and the power source from which all the school activities flow. In order to manage and administer a school efficiently, he must provide organizational leadership and this, in turn, involves planning, organizing, co-ordinating, motivating the staff and pupils and managing school buildings and facilities. In pursuit of all these, the Commission recommended that :

*"... prospective principals ... be trained through in-service courses. For present principals, continued training on short courses is essential. This is a service the Training Colleges could render with the assistance of the Inspectorate."*<sup>48</sup>

One of the problems which will receive more attention in the next chapters relates to the acute shortage of secondary school teachers. The Commission noted that graduates whether professionally qualified or not were generally concentrated in the senior secondary schools and that approximately 22 percent of teachers were qualified graduates, some 60 percent possessed the Senior Certificate and some 16 percent the Junior Certificate. Although the Commission conceded that Transkei was considerably better off than the majority of African countries in respect of graduates, it nevertheless deplored the general low standard of the qualifications of the majority of the secondary school teachers :

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47. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. *op cit.*, para. 9.23. p. 76.

48. *Ibid.* para. 9.33. p. 80.

certificate as entrance requirement into the teacher training institutions has now become an accepted general practice all over the world. Nowhere in educational theory and practice has there been the revolution such as has been seen the world over in the initial years of the primary school. Nowhere has there been more felt need for teachers qualified to handle such work requiring skill, love, patience, as the child is initiated into the basic skills and tools upon which so much depends in the future. Writing in Nigeria in 1967, Fafunwa had this to say :

*"The teacher of the elementary school level should be as well trained for his task as the one who is employed at the secondary and teacher training colleges; for ... the early years of the child are the most formative and so it is essential that the teacher at this level be well qualified ...; this calls for teachers who have initiative and resourcefulness, sympathy, skill in pupil control, knowledge of the subject matter and, above all, teachers who are emotionally stable for the teacher affects the life of the child more than all other professions put together."*<sup>45</sup>

The above considerations call for better educated teachers than merely trained practitioners. This aspect will be returned to in the next chapters.

One of the problems which currently beset the educational systems of the newly independent African nations is the unwillingness of teachers to work in the predominantly rural areas. Musaaazi reports that in Nigeria :

*"Teachers who are posted to rural areas are paid a monthly 'bush allowance' or 'hardship allowance'. This is an inducement for teachers to stay in rural areas where modern basic amenities are lacking."*<sup>46</sup>

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45. Fafunwa, A.B., op cit., p. 90.

46. Musaaazi, J.C.S., The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. p. 201.

*"There is ... urgent need for the upgrading of teachers with the Senior Certificate level of education or less ...; this level is too low for the demands of the modern senior secondary school."*<sup>49</sup>

The most crucial areas of teacher shortage were found to be the Sciences and Mathematics, and in this regard, it was recommended that :

*"the Department should consider giving teachers who warrant promotion to Vice-Principalships that promotion but retaining them in their present posts because of serious teacher shortage in that area."*<sup>50</sup>

The numerical expansion of the secondary schools and its adverse impact on teacher supply continued to be a feature of the education system.<sup>51</sup> The Commission noted that there were 33 636 pupils in Standards VIII to X with 1 176 teachers in 1978, giving a ratio of 1:28,6 in that year and 110 Senior Secondary schools and 37 500 pupils in 1979, giving an average pupil enrolment of about 340 per school. Under the circumstances, the Commission recommended that :

*"For the coming period of five years (1980-1984) ... no further senior secondary schools (should) be built unless an extremely good case can be made out in terms of lack of facilities and better distribution."*<sup>52</sup>

The establishment and maintenance of favourable conditions of service including the provision of suitable accommodation for teachers has a direct and positive effect on the retention of staff and improvement of their performance and effectiveness. In Transkei, as in other countries of the Third World, one of the features of the unfavourable conditions of service for teachers which has continued to contribute to

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49. Ibid. paras. 11.17-11.18. pp. 107-108.

50. Ibid. para. 11.23. p. 110.

51. Cf. Supra. Chapter Four. p. 167.

52. Ibid. para. 11.19. p. 102.

the diminished status of the profession and low teacher morale is the inadequate provision of suitable accommodation for teachers. In this regard, the Commission recommended that :

*"The community, tribal authorities, regional authorities and central government should contribute financially towards providing adequate accommodation for teachers. The methods employed of contributions through local levy and direct grant from the government, for example, should be agreed upon by consultation between the bodies concerned. Rentals should be decided upon by the government so as to avoid economic discrimination and its effects ...; some Transkeian teachers who are teaching in areas like South Africa, would probably return if accommodation was acceptable."*<sup>53</sup>

In respect of the supply of teachers for the vocational and technical education, the Commission recommended as follows :

*"Before initiating any programme it is necessary to identify skilled staff and in the right numbers. In view of the lack of opportunities for Transkeian personnel to receive appropriate experience and training within the country, it will be necessary for some time to recruit from elsewhere. However if stability is to be achieved, in the longer term local personnel will have to be identified, from both within and outside the country, persuaded to enter teaching and trained for this purpose; ... (at the moment), over ninety percent of the staff have no teacher training qualifications and, despite strong evidence of dedicated work, are handicapped by lack of professional preparation. A teacher training course for those with the appropriate professional and trade qualifications who are teaching in the vocational schools (should) be provided, either on a full-time or preferably a sandwich basis by*

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53. Ibid. para. 11.25. p. 111.

*the University of Transkei, in co-operation with the Umtata Technical College.*"<sup>54</sup>

It was pointed out that all the matters examined in the preceding pages were the issues pertinent to teacher education which the Commission raised in the course of its consideration of other educational aspects of the education system of Transkei. It is significant to note that the Commission devoted a separate chapter in its Report to the consideration of teacher education in Transkei. In its preamble to the chapter, the Commission correctly observed that :

*"The success of educational programmes at all levels depends to a very large extent on an adequate supply of well-qualified, capable and highly motivated teachers to implement them."*<sup>55</sup>

It is thus highly desirable that the detailed examination of teacher education provisions in Transkei by the Commission including its recommendations should equally be separated here from the foregoing general matters and also dealt with under a separate sub-heading. In so doing, the findings of the Commission will be separated from its recommendations whose main feature was a new proposed structure for teacher education in Transkei.

### 3.2 The Proposed Teacher Education Structure Including Curricula and Courses

#### 3.2.1 Findings

The findings of the Commission in respect of teacher education in Transkei can be stated as follows :<sup>56</sup>

(a) In almost all schools there was apparent lack of enthusiasm in

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54. Ibid. para. 12.7/(90) - 12.10. pp. 120-122.

55. Ibid. para. 14.1. p. 132.

56. Ibid. paras. 14.1-14.10. pp. 132-136.

the manner teachers conducted their teaching duties. Many teachers attributed this dullness of teaching to the effects of Bantu Education. The Commission accepted this as one plausible explanation.

- (b) The available facilities at the University of Transkei were being under-utilized.
- (c) With all the physical facilities available, teacher supply in Transkei left much to be desired in both quality and quantity of the teaching force. For instance, of the 11 931 primary school teachers in service in 1977, only 749 (6,3 percent) had matriculation or an equivalent qualification; 11 182 (93,7 percent) had qualifications lower than matric. Of the 1 193 post-primary teachers, only 280 (23,5 percent) had bachelors degrees or higher qualifications; 60,4 percent had Senior Certificate and 16,1 percent had Junior Certificate. This evidence shows, as has been pointed out previously, that in Transkei the majority of teachers still teach beyond their capacity.
- (d) As evidenced by the high teacher:pupil ratios in schools (1:64 at the primary schools and 1:50 in some secondary schools in 1978) teacher training institutions were unable to cope with the demands for teachers.
- (e) The Commission deplored the fact that the teacher training institutions in Transkei still followed the syllabuses prescribed by the Department of Education and Training of the South African Government in Pretoria.
- (f) With very few exceptions, the physical plant and learning resources in the training institutions were inadequate. Laboratory facilities for training science and language teachers were equally inadequate or non-existent. The same obtained for practical subjects like Home Economics and Agriculture.

- (g) Last but not least, one limiting factor to all attempts at teacher education reform was the lack of well qualified teacher trainers. Most teacher educators were themselves non-graduates. Whereas it would be ideal to employ graduate teachers with some primary school teaching experience to train primary school teachers, this combination of academic and professional qualifications in one person was very rare in Transkei.

### 3.2.2 Recommendations

Having thus outlined the weaknesses of the teacher education system in Transkei, the Commission went on to propose the following improvements :<sup>57</sup>

- (a) The Post-Graduate Certificate in Education which was offered on a part-time basis at the University of Transkei would have to be started as a full-time course as soon as student numbers could warrant it.
- (b) The six Teacher Training schools which offered the Primary Teachers' course would have to be upgraded to college status.
- (c) The plans which were underway to affiliate all teacher training institutions with the local University would have to be finalized and implemented. The likely benefits that would accrue from this move would be that :
- (i) The University, through the Faculty of Education, would co-ordinate, set and monitor standards in consultation with the Department and give guidance in all types of teacher education programmes at all levels in Transkei.
- (ii) The pre-service programmes would be made more relevant

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57. Ibid. Recommendations 98-107. pp. 138-139 and, Paras. 14.2.14.11. pp. 132-138.

to local situations by focusing directly on local problems and issues in both theory and practice.

- (iii) Research on problems of local educational interest would be encouraged.
- (d) To improve the quality of student intake into teacher education, valid selection procedures would have to be devised and used.
- (e) The annual output of approximately 1 200 teachers from the colleges and training schools and the trickle of graduate teachers from the University would have to be increased substantially.
- (f) The University of Transkei should mount programmes for training teacher trainers for their roles in teacher education.
- (g) Adequate laboratory facilities and needed learning resource materials should be made available in all teacher training institutions.
- (h) The Board of the Faculty of Education of the University would have to provide monitoring facilities for all types of teacher education activity in Transkei.
- (i) An Institute of Education should be established as a department in the Faculty of Education, charged with organizing, in consultation with the Government Department of Education, all extra-University teacher education programmes and research activities.
- (j) A comprehensive structure of in-service teacher education should be designed to provide all teachers an opportunity to progress from the lowest certificate to the highest professional qualification. To this end, the following would be the feasible structure (Figure A. p. 299) :

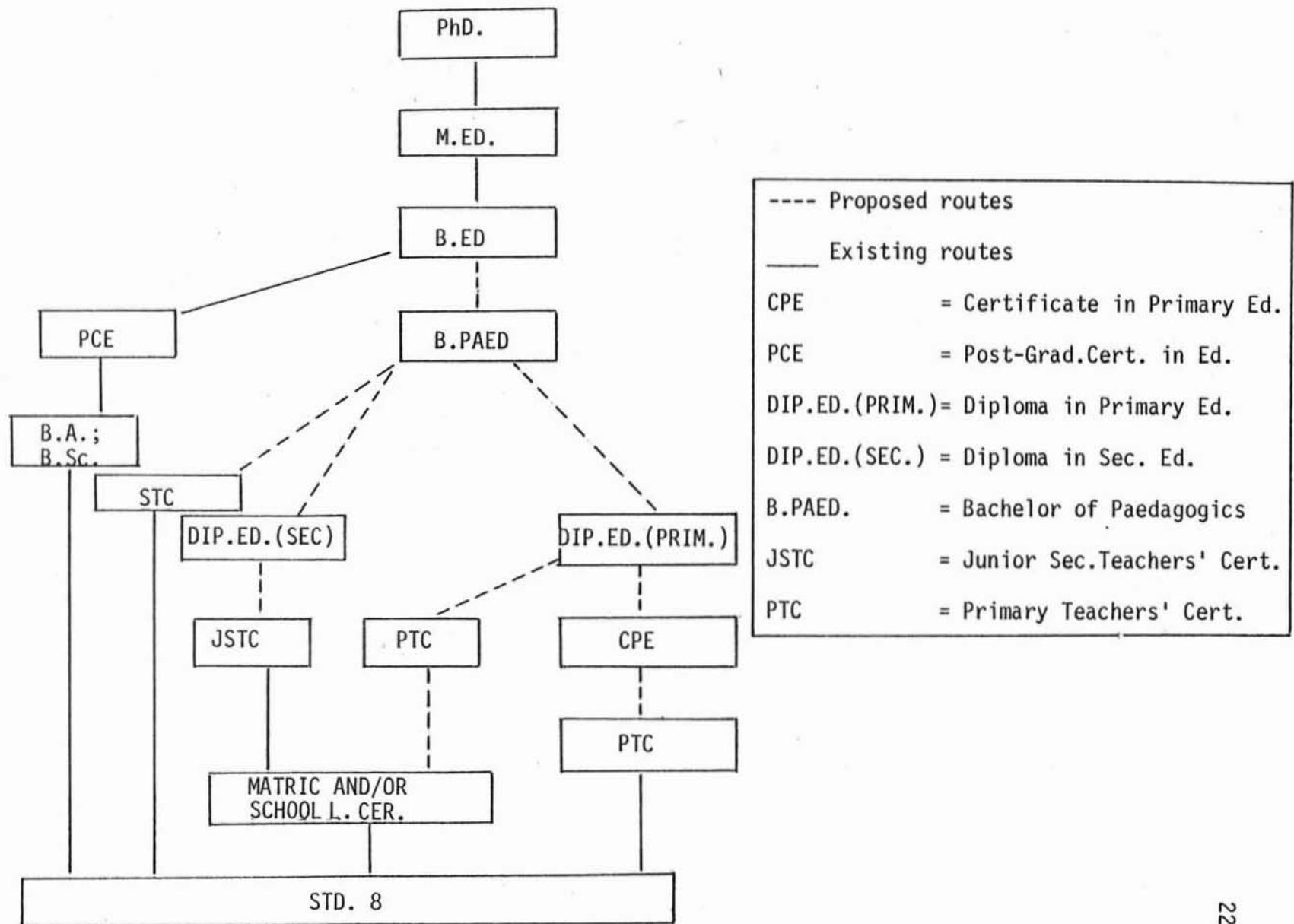


Figure A The Teacher Education Structure Proposed by the Taylor Commission. 1979.

Source: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei (The Taylor Commission). 1979. Figure 3. p. 134.

Some of the interesting features which the structure exhibits include the following :

- (i) When implemented with care, the structure would provide for and facilitate the necessary integration of the pre-service and in-service education of teachers.
  - (ii) Provision is made for teachers of varying academic and professional qualifications to enrol at appropriate levels and progress to the highest professional qualifications within the proposed structure.
  - (iii) The structure would, in particular, serve as an important means of upgrading the academic and professional qualifications of secondary school teachers and staff of the teacher training institutions.
  - (iv) The proposed framework could also serve as a basis for the future development of teacher education in Transkei. For example, all the courses which are linked by means of the proposed routes could ultimately be transferred to and provided at the envisaged teacher training colleges, or they could be the sole responsibility of the proposed in-service teacher education college.
  - (v) It is important for the future reference to note that all the courses linked by means of the proposed routes have subsequently been jointly termed the 'Right-Hand Route' so as to distinguish them from the conventional courses of teacher preparation which are also shown in the structure.
- (k) In view of the vital role of the Teacher Training Colleges, it would also be necessary to have a well qualified staff inspector attached to them. This would not only give the Colleges a direct professional link with the Department but he could also act as a co-ordinator between the Colleges themselves.

- (l) Regarding buildings and equipment, the first priority should be given to teacher training establishments. It should be a long term policy to have one large purpose built teacher training institution in each zone, so cited as to have adequate facilities for teaching practice, feeding, access to power and staff housing. The buildings would have to be designed to allow for a practical approach to teacher education, and within each, facilities for infant, other primary classes, junior secondary and some senior secondary teacher preparation. Facilities would also have to be included to enable the Colleges to act as in-service teacher education resource centres.
- (m) A teachers' journal, initially published three times a year, should be instituted to act as a stimulant, disseminator of official and unofficial events and to provide a regular professional form of communication for teachers. The widely dispersed network of schools and the difficulties of communication made for a sense of both personal and professional isolation on the part of many teachers. For reasons of both morale and teaching efficiency, it would be desirable that they feel part of one educational system, develop a feeling of belonging and get an insight into the functioning not only of their own sector of the system but others related to it. Further, they would benefit from descriptions of new approaches, of innovations attempted by their fellows and they would also obtain information of central government policy regarding both the teaching and administrative aspects of the system. Thus, through the teachers' journal, provision would be made for healthy communication among the teachers themselves and between the teachers and the Department of Education and, it would also serve to supplement in-service training programmes in various ways. It is significant to note that the current Departmental Magazine, Laboretur : Makusetyenzwe, owes its existence to this important recommendation.
- (n) Finally, the Code of Ethics proposed by the Transkei Teachers'

Association, should be accepted as :

*"the basic rules of conduct as a guide to members of the teaching profession in respect of their personal deportment and in the practice of their profession, to the end that they do their utmost to maintain the honour and to uphold the status and dignity of the teaching profession ..."*<sup>58</sup>

The work of the Taylor Commission has here been presented in greater detail so as to prepare the foreground and set the stage for a critical appraisal of the developments and trends in teacher education during the post-independence period in Transkei. This is of utmost importance since, as will be noted, the Commission's Report forms a foundation document and blue-print of current teacher education practices in the country. Having said that, the developments and trends in Transkei teacher education following the acceptance of the Commission's Report by the Government may now be critically and comparatively examined.

#### 4 Towards the Co-ordination of Teacher Education : The University-College Affiliation

##### 4.1 The Concept of University-College Affiliation : The World Educational Debate

The Commission recommended that all teacher training institutions in Transkei should be affiliated to the local University and clearly outlined the likely benefits that would accrue from this move.<sup>59</sup>

The concept of university-college affiliation had, however, been the subject of serious debate in many countries of the world. Educational literature contains multitudes of books, research materials and reports of commissions of inquiry on the subject. Writing in the United Kingdom in 1971, H.L. Elvin, then Director of the University of London

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58. Ibid. Recommendation 159. p. 190.

59. Cf. Supra. p. 227.

Institute of Education, traced the beginning of the debate in the United Kingdom to the early 1940s when the McNair Committee recommended as follows in its report :

*"... to give the training colleges what they now need it is essential to link them more effectively with the universities ... We do not believe, however, that any area system for the training of teachers can be effective unless those who shoulder the responsibilities derive their authority from a source which, because of its recognized standards and its standing in the education world, commands the respect of all the partners concerned and which, because of its established independence, is powerful enough to resist the encroachment of centralization. The universities embody these standards and have this standing and independence."*<sup>60</sup>

Following these recommendations, the universities in the United Kingdom were, according to Elvin,

*"asked by the Minister of Education to undertake the increased responsibilities that led to the Institutes of Education we know today ... The increased standing of the colleges in recent years has not just been due to the universities, but the university association has been of great importance to them in achieving what so far they have been able to achieve. The logic of events is for a closer, not a diminished, association with the universities. Those who work in the colleges emphatically do not want the clock put back. They see the association with the universities as having been, and still likely to be, a great asset in their struggle for a proper status and independence."*<sup>61</sup>

In respect of African states which attained independence within that

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60. Elvin, H.L., 'Colleges of Education: Their Achievements and Prospects'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), *Teaching the Teachers: Trends in Teacher Education*. p. 26.

61. Loc. cit.

decade, Babs Fafunwa had this to say in 1967 :

*"One of the factors which inevitably slows down progress in teacher training in most parts of Africa is the exclusiveness which can develop between institutions engaged in the training of teachers. It is hoped that some day all African teachers will be university trained. There is an unnecessary dichotomy in Africa between teacher education at the non-university level and the one at the university level. Eventually, there would have to be one type of teacher training institution where all teachers have to be trained irrespective of the level at which they intend to teach."*<sup>62</sup>

Apparent in the above quotation is once more a strong argument in favour of the co-ordination of the teacher education programmes and, such co-ordination could, according to Fafunwa, be best achieved when the university-based institutes of education :

*"... organize channels of effective communication among themselves, and between the teacher training colleges and the ministries of education in the areas where the universities are located."*<sup>63</sup>

A different model of co-ordination has after many decades of serious debate evolved in South Africa. Capturing the spirit behind the debate in South Africa, J.M. Niven remarked as follows :

*"There is no doubt that a re-organization of teacher education in South Africa, both constitutionally and professionally is timely ... There is throughout the world a tendency for post-secondary school professional training to move into closer association with the universities and this is recognized in respect of teacher education in South Africa. The Act (Act No. 73 of*

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62. Fafunwa, A.B., op cit., p. 100.

63. Loc. cit.

1969) lays down that the training of secondary teachers may only take place at universities, and a permissive situation is created in which universities are not discouraged from undertaking both primary and pre-primary teacher training. However, considerable influence appears to be given to provincial education authorities in the creation of advisory and co-ordinating machinery. The functions of these bodies is at best very vaguely stated. The concept of an institute of education within the framework of the university, either as a teaching or as a co-ordinating body, appears to have been rejected and in its place the responsibility for instituting the co-ordination is vested in the Administrator. It is possible that such action might ultimately lead to the creation of a form of co-ordinating institute more on the lines of that in East Africa than on the McNair model.

*The future place of the colleges of education in the scheme of teacher education gives rise to thought.*"<sup>64</sup>

It is the passionate concern that the last statement in the above quotation deeply expresses which arouses curiosity not only to examine very cursorily but also to relate to the Transkeian situation the course and nature of the debate in South Africa. The debate was kindled close to a century ago and rendered complex from the outset by the South Africa Act of 1910 which gave the provincial councils powers to make ordinances on education other than higher education. Confusion soon set in because no definition of 'higher education' was enunciated in the Act and serious debate ensued in respect of teacher education as matriculation was not yet then the minimum requirement. So fiery was the debate that a series of commissions of inquiry were appointed to investigate the matter and the reports of the commissions revealed lack of co-ordination as the major issue in the administration of education in South Africa. Pressures for the co-ordination of education including teacher education came out of the realization

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64. Niven, J.M., Teacher Education in South Africa : A Critical Study of Selected Aspects of its Historical Curricular and Administrative Development. Vol. II. (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation). pp. 423-424.

of a strong desire to forge a national unity, the need for efficient administration and judicious use of finance and the necessity to introduce a differentiated system. South African literature, comprising mainly reports of 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 co-ordinated and developed into a unified system. Various commissions recommended the institution of National Councils or Boards to co-ordinate education throughout South Africa for provincialism was so firmly embedded in the constitutional arrangement of the country that it could not be dissolved and, in terms of the recommendations of the Jagger Commission (1916), all education be placed under the Union Government.<sup>65</sup> The significance of the de Villiers Commission (1948), in particular, lies in the fact that it included as members of its proposed National Council for Education, two representatives from universities.<sup>66</sup> The significant role that the universities can play in any form of co-ordination of teacher education has for many decades been most powerfully proclaimed by many outstanding educationists. Niven argued :

*"It has been repeatedly stated that the education of teachers in this country is the function of three separate institutions, the universities, the colleges of education and the technical colleges. Thus, if co-ordination ... is to be practical, all three institutions as well as governmental institutions must be represented. Further to (the) bi-lateral structure of central and provincial authorities (proposed by E.G. Malherbe), must be added representation of the country's universities, which are independent in terms of the private acts of parliament by which their charters are incorporated ... Indeed, academically as well as constitutionally it is desirable that the universities should become more closely identified in the*

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65. Union of South Africa, Reports (Majority and Minority) of the Provincial Administration Commission. U.G. 45-1916. pp. 12, 13, 49.

66. Union of South Africa, Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education. U.G. 65-1948. para. 2039. p. 267.

*education of teachers."*<sup>67</sup>

Sir John Adamson stated at the New Education Fellowship Conference in 1934 that :

*"there is no institution which can adequately train men and women for this profession (teaching) save one of university rank. For their cultural studies they (the teachers) need the free academic atmosphere of the Arts and Sciences ..."*<sup>68</sup>

In suggesting creation of a co-ordinating institute, Adamson saw it as being :

*"the home of research and demonstration, ... (as well as) a liaison institution between the faculties of arts, science, commerce and agriculture and the schools, and a rendezvous for refresher courses. Medicine and education are alike in that the practitioner must be constantly in contact with new ideas and developments."*<sup>69</sup>

Presaging, like Adamson, the development of the Institute of Education in England and Wales nearly a decade before the publication of the McNair Report, J. Murray had this to say in support of Adamson's view :

*"The lines on which the training of teachers ought to advance are clear. The university has the advantage in the longer period, in the freer range of interest, in study methods and in social variety, while the training college has it in definiteness of aim, in social and personal influence by virtue of the residential system, and, generally speaking, in 'control', that is, in the consciousness of the profession and its responsibilities. Both groups of*

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67. Niven, J.M., *op cit.*, p. 281.

68. Adamson, J., 'Principles Underlying the Training of Teachers'. E.G. Malherbe, (Ed.) Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society. p. 270.

69. *Loc. cit.*

*institutions have so much to contribute in raising the standards of the profession, that neither need hesitate to co-operate with the other, or to face co-operation of a very intimate kind. The paramount interest, after all, is that of the children in the schools. Their need is for well-instructed teachers whose personalities in the broadest sense made them worth the instruction. It will take the fullest efforts of the two groups, working closely together, to supply this need."*<sup>70</sup>

In South Africa the concept of an institute governed by a joint advisory council in which the universities would be represented by their principals was, as embodied in the Teacher Training Bill read in the House of Assembly on 20 April 1968, unacceptable to the provinces and the universities and was rejected outright by the Gericke Commission appointed on 14 June 1968 to consider the matter because of its vital national significance :

*"In law, the final and decisive say must rest with either the university council or the Administrator, since the controlling body, consisting of two equal partners, is not a body corporate."*<sup>71</sup>

The Gericke Commission went on to point out that because the institute was a part of the university, the final control would rest with the university. This would diminish the Administrator's control of teacher training and therefore be unacceptable to him. The Minority Report of the Commission, on the contrary, recommended, on the basis of joint control, a university-based Teachers' Training Centre governed by a Joint Committee in which there would be represented the Faculty of Education, provincial administration, the Department of Higher Education and the teaching profession. The National Education Policy Amendment Act No. 73 of 1969 did not, however, provide for a Teachers' Centre but

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70. Murray, J., 'The Limitations of the Training (Normal) College'. E.G. Malherbe, (Ed.), op cit., p. 276.

71. Republic of South Africa, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers. RP. 29/1969. para. 63(c). p. 32.

instead provided for a system of divided control in which the training of secondary teachers continued to be in the hands of the university and, in respect of primary teacher training, stipulated as follows :

*"The training of White persons as teachers for primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a college or a university: Provided that, with effect from a date determined by the Minister, such training shall be provided at a college and a university in close co-operation with each other."*<sup>72</sup>

Much closer to the Transkeian model which will be examined within the next few pages and, therefore, of greater significance were the observations and recommendations of the van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974).<sup>73</sup> The Commission was of the opinion that by the 1969 arrangement the legislators wanted to avoid a major confrontation and so steered a middle course between colleges of education and universities. This was, according to the Commission, a compromise. For a limited time, the universities would share control with the Department of National Education and the provincial administrations but, according to the Commission, ultimately control would be vested in the university. The Commission suggested that were it possible to put historical, traditional, vested interests and immediate practical problems aside, university control would have been instituted forthwith. Taking into account all of these factors including the unfavourable public outcry when the institute concept was raised in 1968, the Commission recommended the College Idea which would retain the separate identity of the college of education and provide for strong provincial representation on the college senate though ultimately the college would be under the 'guidance' of the university in the sense that academically it would have to reside under the Council and Senate of the university. Organizationally, the administrative and financial aspects of a college

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72. Republic of South Africa, National Education Policy Amendment Act No. 73 of 1969. 2. 1A.

73. Republic of South Africa, Commission of Inquiry into Universities. RP. 25/1974. paras. 16.21, 16.23, 16.27. pp. 211-216.

of education would be under the control of a provincial education department while the academic component would be placed under the 'guidance' of the university. The college would be separate from the university, retaining its own identity and with its own college senate or board of studies on which the provinces would be strongly represented. Universities would offer degree courses and the academic components of the diplomas while the colleges would deal with the practical side of teacher training for both university and college students. College students would also be students of the university.

The present teacher education organizational structures and provisions in the Republic of South Africa and in the newly independent national states exhibit the application with some variations of the College Idea as recommended by the Van Wyk de Vries Commission. The teacher training courses in the training colleges for Blacks in the Republic of South Africa are gradually obtaining a more academic nature as the university courses, which are offered on a correspondence basis by the University of South Africa, are incorporated. The role played by Vista University in the preparation and provision of teachers is also remarkable. This University, with a central administrative head office in Pretoria and decentralized campuses in the larger urban areas in the Republic of South Africa, provides, not only university education for prospective teachers (pre-service teacher education) and courses for teachers already in employment (in-service teacher education), but also degree courses for students studying at the teacher training colleges situated in close proximity to its campuses. In all these cases, the Department of Education and Training retains the administration of the teacher training colleges. The national states of Transkei and Bophuthatswana also acted upon the recommendations of the van Wyk de Vries Commission inasmuch as their national universities provide and monitor the academic and professional programmes at the colleges while their Education Departments retain the administration of the colleges. However, in Transkei in particular, formidable difficulties and setbacks culminating at times in a state of impasse have been and are still being experienced. There seems to be a growing realization that the affiliation instrument needs to be modified and improved so that it

should address itself more directly to such issues like college status and identity, healthy co-operation between the University and the Education Department and effective co-ordination of services. The so-called 'Natal Plan' may perhaps provide a solution or else Transkei will have to take a look at a wider spectrum and consider the organizational structures and provisions of teacher education in East Africa, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United States of America, France, England and Wales, the Federal German Republic and so on and, then, by means of a comparative approach, select from all of them those salient features which when combined and integrated will evolve and develop a suitable teacher education structure capable of meeting all the needs of the country in the field of teacher education. It would thus be advantageous to examine at a later stage the 'Natal Plan' and also very briefly the main types of teacher education patterns adopted by different countries of the world. However, a preliminary analysis of the teacher education organizational structure presently adopted in Transkei seems necessary.

#### 4.2 Present Teacher Education Organizational Structure in Transkei with Special Reference to the Concept of Affiliation and its Implementation

Prior to 1980 all teacher education in Transkei was entrusted to nine teacher training institutions, six of which were called Teacher Training Schools and the remaining three, Teacher Training Colleges. The Teacher Training Schools, to which the entrance requirement was Junior Certificate, prepared and provided teachers for the primary schools while the Colleges concentrated on the preparation and provision of junior secondary school teachers. The Teacher Training Schools, thus, offered the Primary Teachers' Course only at the end of which the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) was awarded. The Colleges offered the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course and at the end of the course the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (JSTC) was awarded to enable the holder to take up employment as a teacher in the junior secondary school. Administratively, all these institutions fell under the control of the Department of Education of the Transkeian Government but all the academic and professional matters were the direct concern of

the Department of Education and Training of the Republic of South Africa. Thus, the recruitment of teachers, admission of students and control of hostels were the concern of the Transkeian Department of Education while the syllabuses, inspection, examinations and certification were left in the care of the Department of Education and Training. There were virtually no administrative hassles in this system of divided control though it was, seemingly, a gross example of the practice of neo-colonialism with all its iniquities and, once more, the question of relevance which has become a password in modern educational debate in Africa looms large.

There came to the scene in 1979 a third partner, the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei. The Faculty was enjoined to carry out both pre- and in-service education of teachers in the country. Thus, the Faculty rationalized and offered its courses with a view to making teacher education comprehensive, sequential and related to existing courses at both the secondary and tertiary levels. Then, came the Taylor Commission which criticized teacher education in Transkei as being fragmented, split into a bewildering number of different agencies and improperly planned and, thus recommended towards the end of 1979 that :

*"Plans to affiliate teacher training institutions with the University of Transkei should be finalized and implemented as soon as possible."*<sup>74</sup>

Although the Commission did not provide any framework that could be used to work out the affiliation machinery, it nevertheless made it quite clear that the affiliation of the teacher training institutions with the University would have to preserve college identity and autonomy :

*"Each college would then become a full member of the Board of the Faculty of Education. Individual affiliation would*

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74. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. op cit., Recommendation 100. p. 139.

*enable each college, under guidance from the university, to preserve its autonomy and individually prescribed role in teacher education. It would continue to be financed through the Department; the University's role being that of validation."*<sup>75</sup>

Shortly afterwards, and through the joint effort of the Faculty of Education and the Government Department of Education, the affiliation document, which was to serve as the blueprint for the organizational structure of teacher education in Transkei, was produced and submitted to both the University Council and Cabinet for approval. In January 1981, the Affiliation Instrument was implemented and henceforth all the former Teacher Training Schools and Colleges became the affiliated Colleges of the University of Transkei.

Regarding the legal basis for affiliation, the Affiliation Instrument called for the amendment of the University statute in order to empower the University :

*"... to confer Diplomas and Certificates on students registered in the teacher training colleges of a specified type which also fulfil specific conditions defined by law and mainly intended to bring about suitable arrangements for consultation on agreed aspects of professional training and enable each filial institution to share in the resources, experience and expertise available in the other and, further, prescribe the conditions under which such mutual participation may take place."*<sup>76</sup>

The purposes and aims of affiliation were outlined as follows :

*"(a) to provide for the maintenance of uniform standard*

75. Ibid. para. 14.11. p. 137.

76. University of Transkei, Senate Documents. S/174/80. August 12, 1980. Dec. 54. p. 1.

*for equivalent awards;*

- (b) *to enable the University, in consultation with relevant bodies, to create academic awards for appropriate levels of training in the light of the country's developmental needs; and*
- (c) *to enable other professional bodies and persons to assist the University in the fulfilment of its obligations.*<sup>77</sup>

The Instrument of Affiliation further provided for the establishment of an Affiliated College Board consisting of the following :

- (i) the Dean of Education at the University as Chairman;
- (ii) the Secretary for Education or his representative;
- (iii) the Chief Inspector for Teacher Training Colleges;
- (iv) the Head of the Department of In-Service Education at the University; and
- (v) Principals of all Teacher Training Colleges affiliated to the University.<sup>78</sup>

The concept of the College Board and membership thereof which was intended to promote co-operation between the University and the Government Department of Education as well as relative independence or autonomy or self-government to the Colleges by granting them opportunity to share in decision-making on matters affecting them was a sound arrangement which was most evidently influenced by events and developments in the Republic of South Africa. However, even in South

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77. Loc. cit.

78. Loc. cit.

Africa and despite legislation which upheld the principles of co-ordination and close co-operation between the colleges and the universities no vehicle for co-ordination could be offered and the van Wyk de Vries Commission concluded that close co-operation was impossible. Therefore, one could rightfully expect that even in Transkei and despite all good intentions of the Affiliated College Board no meaningful co-ordination and co-operation would be achieved. The nature of the problem had been explored in greater depth in South Africa and elsewhere and the cause of the malaise had been found to lie in the fact that the university, the colleges of education and the government administration, be it national or provincial, all differ in nature, purposes and interests so that co-ordination amongst them becomes difficult if not impossible. The van Wyk de Vries Commission which declared quite unequivocally that joint control of teacher education was impossible to implement, devoted considerable attention to the nature of the university with special emphasis on university autonomy and functions. André Le Roux later analyzed comparatively the nature and functions of the university on one hand and the teacher training college on the other and, on the basis of his comparative analysis concluded that co-operation between the university and the teacher training college was a practical possibility.<sup>79</sup> It is thus necessary to pause a while and examine these crucial issues carefully because they concern the recurrent conflict in the control and administration of teacher education, and the significant role of efficient administration as, in the words of B. de V. van der Merwe, the oil which makes the bearings roll is one of the important concerns of this work.

The argument of the van Wyk de Vries Commission was as follows :

*The structures of the university and the college were by law constitutionally separate and could not be merged. Co-operation between them was, therefore, a voluntary, spontaneous action and could not be achieved by legislation. If close co-operation could be enforced, then*

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79. Le Roux, A.L., Relative Independence for Colleges of Education With Special Reference to Natal : An Historical Study and Evaluation. (Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation). pp. 190-208.

*there would be encroachment by the "provinces" on university autonomy which would be resisted by the universities.*

The Commission then turned to university autonomy and adopted the explanation thereof provided by the British Committee on Higher Education under Lord Robbins (the Robbins Report, 1963) :

*University autonomy and academic freedom were correlative concepts. Academic freedom was, however, personal and autonomy institutional. For the teacher academic freedom meant "the right to teach according to his own conception of fact and truth, rather than according to any pre-determined orthodoxy."<sup>80</sup> Autonomy had the following features: freedom to appoint academic staff, determine curricula, decide (by the university for itself) who shall be admitted as students, maintain the balance between teaching and research, and determine salaries and staffing ratios.*

The Commission, however, conceded that university autonomy was not absolute but relative in the sense that in the exercise of its own freedom the university had to contend with many constraints. Largely, the university was a relatively autonomous State-aided corporation with important internal freedoms deriving from acts of Parliament. Although the university appeared to be an absolutely autonomous self-contained unit, its nature and roles were determined and laid down by the State in the Charter which was legislated upon and passed as an act of Parliament. In that sense, the State made demands on the university. In the course of its existence and performance of its tasks, the Minister had the power to impose financial sanctions if the university administration failed to comply with the act relating to grants-in-aid. As a State agency, the university had also obligations to serve society. The modern concept of the university emphasized this fact and included service to society. University autonomy should always be seen in conjunction with the economic and social

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80. Republic of South Africa, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Universities. op cit., para. 6.11. pp. 45-46.

aspirations of the particular community in which the university existed and operated.

The foregoing interpretation and analysis of university autonomy prompted André Le Roux to believe that :

*"... co-operation between a university and a college is a practical possibility. It has been demonstrated that the modern university has to contend with many constraints and that its functions draw it into the vortex of community life. It is not tainted by such contact but rather enabled to make its vital contribution."*<sup>81</sup>

The necessary mode of association between the university and the colleges should, according to Le Roux, be one of 'affiliation' which does not subject the college or institution to the Senate of the university. Affiliation meant, for example, that if students were entered for certain university examinations, those examinations would be subject to rules approved by the Council of the university. When provided for in the university legislation itself, affiliation could not be construed as an infringement of university autonomy. Le Roux cited as an example the University of Natal (Private) Act No. 7 of 1960, Section 23 which reads :

"Affiliation of any university college or other institution.  
*If the governing body of any university college or of any other institution which has for its objects the carrying on of any branch of higher education, now existing or subsequently to be established, has with the approval of the Minister, made arrangements with the University whereby such college or institution may become affiliated with the University, the Governor-General may, by proclamation in the Gazette, declare such college or institution to be so affiliated and thereupon students of such college or*

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81. Le Roux, A.L., op cit., p. 153.

*institution may be admitted to any examinations and degrees, diplomas and certificates of the University on conditions to be prescribed by the statutes or by rules made by the Senate and approved by the Council."*<sup>82</sup>

The crux of the matter, however, is that the concept of affiliation as explained above requires unequal institutions in terms of status and degree of autonomy to co-operate as though they were equal partners and in real practice the communion bristles with problems, setbacks and unfavourable experiences of disillusionment. Though Le Roux attempted in his comparative analysis to demonstrate that a university and a college were identical in terms of their structures, purposes and functions, he could, however concede that :

*"The colleges have a lower status than the universities. This cannot be disputed ... The colleges are of humble birth."*<sup>83</sup>

He then went on to cite Stanley Hewitt as having once written as follows about the British colleges :

*"... the colleges were deliberately designed as second rate institutions to produce teachers for a second-class sector of educational provision - the children of the poor."*<sup>84</sup>

In Transkei in particular it can still be said that the Colleges are second rate institutions, the first being the University, in that the Colleges admit students who on academic grounds as well as for financial reasons cannot secure a place at the University.

Concerning autonomy, the University again is relatively more autonomous in Transkei than the Colleges: the University manages its own affairs

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82. Ibid. pp. 153-154.

83. Ibid. p. 199.

84. Ibid. p. 200.

guided by its own Charter while the Colleges are directly administered by and responsible to the Government Department of Education which does not, as will be illustrated later, distinguish them from primary and secondary schools in the annual budget allocations and in respect of procedures for provision of supplies and services.

Since its adoption and implementation in 1981, the affiliation of the Colleges with the University in Transkei has been characterized by 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. One can clearly observe on the part of the Colleges a sense of lack of interest, passivity and submissiveness. This becomes particularly apparent at the Affiliated College Board meetings where the College principals, though in the majority, are always on the receiving end and accept everything without questioning. The Colleges of Education are in a dilemma. This dilemma is rendered complex by the conflicting demands placed at their door by the two senior partners in the triumvirate. The Government Department of Education handles them as though they were part of the school system and expects them to meet the same demands as the primary and secondary schools. The University regards them as institutions of Higher Education and allows them a maximum degree of flexibility as long as they observe the administrative demands, rules, standards and procedures as stipulated in the University Statutes. Though they are tempted to associate with the University, they are constantly pinned down by Government regulations relating to the school system. On the other hand, the ripple effects of the activities of the University on one hand and the Government Department of Education on the other in the course of performance of their respective tasks and duties in the Colleges call for the co-operation of the voluntary, spontaneous type as opposed to enforced co-operation and, should such co-operation not be forthcoming, conflict ensues. For example, the University which is enjoined to provide the academic and professional component, monitor standards and finally award certificates and diplomas may rightfully demand that supplies (such as teaching and learning materials, buildings, quality of

students to be admitted and quality and quantity of the lecturing staff) of a particular kind be provided by Government Department of Education. It would, therefore, appear that one of the indispensable elements of affiliation is voluntary, spontaneous and peaceful co-operation of the kind mentioned by the van Wyk de Vries Commission.

It is, however, evidently clear from the duties of the Affiliated College Board as outlined in the Affiliation Instrument that close co-operation amongst the three partners namely, the University, the Government Department of Education and the Teacher Training Colleges, was envisaged. The duties of the Affiliated College Board would, in terms of the Instrument, be to :

- "(i) monitor and report on the implementation of teacher education policy and programmes in Transkei;*
- (ii) deal with questions of policy and advise the Department of Education on such matters as :*
  - staffing needs of affiliated colleges*
  - the form and content of certificates and diplomas to be awarded;*
- (iii) propose appropriate syllabuses for the education of teachers undergoing courses of study at affiliated Colleges (and to that end) set up subject study committees to review the requirements in each subject and make recommendations to the Board;*
- (iv) propose appropriate levels of entry into courses offered by affiliated colleges;*
- (v) advise affiliated colleges on the conduct and timing of examinations;*
- (vi) receive the results of examinations conducted at*

*affiliated colleges and convey them to the University Senate for approval; and*

- (vii) deal with such professional matters as may from time to time be brought to the attention of the Board."*<sup>85</sup>

Provision was also made for the establishment of an Executive of the Board which would attend to urgent matters that might arise in between the meetings of the Affiliated Board. The Executive of the Board would consist of the following :

- "(i) The Secretary for Education (or his representative);*
- (ii) The Dean of Education at the University of Transkei;*
- (iii) The Chief Inspector for Teacher Training Colleges;*
- (iv) The Head of the In-service Education Department at the University of Transkei, and;*
- (v) One member elected by secret ballot to represent the Principals of the Teacher Training Colleges."*<sup>86</sup>

Regarding examinations at the Affiliated Colleges, the Instrument stipulated as follows :

*"The Senate of the University of Transkei will be the supreme authority ... and in this capacity will prescribe the general rules and procedures pertaining to such examinations. In addition, the senate will have the duty to :*

- (i) approve syllabuses for subjects taught at affiliated colleges;*

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85. University of Transkei. op cit., p. 2.

86. Ibid. p. 3.

- (ii) *appoint examiners and moderators for affiliated college examinations; and*
- (iii) *decide any matter that may arise regarding the conduct of examinations at affiliated colleges.*"<sup>87</sup>

Although it would seem appropriate to examine the practice of teacher education in the Affiliated Colleges under the tutelage of the University and through the Affiliated College Board jointly with and as part of University contributions towards the preparation and provision of teachers, it is, however, necessary to consider at this stage some of the administrative problems which have hitherto been experienced by all three partners in the affiliation.

#### 4.2.1 Some Administrative Problems and Weaknesses

Although much has hitherto been achieved in Transkei to make the affiliation of the Teacher Training Colleges with the University a reality, meaningful progress continues to be hampered by many weaknesses inherent in the system, the solution of which is in turn rendered difficult by poor co-ordination and co-operation between the Government Department of Education and the University. So severe have been the problems of co-ordination that the system would at times threaten to collapse. Decisions outside and in many instances even in complete contradiction of the stipulations of the Affiliation Instrument have had to be taken in order to save the situation thereby demonstrating the apparent urgent need to reconsider and modify the co-ordination machinery. Poor co-ordination and co-operation have even led to serious conflict between the members of the triumvirate. In response to the repeated and strongly worded accusations from the Government Department of Education that it is neglecting the Colleges, The University either turns these away by saying that the Colleges are 'an adopted and yet legitimate baby' of the Department, or rightfully calls for the re-examination and modification of the Affiliation

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87. Loc. cit.

Instrument. From the Colleges written complaints, to which reference will be made, have been submitted to the Government Department of Education that under the circumstances they are like a ship that has lost both its anchor and rudder and is drifting without a sense of purpose and direction.

The weaknesses inherent in the system and the administrative problems resulting from poor co-ordination and co-operation are many and varied. Their *seriatim* analysis is further made more difficult by the fact that they overlap one another. However, and with this in mind, an attempt will be made to examine them under separate broad sub-headings.

#### 4.2.1.1 Professional Guidance and the Collapse of the Affiliation Instrument

Soon after the new syllabuses had been produced and despatched to the Colleges the Faculty of Education of the University embarked on a series of concentrated professional support programmes to the Affiliated Colleges and these took the form of workshops and seminars conducted on and off the University campus. It, however, soon became apparent that, because of its own inadequate internal staffing, the Faculty of Education could not adequately monitor the academic standards at the Colleges and provide sufficient professional guidance to the College lecturers while at the same time it attended to its normal University duties for which it was primarily established. In his report to the Government Department of Education dated November 11, 1982, the Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education, to which all teacher training college matters were entrusted within the Faculty for co-ordination and consultation with, as well as for reporting to the Government Department of Education, expressed this view as follows :

*"The Faculty of Education regards the duty of monitoring academic standards as a priority and members of staff of the Faculty are, without exception, expected to participate in this work. Monitoring of standards has, of necessity,*

*involved the Faculty in the preparation of teaching materials in all subjects taught at the Training College, seminars with College staff at the University or at their respective Colleges, moderation of internal examination and setting final examinations. It is a demanding role requiring tact and dedication and members of the Faculty have felt the strain of doing this work whilst at the same time continuing with normal university duties which are in no way diminished by these expectations. In all their written submissions members of staff have expressed concern at the amount of work required of them in respect of the Affiliated Colleges. It is also quite clear from the amount of work designed for the future that the ordinary staff of the Faculty could never hope to fulfil this adequately."<sup>88</sup>*

The Head of the Department ended up by recommending :

*"the urgent recruitment of additional staff in the areas of Maths and Science Education, Languages and Social Studies to devote all their time to curriculum development, syllabus design, materials production and overall subject development in so far as these pertain to teacher training colleges which are the backbone of primary and secondary education."<sup>89</sup>*

Though nothing came of these recommendations then, subsequent events and unforeseen factors led to the establishment within the Faculty of a separate department, the Department of Collegiate Education, in order to assume all the duties that were previously performed by the Department of In-Service and Adult Education in conjunction with the Faculty staff members. Though still a one-man Department, indications are that in not a far distant future additional staff to undertake the responsibilities outlined in the above recommendations will be

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88. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Minutes of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education. Report on Affiliated Colleges dated November 11, 1982. para. 3.1. p. 5.

89. Ibid. p. 8.

appointed, attached to the new Department and thus relieve the rest of the Faculty staff of all teacher training college work. As of now, the new Department still strongly requires and depends on the full support of the whole Faculty as has been the case with the Department of In-Service and Adult Education which can now concentrate on in-service and adult education for which it was primarily established.

The feeling that the Faculty was increasingly neglecting the Teacher Training Colleges grew stronger and stronger and on November 24, 1982 the Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education requested a meeting of all Faculty staff members at which he proposed the separation of all Teacher Training College work from work related to in-service and adult education and, the establishment of an institute of education which would concentrate on Teacher Training College work only and thus "relieve the Faculty staff of the burden of doing Affiliated College work."<sup>90</sup> He outlined the nature of the institute envisaged and drew attention to the problems associated with "the Faculty's attempt to run the Affiliated Colleges using staff that was, in fact, recruited to do a full-time job for the Faculty of Education."<sup>91</sup> The institute would be a separate entity but maintain close association with the Faculty only in the sense that "the institute would not recruit any staff to deal exclusively with professional subjects but would instead expect all the Faculty staff members to provide tuition in this field."<sup>92</sup> However, in respect of special school subjects the institute would recruit its own staff and "All the staff of the institute should be expected to hold at least three University Courses in the special subjects they were responsible for and also have experience of teaching at junior secondary schools."<sup>93</sup> Administratively, the institute would be headed by a Director assisted by clerical and secretarial staff. Although the idea of an institute

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90. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Minutes of the Staff Meeting Held on November 24, 1982. para. 1. p. 1.

91. Loc. cit.

92. Ibid. para. 2.5. p.3.

93. Ibid. para. 2.7. p. 3.

was not favoured by the Faculty and therefore could not materialize, the idea of a separate staff compliment to take up and be purely responsible for College work again emerged as the salient thought behind the institute concept.

Dissatisfaction with the manner in which the University and, in particular, the Faculty of Education provided professional guidance to and monitored the academic standards at the Teacher Training Colleges gathered momentum and matters seemed to be approaching a crisis when on December 31, 1982 the Secretary for Education, who had never before involved himself directly in College matters but, instead, had been satisfied with official representation on his behalf by a senior member of his Department and by the Chief Inspector for Teacher Training Colleges, directly intervened in his official capacity and in a strongly worded minute and quite disparagingly instructed his Deputy Secretary (Professional) as follows :

*"In an attempt to produce teachers second to none in the world in quality, please cause the Faculty of Education of Unitra to submit a 1983 programme not later than 10.1.83 along the following lines :*

- (a) Visits: (i) Lecturer
- (ii) Purpose - with details
- (iii) Dates
  
- (b) Centrally organized meetings - dates
  
- (c) Assignments to students in an attempt to guide and upgrade teacher trainers
  
- (d) Practice Teaching - Implementation and Control
  
- (e) Syllabus as determined by the new prospectus."<sup>94</sup>

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94. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. Departmental File No. 7/2/1. Minute dated December 31, 1982.

There was much at stake in respect of the relations between the University and the Government Department of Education and the spirit of goodwill on which co-ordination and peaceful close co-operation depended was threatened. This was likely to be the last straw to break the camel's back and, indeed, once the minute was received by the Faculty of Education serious estrangement on the part of the Faculty from the Government Department of Education set in. It was at this juncture that the Faculty of Education denounced the Teacher Training Colleges as the "adopted and yet legitimate baby" of the Government Department of Education which implied that the latter could, if it so wished, take back from the University the professional and academic components of teacher education in the Teacher Training Colleges. The minute of the Secretary for Education was subjected to thorough scrutiny and the following criticisms were made :

- (a) It was breach of the Affiliation Instrument on the part of the Secretary to ignore the Affiliated College Board, and even worse, the correct channels for communication with the University namely, the office of the Registrar and, instead, communicate directly with the Faculty.
- (b) The disparaging, provocative and authoritative language in the minute undermined not only the office of the Dean of the Faculty of Education but also the whole University Administration namely, the Senate and Council to which the Faculty was answerable.
- (c) The Faculty of Education was a Senate and Council establishment of the University and could not take instructions from outside bodies.
- (d) The date on which the minute was issued as well as the date set therein as the deadline for the submission of the required programme were both within the period when the Faculty staff members were officially on vacation and during which period they, in terms of their conditions of service, could only be

recalled for duty by the University Administration.

- (e) The minute of the Government Department of Education represented an encroachment on University autonomy by the Government Department of Education.
- (f) The principle of goodwill as a precondition for peaceful close co-operation and sound co-ordination had been ignored.

The absolute relegation to the background of the Affiliated College Board and its Executive body which provided channels of communication between the Government Department of Education and the University even on urgent matters represented the collapse of the affiliation machinery. It also transpired that the Secretary for Education had also written to the Principal of the University and complained that the Affiliated Colleges did not receive sufficient guidance and that the Government Department of Education did not receive adequate feedback on matters concerning the Affiliated Colleges. Thereupon, the Principal called an extraordinary meeting of the Affiliated College Board at which he ruled out, and much against the stipulation of the constitution of the Affiliated College Board as outlined in the Affiliation Instrument, that :

*"Heads of Departments in the Faculty of Education should only attend meetings of the board when matters relating to their departments were to be discussed and the Head of the In-Service Department rather than the Dean of Education should assume chairmanship of the board."<sup>95</sup>*

This further erosion of the Affiliation Instrument added to the estrangement of the Faculty of Education and the Department of Education. Ever since, the Heads of Departments of the Faculty of Education, who had previously attended the meetings of the Affiliated College Board

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95. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Faculty Board Documents. FBP. 5.7.1/83. para. 4. February 24, 1983. p. 79.

as observers, have not attended to the meetings of the Affiliated College Board, and are in no way able to know beforehand when matters relating to their departments are to be discussed since they are not even supplied with the agenda for such meetings. The change in respect of the chairmanship of the Board was effected immediately and till today no revision and modification of the Affiliation Instrument has ever been made to bring it in line with this change which the Faculty still regards as having been *ultra vires*.

The Faculty of Education ultimately withdrew very quietly and ceased to honour requests to attend and provide professional guidance to the College lecturers at the workshops and seminars organized for this purpose. A separate body called the Teacher Education Unit with three members drawn from the Faculty including the Head of In-Service and Adult Education was formed at the instigation of the Principal of the University. In an attempt to appease the Government Department of Education, the Principal had asked that three members of the Faculty including the Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education be freed from "all obligations and commitments in the Faculty of Education"<sup>96</sup> to form the nucleus of the Teacher Education Unit whose prime responsibility would be to see to the welfare of Affiliated Colleges.

The former Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education and now Director of the Teacher Education Unit which held no allegiance to the Faculty and Dean of Education but, instead was directly responsible to the office of the University Principal, provided the following rationale for the establishment of the Unit :

*"This arrangement grew out of the need to satisfy the peculiar needs of Affiliated Colleges and ensure prompt attention to their oft-repeated calls for assistance and support in connection with fulfilment of their institutional needs. Thus the unit must be seen as a functional unit and its relationship to Unitra Faculty as a whole a*

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96. Ibid. para. 5. p. 79.

*working relationship.*"<sup>97</sup>

However, and despite the insistence by its Director that it was essentially part of the Faculty of Education, constitutionally the Teacher Education Unit was an independent self-sufficient entity. In support of their status affiliated College students would pay a registration fee to the University and the University Library would have a distinct College section. All the duties relating to professional support to the staff of affiliated Colleges and the procurement of teaching resources which, in terms of the Affiliation Instrument, had been the responsibility of the Faculty of Education, were transferred to the Teacher Education Unit.

Not only did this step represent a total violation of the Affiliation Instrument but also the lines along which the Teacher Education Unit had been established were unprocedural in terms of the requirements for the establishment of departments and other service bodies by the University: no official documents had been submitted to Faculty Board, Senate and Council respectively proposing the establishment of the Unit and seeking their approval thereof. The resentment that was generated by this move on the part of the Faculty of Education was so immense that the Faculty resolved never to co-operate with the Unit nor taint itself with the College problems which the Unit, in the opinion of the Faculty, would never be able to solve with only a staff compliment of three members.

Close co-operation between the University and the Government Department of Education was the central issue. The Affiliation Instrument had been abrogated. There was no working vehicle for co-ordination provided to replace the Affiliation Instrument. The Affiliated College Board and its Executive body had been rendered non-functional in that they had decisions imposed upon them by either the Principal of the University or the Secretary for Education. The Colleges required professional guidance and it was not forthcoming. Deadlock ensued. Matters were

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97. Ibid. para. 6.1. p. 79.

aggravated when the Teacher Education Unit exceeded its bounds in the execution of its duties and instead of confining itself to and concentrating on professional guidance to the Colleges went further to assume a measure of administrative control over the Colleges by establishing in the Colleges its own administrative requirements and standards which in many cases were in direct conflict with those set by the Government Department of Education. Confusion on the part of the Colleges set in.

In order to save the situation, the Secretary for Education wrote to the Director of the Teacher Education Unit as follows on March 15, 1983 :

*"After careful consideration, and for the purpose of forestalling embarrassment which sometimes occurs, the Department has deemed it more appropriate, for the convenience of both the Department and the University to advise that, because of its administrative and sometimes financial implications, correspondence with the training colleges by the University on training college programmes should first get the approval of the Department."*<sup>98</sup>

By this minute, the Government Department of Education had assumed a position of supreme authority and the University was relegated to an inferior position and could no longer operate as an equal partner when it came to matters relating to the Teacher Training Colleges. The Teacher Education Unit could not function and perform its duties unless it complied with the conditions stipulated in the above-mentioned minute. Notwithstanding all these developments, the Colleges continued to clamour for guidance in particular from the Faculty of Education of the University for it had been the staff of the Faculty who had drafted and provided the syllabuses that were being followed in the Colleges. They had in the previous year served as examiners of the same syllabuses and, in terms of the Affiliation Instrument which was still honoured by the Colleges, would still serve as examiners in future.

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98. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. Departmental File. op cit., March 15, 1983.

Pressures related to the implementation of the new syllabuses in the Teacher Training Colleges and the dire need for professional guidance in particular, demanded a serious reconsideration of the vehicle for co-ordination. The solution was found back in the Affiliation Instrument for on May 24, 1983 the Secretary for Education wrote to the Registrar (Adademic) of the University as follows :

*"After careful consideration, and in the light of developments at the teacher training colleges, the Department has resolved that its interests and those of the University of Transkei would be served best when the Department worked with the University through the Dean of the University Faculty of Education on matters related to training college academic programmes. This should please be considered to have taken immediate effect."*<sup>99</sup>

The Faculty of Education favoured this move and thereupon set up a separate department, the Department of Collegiate Education, to which reference has already been made, in order to provide staff within the Faculty who would concentrate specifically on giving professional guidance to the Colleges. It would appear that in addition to this Faculty internal arrangement, the Affiliated College Board as a vehicle for co-ordination needed to be revitalized or replaced by another more powerful co-ordinating body. The latter suggestion would necessitate a reconsideration and modification of the Affiliation Instrument. In the light of past experience, one can with some degree of certainty conclude that a completely new vehicle for co-ordination and close co-operation between the University and the Government Department of Education is highly essential. Regarding the new department within the Faculty of Education, there is no doubt that this is a step in the right direction since the need for a separate staff compliment within the Faculty who would devote their time to and concentrate only on College work has long been recognized and actually mentioned soon after the inception and implementation of the affiliation of the Colleges

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99. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. Departmental File. op cit., May 24, 1983.

with the University. However, the sooner the staff for the Department is provided the better. This aspect will be returned to in the last chapter.

#### 4.2.1.2 Quality of Staff in the Teacher Training Colleges

The often quoted statements that schools cannot be better than the teachers who teach in them and that whatever the programmes of studies may be, whatever standards are established, whatever experiments are tried, the success depends ultimately on the teaching staff are as true of college teacher educators as they are of school teachers. One of the topics that has been hotly debated in teacher education all over the world relates to the quality of teacher educators. Expressing the need for high quality college teacher educators in the developing countries of the Commonwealth, W.A. Dodd wrote as follows in 1970 :

*"The interest in quality, however, is even more widespread and insistent than the concern about quantity. Throughout the written material few nouns occur more frequently than the word 'quality'; few nouns are used more earnestly. It is this concern about the quality of teachers which ... underlies the frequent references to the calibre and continuity of the staffing of the colleges themselves; from many quarters comes the suggestion that college staff should be specially trained. Others ask whether in fact the quality of the teaching profession can be improved unless the colleges are increased in size to the point where specialist tutors and special facilities can be made available to the generality of students ... More than one report is concerned with the way in which many colleges are conducted as schools for pupils rather than colleges for students who will shortly be teachers in the adult world."*<sup>100</sup>

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100. Dodd, W.A., Teacher Education in Developing Countries of the Commonwealth: A Survey of Recent Trends. p. 2.

However, instead of the college teacher educators being a subject of reprobation, it is essential to pause a while and examine the historical events in the development of education which have rendered incompetent the teacher educators who all along have been experts and effective in the practice of their vocation and whose valuable past contributions towards the preparation and provision of teachers need not be diminished by current expectations.

What was regarded in the nineteenth century as a form of 'craft training' expressed by such phrases as 'learning the tricks of the trade' has long since disappeared although the aftermath of numerous short, disparate courses remains as a legacy of a policy which sought to prepare the student teacher for every situation he was likely to encounter in the normal school classroom. Distinction can be made between two efforts in the nineteenth century: first, there was the attempt to make teaching a 'vocation' for dedicated and evangelically-minded social workers, a noble calling to aid in the rescue of 'the humbler classes' from the misery of ignorance and its attendant vices; the second effort was to lift teaching out of the unskilled labour category into that of the skilled crafts. The 'indenturing' of 'apprentices' to 'master'-teachers provided one avenue not merely into teaching, but into qualified teacher status. Truly, the type of training provided was purely practical and largely superficial but of greater relevance to the subject under discussion was the absolute competence and effectiveness of the teacher trainers. That the teacher trainers were well equipped for and suited to their task is evident in the following observation by R.C. Bone :

*"Characteristic (was) the careful and comprehensive working through ALL the materials used ... ALL the skills and ALL the techniques which the master craftsman would need; and any certificate awarded was literally a certification that the holder was competent to practise the trade - his training was complete and would serve him throughout his life."*<sup>101</sup>

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101. Bone, R.C., Teacher Education and the Training Colleges in England and Wales. pp. 2-3.

D.E. Lomax sums up the humble origins of teacher education as follows :

*"The training college tradition has its roots in the need to provide a means whereby the poor could be educated and trained to educate the poor in elementary schools."*<sup>102</sup>

For many years since then the teacher educators were by no means better than the teachers that they produced because they were not specially trained for their task but entered the training colleges on the basis of their extensive experience as school teachers. It is with this in mind that Fuller and Bown argue that :

*"Teachers not only select themselves ... They also teach one another how to teach. Teacher educators have, by and large, humble social-class origins and low status ..."*<sup>103</sup>

The transformations that the school system underwent in respect of structures, aims, methods of teaching and contents of the curricula during the Post-World War II period in the twentieth century had a profound impact on teacher education. The main features of change in the school system were the introduction by highly industrialized societies of compulsory education at secondary school level, a colossal increase in numbers of school-going pupils, knowledge expansion and the expansion and differentiation of secondary education. As the re-organization of the school structure matured, the training colleges still retained a large component of their practical orientation with the result that a problem arose which J.M. Noruwana has most succinctly expressed rather cynically as follows:

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102. Lomax, D.E., 'An Introduction to European Perspectives in Teacher Education'. D.E. Lomax, (Editor), op cit., p. 2.  
 103. Fuller, F.F., and O. Bown, 'Becoming a Teacher'. K. Ryan and K.J. Rehage, (Editors), op cit., p. 29.

*"If you can't work, teach; if you can't teach, teach teachers."*<sup>104</sup>

The Post-World War II changes outlined in the preceding paragraph forced the colleges whose recruitment and programmes were as a result out of step with the new requirements of the times first to replace the pupil-teacher system with secondary education as the main source of college recruitment and, secondly, to provide programmes that were less vocational and more professional. The professionalization of college programmes which marked the beginning of great difficulties for college tutors has been described by Renshaw as follows :

*"Essentially, the idea of 'professional study' implies a partnership between a body of theoretical knowledge and the practical skills which are needed for achieving competence in a particular profession. The development of these critical skills, acquired through training, must be informed by theoretical knowledge gained through academic study, otherwise a student is unlikely to build up the authority, autonomy and breadth of understanding which are so fundamental to the making of responsible professional judgements. Professional study is not limited to the development of technical competence in a narrow, specific task, for the partnership between theoretical and practical knowledge is central to the idea of initiating students into a profession, rather than training them for a trade or occupation."*<sup>105</sup>

It was in pursuit of this balance between the theoretical and practical knowledge that the great debate about linking the colleges with the universities evolved. This had to be effected with great care bearing in mind that as Renshaw puts it :

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104. A statement made by Professor J.M. Noruwana when he delivered a paper on the 'Changing Roles of Institutions of Education'. Education for Development Conference. Umtata. May. 1979.
105. Renshaw, P., 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), The Future of Teacher Education. p. 57.

*"In a college of education, with its dual function of educating and training students for a profession, certain conflicts and tensions are likely to arise in the process of achieving this balance. For instance, study for its intrinsic value as opposed to that with an instrumental end; theoretical as distinct from practical activity; differences in understanding between schools and colleges, as well as between subject and education departments. Individual lecturers and students will also be involved in a constant inner dialogue between academic and professional commitments. Nevertheless, a sharp dichotomy need not arise if a close link be established between academic and professional studies. This should be feasible if it is understood that academic study need not stand in isolation, but is in fact an integral part of professional study."*<sup>106</sup>

Added to this great challenge on the part of the college lecturer, was a plethora of material produced on more scientific methods of teaching so that teacher education ceased to be a matter of filtering and interpreting a few general methods of teaching. Vast numbers of teaching models were designed and there was little common agreement about what constituted effective teaching. The current debate about the nature of teacher education is therefore not a new phenomenon, but it has certainly risen to a crescendo in recent years as a result of the escalation of the forces and factors which fostered it.

It is therefore evident from the foregoing that the problem relating to the poor quality of teacher educators in Transkei is in fact one of the world's teacher education problems. An unparalleled opportunity for research about the experience of being a teacher educator needs to be exploited. To Fuller and Bown the solution is to be found in the explication of the nature of teaching itself :

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106. Loc. cit.

*"Teacher education is not speaking to teachers where they are ... The job of educating teachers is enormously complex ... Teaching teachers is a bit like trying to repair a speeding automobile in the midst of a bitter argument about how it should be done. More information about how the car runs is badly needed. It might also help if we ran the car to test it, but stopped it for repairs!"<sup>107</sup>*

In Transkei the attempt to raise the preparation of teachers from the level of mere training to the status of professional education through linking up the Teacher Training Colleges with the University is hampered by the poor quality of teacher educators in the Colleges in whose hands the difficult task of implementing the University syllabuses is left. Renshaw demonstrated quite clearly that it requires tact to achieve the balance between the theoretical and practical knowledge in the professionalization of teachers. It would therefore appear that in the first instance the teacher educators themselves must be professionally and academically well qualified and be specially prepared for their task.

With this in mind, the Faculty of Education of the University conducted in 1982 a survey of the qualifications of the Teacher Training College lecturers in Transkei. As of July 1982 the position was as follows (Table Q. p. 269) :

The situation, which certainly has not changed much from what it was in 1982, indicates that about 70 percent of the College lecturers have no degrees, while about 30 percent have degrees largely with professional qualifications. About 20 percent of the group without degrees (and excluding lecturers of special subjects) are not matriculated.. Since the appearance of this distressing revelation regarding the qualifications of the College lecturers, there has been much talk about the need to institute upgrading in-service programmes specially for the lowly qualified lecturers in the Teacher Training Colleges but nothing

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107. Fuller, F.F., and O. Bown, op cit., p. 49.

Table Q  
 Affiliated College Lecturers' Qualifications, 1982<sup>108</sup>

College	Total	Junior Cert. + Profess.	Senior Cert. + Profess.	Degree Only	Degree + Profess.	Specialization
1. Arthur Tsengiwe	14	1	10	-	3	1 Librarian
2. Bensonvale	13	2	8	-	2	1 Home Econ.
3. Butterworth	13	-	1	-	12	- 1 Music
4. Cicira	21	-	3	1	12	2 Agriculture 2 Commerce
5. Clarkebury	17	6	9	-	2	2 Art 2 Homecraft
6. Maluti	14	-	10	-	4	1 Home Econ.
7. Mt Arthur	13	4	5	2	2	-
8. Shawbury	14	2	9	-	3	-
9. Sigcawu	13	4	7	-	2	-

Source: Report on Affiliated Colleges. November 11, 1982.

108. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Minutes of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education. op cit., para. 1.1. p.1.

so far has actually materialized along those lines. When the Certificate in Primary Education (CPE) programme was opened in the Faculty of Education at the University in 1981, only three College lecturers enrolled and specialized in Elementary Teacher Education, a course specially designed to update the approaches to teacher education in the Teacher Training Colleges. Although the three lecturers qualified and obtained the Certificate at the end of 1982, the programme was discontinued in 1983 on the instigation by the Government Department of Education that matriculation should be the minimum entrance requirement to all teacher education programmes in the country. Following this announcement, the Faculty of Education requested the Government Department of Education to send a circular to all Teacher Training Colleges demanding that :

*"... all College lecturers should ... acquire at least the Senior Certificate which is the basic entrance qualification to all teacher education courses in Southern Africa."*<sup>109</sup>

The latest report on the quality of Teacher Training College lecturers appeared in May, 1983 and was as disgusting as the first one in 1982. The members of the Teacher Training College Inspection Panel of the Government Department of Education reported as follows :

*" - Discovered that one Principal taught 35 periods a week because many of his staff could not, in terms of academic competency, meet the academic demands of the enrichment programme.*

*- As such these lowly qualified teachers remained with a little more than 10 periods, not because there was no more work to share but because in the interest of the students and therefore of the Department they better be left to idle - another form of resource misallocation, where teachers who could be profitably used in the*

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109. Ibid. para. 1.4. p.3.

*primary and junior secondary schools are kept at the colleges for they cannot be summarily dismissed but gradually and diplomatically (transferred) from the colleges even if at least in recognition of the services they have rendered."*<sup>110</sup>

The current dilemma in respect of the position and future of the lowly qualified teacher educators in Transkei represents one of the adverse effects of introducing changes and innovations hurriedly and even without proper planning and foresight all in an attempt to emulate the educational structures of developed countries, a phenomenon typical of all the newly independent states of Africa. In Transkei there has never been a time like the present with more educational changes crowded into years and sometimes months, and the psychological stress produced by these changes on the teacher educators, school teachers, pupils and parents alike is immense. In teacher education alone between 1981 and 1982, the colleges have been affiliated with University, University syllabuses have been launched for use at the colleges, the period of training and education has been increased from two to three years, the college programmes have been revised and accorded the status of diplomas, the entrance requirement has been raised to matriculation or senior certificate and enrichment programmes whereby the student-teachers are required to take degree courses concurrently with their professional education have been introduced. When Sir Ronald Gould recommended similar innovations for Great Britain in 1958, he had such great foresight as not to be oblivious to the implications thereof for teacher training college staffing :

*"All these developments will throw up an enormous staffing problem in the training colleges. This is partly a quantitative problem, for small colleges with small staffs obviously would find it impossible to cope with the demands that these changes entail. A small staff could not, for example, provide anything like the number of teachers per*

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110. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education, A General Report on Teacher Training College Panel Inspection. op cit., para. 6. p.2.

*subject that would be found in a university ... Even more important, however, the problem is partly qualitative. The training colleges must be able to attract to their staffs a number of people of real academic distinction ... Anyone taking the course in a university would inevitably be brought into contact with a considerable number of highly qualified specialists ... Nothing else should be accepted as satisfactory in training colleges. No doubt the ideal solution would be to establish far bigger colleges with far bigger and appropriately qualified staffs ... Staffs could be increased by recruiting men and women of considerable academic distinction ... If we are to attain the standards I have indicated, all colleges will be forced to specialize."*<sup>111</sup>

These ideals, however, could not be achieved quickly and Sir Ronald Gould acknowledged this fact hence his further suggestions, which Transkei might well be advised to adopt in a modified form and implement without delay, that in the short term :

*"... training colleges might use on a part-time basis, some of the highly qualified teachers from our schools, university and technical college lecturers, and some of the advisory and inspectorial staff of local authorities. The medical schools employ many highly qualified surgeons and physicians on a part-time basis. There is no reason why training colleges should not do the same."*<sup>112</sup>

#### 4.2.1.3 The College Identity Crisis and Dilemma

One of the controversial themes in the development of teacher education in many countries of the world and especially in those in

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111. Gould, Sir Ronald, Canon W.F. Morley, W.P. Alexander and W.R. Niblett, Three-Year Teacher Training. pp. 27-28.

112. Loc..cit.

which educational development has been influenced by the British tradition relates to the future prospects and possibilities of the teacher training colleges. Three stages can be distinguished in the development of the training colleges in these countries. The first was when the teacher training college curricula and examinations were in the hands of the government administration. The second stage opened when university delegacies were set up to take up full responsibility for the college syllabuses and examinations but within the administrative and financial framework set by the government. The government made the modest demand that college curricula should be suitable; as it were, the piper paid but did not call the tune. The third stage opened when university institutes of education were set up which gave the colleges even more freedom as the syllabuses and examinations became the responsibility of a body elected from the staffs of the colleges and the university institute. The practice of teacher education in Transkei shows all the features of the second stage and, although the idea of an institute was incorporated in the original framework of the University Faculty of Education,<sup>113</sup> all attempts, as was pointed out earlier, by the Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education within the Faculty to establish an institute of education failed.

The greatest weakness in teacher education practice in Transkei at the moment is that in the pursuit of high academic and professional standards the distinctive character of the Teacher Training Colleges has been eroded. Added to this is the greater concern about who should control the Colleges. This concern generated serious controversy in Great Britain as well, as is evinced by the following argument by Elvin :

*"... the universities were asked by the Minister of Education to undertake the increased responsibilities that led to the Institutes of Education we know today. The universities did not seek this extension of their*

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113. Cf. *Infra*. Chapter Seven pp. 337-338.

*role. Many of the members of their faculties thought that this was no business of a university. Indeed they had to be pressed considerably, ... But by and large they saw the force of the argument ... that the vitality of their own work with students depended on the kind of teaching these had had before they came and that in any case they must have a concern for education as a whole, ... I do not wish to be ungenerous to those associated with teacher training in the Department of Education and Science and in the local authorities, but it almost seems at times as if they have forgotten what a deliberate and major act of devolution of responsibility took place, at the Minister's own request. Else why do we have so often to say, ungraciously, why did you not consult the Institutes? ...; it has been easy to move on now to representation of the academic staff of the university on each college governing body ... This is not a narrowly academic point; it involves the recognition that if the colleges are part of higher education they must move at least part of the way to a more university style of self-governance."*<sup>114</sup>

This competition for the control of the colleges of education has put the latter in a difficult position and the colleges of education in Britain today are experiencing an identity crisis as a result. The colleges have become acutely aware of the number of partners in the teacher education *consortium* all of whom have views on how the colleges should conduct their work. The colleges have to meet the academic demands of universities within the administrative and financial framework set by the government. This separation of academic and professional ends from administrative and financial means is a constant dilemma for the colleges. In addition to these two 'masters' the colleges are expected to be responsive to the views of teachers and students on the nature and purposes of teacher education. These

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114. Elvin, H.L., *op cit.*, pp. 26 *et seq.*

multiple and frequently conflicting demands ensure that some degree of dissatisfaction with the work of the colleges must exist somewhere. A comparison of the views of two college principals, one in Great Britain and the other in Transkei will further illustrate the dilemma of the colleges. Writing in Great Britain, K.A. Baird, Principal of the Nottingham College of Education, had this to say to an audience consisting mainly of the staffs of constituent colleges of the University of Birmingham School of Education :

*"My job is to talk about the government of colleges as they are now ... We have not arrived anywhere - we are travelling, not always very hopefully ... The movement is erratic because the outside powers which surround a college - the Department of Education and Science, university and local authority (or voluntary body) - are not always in agreement with one another. It is erratic because ... the actual form of authority within the college, whether autocratic Principal, or staff democracy, or student democracy, is a pattern which has not yet been solved. It is erratic because different people have different opinions as to whether the decisions to be made by that authority should be purely academic, or social or moral as well ... National finance decides what colleges can do. It imposes some degree of uniformity by rationing expenditure. It designs the college system to the service of the educational system, trying to plan the supply of teachers of varying kinds ...; the university, through the institute, ... decides the syllabuses and curricula by which the students may qualify. But the extent to which the institute can screw money out of governors is very doubtful. There are in fact all sorts of uncertainties which have yet to be worked out, and no doubt different battles are being fought in different colleges and different institutes. Whenever the financial policies of central and local governments and the academic policies of universities come into conflict, the college bears the brunt of this conflict ... Relations with the university are sometimes difficult. There are court,*

*council, senate, vice-chancellor, faculties, staff assembly, and now, of course, students. It is not always easy for a college to know with whom it is dealing."*<sup>115</sup>

All of these wide ranging criticisms have been heard in Transkei. One of the elderly and most experienced Teacher Training College principals, a man of great wit who not only serves as a spokesman for College lecturers on many issues as well as at the meetings of the Affiliated College Board but also represents the Colleges at the meetings of the Executive of the Affiliated College Board, wrote as follows in a letter he addressed to the Secretary for Education on March 3, 1983 :

*"In confirmation of our telephonic conversation of 28/2/83 ... we are encountering problems as to whether we may release lecturers on school days to honour courses, workshops and seminars at Unitra. Thus far, I have had to verify from Head Office whether the Department was aware of telegraphic instructions from the Department of In-service as regards registration for PDE and B.Ed. of professionally unqualified lecturers, only to learn that the Department had no knowledge of such arrangements ... In the Special Board Meeting addressed by the Principal of that University, Prof. van der Merwe, I gained the impression that the Faculty of Education Staff would go out to the Colleges. Further, I have to state that travelling to that University costs the College S/F A/c R129-87 per return trip of 555 Km ... The outings to Unitra have thus far been a disadvantage in that teacher trainees are left without tutors for the whole day ... Furthermore, as mentioned in my previous minute, no lecturer would be allowed to attend any course, workshop*

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115. Baird, K.A., 'Administration, Staffing and Organization of the Work in the Colleges of Education'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), op cit., p. 72 et seq.

*or seminar at the University until such directive emanates from the Education Department which after all is the employer of everybody in this establishment ..."*<sup>116</sup>

It is striking to note the great semblance between the issues raised in this letter and those raised in Great Britain by the principal of the Nottingham College of Education in his address. The only difference between the two is that Baird expressed his criticisms of the dual control of the Colleges in Great Britain in theoretical terms while the college principal in Transkei provided concrete and practical examples of the theoretical issues mentioned by Baird. The colleges of education find themselves in a situation where they are torn apart and required to serve too many masters for comfort or efficiency. This situation has tempted many to believe that the days of the teacher training colleges have, with the raising of academic and professional standards and the extension of the period of teacher training and education to at least three years, gone past and that all teacher education should purely be the function of the university. Writing in 1958, Sir Ronald Gould advocated an extension of the period of training of non-graduate teachers from two years to three years and, of greater relevance to the point under discussion, was his argument that already, exactly twenty-six years ago :

*"... the present organization of training colleges, staffing, content of the education provided and the balance of curriculum, reflect social ideas which are now out-moded. Teacher training today derives from the historic past. It is a hangover from the nineteenth century. It reflects a social structure that no longer exists, or where it does, is rapidly breaking down and disappearing ... In both modern and primary schools the emphasis is on training ... Equality of opportunity for children, but with inequality amongst teachers. An*

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116. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education, Departmental File No. 7/2/1: Letter from the Principal, Maluti Training College to the Secretary for Education, Umtata. Ref. No. 51/4. March 3, 1983.

*integrated education service, but with divisions in the training profession ... I do not see how an education system can be integrated with a divided teaching profession."*<sup>117</sup>

Although Sir Ronald Gould admitted himself that by the above he did not mean that every teacher "must be trained or education in the same institution or that every teacher should have the same qualification"<sup>118</sup> since the needs of the schools demanded variety in the teaching profession, but that different avenues of qualification "need not mean different standards in the end result and different levels of recognition within the profession",<sup>119</sup> his arguments regarding the position of the training colleges and his views and great concern about the unitary level of scholarship amongst teachers were later adopted and used by some educationists to justify their claim that all teacher education should solely be the concern and full responsibility of the universities. In this regard, reference has already been made, for example, to Babs Fafunwa in East Africa and the Van Wyk de Vries Commission of Inquiry in South Africa and need not be repeated here.

So far, however, many countries have had to steer 'a middle course' in recognition and appreciation of college identity and, in order to safeguard academic and professional standards at the same time the colleges have been affiliated with the universities through institutes or councils or boards. It would appear, however, that, as has been noted in the foregoing, even this arrangement bristles with problems and, therefore, yet another model of co-ordination of teacher education needs to be investigated. However, whatever model will be tried in future, it will have to take cognizance of the indisputable fact that the teacher training college exists, has its distinctive administrative structure, academic policy, college community and campus which form a separate, coherent entity and, thus, retains its own identity and collegiate integrity as a single-purpose institution.

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117. Gould, Sir Ronald, Canon W.F. Morley, W.P. Alexander and W.R. Niblett, *op cit.*, pp. 17 *et seq.*

118. *Loc. cit.*

119. *Loc. cit.*

Yet, by no means should the quest for high academic and professional standards be diminished by these expectations. In this regard, the university has a vital role to play. Chapter Six is devoted to a critical and comparative examination of the role of the University of Transkei in teacher education.

## CHAPTER SIX

### THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

#### 1 The Current Educational Ferment and its Implications for University Teacher Education

It was pointed out that the traumatic impact of the Post-War changes transformed the whole educational scene including the field of teacher education. First, there was an explosion of expectations characterized by promises to the peoples of Asia and Africa of political independence and higher standards of living. Among the aspirations aroused as a result was access to education and, consequently, policies of rapid expansion were widely advocated. The main features were the proposals on the part of some economically underdeveloped countries to establish universal primary education and a strong pressure in Europe in particular to extend opportunities for secondary education. The second and third Post-War changes which accentuated the difficulties occasioned by the first were the unbridled growth of scientific knowledge and the population explosion respectively. The changes had many implications for education as radically new outlooks were needed to meet the new economic and political situations, for many of the institutions through which education was provided were more appropriate to the Pre-War than the Post-War international configurations. Among the most pressing were those connected with teacher education and rightly so because, in the words of Bereday and Lauwerys :

*"The strength of an education system must largely depend upon the quality of its teachers. However enlightened the aims, however up-to-date and generous the equipment, however efficient the administration, the value to the children is determined by the teachers. There is therefore no more important matter than that of securing a sufficient supply of the right kind of people to the profession, providing them with the best possible training, and ensuring to them a status and esteem commensurate with the importance and*

*responsibility of their work."*<sup>1</sup>

With the rapid expansion of schooling, both in numbers and extent all over the world, the above problems acquired a new importance and urgency. Dissatisfaction was more and more expressed with what Bereday and Lauwerys preferred to label as :

*"A veritable gamut of vested interests, touchy pride of prominent teachers of teachers, inertia of the existing, almost fixed social order, and paralysing conservatism of teachers themselves, whether old or young ..."*<sup>2</sup>

At a time when the demand for skilled people was greater than the supply, there was a world-wide shortage of teachers and teacher training, more perhaps than most sectors of the enterprise of education, suffered from the too-long continuance of out-dated forms and methods. This was indeed a crucial problem for in teacher education the number and quality of young people who come forward to train are as important as the kind of training they receive. It has not been until a few decades ago that the aims and institutions of teacher education, which had hitherto continued to show remarkable tenacity, began to yield to patterns more appropriate to the twentieth century. Writing in 1963, Bereday and Lauwerys described teacher education as follows :

*"A comparative look at the state of teacher training is not heartening ... Teacher training is still tied to the notion that the teaching profession is the first step on the white-collar ladder for the ambitious members of the working-classes. Hence in the panorama of higher education teacher training institutions continue to be treated as an educational Cinderella. Their prestige is far less, their equipment, buildings and plants more modest and sometimes outright pitiful; their faculties overwhelmingly selected from working practitioners in the schools themselves without due regard*

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1. Bereday, G.Z.F., J.A. Lauwerys (Editors), The Yearbook of Education 1963. The Education and Training of Teachers. Editors' Introduction. p. xii.
  2. Bereday, G.Z.F., J.A. Lauwerys (Editors), op cit., p. xiii.

*to the type of qualities appropriate to the post of university professor. Programmes from the most advanced to the least developed are inadequate. The least that can be said is that they are not intellectual enough in nature for the training of a profession conceived of as guardians, embodiments, and disseminators of the accumulated heritage of knowledge. Where programmes are academic, as often as not they are too formalistic, over-verbal, and ritualistic in character, perversions at its worst, rather than expressions at its best, of what an intellectual life and study is supposed to be. Most programmes in older countries, and those countries which adopted wholesale the traditions of the older countries, are of this nature. In newer, more modernized societies, programmes tend to be too practical. The narrow notions of professionalism and the excessive concern with the minutiae of the pedagogical process and method of teaching mar the effectiveness of such training ..."*<sup>3</sup>

Despite the noticeably growing increase in the awareness that something was wrong with the training of teachers and that a thorough re-appraisal was needed and despite the subsequent reforms, re-organization and new experiments which have hitherto been continually tried, Vernon Mallinson rightfully argues that there are still today four outstanding problems purging teacher supply in many countries of the world: The first concerns the quantitative aspect, that is, recruiting sufficient extra staff not only to cope with increased enrolments, but also with the necessity to keep class numbers within pedagogically acceptable limits. Secondly, the qualitative aspect, that is, recruiting men and women of sufficiently high calibre to meet the challenge of present-day complexities. Thirdly, a very necessary total reform of teacher training. And lastly, the 'generation gap' for when implementing any reform in teacher training up to 75 percent of the teaching staff of any institution will be past the age of 30, and in consequence often sceptical of, if not directly hostile to

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3. Loc. cit.

newer approaches persuasively advocated by their junior colleagues.<sup>4</sup> Quantitatively speaking, the nature of the problem varies from country to country; in some countries the shortage of teachers affects only certain specific school subjects such as mathematics, science and languages and in others there is a shortage of graduate teachers for the secondary school classes. In Transkei, both forms of teacher shortage are very acute. The problem of quality cannot be limited to the calibre of annual intake into the Teacher Training Colleges. The quality of both teacher educators and the content of teacher education programmes has been questioned in many countries of the world. Avveduto, Angle and McLeish have rightfully argued that :

*"It is a truism to say that the role of the teacher is changing rapidly at the present time ... This involves the concept of a new social system which, of course, includes a new style of teaching and a new method of learning ... A change of role means also a change in method of training. It also involves a change in basic curricula as well as in educational policies ... The training of teachers is still extremely old-fashioned ... Teachers have no real or effective contact with any of the human sciences, a contact which would appear to be common sense, at least, to be a primary pre-requisite in the training and preparation for their paramount tasks. This method of training must change very quickly not only in relation to the curriculum of studies, but in the social attitudes of both 'trainers' and 'trainees'. There must be a change in the psychological climate during the training period ... And it is not only a question of new curricula, a new mood, it is a matter also of a new form of participation."*<sup>5</sup>

Teacher education is throughout the world in a state of ferment in response to the above problems and challenges, and to all the current

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4. Mallinson, V., The Western European Idea in Education. p. 78.  
 5. Avveduto, S., I.C. Angle and J. McLeish, 'The Changing Role of the Teacher in Italy: The Teacher as Animateur'. D.E. Lomax (Editor), op cit., pp. 141-158.

world developments in teacher education Transkei is no exception. On an international plane, the following tendencies can be discerned: First, there has been a move to upgrade the quality of those recruited to the profession by insisting that all intending teachers must initially have satisfactorily completed a full secondary school course. Secondly, higher academic and professional standards are being required as a result of which the duration of the course of training has been extended to at least three, and in some countries, four years. And, thirdly, most countries are seeking closer links between the training colleges and the universities. The aim of such university involvement as exists in various countries is to achieve higher academic and professional standards commensurate with the required full professionalization of teachers which, according to E. Hoyle, has two major dimensions namely, the improvement of status and the improvement of practice. This comprises two discernible approaches, one toward organized trade unionism with a stress on professional unity, solidarity with the labour movement and the use of industrial action, and the other toward imitation of the 'established' professions emphasizing higher entry standards, longer training periods, enhancement of highly specialized knowledge and professional skills and greater professional autonomy.<sup>6</sup>

It would be advantageous to note briefly with the above in mind the main types of organizational pattern adopted by different national education systems and then in the light of such a comparative study of possible structures examine, as part of this chapter, the role of the university in teacher education in developing societies and, in the following chapter, teacher education curricula and courses in Transkei under the tutelage of the University of Transkei.

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6. Hoyle, E., 'Professionalization and deprofessionalization in Education'. E. Hoyle and J. McGarry (Editors), World Yearbook of Education 1980. Professional Development of Teachers. pp. 43-44.

## 2 A Comparative Study of Possible Teacher Education Structures and Provisions

### 2.1 The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

In the Union of Soviet Republics<sup>7</sup> the division of the teaching profession into two or more parts as in many countries of the world is accepted. Elementary school teachers are trained in four-year pedagogical institutions or *Technicums* which they enter at the age of about 15, or sometimes over 17 and after completion of secondary education which extends up to the tenth grade. There is an admission examination and the course is said to be demanding. However, the leaving certificate does not count as graduation. Such teachers are never specialists either. They teach all subjects in the first three school years, and move up year by year with children. In-service training is expected, and the best elementary teachers are urged to proceed to higher pedagogical institutes of university standing. This is said to be the goal of all teacher education for the future.

The higher pedagogical institutes just referred to are part of the higher education system. Not all of the buildings are impressive architecturally; but they are all well equipped and have magnificent library facilities, with numerous copies of individual titles and dozens of photostat copies of current learned periodicals from all over the world. So in attending a pedagogical institute, a future teacher shares an experience comparable to that of most Soviet graduates, the vast majority of whom were institute students. Students, after completion of the ten-year middle school (secondary education) enter, upon selection, the pedagogical institutes which, just like the colleges of education in many countries of the world including Transkei, prepare them specifically for teaching. Students in all higher education, except advanced theoretical scientists and mathematicians, must take some courses in education. A good supply of good quality scholars thus enters teaching.

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7. Cf. King, E., Other Schools and Ours. Comparative Studies for Today. Fifth Edition. p. 385-386.

Most of the courses in pedagogical institutes have been extended to five years and the courses lead to a diploma or degree with specialization in two subjects, though it is possible to graduate in one main subject specialization after four years. Pedagogical institutes offering correspondence courses are widespread. All teachers after three years' service are allowed to enrol in 'higher education' and, therefore, many elementary school or middle-school teachers add to their qualifications in this way. Teachers trained in pedagogical institutes are specialists serving the senior grades in the middle-school.

All teachers are expected to continue their education, and care is taken to see that they improve their skills. Institutes for the improvement of teachers' qualifications are widely distributed throughout the Soviet Union. An Advanced Training Institute was established in 1969 and since then it has encouraged those who teach in pedagogical institutes to update their knowledge and skills. Through the teachers' unions, too, updating and retraining conferences are held. These and individual teachers or groups have taken a very active part in the massive rewriting of textbooks which has accompanied reforms during recent decades.

The Soviet pedagogical institutes, then, are teaching institutes closely linked with the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Academy of Pedagogical Sciences which is responsible for research into education and which, therefore, exercises a profound influence on curriculum and course content as well as on training methods. The institutes are not associated with the universities though their qualifications enjoy, in theory at least, parity of esteem. Niven is of the opinion that :

*"This is possible in a highly centralized system in which rigid uniformity is enforced, and in which the state is the mainspring of training, certification and employment."*<sup>8</sup>

It would appear, however, that in view of the difficulties currently

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8. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 428.

experienced under the system of 'College-University Affiliation' as outlined in the previous chapter, Transkei might well consider very strongly the teacher education structure and provisions of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Such a system would favour Transkei, considering the degree of the country's centralization of educational provisions. It must be conceded, however, that the system appears to be highly demanding in terms of the provision of adequate staff, equipment and library facilities. In the light of the current dearth of adequately qualified staff in the Transkei Colleges and the country's poor economic and financial climate, the institution of the teacher education structure of the Union of Soviet Republics in Transkei would be difficult, if not completely impossible, in the short term.

## 2.2 The United States of America

The United States has been variously described as 'a nation on wheels', 'the great experiment' and a nation 'second to none in international power' and 'superior to all in its material standards of living'.<sup>9</sup> Regarding teacher education, Niven sums it all as follows :

*"If the Soviet pattern can be described as 'uniformity', then the only word which characterizes American teacher education is 'diversity'".<sup>10</sup>*

In the United States almost every teacher is educated and trained in a four-year teachers' college, a 'state college' or a 'college' of a university campus. The teachers' colleges are recognized as of a university rank and give university-style degrees, but they are grudgingly accorded that recognition by the more reputable universities, and are seldom accepted as equals by the other 'colleges' or departments which go to make up the same university. Thus, the original two-year colleges which in the past trained teachers for elementary schools have expanded the duration of their courses and the teacher's

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9. King, E., op cit., p. 275.

10. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 429.

qualification has been upgraded to the status of a degree. Some of the colleges have become state universities offering advanced courses and research facilities in post-graduate schools and departments. The characteristic feature of most 'education' courses is the "tremendous time allotted to learning how to teach this or that subject, how to administer this or that activity, how to cope with this or that problem."<sup>11</sup>

The whole study of 'education' is broken down into a multiplicity of separate, stylized courses. Consequently, degrees in which the candidate has 'majored' in the field of education are seldom as highly thought of as other degrees, and there is a tendency not to say too much about them. One of the most remarkable symptoms of that is the surprise shown by so many American scholars when they find that specialists in educational studies in other countries really know much about anything else, or have profound scholarship in the very fields that most directly pertain to education. The poor educational standard of much of the American teaching profession has been severely criticized and among the most notable comments has been that of Dr Conant who proposed that high school work must be strengthened and that at college level such subjects as sociology, psychology, and other social sciences should be taught by real specialists, together with really academic studies like those followed in any other university-level course. In the United States the great studies of the learning process, curriculum studies, machine-aided learning, better teaching methods and better teacher education generally have been fostered by and taken place in the regular 'non-professional' university departments, and these, including the great foundations, the 'biological sciences' and 'physical science' study committees, are able to speak of the intrinsic requirements and interests of the subject-matter, or the learner, instead of concentrating on abstractions or inflated methodology. That sort of craze has brought teacher education into great disrepute.<sup>12</sup>

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11. Cf. King, E., *op cit.*, pp. 331-334.

12. *Loc. cit.*

In-service education and training or retraining of teachers has long been a feature of American higher education. Many school districts have required teachers to spend part of the school vacation time in the schools or other centres, updating their teaching programmes or their skills. It is a common practice to upgrade teachers' salaries in recognition of success in either academic or 'professional' courses. The latter focus on 'competency-based teacher education'. The former are quite widely provided in the many 'summer schools' on university campuses, which crowd into about two months or less the usual content of a term's or semester's work. Teachers and others usually pay for such courses themselves.<sup>13</sup>

Teacher education in the United States, therefore, has suffered badly from excessive diversification of both courses and standards and the resultant profusion of certificates. Consequently, there has been the professional devaluation of teachers' qualifications with unfortunate results for the status of the American teacher. Arising from this, there has been a growing demand for objective accreditation of teacher education at both state and national levels. Chapter Three which covers about fifty pages of the two-hundred-and-twenty-four page Report of the Study Commission on Under-graduate Education and the Education of Teachers in the United States is devoted to the examination of the currently vigorously debated educational issues of teacher licensing and accreditation of teacher training institutions.<sup>14</sup> With Niven it must be concurred that :

*"It seems that some form of regional or national control or co-ordination of standards is necessary if the status of the profession as well as the quality of the teaching is to be improved."*<sup>15</sup>

The American in-service teacher education practice is commendable

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13. Loc..cit.

14. Cf. A Report By Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers: Teacher Education in the United States: The Responsibility Gap. pp. 101-145.

15. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 429.

though much more would be achieved if the general teacher education structures and provisions were less fragmented and not excessively diversified. It must be appreciated that Transkei has too adopted a system of compulsory attendance by all teachers at the short in-services courses during school vacation time.

### 2.3 England and Wales

Until the end of the second World War the tradition in teacher training in England and Wales had been for a rigid separation between primary and secondary school teachers. The first were trained in colleges, either state or denominationally controlled, while the latter were university graduates who entered the grammar schools and for whom professional training was not a requirement.

The report of the Consultative Committee on the Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders (the McNair Report)<sup>16</sup> in 1943 recommended the establishment of closer relationships between universities and their neighbouring training colleges. Following the recommendations of the Committee, there developed in England and Wales the peculiarly English concept of the co-ordinating Institute of Education which contains within it, as the major ingredient of its success, the capacity for co-operation and compromise. The institute was not a teaching institution. It was rather a professional body existing under the wing of the university in which all concerned in teacher education, the university department of education, the colleges of education, the local education authorities and the Department of Education and Science, were represented. The Institute scrutinized student applications for admission, approved courses, conducted professional examinations, recommended certification procedures to its university, organized in-service and vacation courses, provided information services for teachers and promoted educational research. However, since the McNair Report most of the preparation of teachers did not count as higher education and, on the other hand, it did not count as a sort of

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16. Great Britain, Board of Education: Consultative Committee: The Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders (McNair Report). H.M.S.O. 1943.

secondary education. Nor was it 'further education' in the narrow, quasi-vocational sense. Instead, it mostly remained a hybrid, with more affinity to university education, into which it merged at its upper level.<sup>17</sup>

A further development resulting from the publication of the Robbins Report in 1963,<sup>18</sup> a development which nonetheless altogether removed the hybrid character of college-based teacher preparation, was the creation of the School of Education in which the colleges of education and the university faculty of education moved into closer association for the preparation of students for a degree, the Bachelor of Education, to be awarded to carefully selected college of education students upon the successful completion of a four-year course of study. Clearly, a process of evolution was going on while older distinctions were maintained between teachers with degrees and teachers with certificates. However, the White Paper in 1972<sup>19</sup> firmly included the colleges of education within 'higher education', and looked forward to an all-graduate profession. Subsequently, a large number of the colleges were closed, while changes in the pattern of degrees in 'Education', and also changes which have merged almost all the remaining colleges of education into other institutions of higher education, firmly set the seal on the future pattern of teacher preparation in England and Wales.

The older system, which is currently in a state of rapid evolution following the 1972 official policy statement, was characterized by the distribution of the responsibility for the theoretical and practical elements of a teacher's preparation between the university departments of education (for graduate teachers), university 'schools of education' or 'institutes of education' embracing a number of associated colleges of education (especially for academic purposes), and the colleges of education themselves (especially for less academic

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17. Cf. Niven, J.M., *op cit.*, p. 431.

18. Great Britain, Committee on Higher Education: Higher Education (Robbins Report) H.M.S.O. 1963.

19. Great Britain, Education: A Framework for Expansion, White Paper: December, 1972 Command 5174, H.M.S.O. 1972.

and more practical studies). Teachers' education and training could generally be undertaken in one of two ways. The majority of teachers were admitted to three-year colleges of education after good performance in the General Certificate of Education in a grammar or similar school. Increasingly, students have been seeking entry with GCE passes at the advanced level. In recent years about half the students admitted to colleges of education had already satisfied the minimum requirements for university admission. The colleges taught 'subjects' of the ordinary academic type, as well as professional subjects such as psychology and history of education, and they paid much attention to sound teaching methods. A teacher's certificate (not a degree) was awarded on the results of the main examination. This was conducted not by the state, but by a university with which the training college was associated for this purpose. At the end of a probationary year the certificated teacher was 'recognized' by the Department of Education and Science. Colleges of education, following the Robbins Report, provided for an expanding minority of students new four-year courses combining, with the professional training, a degree, a Bachelor of Education, of the university with whose School of Education they were associated.<sup>20</sup> The present state of teacher education structure and provision in Transkei displays all of the features of this system with the exception that university connection is not by means of 'institutes (or schools) of education' but, instead, through an Affiliated College Board in which the University, the Government Department of Education and the colleges are all represented.

However, the major revisions which have taken place since 1972 have altered the system as described in the preceding paragraph in England and Wales. For those who wish to become teachers in academic schools and departments, with stronger subject specialization, the ordinary procedure is still followed namely, that they must normally go to a university or polytechnic and obtain an honours degree of the usual arts or science type, and follow this with a year's professional course

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20. The conferment of 'qualified teacher status' was, however, vested in the Secretary of State who then delegated it to the universities.

in a university or a major college of education. The year consists of practical training and theoretical studies. It leads to a teacher's diploma or post-graduate certificate. In line with the 1972 official policy statement, developments have taken place since 1980 to turn the teaching profession in England and Wales to an all-graduate profession. All courses of study and training lead either to an 'Ordinary B.Ed.' in three years, or an 'Honours B.Ed.' in four years and, in the case of the latter qualification, the academic boards of universities and Faculties of Education insisted that the qualification, whether obtained in a university or not, would have to be of the same standard as other Honours degrees. It is required that all teachers must have higher qualifications for admission to courses of teacher preparation. Another development has been the amalgamation or federation of the great majority of the former colleges of education into polytechnics or institutes of higher education. Their courses of academic and professional study are more broadly based in order to suit the teaching requirements in schools with reformed curricula or in post-compulsory education's new contexts.<sup>21</sup>

Another demand occasioned by these new developments relates to in-service education and training of teachers. More than ever before, much attention is paid to in-service education and training, not only for teaching as such but for school 'management' and for the understanding of new relationships with a quickly altering juvenile world. In-service training and refresher courses are provided by the universities' Institutes of Education, now more often called Schools of Education, or by the local education authorities, or the central Department of Education and Science. A great effort is made to involve teachers more and more in active research or experimental work, most conspicuously in the teaching of science and mathematics. Much of this in-service work is now done in the teachers' centres maintained by the most local authorities, and derives strength from the examples and counsel of experienced teachers themselves. Local authority inspectors and Her Majesty's Inspectors also run or take part in many such courses throughout the year. Every Institute or School of

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21. Loc. cit.

Education in a university also provides continuous courses for serving teachers, of both practical and theoretical kinds. Some of the latter are systematically arranged to lead to higher degrees and diplomas.<sup>22</sup> The latter arrangement is of great interest since, as it will be noted later, a similar provision at the University of Transkei bristles with many problems in its application. It would, however, appear that in the case of in-service teacher education and training generally, Transkei needs to draw from the practices in the United States and England and Wales in particular, and expand on her somewhat limited in-service teacher education provisions. However, the American practice of awarding cumulative credits towards degrees for attendance at year-long or shorter courses, or for summer-school attendance would, in terms of credibility of such awards, meet with opposition in Transkei.

#### 2.4 The Republic of South Africa : Teacher Education Structure and Provision for the Whites

The restatement of the truism of comparative educationists, to which reference has been made in the previous chapters of this study, that education cannot be viewed as an autonomous enterprise but that it must always be viewed in relation to national background, and the social, economic, political, and intellectual environment, is appropriate once more at this point for the diversification of educational structures and provisions according to the various racial, cultural and ethnic population groups in the Republic of South Africa has its roots in the historical constitutional arrangements of the country. In South Africa, there are four main racial groups namely, the Whites, the Blacks, the Indians and the Coloureds. The national policy of separate development makes provision for separate educational structures and provisions for the four main racial groups. The organization and features of teacher education in the Republic of South Africa, therefore, depend very much upon which racial group is concerned. For the purpose of this comparative study, and since the education system for the Whites has been, and still is, by and large

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22. Loc. cit.

the prototype for the education systems of the remaining three racial groups, only the teacher education structure and provision for the Whites will be examined here.

#### 2.4.1 Unity in Diversity : Towards the Co-ordination of Teacher Education in South Africa

As was indicated in Chapter Five the preparation and provision of White teachers in South Africa has been a subject of serious debate since the time of the Union in 1910. The South Africa Act made no provision in connection with the training of teachers. Section 85 (iii)<sup>23</sup> merely provided that the provinces would be responsible for primary and secondary education and that all higher education would be under the Central Government. What was intended by the term 'higher education' was not clearly defined. At the time of the Union, the four states, the Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange Free State and Transvaal, which were to make up the four provinces of South Africa had all developed their own systems of education and each state had established its own facilities for the training of teachers in the main for service in the elementary schools. In this, argues Niven, "We must see ... at least part of the reason for the emphasis upon provincialism in the structure of teacher education in particular"<sup>24</sup> and, of course, no official emphasis was clearly expressed until 1922 when the Financial Relations Act, section 12,<sup>25</sup> empowered provincial authorities to pay from their revenue funds expenditure incidental to the maintenance of institutions carried on solely for the training of teachers for the schools controlled by such provincial administration as well as expenditure necessary for the award of bursaries to enable persons qualified or being trained as teachers to study at universities or university colleges or other places of higher education. It was only in 1945 that the Financial Relations Consolidation and Amendment Act<sup>26</sup> included for the first time the training of secondary teachers in the

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23. The South Africa Act 1909, Government Statutes 1910. Section 85 (iii).

24. Niven, J.M., *op cit.*, p. 278.

25. Union of South Africa, Act Number 5 of 1922. Section 12.

26. Cf. Malherbe, E.A., *Education in South Africa*. Vol. 2 (1923-1975). p. 338.

definition of 'higher education'. Hitherto, while the training for primary as well as secondary teachers took place at universities and university colleges the control of certification still lay with the provincial authorities. The technical colleges which were under the jurisdiction of the Central Government also offered diploma courses especially for commercial, domestic science and art teachers. The universities, though autonomous, received subsidies from the Central Government.

Thus, in South Africa the education and training of White teachers was, and still is but to a lesser degree, split amongst many agencies and was not unified. The situation persisted for decades, despite equally persistent pressures for unity from prominent educationists and Commissions of Inquiry. It was in 1969 that the National Education Policy Amendment Act<sup>27</sup> required that the universities should assume responsibility for all secondary school teacher training and allowed them to undertake courses for primary school teacher training while teacher education for the primary school level remained within the control of the provincial authorities. The universities and the provinces differed amongst themselves in many ways, in calendars, courses, curricula, syllabuses, admission requirements, finances, staffing and in certification. Under the circumstances, the stern warning by Niven amongst those who strongly advocated unity or, at least, some form of co-ordination, deserved immediate attention and consideration :

*"This division may ultimately cost the country dear, for it has within it the seeds of professional division, which may not enhance the standing or status of the teaching profession."*<sup>28</sup>

In fact, Behr, writing in 1965, was able to state that :

*"the study of contemporary trends in teacher training in*

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27. Republic of South Africa, Act Number 73 of 1969. Clause 2.1(A)(3).

28. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 284.

*South Africa, and abroad, indicates certain weaknesses in the South African system. The main weaknesses can be summarized as follows: There is lack of co-ordination among the provinces, and an absence of uniformity in respect of courses offered; there is an unnecessary duplication of facilities provided by the provincial education departments and some universities; there is a great diversity in the standards of equivalent courses and in the nomenclature of diplomas and certificates covering the same field; there is insufficient liaison between training colleges and university faculties of education; there is the anomalous position of technical colleges undertaking teacher training; and finally there is no national advisory and consultative body on teacher training."*<sup>29</sup>

Any possible solution to the South African uniformity-diversity dilemma would have to take into account the historical context underlying the development and nature of the provinces. The development and establishment of the provinces and their corresponding boundaries can be traced to the old colonial rivalries. The provinces, which for many years existed as colonies, enjoyed until the time of the Union Responsible Government. With the Union, the provinces, which retained the old borders of the former colonies and independent republics, had their political autonomy, powers and independent functions extensively reduced and they became legislative-administrative regional government units. However, local self-determination on the part of the provinces prevailed and proved to be a stumblingblock to the creation of a common South African nationality and, further, stood in the way of co-ordinating education at a national level though such co-ordination was deemed to be necessary in the interests of educational efficiency and economy. The provincial authorities regarded their teacher training institutions as the most important educational institutions under their control. They contended that they had an established education policy and were better fitted to train the teachers accordingly. They also had the necessary facilities

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29. Behr, A.L., R.G. MacMillan. op cit., p. 266.

for practice-teaching at their disposal for training the various types of teachers. They were able to regulate recruitment, and over-supply or shortage was avoided by careful planning. The training at least of primary school teachers, they argued, should be their task and, owing to the acute shortage of secondary school teachers, they were also compelled to train secondary school teachers as well. The universities, in their opinion, were not geared to handle primary training effectively. In any event, the universities were unable to supply sufficient teachers even for the secondary schools. For this reason, the teacher training colleges in the Transvaal, for example, offered, in addition to their normal training programme, an integrated course extending over at least four years which enabled students to complete a degree at a university at the same time.

Reference was made in Chapter Five to the various commissions which were appointed at both provincial and central government levels to investigate the problem, and the most notable of such commissions were the Jagger Commission (1916), the Lawn-Hofmeyr Commission (1923-1924), the Roos Commission (1933), the de Villiers Commission (1948), the Pretorius Commission (1951), the Interkerklike Komitee (1955), the Schumann Commission (1964), the Gericke Commission (1969) and the van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974). The indepth examination of each of the various commissions' findings and recommendations would be too involved and unnecessarily long for the specific purpose of this comparative study. Suffice it to indicate that the commissions deplored the situation which had grown up over the years by which training colleges and universities operated virtually 'in splendid isolation'. In fact, the majority of the commissions before 1960 strongly advocated for the immediate transfer of all teacher preparation and provision from the provinces to central government and the feeling was equally strong amongst many of them that the universities should take over full responsibility for the preparation and provision of teachers.<sup>30</sup> However, when it became apparent that

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30. Cf. Union of South Africa, Reports of the Provincial Administration Commission (The Jagger Commission) U.G. 45/1916. par. 38. p. 10. Also, Report of the University Commission. U.G. 33/1928.

provincial control of education was historically entrenched and was there to stay, the commissions, especially after 1960 recommended various forms of control through the institution of National Councils or Boards which would co-ordinate education throughout South Africa. According to the Schumann Commission,<sup>31</sup> in particular, co-operation and co-ordination could be effected by establishing institutes of education such as were found in England, by which colleges of education virtually became integrated with universities in their localities. Clause 10(i) of the 1968 Teacher Training Bill provided, as was indicated in Chapter Five, for the establishment of institutes thus :

*"... all training of White persons as teachers shall be provided at an institute or faculty of education at a university."*<sup>32</sup>

The concept of an institute as put forward in the Bill was, however, rejected by both the universities and the provincial education authorities. On this score Niven writes :

*"Very considerable discussion was provoked by the publication of this Bill. Some of the universities felt that while the responsibility for teacher training was being transferred to them, it was being done in such a way as to reduce effectively their autonomy. New institutions were to be created which they were to administer and over which the control was to be uncertain. Provincial education authorities were dismayed at the prospect that institutions which over nearly three quarters of a century had performed a valuable service were to be swept away by the stroke of a pen."*<sup>33</sup>

Consequently, the Gericke Commission<sup>34</sup> was appointed on June 28, 1968,

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31. Cf. Malherbe, E.G., op cit., pp. 340-341.
  32. Republic of South Africa, Bill on the Training of White Persons as Teachers. 1968. Clause 10(i).
  33. Niven, J.M., op cit., Vol. II p. 406.
  34. Republic of South Africa, Report of the Commission of Enquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers. RP. 29/1969.

and it was hoped that in the light of the Commission's recommendations a new measure would be introduced in the 1969 parliamentary session. Having propounded the principles and criteria for teacher training, the Commission split when it had to get down to brass tacks and to show how all the fine principles, such as emphasis on unity in diversity, the maintenance of standards, the recognition of the part played by existing institutions, partnership of training institutions, gradualism in the evolution of a new system and the eschewing of rigidly enforced centralized control, were to be translated into 'an acceptable practicable' policy. The majority report recommended the establishment at national level of a South African Professional Council for the Training of Teachers and also of a joint advisory co-ordinating committee for teacher training in the centre or region. Thus, the colleges of advanced technical education and provincial colleges of education would, since there were 'subjects for which the universities do not, and cannot adequately provide', continue to provide teacher training. Partnership of training institutions was thus recommended at regional level. This was, according to the minority report, largely the maintenance of the *status quo* and, thus, the minority report was of the opinion that the proposed Professional Council should be much more closely linked with the National Advisory Education Council.

With the majority and minority reports of the Gericke Commission before it, the Government proceeded to draw up what became later the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 which provided, as a legislative compromise, for a new and enlarged National Education Council comprising 26 to 29 members of whom not fewer than 12 were to be concerned with teacher education.<sup>35</sup> At the regional level the Act placed on the administrator the initiative for the establishment of the regional and joint advisory co-ordinating committee on teacher training, while the chairman of the committee was by regulation required to be an official in the employ of the provincial administration.<sup>36</sup>

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35. Republic of South Africa, National Education Policy Amendment Act Number 73 of 1969. Section 1A(1) to (3).

36. *Loc. cit.*

Niven rightfully notes a serious omission in these provisions since there was no provision for a direct link between the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees and the National Education Council, except where coincidentally individuals were members of both bodies. As Niven puts it, out of the cumulative expertise and experience of the regional committee should flow ideas to be incorporated in national policy.<sup>37</sup> It is significant in this respect that the Committee of University Principals set up a subcommittee of deans of faculties of Education to advise it with regard to teacher education.

In the meantime, the Van Wyk de Vries Commission on Universities<sup>38</sup> had been appointed in September 1978 to investigate the work of the universities. The report of the Commission appeared six years later in 1974. The Commission found that there were 30 institutions engaged in teacher training in the Republic. Nine were university faculties of education, sixteen were training colleges under the provincial control and the rest were in colleges for advanced technical education. The Commission reviewed the work of the previous commissions of inquiry on teacher training and the provisions of the previous acts of parliament in respect of teacher training and devoted particular attention to the recommendations of the Gericke Commission and to the feasibility of a clause in the National Education Policy Act of 1969 which stated :

*"The training of White persons as teachers for primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a college or a university; provided that ... such training shall be provided in close co-operation with each other."*<sup>39</sup>

Nobody was sure as to what was meant by 'close co-operation'. The machinery for close co-operation was neither provided nor suggested. The Commission felt that 'close co-operation' was impossible and thus recommended that in the long term all teacher training should take place under the guidance of the university in the sense that the

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37. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 423.

38. Republic of South Africa, Commission of Inquiry into Universities, RP. 25/1974.

39. Republic of South Africa, Act No. 73 of 1969, op cit., Clause 2.1A.

colleges would have to be part of the universities and not be under the sole control of the provincial authorities. In the short term, the so-called 'college idea' enunciated in Chapter Five would have to be embarked upon in order to break down the legally rigid position manifested in the conception of the National Education Policy act of 1969 of the university and the college as monolithic institutions facing each other immovably and immutably.

While the 'college idea' was a practicable proposition, the Commission, however, did not, like some of its predecessors, show how the ideals envisaged in the 'college idea' could be realized in those cases where training colleges in the Cape and Transvaal were situated remote from university centres. Linguistic dualism presented another obstacle for in Durban, for example, there is an Afrikaans-medium teacher training college situated barely a kilometre away from the University of Natal, and yet this college would be averse to linking up with the university simply because it is English medium. It would probably prefer to link up with Afrikaans-medium universities such as the University of the Orange Free State or the University of Potchefstroom. The impossibility of long-distance 'guidance' by universities as well as linguistic separation make a mockery of pleas for rationalizing teacher training by pooling educational resources in the higher echelons and for bridging cleavages in the profession.

Presumably to facilitate the implementation of the Commission's recommendations, the 1974 National Policy Amendment Act<sup>40</sup> removed certain financial and legal obstacles to achieving flexibility in the liaison between the university training and the college training of teachers. These provisions not only granted university students access to any college or to any teacher training college under the provincial administration, but also laid down that any part of such training college buildings, facilities and so on could be made available to a university for the training of teachers. The flexibility made possible shortly thereafter the establishment of a system

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40. Republic of South Africa, National Education Policy Amendment Act Number 92 of 1974. RP. 92/1974.

of college of education councils and in this regard Natal took the lead. Summing up the historic development of the system which subsequently came to be known as the 'Natal Plan', A.L. Le Roux declares :

*"The van Wyk de Vries Commission declared 'close co-operation' to be impossible. Deadlock ensued.*

*"Then a brilliant new conceptual framework was proposed, the so-called 'Natal Plan'. By an act of tremendous magnanimity and trust, the province created the Council System which granted the colleges of education autonomy."*<sup>41</sup>

A detailed examination of the system as implemented in at least two provinces namely, Natal and the Transvaal, seems essential since Transkei may, in view of the current problems of co-ordination and co-operation in teacher education, be compelled to consider very seriously the establishment of the council system.

#### 2.4.1.1 The Council System in Natal<sup>42</sup>

The councils were appointed in Natal in 1976 to administer Edgewood College of Education and the Durbanse OnderwysKollege. Instead of being administered by the Natal Education Department, each college would be administered by an independent Council appointed by the Administrator of Natal. The Council would comprise representatives from the Natal Education Department, the University with which the College concerned was associated, the Teachers' Society, the Administrator of Natal, the Minister of National Education and the College itself. The Council would enjoy a large measure of independence. Where previously the Council had been an advisory body, it became autonomous in 1979, although the provincial administration is still solely responsible for financing the college of education,

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41. Le Roux, A.L., op cit., pp. 187-188.

42. Cf. University of Natal, Final Memorandum entered into between The Natal Provincial Administration and the University of Natal. Annexures A1 and A2. 1975. Also, A.L. Le Roux, op cit., 1978.

and its buildings remain the property of the province. Each college has its own senate, which includes university representatives. The Senate is responsible for academic policy which, of course, must first get the final approval of the council, while the council is responsible for the appointment of staff, the approval of syllabuses, and other academic matters referred to it. Le Roux makes the observation that the Council System, which has become known as the 'Natal Plan' and has been accepted as the prototype for similar college-university co-operation throughout the country, is an historic innovation in teacher education in South Africa.<sup>43</sup> The Council System, according to Le Roux, is equipped to administer teacher education effectively within the particular historical education tradition of South Africa. The Council System was set up with three major goals in view namely, firstly, that it would provide for the 'close co-operation' between the college and the university required by the law of the land, secondly, that it would be means of granting the college the autonomy enjoyed by other tertiary institutions and, thirdly, that such a system of administration would lead to improved status for the college and enhanced academic and professional standards. Le Roux contends that through the Council System all of these objectives have been achieved in that neither the university nor the province controls the college but the College Council enjoys self-determination while, paradoxically, both the university's and the province's demands are met through their strong representation on the Council.<sup>44</sup> However, Le Roux rightfully cautions that autonomy should always be seen as being dependent upon the following conditions and factors :

*"An awareness and voluntary acceptance of the concept by those who hold the purse-strings and wield the power, and cordial relationships, both personal and institutional, among those who exercise autonomy ... Unless there is understanding and acceptance on the part of officials of the concept of autonomy, the activities of the Council are likely to be construed as unseemly interference ..."*

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43. Le Roux, A.L., op cit., p. ii.

44. Ibid. p. 4.

*Democracy is a slow and ponderous form of government, placing a premium upon the free exchange of opinions ... If these principles are not subscribed to ... autonomy will break down ... The Council System enables persons representing specific interest groups to identify with the college ... Although they may be senior officials ..., while they are on the Council they will 'wear their College hat'. In this way, not only will external interest groups be served, but the college will gain immeasurably from the influential members of its Council ... Autonomy presupposes trust. But not blind faith. Consequently safeguards have been built into the Council System by means of representation on the Council. Also, ultimate control may be exercised by the Administrator."*<sup>45</sup>

In respect of the Edgewood College of Education in particular it was agreed as per the Final Memorandum of Agreement entered into between The Natal Provincial Administration and the University of Natal that the Administration would provide the following services to the University :

*"The use of the facilities of the Edgewood College of Education to train students at the University as teachers ...;*

*"the University will determine the academic requirements for admission to the training course for Secondary Education after consultation with the Council of the College and that the College may make recommendations to the University regarding the admission of students to the course;*

*"the curriculum and the syllabuses for the courses for the Higher Education Diploma for Secondary Education will be determined by the University ...;*

*"Students taking the course for the Higher Education Diploma*

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45. Ibid. pp. 203-204.

*for Secondary Education at the College shall be subject to the Faculty and the General regulations of the University; ..."*<sup>46</sup>

It is significant that in the Agreement there were also included issues related to the establishment of new posts involving the training of teachers at the College and the selection of such staff as well as the financing of certain activities in which the University would be involved in the College.<sup>47</sup> The omission of these two main issues in a similar agreement entered into between the Government Education Department and the University of Transkei, is evident in that these two issues have continued as before to remain the sole responsibility of the Government Department of Education. This represents a source of disillusionment on the part of the University in its efforts to raise the standard of teacher education in the Colleges. As was pointed out earlier, the quality of the college staff in whose recruitment and appointment the University has no say whatsoever is very poor. The University shoulders all expenses that are incurred by the Faculty of Education in its involvement in college matters including travelling expenses, accommodation when some days have to be spent away from the University, preparation and production of teaching and learning materials and their distribution, all examination expenses in the colleges among others. In Natal it was agreed that :

*"the University may make representations regarding the establishment of new posts involving training of secondary teachers at the College (Edgewood), and that the University will be represented in the selection of such staff; ...*

*"the Administration (Natal Provincial Administration) will assume responsibility for financing the course for the Higher Education Diploma for Secondary Education, as well as for travelling expenses and for fees payable to all*

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46. University of Natal, op cit., Annexure A1. pp. 2-4.

47. Ibid. pp. 4-5.

*examiners and moderators. Subsistence and travelling expenses will be payable to University members of the Council, Senate and subject committees. In addition, a composite registration and administration fee in respect of each student registered for the said course will be payable to the University."*<sup>48</sup>

The composition of the College Council of the Edgewood College of Education is as follows: the Chairman is appointed by the Administrator after consultation with the University; the Chairman may not be in the service of the Administration or the University; the Vice-Chairman is the Rector of the College; the College is also represented by its Vice-Rector; representing the University are the Principal of the University or a person nominated by him, the Dean of the Faculty of Education, and two further representatives nominated by the University; the Education Department nominates three members as its representatives; there are two representatives nominated by the teaching profession; the Senate of the College nominates two representatives from amongst its members who are members of the college staff at Senate; and, the Administrator and the Minister of National Education nominate one representative each.<sup>49</sup> Thus, all groups interested in teacher education are represented and the University has a very strong representation while the Council is appointed by and responsible to the Administrator which equally satisfies the interests of the Provincial Administration.

In terms of the Agreement, the College Council has the following functions and powers :

*"The Council is responsible to the Administrator for the administrative and financial affairs of the College.  
The Council is responsible to the University for the training of teachers for secondary education.*

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48. Loc. cit.

49. (i) Le Roux, A.L., op cit., pp. 14-16.

(ii) cf. University of Natal, op cit., Annexure A1. pp. 6-7.

*The Council controls and administers the finances of the College ...*

*The Council advises the Director of Education through the Rector in respect of physical amenities.*

*The Council deals with disciplinary matters resulting from infringements of those rules and regulations of the College which relate to students ...*

*The Council advises the Director of Education, through the Rector, in respect of disciplinary action in connection with a member of staff.*

*The Council determines the requirements and formulates regulations for the institution of a students' representative council.*

*The Council, through the Rector, controls the number of students to be admitted to the College."<sup>50</sup>*

Finally, the Council, in close co-operation with the University, assumes responsibility for training both primary and pre-primary teachers and, while the University awards the Higher Diploma in Education for the secondary school, the Council awards diplomas to students who have successfully completed their training for the primary and pre-primary school.<sup>51</sup>

The College Senate is the academic policy-making committee of the college and is responsible to the Council. It has the following members: the Rector who is chairman of Senate, the Vice-Rector who is vice-chairman of Senate, heads of subject departments, two senior lecturers who are elected by the academic staff of the college, one representative nominated by the organized teaching profession and three representatives nominated by the University.<sup>52</sup> The functions and powers of the College Senate are quoted below :

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50. University of Natal, op cit., Annexure A1. pp. 8-10.

51. Cf. Le Roux, A.L., p. 18. Also, University of Natal, op cit., Annexure A1 (17).

52. Loc. cit.

- " (1) *The Senate advises the College Council in connection with matters relating to courses, subjects, research and examinations.*
- (2) *The Senate advises the Council on the content of syllabuses and matters relating to practical teaching.*
- (3) *The Senate advises the Council in connection with the creation of posts.*
- (4) *The Senate advises the Council in connection with academic planning in the College.*
- (5) *The Senate nominates and controls all the permanent committees of Senate.*
- (6) *The Senate controls the educational and academic publications of the College.*
- (7) *The Senate co-ordinates research and liaison between schools and lecturers in connection with research projects.*
- (8) *The Senate will advise the Council on whether students qualify or fail in their courses and on the conditions under which students may repeat a course or part of a course.*"<sup>53</sup>

#### 2.4.1.2 The Council System in the Transvaal<sup>54</sup>

In the Transvaal, agreements were entered into between the universities and the Transvaal Provincial Administration. However, discussion will hereunder be largely limited to the Johannesburg College of Education -

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53. Loc. cit.

54. Cf. Behr, A.L., New Perspectives in South African Education. Supplement. pp. 301-303.

University of Witwatersrand Agreement as an example of the translation into practice of the concept of co-operation. The staff of the College, both lecturing and administrative, are employees of the Transvaal Provincial Administration, and are subject to the conditions and disciplinary measures as laid down in Transvaal Education Ordinances and the regulations of the Transvaal Education Department. The Council of the College of Education has the power to make recommendations only. Vacancies are advertized in the Provincial Gazette, and applicants are interviewed by a selection committee, on which the University is strongly represented. The selection committee submits a short list to the College Council, which in turn makes its recommendations to the Director of Education.<sup>55</sup>

There is also a College Senate, which like the Council, includes representatives of the University. The College Senate has a fair measure of autonomy in academic matters such as curricula, syllabus, practice teaching, examinations, promotion of students and the award of diplomas. The College Senate is responsible, too, for the selection of students for admission to the College, but its authority is restricted by a *quota* system laid down from time to time by the Transvaal Education Department.<sup>56</sup>

A curriculum development committee was set up by the College Senate, and over the two-year period 1977-78 revised the entire curricula of the College. These have been approved by the Committee of Heads of Education and the University of the Witwatersrand. Examinations are externally moderated by the University, and diplomas are awarded jointly by the two institutions. There is also close contact between corresponding subject departments of the two institutions. Provision is also made in the agreement for the recognition by the University of courses completed at the College for credit towards a degree and, indeed, as Boyce has noted, there is a growing confidence of the University in the academic standards of the College which has resulted in a willingness to recognize courses passed at the College for degree

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55. Loc. cit.

56. Loc. cit.

purposes. As a result of the revision of curricula referred to earlier, credit at either first- or second-year degree level is granted for courses completed at the College though, of course, the conditions for recognition vary depending on the number of years of study at the College in the subject concerned and the pass-mark in the subject.<sup>57</sup>

The Joint Statute of the Universities stipulates, however, that a university may accept as part of the attendance of a student for admission to a bachelor's degree periods of attendance as a registered matriculation student at another institution and may accept certificates of proficiency, but such a student must have been registered at the university for at least two academic years. This means in effect that students who wish to gain credits must be registered at both the college and the university. The agreements of Potchefstroom, Goudstad and Pretoria Colleges of Education with their respective universities, make provision for joint registration and such students are referred to as 'occasional students' by the university.<sup>58</sup> It is significant that the conditions laid down by the Joint Statute of the Universities as well as those laid down by the Committee of Heads of Education for the recognition of teachers' qualifications in the Republic apply *mutatis mutandis* in the self-governing and independent Black states including Transkei.

In 1980 the University of the Witwatersrand introduced the Bachelor of Primary Education (B.Prim.Ed.) degree. The courses are taught almost entirely by accredited staff of the Johannesburg College of Education on the campus of the College. The degree, which is of four years' duration, embraces a major course in Education, and two sub-majors from a selected list of school subjects. This move towards an all graduate profession is today the goal of teacher education in many countries of the world. The Bachelor of Primary Education degree referred to above is awarded by the Faculty of Education of the

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57. Loc. cit.

58. Loc. cit.

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57. Loc. cit.

58. Loc. cit.

University of the Witwatersrand. A subject called Professional studies, which includes *inter alia* general didactics, and specialized subject methodology in three selected primary school subjects, must be taken in each of the four years of study. Specialization in physical education, music or art is a requirement.<sup>59</sup>

In 1980, a new college of education was established in the Transvaal. This institution, known as the Pretoria College of Education has the special function of training "English-speaking South Africans as dedicated teachers." The College trains teachers for pre-primary and primary schools in the Transvaal. Academic standards are determined by the University of South Africa. In the case of students admitted to study the combined BA degree and senior primary diploma courses, the lectures are given at the College, but the degree is conferred by the University of South Africa.<sup>60</sup>

The system developed in Natal wherein a student enrolls as a student of both the university and the college of education, but receives all his tuition at the college of education has, with modifications, become the model not only for the other three provinces but for all the systems of education in the Republic including those of the self-governing and independent Black states. The trend is most evidently towards an all graduate profession. However, one notices in the present arrangements a subtle and yet substantial diminution of university autonomy since the co-ordinating body, the Council in the case of teacher education for Whites, is directly responsible to the provincial authorities in respect of teacher education for Whites and, to the government education departments in the case of the other racial groups including the self-governing and independent Black states. However, the modern concept of the university all over the world and, especially, in developing societies includes service to the community or society which implies that university autonomy should always be seen in conjunction with the aspirations of the particular community or society in which the university exists and operates. The universities realize and

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59. Loc. cit.

60. Loc. cit.

fully accept this fact but, as far as they are concerned, such involvement on their part in the affairs of the community or society must be spontaneous and voluntary, and any form of encroachment by external authorities, such as the one currently prevalent in Transkei,<sup>61</sup> would indeed be resisted by the universities. What is required in the implementation of the new approach to teacher education in Transkei in particular is constructive professionalism and goodwill. There is no doubt that a re-organization of the administrative structure of teacher education in Transkei, bearing in mind the Natal model, should be seriously considered. The re-organization should grow out of the strengths of the existing structure for there is throughout the world, as has been noted, a tendency to move the teacher training colleges into closer association with the universities and this is recognized in Transkei. The present requirement is to find a *modus vivendi* in the newly emerging pattern. How this may be done will be considered in Chapter Nine.

#### 2.4.2 Teacher Education Curricula and Course Structures

Writing in 1971, Niven summed up the pattern of development of courses in the colleges of education for the Whites in South Africa as follows :

*"The pattern of development of courses in the colleges of education in South Africa may be followed through historically from the pupil-teacher system, from the two-year courses at the post-Standard VI level, to the two-year courses at the post-Standard VIII level, and finally, as the national educational pyramid of the White group grew and broadened to the two-year post-Standard X level course. The present decade has witnessed the expansion of this course into a three-year course generally accepted by all authorities, and in 1967 in the Transvaal was introduced the four-year non-graduate teachers' diploma course in the first instance for the training of students to serve in the*

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61. Supra. Chapter 5. pp. 256, 261, 262.

*secondary schools of that province, but with provision for the four-year course to be extended to all levels of non-graduate teacher education."*<sup>62</sup>

It is interesting to note how this pattern of development of teacher education courses characteristic of western nations has been closely paralleled among the emerging nations of the world. It has certainly been the case in large parts of developing Africa including Transkei where the extension of all teacher education courses to a minimum of three years' duration was only introduced for the first time in 1982, two years after all teacher education courses for Whites in South Africa had further been extended to a minimum of four years' duration.<sup>63</sup>

This demonstrates the extent to which Transkei lags behind in educational developments and, if the country requires "teachers second to none in the world in quality ...,"<sup>64</sup> then, one of the preconditions for the achievement of that goal is the extension of all teacher education courses to a minimum of four years' duration. This, however, should be a long term objective since it requires thorough planning involving revision of syllabuses and acquisition of adequate well qualified teacher educators to staff the Colleges of Education.

The distinction between primary and secondary school teachers still exists in South Africa though the remuneration is the same depending on the length of their training. The college of education courses for Whites can be classified into those for students wishing to teach at primary or secondary level. Although the preparation and provision of teachers for the secondary school had for many decades both in South Africa and England in particular been the sole responsibility of the universities, this task was, with the expansion of secondary education, extended to the colleges of education because it became clear that the universities would be unable to provide all the teachers required for the expanding secondary schools. This move carried with it, however,

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62. Niven, J.M., *op cit.*, p. 287.

63. University of Natal, The Educational Systems of the Republic of South Africa. 1981.

64. *Supra*. Chapter 5. p. 256.

the recognition that higher academic and professional standards would be required than in the past, hence the demand for the association of the colleges of education with the universities. Another interesting feature of the teacher education courses for Whites in South Africa is the division between upper and lower primary school courses. It is clear from the nature of the teacher education courses outlined in Chapter Eight that this is not yet a feature of the Transkei teacher education system despite the fact that in terms of the most recent classification of the Teacher Training Colleges provision is made for this more practical and realistic approach to the preparation and provision of the primary school teachers.

The pattern of teacher education courses in the universities is a complex one. A one-year post-graduate professional course is offered in the main at graduate level. A non-graduate variant of this for secondary school teachers is offered by some universities and the curriculum is the same as for the graduate course. In some instances, for admission to the non-graduate course, the general requirement is that a student shall be able to complete the requirements for the award of a Bachelor's degree in not more than one additional year of study. In others, admission is by Senior Certificate pass to a separate lower Secondary Teachers' Diploma. Some universities offer a Higher Primary Teachers' Diploma based on a three-year course with a minimum entrance level of the School Leaving Certificate of the Joint Matriculation Board or its provincial equivalent. Others offer a graduate alternative to this course for graduates wishing to teach at the primary school level.<sup>65</sup>

There are two points of particular relevance to the preparation and provision of teachers in Transkei which arise from the description of courses in the preceding paragraph. The first concerns the doubt expressed earlier as to whether the university is adequately equipped to prepare teachers for the primary school. In Transkei, the University provides courses leading to a variety of awards for the

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65. Cf. (i) Niven, J.M., op cit., Vol. II. Chapter Twelve.  
pp. 326-379.

(ii) Behr, A.L., op cit., pp. 97-100.

serving primary school teachers. A detailed analysis of these courses including the degree of success and problems currently experienced in the implementation of the programmes will be returned to in Chapter Eight. The second point concerns the one-year post-graduate professional course. The limitations of this course, which is offered in all countries whose education systems have grown out of the English tradition, have been investigated both in South Africa and England. The most often heard criticism is that the course is too short and that there is so much work crowded into one year that it becomes virtually impossible to do anything effectively. It was partly due to the general dissatisfaction with this course that many universities, including the South African universities, instituted a concurrent degree for which students combine degree courses with the theory of education and professional subjects throughout the entire programme. In South Africa, the concurrent pattern was set out by the Committee of Educational Heads.<sup>66</sup> The pattern aims to integrate academic higher education, the theory of education, and professional training throughout a three- or four-year programme leading either to a diploma in education, or to an integrated bachelor's degree designated BA(Ed), BA(Ed)(Mus), BA(Ed)(Art), BA(Ed)(Phys Ed), BSc(Ed), BSc(Ed)(Econ), BAgric(Ed) and BComm(Ed). The Rand Afrikaans University was the first to introduce the four-year integrated degree in South Africa in 1970. Since then others have followed suit. It is gratifying to note that plans are underway to introduce the integrated degree in 1985 at the University of Transkei. Hitherto, this facility has continued to be made available to the Transkeians at the University of Fort Hare where the degree is designated BPaed(Arts), BPaed(Science) and BPaed(Commerce). The integrated degree is more complex than the traditional course of a bachelor's degree followed by a one-year diploma in teaching. J.P. Tuck makes a point that while in the case of a bachelor's degree followed by a one-year diploma in teaching the students do not identify themselves as intending teachers until shortly before graduation, in the concurrent system students are grafted into the teaching profession from their first year at university and, therefore :

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66. Cf. Behr, A.L., *op cit.*, p. 98.

*"The major disadvantages of a concurrent course ... is that it is incompatible with the postponement of a choice of career."<sup>67</sup>*

It can be argued, however, that it is possible to arrange the programme such that a choice is postponed until at least the second year of study. For that matter, the study of education is valuable for students irrespective of their career choice, but the fact remains that the purpose of the inclusion of education courses in the degree structure is to provide for the needs of those who intend to teach.

#### 2.4.3 The In-Service Education of Teachers

Emphasis on in-service education of teachers is a comparatively new development in South Africa. Previously it was a haphazard undertaking by various agencies namely, the Departments of Education, the University Faculties and Departments and, at local levels, the inspectors of education who arranged, and still continue to do so, on a regular basis regional one day courses, as well as pilot and orientation courses of longer duration. Committees have been appointed to make an intensive study of the whole process of in-service training with a view to making the opportunities and facilities more efficient.

Consequently, there was opened in Pretoria in 1974 by the Transvaal Education Department the first College of Education<sup>68</sup> for Further Training the purpose of which is to enable about three hundred teachers per year to equip themselves better for their work by attending full-time for an extended period a specialized course of training and, to provide throughout the year orientation courses in a variety of subjects, each of about a week's duration. Each orientation course is attended by from sixty to one hundred and fifty teachers. The orientation course in each specific subject is repeated several times

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67. Tuck, J.P., 'Alternative forms of Training Within the University'. J.W. Tibble (Editor), op cit., pp. 111-121.

68. Cf. Behr, A.L., op cit., pp. 101-102.

to enable at least one representative from every school in the Transvaal to attend. The teachers attending are in residence, and thus get the opportunity to interchange ideas and experiences on an informal basis. Guest lecturers from different universities and other institutions are invited to deliver addresses, participate in symposia, or give demonstrations. For purposes of feedback, special regional one-day courses are held a year later. At these feedback regional courses, those who participated in the original refresher course play a leading directive role. Those who attend for an extended period are given the opportunity to obtain the Diploma in Further Education. The duration of the course is three years, and is divided into two periods of eighteen months each. The purpose is to obtain better qualified teachers in the so-called 'scarce' subjects, namely, mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology and English. Students enrolled for the Diploma course at the College receive much of their instruction through correspondence, but are required to attend full-time for three consecutive semesters. Lecture courses of a fortnight's duration per semester. Some of the courses passed by students are accepted by the University of South Africa for degree and/or diploma purposes. The College of Education for Further Training works in close collaboration with the University of South Africa and the College has its own council and senate comprising members of staff drawn from the College and representatives from the University of South Africa. A similar College of Education for Further Training was established in Pietermaritzburg<sup>69</sup> in 1978. So much has been devoted to the description of the nature, purpose and functions of the College of Education for Further Education because of the relevance of *inter alia* this important provision to a similar institution presently proposed for the Republic of Transkei. The possible value of the contribution of such an institution towards the on-going professional development of teachers in the country cannot be underestimated. The First Draft Proposal of An In-Service Teacher Education College for the Republic of Transkei will be examined in the course of this study. As will be noted, reference is made in the Proposal to the Teachers' Centres, another feature of the South African in-service teacher education

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69. Loc. cit.

system whose origin can be traced way back to the early 1960s in Great Britain.

A Teachers' Centre is a place where teachers meet informally, discuss common problems, test the practical implementation of syllabuses and construct apparatus for use in the classroom. A Teachers' Centre is usually housed in a few unused classrooms, in a school or rented house or premises. Some of the larger Centres overseas have a staff comprising professional personnel, as well as artisans and technicians to help with the construction of apparatus and the handling and making of audio-visual aids. The main features of Teachers' Centres are the following: They make provision for in-service training that does not lead to improvement of qualifications. The activities are directed at actual practice in the classroom. The teachers themselves have control of the centres: Provision is made for the needs of teachers in a particular area. Lectures are superseded by small informal discussion groups and with special emphasis on practical workshops: There is an informal atmosphere so that meetings become social gatherings where light refreshments are served and participants are addressed by their first names.

In South Africa, Teachers' Centres constitute a new development in in-service teacher education<sup>70</sup> and were only started in several of the provinces during the 1970s. Some of the Centres are under the control of education departments, while others are run by the Teachers' Associations. There is no reason why the establishment of Teachers' Centres in Transkei should wait for the establishment of the Proposed In-service Teacher Education College to which according to the Proposal they will be linked. From the foregoing, it is clear that Teachers' Centres can in fact operate independently of the College though it would be desirable that they should be linked to it when it is established. Teachers' Centres are easily accessible to teachers in that they are located where teachers are. Reference will be made in Chapter Nine to the pattern of teachers' centres of the Department

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70. Cf. Behr, A.L., op cit., pp. 102-103.

of Indian Education in the Republic of South Africa as this is probably more advanced in this line than any other Department in the Republic.

## 2.5 Conclusions from Comparative Study

Obviously the foregoing brief surveys are generalizations only of salient features of the teacher education systems of the countries concerned, and have the weakness of all generalizations in that they do not reveal all the details which become apparent only in an exhaustive study. Some of the features of the teacher education systems examined in the preceding pages include the following :

- (i) The broad organizational pattern of teacher education varies from one in which there is strong centralization with rigid uniformity in courses and standards, to one in which numerous institutions of diverse levels and standards offer courses without any requirement of equivalence of standards at local, regional or national levels. Both systems present serious problems of organization. In the first, the uniformity and rigidity makes difficult the evolutionary development of courses and methods as well as inhibiting the initiative of professional staff, tending to reduce them to the level of automata. On the other hand excessive diversity has resulted in a very considerable range of academic and professional standards, and a need for the employment of accrediting techniques.
- (ii) While there is a general acceptance of teacher education as being in the realm of tertiary or higher education, institutions responsible for it vary from general purpose organizations offering a wide range of academic, professional and vocational courses, to those with a single professional specialism. However, there are those systems that represent intermediate stages between

the above two extremes by fostering institutional co-operation.

- (iii) The provision of teacher training for various levels of operation namely, primary and secondary schools, is variously undertaken in separate, in unified or in co-ordinated institutions. The USSR is moving towards the situation in the pedagogical school in which all teacher education will be unified in the institutes. In America, teachers' colleges have become four-year degree granting institutions. In England and Wales, there is a trend towards closer co-operation with the universities through the school of education to which selected students only are admitted. In South Africa co-ordination with the universities has been established through the council system which allows relative autonomy to the colleges of education.
- (iv) The duration of courses for initial preparation of teachers varies from three to five years.
- (v) It is only in the USSR that there is a detailed national policy for teacher education. The state in the USSR is entirely responsible for selection, training, certification and employment of teachers.

### 3 The Changing Concept of the University and its Role in Teacher Education in Developing Societies

The nature and role of the university particularly in the Third World has been the subject of great debate and literature is replete with books and reports of investigations into the subject. In the Third World the university had over time been referred to as a house of intellect, a community of scholars, an ivory tower, a frontier post, a sanctuary of method, a sanctuary of truth, a culture mart, a social service station, and a multiversity training camp for the professions.

A profile of traditional African universities, in particular, has been most aptly sketched out by N.T. Chideya as follows :

*"By a combination of design, accident, and the workings of the law of unintended consequences, the main features of our universities are as follows :*

*Insulation from the surrounding culture and community. The university is usually located several miles from the urban centre - and in quite a few cases, it is built on a hill - as if to emphasize its 'ivory tower' character ...*

*The university contributes heavily to the emerging class system by producing an indigenous elite which has been brought up to idolize anything and everything which is alien. This elite, the wabenz, has over the years demonstrated its dependence and therefore its lack of creativity in tackling problems which are basically African ...*

*The curriculum is not adequately geared to the needs of the local economy and policy, ... much of the content and conceptual apparatus is, of course, drawn from outside Africa ..."*<sup>71</sup>

Summing up the direction that the current changes regarding the nature and role of the university are most obviously taking, N. MacKenzie has this to say :

*"The University began in a cluster, but it has become an arena; it started as a place where scholars could retreat from the world, but the urgent question for contemporary academics is the form and degree of their involvement in society."*<sup>72</sup>

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71. Chideya, N.T., *Up the Ivory Tower: In Search of Relevance?* J. Moulder (Editor), *Philosophical Papers: University and Community*. Monograph Series 2. 1980. pp. 156-160.

72. MacKenzie, N., *Teaching and Learning: An Introduction to New Methods and Resources in Higher Education*. p. 13.

Capturing the spirit behind the great debate on what the role of the university should be, Warren Bennis wrote a book in 1973 which he entitled, The Leaning Ivory Tower,<sup>73</sup> quite evidently in order to emphasize the point that the university was questioning its own role in society. Four years later, Asavia Wandira published a book entitled, The African University in Development<sup>74</sup> in which he strongly advocated a closer association between the university and the community. These are mere illustrations for literature contains many exhortations that the university should serve the community or society in which it exists. The South African universities including those of the newly independent national states like the University of Transkei and the University of Bophuthatswana in particular have not remained untainted by these new trends of thought for in July 1979 the University Teachers' Association of South Africa and the Centre for Continuing Education at the University of the Witwatersrand sponsored a conference under the general theme 'University and Community',<sup>75</sup> as a sustained attempt to grapple with some of the fundamental questions about how the universities and the various aspects of society were related to each other. Some of the problems involved were unravelled and a better understanding of them developed. The dilemma of the universities was most succinctly explained by M.W. Murphree<sup>76</sup> who analyzed the dichotomies which created the framework within which the universities had to learn how to live, and move and have their being.

The one dichotomy is created by the opposition between the demand to 'Africanize' and the demand to 'pragmatize' the university. In this regard, Murphree elaborated as follows :

*"By 'Africanization' is meant not simply the indigenization of the staff of African universities ... or even the adaptation of curricula to African cultural and social contexts. The search for Africanization ... lays upon*

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73. Bennis, W., The Leaning Ivory Tower.

74. Wandira, A., The African University in Development.

75. Cf. Moulder, J., (Editor), op cit., 1980.

76. Murphree, M.W., The University and Community. J. Moulder (Editor), op cit., pp. 23-29.

*the African university the task of assembling the entire gamut of the African heritage and ensuring its continuity by an analysis and pedagogy which gives it a contemporary relevance to the needs and aspirations of the modern African nation-state.*

*The issue of 'pragmatization' involves a more diffuse set of perspectives, but the central focus of this concern has been the utility of the university enterprise in terms of manpower training and research related to national development needs. Thus the Accra Workshop ... held in 1972 emphasized the responsibility of the African university to promote 'social and economic modernization', to be involved in the 'pursuit and inculcation of practical knowledge, not esoteric knowledge or knowledge for its own sake', and to give priority to 'research into local problems that will contribute to the amelioration, in particular, of the life of the ordinary man and the rural poor'. In respect to manpower training, the African university is exhorted to 'shift emphasis in its degree programmes from the purely academic to the professional and practical' ".<sup>77</sup>*

The simultaneous attainment of the twin objectives of Africanization and pragmatization presents difficulties of considerable magnitude. The national developmental requirements which are the objective of pragmatization carry with them a sense of urgency associated with which is the temptation to import immediately available academic and technological expertise from outside Africa, which may not be conducive to Africanization. There is also the problem imposed by the fact that the twin goals of Africanization and pragmatization signify different sets of relationships between the academic community and the state. Pragmatization implies the necessity of a tightly articulated working relationship between the two, in which the state has an immediate and direct access to the decision-making process in the

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77. Loc. cit.

university regarding the establishment of priorities, the allocation of academic resources and the content of curricula. On the other hand the task of Africanization involves the necessity of a degree of detachment from the state and its immediate concerns. The responsibility for concentrating and crystallizing the ethos of the African cultural and social heritage and refracting it through an analysis of contemporary relevance requires a perspective produced by a certain distance, but not divorced, from proximate, pragmatic considerations, the kind of distance inferred in the castigated 'ivory-towerism' of the university tradition.

The other dichotomy is created by the 'universalism' which governs a university's link with the international community of scholars and the 'particularism' which governs its links with its more immediate environment. The function of the African university under the rubric of Africanization requires not only the detachment mentioned in the preceding paragraph. It also implies an element in the university posture which places it 'over against' the society as critic and judge. It is a particular and paradoxical characteristic of universities that they can only effectively perform their role of analyzing and re-formulating the components of social and cultural heritage in terms of particular sets of contemporary relevance by assuming a critical and oppositional stance to the *status quo*. In the very act of formulating and articulating the values of the culture, the university is driven to see tensions and even contradictions within the system of values that society knows and cherishes. This is the process which has led, according to John Ward, to the university's :

*"seemingly inherent tendency to criticize existing institutions from the vantage point of general conceptions of the desirable, ideal conceptions which are thought to be universally applicable."*<sup>78</sup>

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78. John Ward is quoted to have so declared by S.M. Lipset and A. Basu, *Intellectual Types and Political Roles*. L. Coser (Editor), The Idea of Social Structure. pp. 433-470.

This reference to conceptions considered to be of universal applicability points to the core of the dimension of conflict and dilemma. The twin objectives of Africanization and pragmatization are both 'particularistic' in that they address themselves to specific sectional or regional requirements and realities. A given society will expect its university to set about fulfilling these objectives from the problem-solving mode or, if latitude is given to permit a contribution to the definition of goals, solely on the basis of some particular ideological dogma. Such a particularism is antithetical to university tradition and inimical to its viability and ultimate utility. This is the general principle of universal validity: whatever is rational, regardless of its source or implication, is admissible as a basis for the academic enterprise; whatever is irrational, regardless of its attraction or apparent necessity, is not. It is in this sense that university tradition is considered universal.

In this lies the difficulty and the dilemma. To be viable, to enjoy the support from the society necessary for its continued existence, the university must be seen to be relevant, and such relevance implies a degree of particularism in its activities. Furthermore, this particularism implies a close articulation between the university and the society. At the same time, essential to the performance of the university's role is a universalism which places considerations of rationality above the more particularistic claims of given structural or ideological requirements in time and place. Such a universalistic perspective requires a measure of autonomy for the university, providing the academic freedom necessary for its development and expression.

In the light of the foregoing, therefore, it would appear that it is more appropriate, given the problematic nature and role of the university, to speak not of 'the university and its community' but rather of 'the university and its communities' in the plural for no single context can be assigned the sole status of relevance, although some may be of more relevance than others. The university condition is, inherently and perennially, one of multiplex, super-imposed contextuality and the creative containment of the tensions produced

thereby will continue to be a test of the viability both of the universities and the states which the universities have been established to serve. Conversely, the 'ivory tower-ism' of which the university has in the past been accused, has in many African countries in particular been demonstrated to be capable of tumbling down. Asavia Wandira refers, for example, to an event of great significance which took place in Uganda in 1973 as follows :

*"On 8 May, 845 newly appointed chiefs in the West Buganda District entered the gates of Makerere University, Kampala, took up rooms in the student halls of residence and began a course lasting one month ... Unschooled chiefs, for there were many, got the thrill of their life as they traversed the same paths as their learned and scholarly sons and daughters ... It seemed as if a magic wand had removed all objections to the use of university plant for the education of adults ... The chiefs' courses gave the lie to the assumption that university institutions and premises are unsuited to the education of non-schooled practically-oriented public administrators."*<sup>79</sup>

Central to the assumption referred to by Wandira in the above quotation, is the notion commonly held that, in the words of Dr D.S. Henderson :

*"The university should not be conceived of as a branch of a country's social service apparatus: nor should it be called upon to solve virtually all the social ills that we, in these days, have inherited. I think people who adopt this point of view selfconsciously or unselfconsciously operate with a model of the university that is somewhat akin to the place that the medieval church played in the middle ages. Perhaps it is evidence of a general lessening of the position of faith that in our day the faith that was transferred to the medieval church has a tendency to be transferred*

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79. Wandira, A., op cit., pp. 60-61.

*to the university. We look therefore upon the university as some sort of universal saviour ...; the university must keep its objectivity and emotional distance from the problems that it handles ...; it must be allowed its appropriate degree of autonomy; that is, the autonomy which it needs to carry out its proper functions. If one destroys this autonomy - or even if one attenuates it to the extent that I suspect some people wish to do - then we are really destroying the university as we know it today."*<sup>80</sup>

The existence of contradictions, conflicts and problems in the conception of the university and its role in society should, however, not be a matter for regret. The new nations of Africa and their universities have yet to define and implement conceptions of universities which they wish to cherish for years to come. In such circumstances, and given the fact that it is preferable that the energies of a country and of all its institutions should be directed toward the solution of the most urgent problems of the nation, it is not a matter for regret that universities and societies they serve should be engaged in heated dialogue as evinced by the tension that characterizes their relationship. The case of the relation between the African universities and the societies in which they exist and serve should find parallel in the process of national integration which Mazrui discusses so eloquently as follows :

*"Where conflict plays a crucial part in moving from a relationship of contact to a relationship of compromise and then from compromise to coalescence, it is the cumulative experience of conflict-resolution which deepens the degree of integration in a given society. Conversely, unresolved conflict creates a situation of potential disintegration. The groups within the society could then move backwards from a relationship of, say, compromise, to a relationship of hostile contact. One could even argue that internal*

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80. Henderson, D.S., 'Academic Excellence, Community Colleges and Administrative Efficiency'. J. Moulder (Editor), op cit., p. 176.

*conflict within a country is inherently disintegrative. Yet, paradoxically, no national integration is possible without internal conflict. The paradox arises because while conflict itself has a propensity to force a dissolution, the resolution of conflict is an essential mechanism of integration. The whole experience of jointly looking for a way out of a crisis, of seeing your own mutual hostility subside to a level of mutual tolerance, of being intensely conscious of each other's positions and yet seeing the need to bridge the gulf - these are the experiences which, over a period of time, should help two groups of people to move forward into a relationship of deeper integration. Conflict-resolution might not be a sufficient condition for national integration, but it is certainly a necessary one."*<sup>81</sup>

So be it with the universities of Africa. In their present endeavours to find a new role in relation to their societies, they may well increase areas of conflict within and outside their walls. This by itself need not lead to despair. Their efforts to resolve conflicts should be attended with success and, in Mazrui's words, the 'cumulative power of precedent' in overcoming crises should sharpen their capacity to discover areas of mutual compatibility within their societies. Their awareness of reciprocal dependence should generate a realization that they must work together with agents of change in society rather than fight them. Conversely, social agencies should discover in the university a companion-in-arms. The future of the African university lies in its awareness that the framework within which it exists and operates is a framework of serious and not easily reconcilable tensions, and that its continued existence within the new framework depends on its ability to handle the conflict.

What of the University of Transkei? As a new University which came into existence at a difficult time when the old universities were questioning their own nature and role, the University of Transkei thus

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81. Mazrui, A.A., Violence and Thought. p. 105.

had no existing model from which to carve its own image. The greater challenge facing the new University was either to innovate or select a variety of desirable features from the many different universities of the world, integrate them into a meaningful whole and develop itself into a new model worthy of being emulated by both old and new universities alike. It has been said that the campus design and buildings of the University of Transkei display a meaningful mixture and combination of features of some universities in Africa and abroad. The proposition is confirmed by the views of B. de V. van der Merwe regarding the plans for the new University. These betray his early awareness of the new trend of thought regarding the nature and role of the African university. Capturing the spirit behind the great debate on the nature and role of the African university in society, van der Merwe, who undertook the academic and administrative planning of the fledging university in Transkei and subsequently became its first Principal, had this to say on Monday 25, October, 1976 :

*"The university as a living organism comprises the academic and administrative staff as well as the students, but stripped of their specific environment they lose their 'Universal' nature and become mere human beings ... Not only the compilation of the curricula for the degrees and diplomas should take cognizance of the cultural background of the society in which the university exists, its problems, its wishes and desires but the spirit and direction and the campus design and buildings of the university must speak of an understanding of the complex nature of higher education - of preserving the essential roots from which the future must of necessity spring ... (However, while being conservative, the university must, in order to become progressive) remain detached so as to be able to listen to the voice of science without bias or prejudice, even without concern about the outcome of the research project it is engaged in."*<sup>82</sup>

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82. Van der Merwe, B. de V., 'Ambitious Plans for University'. op cit., pp. 14-17.

In conclusion, van der Merwe recommended that in order to achieve these aims the University of Transkei would have to maintain contact not only with the community but also with other universities and industry. It is significant that the above views on the necessary nature and role of the African university and of the University of Transkei in particular had been heard a year earlier in June 1975 from a Black academic in South Africa, W.M. Kgwane, when he pleaded for the Africanization of the curricula and the teaching personnel in the Black universities in South Africa. Professor Kgwane contended at the Annual Congress of the South African Pedagogical Society held at the University of Fort Hare between June 18 and 19, 1975 :

*"One of the subjects about which much has been spoken and written in the past decades is that of the indigenization of curricula ... Black universities in South Africa, have for the most part, still clung to curricula originally designed by the University of South Africa which is, to a large extent, a university for Whites. After fifteen years of their existence the curriculum offerings of the new Black universities are hardly distinguishable in any significant manner from those of the University of South Africa ... Africanization of curricula demands, as a pre-requisite, Africanization of teaching personnel or the employment of teaching personnel which is in active sympathy with the aspirations of the Blacks."*<sup>83</sup>

In this regard, the University of Transkei is about the only Black university in South Africa including the Black national states which can to date boast of a highly complex staff component comprising a fair mixture of indigenous and local staff on one hand and notable academics drawn from various countries of the world on the other, a condition which favours the necessary balance between Murphree's dichotomies referred to in the preceding paragraphs namely, 'Africanization versus pragmatization' and 'particularism versus

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83. Kgwane, W.M., 'Black Universities in South Africa'. A paper presented at the Annual Congress of the South African Pedagogical Society. University of Fort Hare. June. 1975.p.9.

universalism'. A few examples are necessary to illustrate what endeavours are being made by the various academic Faculties to relate their curriculum offerings to the needs of the Republic of Transkei. In the Faculty of Arts, the Department of English has prescribed a fair measure of books for literature written by African authors such as Chinua Achebe, A.C. Jordan, Wole Soyinka, E. Mphahlele, Mofolo, Temba, Plaatjie, Laye, and Ngugi in addition to the works of such English novelists, dramatists and poets as Joseph Conrad, Charles Dickens, William Shakespeare, Gerald Manley Hopkins and so on. In order to promote, encourage and assist the process of socio-economic development in the region, the Faculty of Economic Sciences has established the Institute for Management and Development Studies. The Institute organizes conferences, workshops, day-seminars and shorter courses related to in-service training of the public as well as the private sector. Special emphasis is given to issues of rural and agricultural development. The Institute also initiates and conducts interdisciplinary pilot projects related to the particular socio-economic development needs of the Transkei region and collects, disseminates and interprets all data on Transkeian socio-economic development. The Faculty of Science is continually engaged in a series of research projects on the natural resources of the region with a view to recommending possible strategies for their development. The structure of law and legal provisions have recently been revised in Transkei with the assistance of the Faculty of Law and particularly on the basis of the findings of a pilot study on customary law in Transkei conducted by D.S. Koyana, formerly the country's Minister of Foreign Affairs, and now professor of Private and Customary Law at the University of Transkei. Finally, the Faculty of Education has implemented all the recommendations of the Taylor Commission regarding teacher education in Transkei. Since this aspect is discussed in greater detail later, it must suffice here to indicate that the Faculty has taken heed of the earnest plea by N.C. Manganyi, formerly professor of Psychology and Dean of the Faculty of Arts at the University of Transkei and now attached to the University of the Witwatersrand as a Research Associate, that :

*"The universities need to do something positive in the area of teacher training, because for us ... this remains a festering sore. Here ... one is not merely talking about structures and policies for the up-grading of black teachers, but perhaps, more importantly, about university programmes to supplement the current limited output from the ... universities. Needless to say, such structures and policies as may be developed in this area must be considered in conjunction with the possible participation of the Colleges of Education."*<sup>84</sup>

The preceding examples of the activities of the various Faculties illustrate clearly that the University of Transkei is not only aware of its necessary role in society but fully accepts it as a *fait accompli* that it cannot disentangle itself from the social, political, and economic forces which created it and continue to sustain and allow it to survive. As a former colleague of the investigator once pointed out that "it is reserved to God and the Angels to be lookers on in times of crisis,"<sup>85</sup> so also the University of Transkei cannot afford to remain neutral where and when the subjects of education are at a disadvantage and the country is afflicted by such typical indicators of underdevelopment as lack of capital, low gross national product and *per capita* income, high illiteracy and unemployment rate, extreme social disparity, and wretchedly poor diet, health and housing. Education has a potential for solving these individual and national problems. It was in that light that Julius Nyerere contended :

*"The full value of university activity can only be obtained when the university and the society it serves are organically linked together ... New nations establish their own universities because they need a type of higher education*

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84. Manganyi, N.C., 'Educational Futures and the African Universities of Southern Africa' J. Moulder (Editor), op cit., p. 128.  
 85. Manona, C.S., At Morning Assembly, Lamplough High School. Butterworth. May, 1975.

*appropriate to their problems and aspirations ... The University has not been established purely for prestige purpose. It has a very definite role to play in development in this area, and to do this effectively it must be in, and of, the community it has been established to serve. The University of East Africa has to draw upon experiences and ideas from East Africa ... And it must direct its energies particularly towards meeting the needs of East Africa."*<sup>86</sup>

In the frontline of the struggle through education to solve the national problems presently afflicting the underdeveloped countries of the world and particularly of Africa are the teachers who in the ultimate analysis must implement the desired educational structures and programmes in the schools. In this regard, the faculty of education of any university has a vital role to play for such teachers as may be needed to staff the schools should be adequately prepared for their roles. The implication, of course, is that not only should the teacher education curricula and course structures be closely related to the problems and new demands of the school and education system as a whole but the university should be fully involved in their design and implementation. A question may then be well asked as to what extent does the University of Transkei and, especially, its Faculty of Education attempt to meet this important requirement. Chapters Seven and Eight look into the structure of curricula and courses for teacher education in Transkei.

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86. Nyerere, J.K., 'Inaugural Address' as the first Chancellor of the University of East Africa. *West African Journal of Education*. Vol. VIII, No. 2., February 1964. pp. 7-9.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULA AND COURSES

#### (i) Full-Time University Curricula and Courses

The first quarter of the present decade will always be remembered as one of the busiest periods in teacher education in Transkei particularly by the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei. By a combination of human design and Providence, the establishment of a Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei in 1979 coincided with the period of unprecedented world ferment in teacher education whose main feature was a quest for new teacher education organizational structures and higher academic and professional standards. To this end, university education departments and faculties were called upon to play a leading role. The general world concern about the standards, status and esteem of teacher education and teachers was signified, amongst others, by the fact that the World Yearbook for 1980 opened the decade in question with a volume under theme 'Professional Development of Teachers'.<sup>1</sup> It is equally significant that the editors reiterated in their introduction of this volume the words used by Bereday and Lauwerys when they introduced, almost two decades earlier, the last volume on teacher education in 1963 :

*"The strength of an educational system must largely depend upon the quality of its teachers. However enlightened the aims, however up to date and generous the equipment, however efficient the administration, the value to the children is determined by the teachers. There is therefore no more important matter than that of securing a sufficient supply of the right kind of people to the profession, providing them with the best possible training, and ensuring to them a status and esteem commensurate with the importance and responsi-*

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1. Cf. Hoyle, E. and J. McGarry, (Editors), op cit., 1980.

*bility of their work.*"<sup>2</sup>

The implications for curricula and course structures in particular of the phrase 'providing them with the best possible training' in the above quotation is noteworthy. Capturing the spirit behind this great demand, the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei embarked soon after its establishment on the production of curricula and courses which were necessary for the preparation and provision of teachers at the University, and followed this soon afterwards with massive and drastic revision of the then existing teacher training college curricula and courses in accordance with the requirements of the Affiliation Instrument. All teacher education in Transkei therefore is virtually the concern of the University and its Faculty of Education. The University through the Faculty of Education prepares and provides curricula, courses and syllabuses, either implements these or monitors their implementation, conducts examinations and awards the diplomas. This, as has been pointed out earlier, is, despite the administrative problems inherent in the system, the general trend in teacher education systems of many countries of the world.

The teacher education courses as provided by the University of Transkei in the country can be categorized as, first, university courses and teacher training courses and, secondly, pre-service courses and in-service courses. It is thus such a complex structure that these courses will here be dealt with separately.

### 1 The University Curricula and Courses

As in other universities of the world, the preparation and provision of teachers at the University of Transkei is the responsibility of a separate faculty, the Faculty of Education. The structure of the Faculty presents interesting features inasmuch as it differs considerably from the traditional pattern that still exists in many universities of

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2. Hoyle, E., and J. McGarry, (Editors), op cit., p.9.  
See Also, Bereday, G.Z.F. and J.A. Lauwerys, (Editors), op cit., p. xii.

the Western world including South Africa. Early prominence will therefore be given to an examination of the Faculty structure.

### 1.1 The Education Faculty Structure

Introducing the Faculty structure, which, of course, has undergone several modifications since then, though its original essential and basic features still remain, the then Dean of the Faculty of Education, J.M. Noruwana, remarked as follows at the University Senate meeting in May, 1980 :

*"Deciding on the number and kinds of departments in Faculties of Education has never been an easy task. Hence no two independent university Faculties of Education have identical departments. A look at a number of European, American and Black African University calendars will confirm this statement. The problem of creating the 'right mix' of departments is accentuated further when planners try to adopt a functional instead of a disciplines approach to departmentalizing. In line with the philosophy underlying all its activities, the Faculty has opted for functional departments."*<sup>3</sup>

The departments thus created then were the Department of Professional Studies which name has subsequently been changed to Department of Educational Foundations, the Department of Adult and Continuing Education which too has since then undergone several changes in name, first to Department of Extramural Studies, and finally to Department of In-Service and Adult Education, the Department of Science and Mathematics Education, the Department of Social and Language Education which was later split into two separate departments namely, the Department of African Languages and Social Studies Education and the Department of Communications and Educational Technology, and, finally,

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3. University of Transkei, Senate Document, No. 5a. p.1. February 26, 1980.

the Institute of Education. Although an examination of these departments individually in respect of their nature, responsibilities, functions and activities deserves immediate attention, a preliminary consideration of, in the words of J.M. Noruwana, 'the philosophy underlying all its (the Faculty of Education) activities'<sup>4</sup> is necessary inasmuch as it will throw light on and depict much more clearly the ultimate integral and joint effort of the various departments.

In outlining the aims and objectives of the Faculty of Education, O.M. Ferron, who succeeded J.M. Noruwana as Dean, wrote as follows in 1982 :

*"The main purposes of a Faculty or School of Education in a university situated in a developing country are to: (a) train graduate teachers and learners for work in the secondary schools of the country concerned; (b) train research workers who can do meaningful school- and classroom-based research, which will eventually lead to further development of the education system concerned. However, due to the acute shortage of professionally qualified graduate teachers in Third World countries, and the fact that Colleges of Education ... are in the process of development, most Third World universities also undertake: (a) the training of under-graduate teachers for professional work, mainly in the lower levels of the secondary school; (b) the upgrading of academic and professional qualifications of qualified teachers."*<sup>5</sup>

In the light of these aims and objectives, the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei had, as its first task, to identify areas of need in the school and education system of the country and, then, in building up its internal departmental structure, human and material resources and curricula and course structures, give priority to the most

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4. Cf. Noruwana, J.M.. in Senate Document cited above. p.1.

5. Ferron, O.M., in paper entitled "Faculty of Education Information". 1982. p.1.

pressing needs. It is in that sense that the departmental structure of the Faculty is said to be functional as opposed to the disciplines approach which favours such compartmentalized subject departments like, for example, the department of educational philosophy, the department of educational psychology, the department of educational administration and so on. In the case of the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei, the departments have, as their names clearly indicate, been designed in such a way that they depict specifically those educational fields which are considered as problem areas in the provision of education. For example, whereas the Department of Educational Foundations is concerned with the general professionalization of teachers by equipping them with the desired knowledge and professional behaviour patterns, the Department of Science and Mathematics Education concentrates on the preparation and provision for classroom practice of teachers of such science subjects like biology, physical science and mathematics.

Regarding the advantages of the structure when properly designed and implemented the following are noteworthy: first, it is economical, and necessarily so for such an underdeveloped country like Transkei, in terms of human resource planning, provision, distribution and utilization because the members of staff who belong to the same department can handle and teach more than one closely related subjects and, as a result, the inundation of the faculty with subject specialists who may have little work to do is avoided; secondly, and perhaps even more importantly, the principle of national relevance is upheld inasmuch as the structure ensures that all the energies and efforts of the faculty are channeled towards the service of the education system by constantly keeping in focus the needs and shortcomings of the school system which the names of the departments designate quite clearly. Thus, by virtue of the nomenclature adopted for the departments the faculty aims and objectives cannot be lost sight of. The weakness of the subject departments adopted by university faculties which favour the disciplines approach to departmentalization is that more attention is given to the study of the disciplines of the subject 'education' and the subject methods which are directly related to classroom practice are often taken so lightly that at

times lecturers for these subjects are, as it were, 'borrowed' on a part-time basis from the academic faculties. These 'borrowed' lecturers present problems of immense degree. They may themselves be professionally unqualified. If qualified professionally, they may lack sufficient teaching experience in the schools or may be outdated. Also, invariably all of them are not in touch with contemporary issues in the schools. Finally, they are not readily available for such practical activities like microteaching and school teaching practice where the students most need their guidance and supervision. The functional approach as adopted by the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei provides, therefore, a fair balance between the disciplines of the subject 'education' on one hand and the subject methods on the other.

The manner in which the functional departmental structure operates at the University of Transkei presents some difficulties which may easily hamper the attainment of the set objectives and aims of the Faculty. One prevalent feature, which has over the past few years continued to present serious problems about which the Faculty is now increasingly becoming aware, is the practice introduced at the time of the establishment of the Faculty, when the programmes offered were still very few and student numbers low, whereby teaching loads were shared by the Faculty staff members across the departmental lines. The investigator, as Head of the Department of Educational Foundations, made this point when he submitted proposals for the internal re-organization of the said department at the Faculty meeting held on October 18, 1983 :

*"It has been repeatedly pointed out that the structure and staffing of the Department present many insurmountable problems which hamper the smooth operation of the Department ... The Department suffers because the majority of the courses offered within the Department are taught by Faculty members who are officially attached to other departments. These staff members are, as a result, under obligation first to meet the professional demands placed at their door by their official departments ... This must*

*not be misconstrued as outright specialization. It is, however, true that a staff member who handles two or more totally unrelated subject areas can hardly be able to make an indepth study of and, thus, claim to be an expert in them all. It is, of course, a different case when the subjects so combined are related because they will in all probability compliment each other. Expertise and resourcefulness are, in the light of the foregoing, considered as prerequisites for effectiveness. Administratively, it is extremely difficult to co-ordinate the activities of various members of staff who officially hold allegiance to seven different departmental heads. As would be expected, such staff members must feel first officially committed to the affairs of their departments ... It takes such people (new members of staff) about the whole of the first year, and some even more, before they know with whom to communicate about matters affecting the various subjects that they teach and, at times, official returns are submitted along incorrect channels and confusion arises."*<sup>6</sup>

The problems outlined above have become more pronounced in recent years. Some of the contributory factors are the proliferation of programmes and increase in student enrolments. The situation seems to be aggravated by the shift of the Faculty from its original principle namely, that one of the qualifying conditions for appointment in the Faculty of Education would have to be a possession of at least a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree. It would appear that there may be little educational progress if the Faculty is inundated with merely experts in school subjects who may lack educational perspective as such. Whichever way one approaches the staffing problem, there seems to be an obvious need for staff development.

There are some notable discrepancies in the nature, organization, responsibilities and activities of two related departments namely, the

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6. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Minutes of the Staff Meeting Held on October 25, 1983.

Department of African Languages and Social Studies Education and the Department of Communications and Educational Technology. It would appear that the original arrangement whereby these two departments were combined and known as the Department of Social Studies and Language Education was more consistent with the general pattern adopted. While the Department of African Languages and Social Studies Education is self-explanatory in terms of its responsibilities and activities, the Department of Communications and Educational Technology concentrates on English Education and Educational Technology. One wonders whether it might not have been better to :

- (i) put all the languages namely, English, Xhosa and Southern Sotho under one department, the Department of Language Education and, then,
- (ii) create a separate department for History and Geography, the Department of Social Studies Education.

Although educational technology is, in functional terms, a means of classroom communication, it is definitely incompatible with English education because its content as a subject is relevant to the Department of Educational Foundations. Thus, Educational Technology appears to be misfit in the Department of Communications and Educational Technology. Another problem relates to the placing of commercial subjects like accountancy, economics and business economics in the Department of African Languages and Social Studies Education. It would appear that, for the sake of consistency, a separate department is necessary for these subjects.

The Faculty, however, encountered from the outset insurmountable problems in its attempts to establish the Institute of Education and after several vain attempts the institute idea was eventually abandoned. The envisaged Institute of Education was intended to serve as an extension of the Faculty of Education into the reality setting in which it would function. Its objectives and functions were to :

- "(1) *maintain adequate and effective contact between the Faculty of Education and the Ministry of Education in the interest of continual improvement in education generally.*
- (2) *establish and maintain adequate contact between the Faculty of Education and other educational bodies and institutions.*
- (3) *assist in curriculum development and planning in all areas of education.*
- (4) *to encourage, co-ordinate and provide facilities for research among educational institutions.*
- (5) *serve as a consultative and advisory body to the Ministry of Education and other educational institutions on matters affecting the training of teachers and on all educational matters.*
- (6) *identify the need for and organize in-service training, extramural courses and programmes which may result in further development and continual improvement of teachers' abilities.*
- (7) *encourage and promote dissemination of professional information through educational journals or other publications.*
- (8) *maintain close professional contact with other institutes of education elsewhere on matters of national educational interest."*<sup>7</sup>

There is no doubt that many of the problems which have hitherto been

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7. University of Transkei, Senate Document, No. 5a. 1980. op cit., p.2.

experienced especially in respect of the Teacher Training Colleges and their association with the University probably would not have occurred if the institution of the kind envisaged with the above functions and which would have resembled the contemporary institutes or schools of education in England had been established. Its possible influence on the course of events in the development of teacher education in Transkei might well have altered the whole current picture and cherished plans for the future in respect of pre-service and in-service teacher education structures and provisions. However, the proposal was from the outset met with serious opposition when at its meeting of February 26, 1980, the University Senate rejected the institute concept on the grounds that the Faculty of Education could not be granted an Institute that was not financially self-supporting in every way. No favourable consideration was accorded the Faculty's repeated argument and exhortation that :

*"We have always expressed the view that the Department of Education (Government) is the chief beneficiary of the activities of the Institute. But, unlike other beneficiaries of Institutes, the Department of Education is not richly endowed so as to be a source of funds for the activities of the Institute of Education ... We would also like to submit that the Taylor Commission on Education in Transkei recommends the establishment of an Institute of Education as a department in the Faculty of Education. This report has been accepted in toto by Cabinet and subsequently tabled in the current parliamentary sitting as part of the Minister's policy speech on education."*<sup>8</sup>

The University Senate recommended instead a change of name without a change in the stated functions of the Institute. Following this recommendation, the Faculty transferred all the functions of the Institute to the Department of Adult and Continuing Education which

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8. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Faculty Board Document, No. 5. May 7, 1981.

name was then changed to the Department of Extramural Studies in order to accommodate the institute functions. The Department of Extramural Studies was not a teaching department inasmuch as it concentrated on monitoring and co-ordinating all the activities of the Faculty in relation to the academic supervision of the Teacher Training Colleges, in-service education of teachers, liaison between the Government Department of Education and the University and research.

In May 1981, the Faculty resuscitated its application to Senate for the establishment of an Institute of Education stating that :

*"... the compromise name given to the intended Institute of Education is likely to cause some confusion especially as the University's extramural activities are on the increase."*<sup>9</sup>

In this regard, reference was made to the establishment of a Bureau of Educational Research which expanded tremendously the research function of the Department of Extramural Studies. This was re-inforced by the acquisition of external funding from the Bernard van Leer Foundation for a project in Early Childhood Education in Transkei under the auspices of the Faculty of Education. In respect of the controversial issue of financial implications the Faculty argued :

*"An evaluation of the activities of the Department of Extramural Studies, after a period of one year functioning as an Institute of Education, has indicated that the financial requirements and implications of performing the duties of an institute do not exceed the budgetary requirements of other departments of the Faculty. Indeed, these requirements fall far short of the budgetary requirements of other departments which are supported by the University. While it is perhaps true that as the Institute extends its functions and*

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9. Loc. cit.

*undertakes a number of projects in its variegated role situations, its budgetary requirements will increase, it is, however, anticipated that such growth will be controllable within the existing university budgetary constraints ... Even though we are requesting for an institute that is a department in the Faculty, we are soliciting and shall continue to solicit for external funds to help run our projects."*<sup>10</sup>

The University Senate, however, insisted on a self-funding institute, and, soon thereafter, the Faculty of Education abandoned the institute idea. The failure on the part of the Faculty to reconsider the extensive responsibilities and functions of the Department of Extramural Studies which was already functioning, in the words of the then Dean of Education, J.M. Noruwana, "in a role situation no ordinary department can assume",<sup>11</sup> contributed to the subsequent allegation that the Faculty was neglecting the Teacher Training Colleges. The concerns of the Department comprised such a peculiar mix of activities which, of course, rightfully reflected the urgent needs of the country that not only injustice to the Teacher Training Colleges was allegedly done but those aspects of continuing education which involve the general education of adults already involved in wage-earning occupations or simply keen to continue their education as private candidates or even seeking the elementary skills of literacy and numeracy were also virtually neglected. The re-organization of the Department in February 1982 was so inconsiderable that in terms of its functions the *status quo* was maintained. The Bureau of Educational Research which had hitherto existed and functioned as a unit of the Department was elevated to full departmental status and thus became an additional new department in the Faculty. The new Department assumed the research functions that were primarily allocated to the envisaged Institute of Education. Although the Department of Extramural Studies "shed its inaccurate connotation and assumed the more precise name",<sup>12</sup> Department

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10. Loc. cit.

11. Loc. cit.

12. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Faculty Board Document. No. 5.7.1/83. p.78.

of In-Service and Adult Education', it nonetheless retained all of its former functions including those that it had inherited from the proposed Institute of Education. When the criticisms that the Teacher Training Colleges were being neglected became strident, a separate unit, the Teacher Education Unit, to which reference was made, was established to take over from the Department all work related to the Teacher Training Colleges. It is significant to note that this too was the function originally assigned to the Institute of Education. The Teacher Education Unit was short-lived and was replaced by yet another new department, the Department of Collegiate Education. The institute concept has completely disappeared, but it would appear that it needs only new conceptualization of the Faculty structure in order to regain it at least in functional terms and, unless this is given immediate attention, it is not conceivable that the three departments which presently share the institute functions will ever achieve, while working as separate entities and their services completely unco-ordinated, the objectives originally set for the Institute.

In conclusion on the Faculty structure, the importance of the relevance of the university education structures, curricula and courses to the needs of the country in which the university exists and was established to serve cannot be overemphasized. Many universities in the developing countries of Southern Africa in particular acknowledge this fact and, to this end, have established institutes of education of the kind recommended for Transkei by the Taylor Commission. The National Education Commission of Bophuthatswana also recommended the establishment of an institute of education which would be linked to the School of Education and the Teacher Training Colleges.<sup>13</sup> This institute would provide assistance in curriculum development, techniques and materials, testing and evaluation, training courses, workshops and seminars, to

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13. The nature and role of the institute in Bophuthatswana, including those in other African countries like Malawi and Lebowa also described here, were outlined by D. Vermaak in a paper he read at an Educational Symposium in Umtata, Transkei on July 25, 1983 entitled: "Teacher Education in Southern Africa: A Comparative Review."

the Teacher Training Colleges. It would also play an important role in the in-service education of teachers. Such an institute has been established in Bophuthatswana. In another developing country in Southern Africa namely, Malawi, an example of such an institute as has just been mentioned serves as a centre of educational investigation and research into all aspects of education in general and more specifically into the education system of Malawi, a centre for in-service training, upgrading and professional renewal of serving teachers and a supervising and moderating agency for the professional training of all teachers. In yet another developing country namely, Lebowa, a Senior College of Education and an Institute of Education at the University to which all the training colleges should be linked was also recommended at a symposium held on education in Lebowa. The functions of the Institute would be mainly the same as those of the Institute in Bophuthatswana and the Institute in Malawi. The importance of such an institute is strongly felt in many developing countries.

## 1.2 The Pre-Service Teacher Education Curricula and Courses

There are currently two pre-service teacher education courses that are offered by the Faculty of Education of the University of Transkei though plans are under way to introduce a third one, the concurrent degree in education, in 1985. These three courses will hereunder be examined under separate sub-headings.

### 1.2.1 The One-Year Post-Graduate Course : The Higher Diploma in Education (Graduate)

The one-year post-graduate course was introduced in 1980, first as a two-year part-time course. In 1981 the course was converted to a one-year full-time course and has since continued to be offered as such. During the first three years, the course was known as the Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PCE) course. With the upgrading of the courses and awards at the Colleges in terms of the period of training from two to three years and the concomitant change of nomenclature into diploma courses and awards in 1982, the University also reviewed the

nomenclature for its own courses so that the Post-Graduate Certificate in Education course came to be renamed Post-Graduate Diploma in Education (PDE), but the change of name did not affect the original course structure. A year later, the course was further renamed Higher Diploma in Education (HDE), the reason for the change being that the abbreviation PDE for Post-Graduate Diploma in Education was not known and used in the Transkeian and South African contexts in which the students would work as teachers.

For admission into the course, the students must have completed a degree with at least five courses in approved teaching subjects. The course, as was indicated earlier, is intended to prepare the students as teachers of the upper classes of the secondary school. The curriculum includes methods of teaching two school subjects jointly referred to as Curriculum Studies, Educational Philosophy and Development, Educational Psychology, Principles of Teaching, Educational Administration, Communication Skills, Teaching Practice, Microteaching, Educational Technology and Music Education or School Librarianship. A classification of these subjects in terms of the nature of their content into the following generally distinguishable categories reveals great similarity between the course structure of the University of Transkei and the course pattern commonly adopted by other universities :

- (a) Subject Methods which involve the study of the methods of teaching the subjects in which the student has specialized during his or her university degree course.
- (b) 'Education' Courses variously termed by different universities 'Educational Studies', 'Foundations of Education', 'Professional Studies', 'Professional Education courses', 'Educational Theory', and so on, which comprise subjects like Philosophy of Education, Educational Psychology, Educational Administration, Principles and General Methods of Teaching, and so on; the nomenclature for the various 'education' courses as well as adopted subject combinations may differ from university to university but the basic principles underlying their content remain the same.

- (c) Practical Subjects like Educational Technology, Microteaching, and so on, which aim at equipping the student with the skills and techniques which he or she will need in the performance of his or her day to day teaching duties.
- (d) Teaching Practice which takes the form of visits by the students to the schools in order to undertake actual teaching in the classes under the supervision and guidance of their tutors and the school teachers.

A similar classification of the Higher Diploma in Education courses is provided by the University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg) :

- (a) Subject methods.
- (b) 'Education Courses' which include Educational Psychology, General Methods of Teaching, National and International Studies in Education, Principles of Education and Sociology of Education.
- (c) Practical Subjects, which are called 'Extra-Curricula Courses', including sporting activities, typing and first-aid and so on, and
- (d) Teaching practice.<sup>14</sup>

Although the limitations of the one-year post-graduate course have throughout the last two decades continued to be deeply lamented, the universities have at the same time continued to stay with the course while the education faculties of the new universities have made it their first task to begin with the one-year post-graduate course when designing their own teacher education curricula and courses. Although the concurrent education degree both in England and South Africa in

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14. University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg), Faculty of Education, Faculty Handbook. HDE/U.E.D. 1983.

particular was developed as a result of the growing dissatisfaction with the one-year post-graduate course, it would appear, however, that the existence of the concurrent pattern in both these countries has not affected the status and esteem of the one-year post-graduate course. The course continues to serve a significant purpose in that it provides facilities for and opportunity to join the profession to those students who on their arrival at university, and some until shortly before graduation, do not as yet identify themselves as intending teachers. It is thus essential that the weaknesses of the course should be identified and defined clearly so that an investigation into possible strategies that can be adopted in order to deal effectively with the weaknesses so identified with a view to improving the course can, especially in the case of Transkei, be timely undertaken.

A wide-ranging and commonly heard complaint is that the course is very short and that there is too much work to be undertaken and covered within one academic year. Paradoxically, the students, according to William Taylor, are very critical about the course and have very little to say in its favour except that "it promises two terms of idleness in a university atmosphere."<sup>15</sup> Some of the often quoted statements and phrases which indicate that the students take the course very lightly are that the course is a 'soft option', 'a drudge at the academic hearth', 'a golf-course' and 'a layer of icing-sugar to be spread very thinly over an already baked cake for decorative purposes'. All of the above criticisms are in a way justified in that they refer to some aspects of the course which altogether contribute to what William Taylor terms :

*"... the uncertain position of the educator of teachers, poised between the world of the school and that of the university, belonging to neither, vulnerable to criticism from both ..."*<sup>16</sup>

It may well be argued, and much against Taylor's pessimism, that the

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15. Taylor, W., (Editor), Society and the Education of Teachers. p.348.

16. Loc. cit.

position of university teacher education is not really 'uncertain' but that its nature and purposes have become so complex that without the proper planning and organization of its curricula and courses such that they become more meaningful and manageable, a situation of uncertainty can easily develop. The source of the complexity was explained as the rapid scientific and technological developments, the explosion of knowledge, of population and educational expectations as well as the concomitant expansion of secondary education all of which demanded the transformation of the means by which teachers had previously been prepared. Whereas the university graduate was before regarded as professionally omniscient and the mere possession of a degree a qualification in itself to teach, it soon came to be realized as a result of the above changes that the aim of university teacher education should be, in the words of Niven :

*"... to produce teachers with a high level of general education as well as a considerable subject specialism and with a sound professional training ..."*<sup>17</sup>

Thus, the graduate teacher not only needed general education which the degree course provided but 'a sound professional training' as well. Vast knowledge on education and schooling has since accumulated as a result of the contribution made by such social sciences like psychology, sociology, philosophy and anthropology with the result that it has been possible to lift the preparation and provision of teachers from the level of mere 'training' to that of full education and professionalization of teachers. It is even more so in developing countries where graduate teachers are perceived as key personnel for the initiation of societal changes and the realization of national objectives.

Thus, there is ample justification for the retention and continuation of the one-year post-graduate course for when, in its organization, the subjects that should find a place in the structure of the professional course are carefully selected and properly arranged, the course can

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17. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 220.

provide a rigorous year of study in which the main emphasis would be upon professional studies with the skills associated with a mere 'training' approach to teaching, as to a trade, reduced to an irreducible minimum. Niven explains the rationale for the 'end-on' arrangement of the course as opposed to the concurrent academic and professional studies as follows :

*"The pattern of university training with its professional year following upon the general academic studies for the Bachelor's degree, is similar to that of certain other professional disciplines ...; the structure of the course as two separate entities arranged 'end-on' rather than concurrent, is reminiscent of that required by Law where the Bachelor of Laws degree follows the Bachelor of Arts, or Commerce, giving a total course of five years' duration. In this connection, it must be stressed that in Education the one-year professional diploma course is regarded as being the first part of a two-year course leading to the Bachelor of Education degree."*<sup>18</sup>

The one-year post-graduate course has important contributions to make particularly in a developing country like Transkei for as Leonard Calvert once observed :

*"the common aim is to achieve quality education for school children in the face of a shortage of teachers on one hand and of an explosion of knowledge on the other,"*<sup>19</sup>

to which Niven has the following rider to add :

*"quality education for increasing numbers of school children of diverse ability particularly at the secondary level, to give recognition to the increased holding power of the*

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18. Ibid. p. 327.

19. Ibid. p. 340.

*secondary school in the post-war world.*"<sup>20</sup>

According to Calvert, the modern school requires a teacher who must at once be :

- (a) better professionally prepared for a task which must become more complex as the new methodology and technology increasingly invade the classroom;
- (b) more flexible and adaptable in the meeting of situations which are likely to be revolutionary rather than evolutionary; and
- (c) clearly better educated academically in order to cope with the knowledge explosion.<sup>21</sup>

In the case of the post-graduate course the third of these requirements is fulfilled in large measure by the three years of intensive academic study necessary in the acquisition of a degree. The other two requirements mean that increasingly careful scrutiny must be directed to the professional course and its effectiveness must constantly be assessed against the rapidly changing needs of both society and the schools. Curriculum content must not be retained on a criterion of tradition. Courses must be constantly reviewed if the quality of suitability of the educational offerings of a nation's schools is to be maintained and preserved. This leads to another weakness of the course which is the source of the criticism expressed (of the one-year post-graduate course) by graduate students who complain of its 'bittiness' after the intense and concentrated efforts involved in the final year of their degree studies.

The weakness referred to above is the tendency by many universities to overload the one-year post-graduate course with numerous short, disparate subjects which is reminiscent of the nineteenth century teacher 'training' policy which sought to prepare the student for every situation he

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20. Loc. cit.

21. Loc. cit.

was likely to encounter in the normal school classroom. Niven makes the same point with regard to the course as offered in the South African universities for Whites where, at the time of his writing, the number of subjects varied amongst the universities between eight and fourteen :

*"The effect of the knowledge explosion, together with vast changes in the professional approach to teaching stemming from developments in educational psychology and methodology have resulted in this course ... tending to become overcrowded with disparate subjects in which there has at times been a confusion between professional growth and training in classroom techniques and proficiency."*<sup>22</sup>

William Taylor, to whom reference has just been made, had this sort of 'confusion' in mind when he spoke of :

*"the uncertain position of the educator of teachers, poised between the world of the school and that of the university, belonging to neither, vulnerable to criticism from both ..."*<sup>23</sup>

It is now well over a decade since Niven suggested that :

*"... the number of subjects included in the course should be closer to the lower limit of eight than the upper limit of fourteen ..."*<sup>24</sup>

On the contrary, the University of Transkei, in particular, has overloaded the course with a total of eleven compulsory subjects whose nature and content, when subjected to thorough scrutiny are reminiscent of the American situation which Edmund King so eloquently criticizes as follows :

*"Non-Americans feel they must look behind the label to see*

22. Ibid. p. 378.

23. Cf. Supra. p. 333.

24. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 343.

what justification there is; and their misgivings are not assuaged when they note that other American graduates generally look with disdain upon the graduates of teachers' colleges and those who have majored in education or education-linked courses. The craving for 'professionalism' has led to the inflation and sanctification, for example, of countless tedious courses in 'routine classroom administration' and their like, and the superseding of music, or language or literature by 'Music Education', 'English Education', and so on ad nauseum. You have not really altered the nature and nurture of your monitors by packing their journeymen's bags with a few university style samples, or re-labelling subjects and skills. You are simply engaged upon a supermarket exercise - purveying things to your customers, and indeed helping to process them, without stopping to think if the advancing logic of our industrialized life requires quite a different orientation.

*"The essence of professional responsibility inheres in personal integrity - engaged in response to a social challenge, and informed both with insights and a sense of experimental orientation; ... the proper teacher today must be one who sees himself as contributing momentously to unprecedented evolution."*<sup>25</sup>

If the teacher is to 'contribute momentously to unprecedented evolution' it follows that he must be well prepared academically and professionally for the task, and that he must, as Niven puts it :

*"... not merely be prepared to meet the situation which confronts him on the first day of his first appointment, nor equipped only to deal with situations likely to arise within his first year of teaching, the inference being that thereafter he will have eased himself into the comfort and security*

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25. Ibid. pp. 341-342.

*of a groove which is likely to become as entrenched as the tracks in the loess plains of North West China."*<sup>26</sup>

If these considerations by Calvert and Niven are not to be ignored, then an examination of the most desirable and suitable subjects which must find a place in the Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) course as currently offered by the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei is necessary, and the goal must be to reduce the existing total number of eleven subjects to, as Niven suggested, as close to the minimum of eight as can be possible. However, as Wandira wisely warns in this connection :

*"We cannot begin by building fortresses and fighting to keep others out before we have surveyed and taken soil samples of the site on which we wish to establish the fortress."*<sup>27</sup>

To this, a rider can be added that there is need to take a good look at the soldiers that should be allowed into the fort, for a 'soil survey' of courses currently offered by many university faculties and departments shows that there is a marked confusion as to what troops should form a battery of subjects for the one-year post-graduate course.

#### 1.2.1.1 Professional Subjects

The traditional practice which is still prevalent in many universities has been for the professional component to entail the study of educational theory from the viewpoint of four disciplines namely, history, philosophy, psychology and sociology and their application to a range of educational issues. One distinctive feature of the approach to teacher education curricula is the disciplinary fragmentation of the otherwise indivisible and unified field of educational theory and the

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26. Loc. cit.

27. Wandira, A., 'The Nature of Foundation Studies in Teacher Education Curriculum in Africa and some Obstacles to Change'. Address. October 27-29, 1970.

creation of discipline-oriented departments like the 'department of philosophy of education', 'department of educational psychology', 'department of history of education' and 'department of sociology of education'. Quite often the educational theory courses extend beyond 'the four disciplines' to such subjects as comparative education and educational administration with the result that the faculty becomes inundated with discipline-oriented departments. One of the attendant problems which may result from the situation is the encouragement of disciplinary rivalries and competition so that some of the departments may grow so big and the work to be done so copious that, given the short period of one academic year, the course becomes extremely superficial, intellectually trivial and unlikely to have any long-term influence on students. It is partly in that sense that Wilson equates educational theory to "jumping a number of guns ... loaded with blanks."<sup>28</sup> Wilson, for that matter, seriously questions the very significance of the so-called educational theory in the preparation and provision of teachers :

*"The current literature makes it hard for one to take seriously the idea that teachers should learn a great deal of 'educational theory' (even though this idea is widely institutionalized in current practice), in two main ways. First, there is no clear idea in the literature of any respectable, solidly-based, and demonstrably informative 'theory' at all: some moderately plausible pictures are given of this, but only at the highest level of generalization; nowhere is it shown, either that any reputable theory exists, or that such theory is clearly of value to practising teachers."*<sup>29</sup>

Referring to a statement by Hirst that it is 'certainly' vital for educational practice that teachers should 'fully understand' educational 'principles and their bases', Wilson illustrates his point above as follows :

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28. Wilson, J., Educational Theory and the Preparation of Teachers.  
p. 46.

29. Ibid. p. 115.

"I think partly because of these difficulties, even the most intelligent people who write about the value of such theory to teachers seem sometimes optimistic to the point of insanity ... Hirst's educational principles are supposed to flow from the interaction of various disciplines - philosophy, psychology, sociology (and we have reason to suppose that this list might be extended). The suggestion that the intending teachers should 'fully understand' these principles and 'their bases' is not merely utopian in practical terms, but logically ridiculous: nobody 'fully understands' the 'bases' of some of these disciplines. The criteria for competence in areas marked by 'psychology', 'sociology' etc. are themselves in doubt, and even more questionable is the relationship between these areas and 'educational principles.'<sup>30</sup>

To conclude on Wilson's merciless onslaught on educational theory, reference must be made to some of the arguments he advances and which need to be borne in mind when deciding on the subjects that should make up the professional component of teacher education curricula :

"Arguments against the value of educational theory ... for the preparation of teachers are not far to seek. There is, first, the point that since a great deal of such 'theory' is confused and nonsensical, it is not likely to do much more than mislead the practising teacher or make him feel guilty for not living up to it. What we in fact have is not a set of practical principles which have been validated; this is a target which we do not yet know even how to aim at. We have a loose network of fashion, fantasy, political or social 'movements', and general ideas about education, mixed in with various 'research findings' which may or may not be valid in themselves, but which are certainly insufficient to support the kind of practical principles we need. Secondly, a good

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30. Ibid. p. 116.

*deal of such theory ... has only a remote connection with the job of 'being a teacher' ... Thirdly, even if the theory were both sound and usable by teachers, there would still remain immense difficulties in the area commonly described as 'relating theory to practice.'*<sup>31</sup>

What emerges from the foregoing critical analysis of educational theory by Wilson as a desirable approach to the organization of teacher education curricula would be, not a total elimination of professional subjects from the curriculum as Wilson would seem to suggest, but instead their great reduction not only in number but in the scope of their content as well. Wilson, in fact, makes this point :

*"We have to hang on tightly to two ideas at once: first, that 'educational theory', as we in fact have it, is extremely questionable and perhaps a waste of time; second, that we cannot begin to succeed in the task of preparing teachers in any serious sense unless we get them to take certain central theories of learning and education seriously ... Teachers need to be prepared by education: (1) to know their subject matter; (2) to transmit care and seriousness about learning; (3) to understand people. All these are, very obviously, not entirely covered by anything we could call 'practical training' ... They are clearly very close to the general business and critical reflection about education, that is, about subjects, learning and people."*<sup>32</sup>

Although Wilson would quite obviously like to see the greater part of teacher education curricula being devoted to what he calls 'practical training' which is reminiscent of the nineteenth century form of 'craft training' or, to use the common phrase, 'learning the tricks of the trade', it must once more be argued that among the effects which

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31. Ibid. p. 117.

32. Ibid. pp. 123-128.

one might hope to find resulting from teacher education curricula are increased academic and professional knowledge, increased teaching ability, and modifications of attitudes towards children, teaching and education. It is true that the students who enrol for the one-year post-graduate course are adequately equipped academically and, therefore, the academic quality of the education courses offering, to use a common phrase, 'an undifferentiated mush of theory' in pursuit of academic respectability must be rejected. The task of the professional subjects should be in the words of R.S. Peters :

*"to equip him (the student-teacher) with the rudiments of disciplined philosophical thought and with those parts of psychology and the social sciences which are of particular relevance to his complex task ... The simple truth, in other words, is that the teacher has to learn to think for himself about what he is doing."*<sup>33</sup>

The emphasis in the study of professional subjects should be, according to Renshaw, on :

- "(i) The formulation of rational principles acquired through the objective study of the contributory disciplines.*
- (ii) The examination of the principles underlying curriculum planning and evaluation in schools.*
- (iii) Understanding the factors that affect the development of children.*
- (iv) Acquiring a sensitive awareness of the dynamic relationship between school and society.*
- (v) Building up the knowledge and attitudes that will*

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33. Peters, R.S., Education and the Education of Teachers. p. 137.

*enable students to understand the demands and pressures arising from our industrial and pluralistic society.*

- (vi) *Gaining an understanding of the diffuse nature of the teacher's role.*
- (vii) *Developing an occupational consciousness by sharpening the students' political, economic and sociological insights.*
- (viii) *Fostering a flexibility of mind and a constructive, critical attitude towards educational innovation, which will enable students to evaluate the changing conception of teaching and research findings in the light of rational criteria.*"<sup>34</sup>

Any combination of professional subjects that would fulfil all of the above ideals would produce teachers who, by virtue of their education, would be sensitive, self-confident and adaptable with ability to work as a link in a complex differentiated teaching force. Reference is here made to a number of possible combinations of professional subjects because as Wilson noted :

*"... within the frontiers imposed by the concept of education itself, educational problems may still be very heterogeneous; for some, we may need a certain mixture of disciplines, for others, a quite different mixture."*<sup>35</sup>

For this reason, the broadening of the definition of the professional component in the developing African countries from its usual foreign parameters to include such subjects like economics of education or economics and education, educational planning or education and economic

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34. Renshaw, P., 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 65.

35. Wilson, J.; op cit., p. 58.

planning, politics of education or education and politics and so on, which directly contribute toward a fuller understanding of problems of national development and more pressing issues of contemporary Africa is welcomed inasmuch as these additional subjects are geared to the relevant issues of national development. However, in so doing care must be taken that the course does not become crowded with numerous disparate subjects and that the unity of this main area of the curriculum, whose diverse portions collectively contribute to the total professional growth of the aspirant graduate teacher, is preserved. The aim must be to integrate the various branches of the professional component which by its very nature is interdisciplinary. The differentiated approach to the professional studies must be avoided at all costs for should the professional subjects be compartmentalized to a point where disciplinary departments become possible, each will go its own way and plan its programme of activities and content in isolation from the others at a cost to the purpose of educational theory. The dangers inherent in the differentiation of the professional subjects into distinctive and separate independent branches of educational theory are that the courses tend to become highly academic and irrelevant to practical educational issues. These weaknesses are evident in the following argument by Renshaw who favoured the differentiated approach as opposed to the integration of the professional subjects :

*"... there has been a tendency to conceive of education as an autonomous unitary discipline. But it is more logical to view it as a 'focus or meeting-place of disciplines, or a 'practical theory', which draws on a number of distinct areas of knowledge that contribute towards the making of practical judgements as to what ought to be done in educational practice. It is logically impossible for the contributory disciplines to be subsumed under a general unitary mode of understanding, because each area contains its own concepts, truth criteria and validation procedures ... This differentiated approach has enabled the study of education, through its distinctive disciplines, to be truly academic. The formulation of rational principles must be*

*achieved through the objective systematic study of the contributory disciplines. At some stage of the education course these must be pursued for intrinsic reasons; the emphasis must be on impartial academic enquiry, with its high concern for cognitive content, search for truth and the mastery of procedural skills."*<sup>36</sup>

A university situated in and serving a developing country like Transkei which is beset with a multiplicity of national problems of all kinds, educational, economic, political, social and so on, cannot afford the luxury of neutral intellectual exercise and pursuit of knowledge for its own sake. Paul Freire once correctly remarked that there was no such thing as a neutral educational process. We are also reminded by Tötemeyer that :

*"... education can never be neutral. It cannot be neutral where and when the subjects of education are at a disadvantage ... After the Second World War many educationists who taught during the Third Reich, were accused by the young German generation that they kept quiet when injustice was done to the Jews and objectors to Nazism. It can be argued that the neutrality of these educationists, teachers and lecturers, was as much a crime to mankind as that of those who supported Hitler's racial policy; ... if you are not part of the solution, you are part of the problem. Education is related to society and can therefore not stand aloof from (the problems of) ... society."*<sup>37</sup>

It is equally true that an education faculty cannot disentangle itself from the social, political, and economic forces which created it and which sustain and allow it to survive. Renshaw, however, realized the

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36. Renshaw, P., 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., pp. 60-61.  
 37. Tötemeyer, G.K.H., 'Education and its Relation to Politics in an Underdeveloped Society'. Inaugural Lecture delivered at the University of Transkei. August 25, 1983. p. 9.

need for close connection between professional subjects and practical educational activity and, in this regard, he agrees with Wilson that :

*"Essentially, the idea of 'professional study' implies a partnership between a body of theoretical knowledge and practical skills which are needed for achieving competence in a particular profession. The development of these critical skills, acquired through training, must be informed by theoretical knowledge gained through academic study, otherwise a student is unlikely to build up the authority, autonomy and breadth of understanding which are so fundamental to the making of responsible professional judgements. Professional study is not limited to the development of technical competence in a narrow, specific task, for the partnership between theoretical and practical knowledge is central to the idea of initiating students into a profession, rather than training them for a trade or occupation. Therefore a balance between theory and practice needs to be maintained in professional study."*<sup>38</sup>

In the light of the preceding statements or, so to speak, of the 'survey of the soldiers' who must form a battery of subjects for the professional component of the one-year post-graduate course, some progress can then be made in deciding what subjects should constitute the professional component of the one-year post-graduate course at the University of Transkei and how these subjects can be arranged such that in their very organizational structure they can clearly bespeak of the unitary purpose and the closely interwoven objectives which they are enjoined to fulfil. This last requirement is already catered for in the Education Faculty structure which provides for a separate administrative department, the Department of Educational Foundations, which is charged with the duty of planning, organizing and generally taking care of all matters relating to the professional subjects. Thus, already a

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38. Renshaw, P., 'Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 57.

base has been set for the required integration of the professional subjects and for the necessary co-ordination of all activities relating to them such as planning and designing of syllabuses and content, teaching and examinations. There are currently four professional subjects offered in the one-year post-graduate course and which fall under the Department namely, Educational Philosophy and Development, Educational Psychology, Principles of Teaching and Educational Administration.

As it is, the structure presents three major problems: First, though the subjects fall under one and the same department administratively, the fact that they exist and are taught as four separate subjects makes the number rather too big for a one-year course, more so that there are, in fact, more than four other additional subjects which the students must take in the course. Secondly, the fact that the subjects exist and are taught as four separate entities is antagonistic to the principle of integration and co-ordination and, instead, makes possible the overloading of each of the four subjects with too much content which may not be related to that of the others, thus aggravating at the same time the first problem above. Thirdly, though there are already four subjects, areas that one would like to see included into the professional study such as Comparative Education, Sociology of Education, Education and Politics, History of Education and Economics of Education appear to have been left out, and this represents a regrettable omission in view of the great relevance of these subjects for national development which will always depend very largely on the effort and input made by the teachers in promoting the quality of education on a national scale.

As a solution to the above problems, it is proposed that the number of subjects that should make up the professional component of the one-year post-graduate course should be reduced to a maximum of three but, in order to accommodate all the nine subjects enumerated in the preceding paragraph, those subjects whose content is closely related should be so grouped together to form one integrated and yet multi-disciplinary subject in which the component subjects mesh. To this end, the subject

would have to be handled by one tutor who, in his teaching, would have to adopt and use the thematic approach so that the disciplinary boundaries that in fact exist amongst the various constituent subjects should become blemished while the necessary emphasis on what is relevant to the practical problems becomes more pronounced. The following are examples of possible subject combinations.

Philosophy of education, history of education and sociology of education can, by virtue of the nature of their content constitute one subject namely, General Educational Theory which can then be handled by one tutor who, in his teaching, will select a recurrent theme at a time and then focus on it from the historical, philosophical and sociological perspectives while harnessing at the same time these modes of thought about education to practical issues. The need would be for a synthesis in which educational problems are looked at from a philosophical standpoint, in which the origins of problems are followed back in history and in which the principles established reach forward to suggest solutions in future action in the nation's schools and, all this should be buttressed up with the analysis of the social forces that determine human behaviour under changing conditions and circumstances.

The historical perspective would have to be geared towards promoting an appreciation of the traditional views on educational practice, indicating the constraints imposed and the opportunities offered, and these may be philosophical, sociological, economic, political or even psychological. It would mean an analysis of the educational possibilities inherent within the school system. It would certainly mean an understanding of the influence of the interaction of the past with the present in whatever form of educational practice the tutor focusses on in his teaching. It should lead to the promoting of change, for such a perspective could lead to a fostering of awareness of how educational changes have come about. Its relationship with the sociological perspective in particular lies in the fact that it also develops an understanding of the relationship between the social structure and the process of education. The philosophical perspective should sort out the conceptual issues in educational policy and practice and can con-

tribute to the historical study by doing so in time perspective. The greatest contribution that philosophy of education can make towards the improvement of educational practice is the clarification of educational objectives. To this end, the appreciation of the nature of evidence used and its epistemological sources are of fundamental importance. In this way, the philosophical perspective can serve as a synthesis of the related contributions to teacher education of educational sociology and educational psychology. Closely related to the clarification of objectives would be attempts to make more precise a student's understanding of the value judgements implicit in his educational practices. Analysis of such values and their relationship to the self or society, development of their educational implications in psychological or sociological terms, and conceptualization of the assumptions on which they are based represents some of the most exacting intellectual pursuits and also some of the most utilitarian professional skills. Educational sociology would focus on social structure and society as well as on institutional and group processes which affect all work in the classroom. Central to a teacher's main study would be careful analysis of the concept of role with particular reference to the teacher's role which would aim to help him make maximum use of himself as a social agent in the learning process. This would call for detailed study of the institution of education, the social structure of schools, their social systems and their organizations. This would enable the teacher to organize his teaching so as to take into account the varied social influences on learning.

According to Morrison and McIntyre :

*"Of the four disciplines (history, philosophy, psychology and sociology), it is psychology which appears most obviously relevant to a teacher's work; and it is to psychology that most time appears to be given in teacher education ... It is possible that the content of psychology courses has recently become more relevant to teaching."*<sup>39</sup>

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39. Morrison, A., and D. McIntyre, Teachers and Teaching. p. 63.

The above assertion becomes particularly true when the content of the methodology course offered by the Education Faculty at the University of Transkei is taken into consideration. Emphasis seems to be placed exclusively on the application in the classroom situation of the research findings of psychology and educational psychology on such relevant aspects of classroom practice like learning, perception, thinking, cognitive development, individual differences, factors influencing the choice of teaching methods and child-centred approaches to teaching. This close affinity between the two courses namely, Educational Psychology and Principles of Teaching, makes possible their integration into a second inter-disciplinary subject which may, for example, be called Educational Psychology and Methodology. For intimate integration and co-ordination, the subject would also need to be taught by one tutor and the thematic approach as explained above be adopted and used in teaching. Clearly this subject again should not be seen in isolation but in direct relationship to General Educational Theory, to administration and to economics. However, the central focus of the student's ultimate study of educational psychology would be the learning theory with special reference to how growth and development affect learning and how the various theories have shaped the currently approved approaches to the organization of learning and teaching. Educational psychology will have to be geared towards assisting the student to bring his psychological insights to his understanding of educational technology. To this, must be added inculcation of some appreciation of how the interaction of people gives direction to teaching and learning and also imposes restraints and limitations upon it. To this end, the sociological aspect of General Educational Theory can make a valuable contribution. Educational psychology will have to explore the various available evaluation devices so that the student can measure the effectiveness of his own, and others', organizational of learning experiences. It would, therefore, appear that the general method component of the inter-disciplinary subject under discussion provides a theoretical field, as opposed to the practical field represented by teaching practice in particular, in which the entire field of educational theory finds its full practical expression and tests its practical relevance to the world of the classroom for which the teacher

is prepared. The problem of integration and co-ordination is therefore here even more pronounced because not only the content but also the method of imparting it to the students should all be inspired by the philosophical, psychological, sociological, administrative, historical, economic and international considerations. Also, the general method (didactical) principles should be integrated with the specific principles which are enunciated in the secondary school subject method courses. The problem for the 'methodist', then, is to reach out for the theoretical stars while giving attention at the same time to the *minutiae* of detail with regard to classroom organization and practice. The significance of the general method component and its relation with other theoretical subjects are explained quite appropriately by Renshaw as follows :

*"Professional study must also aim at building up a high level of technical expertise, but these skills required for teaching must be gained through training and practical experience; ... the professional training of teachers must be concerned with both theoretical and practical knowledge, which entails the intelligent application of rules. The idea of an intelligent action suggest that a person is thinking in a purposive way; not only is his action related to an end but the appropriate means are being employed to achieve the end. An intelligently executed operation also involves judgement and understanding, thus enabling the person to give a critical performance. This means that when a person is being trained, he must learn how to apply the relevant rules and principles using critical judgement."*<sup>40</sup>

Besides, the general method component has a valuable role to play in the preparation of graduate teachers because while on one side of the fence there is much talk about the education of intending teachers, there is,

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40. Renshaw, P., 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 57.

on the other, evidence of some grumbling from the schools that the universities are turning out teachers with airy-fairy notions who, however, do not know how to mark a register. Teaching has its techniques as much as any other art, and the general method component is enjoined specifically to equip the students with the necessary technical competence without which teaching cannot truly be called a profession.

In advocating the necessary contribution that teachers should be prepared to make 'momentously to unprecedented evolution', Edmund King makes an important point that :

*"In the communist world this participation is strongly felt; but the direction is set by the party. In other countries there can be no exemplar, no certain guide."*<sup>41</sup>

Educational theory cannot provide the necessary guide for, as Peters has noted :

*"Educational theory is littered with half-truths which are paraded as panaceas."*<sup>42</sup>

Given such an untenable situation the teachers need to be given opportunity to draw from the experiences of education systems other than their own, and this is enough justification for a third subject namely, National and International Studies, which would comprise relevant aspects of Comparative Education, Economics of Education, Educational Planning, Educational Administration and Education and Politics. The need for such a subject as an essential part of teacher education curricula of a developing country like Transkei cannot be over-emphasized. What is more, in the words of Niven :

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41. King, E.J., 'The Curriculum of British Teacher Training Courses. Analysis and Critique'. Yearbook of Education, 1963. pp. 109-110.

42. Peters, R.S., op cit., p. 157.

*"... there is a need to include subjects which provide springboards to that later study (the Bachelor of Education degree course). Comparative Education is just such a subject."*<sup>43</sup>

The multi-disciplinary nature of the subject would require the same form of treatment that has been proposed in respect of the first two subjects and, its aim would be to introduce students to various policies, patterns and practices of their own as well as those of other education systems. The main focus would of necessity be on problems related to educational planning, policies and administration and socio-economic and political development all of which are problems that currently beset the education systems of developing countries. There would also be need to review critically the strategies and policies adopted by different countries in order to foster national development. Central to all this would be the active role of the teacher in national development as well as the significant contribution that he, as a change agent, can make to bring about educational innovation.

The point that needs to be re-emphasized in conclusion is the need for the integration and co-ordination of all these three main subjects on educational theory. Though they may and should be presented in a differentiated way, the three subjects must also mesh in with and be seen by the student as well to mesh in with each other in relation to matters of educational policy and practice. Selection of content must be determined by what is relevant to the practical problems. A logical development of this integration would be an inter-disciplinary approach to problems in education where the three tutors concerned would be involved in the consideration of a particular area. Once understanding between the subject lecturers is established a move might then profitably be made in direction of a problem-centred curriculum. The requirement would not be for the scrapping of the structure as proposed, but rather to introduce one or two problem areas for inter-disciplinary treatment. This would, of course, be the first step on

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43. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 346.

the road to the establishment of a school of education rather than a faculty. If the modern teacher is to be able to "contribute momentarily to unprecedented evolution", it is felt that such co-ordination of truly professional subjects is necessary.

#### 1.2.1.2 The Curriculum Studies

The prevailing orthodoxy is that the students taking the one-year post-graduate course are required to specialize in the methods of teaching the two approved secondary school subjects in which they specialized in their academic degree courses. The same procedure has been adopted at the University of Transkei. The necessity to specialize in only two secondary school subjects has been occasioned by the expansion of secondary education which has become highly differentiated and complex. The acute shortage of secondary school teachers in developing countries including Transkei has, however, presented a bizarre situation in which the teachers are made to teach other school subjects in addition to or, at worst, other than those in which they specialized in the course of their training which, indeed, makes a mockery of the university teacher education policy in this regard. It would appear, however, that the University of Transkei in particular will have to insist on producing 'specialist' teachers as opposed to 'general' teachers for two reasons. First, the University academic degree curricula structures as well as the already overcrowded Education Faculty teacher education curricula for the one-year post-graduate course make it impossible for the graduate teacher to learn to teach more than at the most two secondary school subjects effectively. Secondly, in its quest for quality, the University cannot sacrifice for quantity the high standards demanded of its products by differentiated secondary education which requires that teachers should be given intensive education and training in one or two subjects only.

The nomenclature, 'Curriculum Studies', for the method courses as adopted by the Education Faculty of the University of Transkei is so intriguing that it calls for clarification. Peters correctly argues that :

*"'Curriculum' is now ... the with-it concept that tends to be stuck like a label on numerous band-wagons. In the old days education used to have aims, content and method. 'Curriculum' used to be a very vague word for referring to what was explicitly taught - to content, if you like. Nowadays, however, the curriculum itself is thought to include objectives (preferably measurable ones), content and methods."*<sup>44</sup>

It was pointed out in Chapter One that 'Literature on curriculum ... leaves one clear on only one point, namely, that there is no common agreement on the precise meaning of the word'.<sup>45</sup> However, a narrower sense was distinguished from a broader sense in which the concept is generally used. It was stated that in a narrower sense the term 'covers the combinations of subjects which form themselves into recognizable patterns generally known as courses of study'. In the widest sense the term was said to be synonymous with the concept 'educational program', and that it refers to 'the whole programme of education and not merely to courses of study which are only that part of the curriculum which is organized for classroom use and which suggest content, procedures, aids, and materials for the use and guidance of teachers, learners, and administrators'.

The definition of the concept 'curriculum' in the widest sense is definitely not applicable to the conception of 'curriculum' as used in the phrase 'Curriculum Studies'. It would appear, instead, that the intended meaning of the concept in this case lies between the definition supplied by Peters and the definition in the narrower sense of the term 'curriculum'. The latter becomes even more applicable when focus is on the student, for in this sense the term seems to denote the course of study in which the student specializes and which is constituted by the two secondary school subjects the student has decided to concentrate on. The sense in which the concept seems to be generally used in this case seems, however, to be the one suggested by

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44. Peters, R.S., op cit., p. 185.

45. Supra. Chapter One, p. 26.

Peters and in which the term signifies a wide range of activities related to and involving a thorough study of a subject or two or more subjects combined 'into a recognizable pattern'. In this sense, the concept 'curriculum study' means something more than mere methodology which in this case implies the study of the methods of teaching and which has been criticized, because of its entire concentration on teaching skills and techniques, as being superficial and intellectually undemanding especially after the rigours of the degree course. Although methodology forms an essential part of curriculum study, the latter transcends the methodological limits to more theoretical considerations. Thus, the structure of a curriculum course comprises three distinct and yet interrelated elements namely, the conceptual or theoretical, the factual content and the methodological. The conceptual or theoretical aspect digs into the philosophical foundations of the subject, formulates fundamental principles and objectives and outline the justification for teaching the subject. The content is selected to illustrate some of the salient features of the subject and, especially those that have a direct bearing on the school subject syllabus so that the students should be able to move with confidence within a subject without having to digest an amorphous mass of inert information. The methodological aspect comprises what is overtly implied by the concept 'subject method' in that it concentrates on the procedural skills and techniques allied to the practical knowledge of how to teach the subject. While it is true that a combination of the conceptual and factual elements, which contribute to the personal education of the student, constitutes an academic study which those taking the one-year post-graduate course have satisfactorily completed, Peters reminds us that :

*"... though those who come to us are presumed to be educated in a general sense, very few of them have more than a nodding acquaintance with those particular disciplines that are ancillary to their task. There is a further point too. It could well be argued that though the main emphasis at the level of initial training must be on the training of teachers, we cannot altogether*

*neglect our duty as educators to educate them as persons.*"<sup>46</sup>

The foregoing exposition once more calls for the adoption and application of the integrative approach not only in the treatment of the three distinct and yet interrelated elements of a curriculum course but also amongst the subject lecturers and between the subject lecturers and the tutors of professional subjects and of practical subjects on one hand and the teachers already serving in the schools on the other. Central to the teaching of a curriculum course is the recognition of the need to draw out the conceptual or theoretical and practical relationships between educational theory, subjects and practice. It is this knowledge of concepts, principles, structures, validation procedures and the ability to grasp interconnections that forms the essence of professionalism. Of even greater necessity is not only for the curriculum courses to proceed concurrently with the course in general method but also for close co-operation between tutors of the curriculum courses and that of the general method component more especially in respect of the methodological aspect of the curriculum courses which includes such important matters of common concern between the two fields like the syllabus, scheme of work, methods of teaching, audio-visual aids and testing and evaluation of pupil performance. The curriculum courses should as a rule be handled by competent subject specialists who have had considerable teaching experience in the schools.

The organizational structure of the curriculum studies at the University of Transkei presents not only internal administrative problems but difficulties of a considerable degree as well which endanger the prospects of the necessary integration and active close co-operation and co-ordination amongst the subject lecturers themselves. The subjects are split amongst bewildering departments and are not co-ordinated. The subject, English, falls under the Department of Communications and Educational Technology while the Department of African Languages and Social Studies Education embraces the two African

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46. Peters, R.S., op cit., p. 137.

languages namely, Xhosa and SeSotho, social studies (History and Geography which are offered as two separate subjects) and commercial subjects which include Accountancy, Business Economics and Economics. A more acceptable arrangement would be for all the curriculum courses to be placed under a single and separate department, the Department of Curriculum Studies. However, an arrangement that would be in line with the functional philosophy underlying the present departmental structure would be for the three languages to constitute a separate department, the Department of Language Education, the two branches of social studies namely, History and Geography, to form the Department of Social Studies Education, and the three commercial subjects to make up the Department of Commercial Studies Education. This kind of integration would make possible the necessary conceptual interconnections not only amongst areas of knowledge but also amongst the interrelated subjects, thus building up a student's perspective, which is not only of intrinsic value but also essential for successful inter-disciplinary work with pupils in the schools. To this end, the organizational structure of the curriculum courses within the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei needs to be changed from the present, so to speak, 'undifferentiated mush' to a more meaningfully integrated 'mesh'.

Finally, an examination of the prescribed syllabuses for the various curriculum courses reveals some discrepancies and lack of uniformity amongst them in relation to the degree that they meet the criteria for being called 'curriculum' courses. It would indeed be true to say that some of them deserve to be called instead 'subject methods' in the true sense of the term inasmuch as they are only and entirely concerned with technical knowledge. If the concept 'curriculum studies' as opposed to 'subject methods' was adopted with any significant purpose, it would be advisable that the departments concerned reconsider the nature of the syllabuses prescribed in respect of some of their courses and do so in the light of the criteria for a curriculum course as outlined above.

### 1.2.1.3 Practical Subjects

The third and important group comprises such practical subjects as Educational Technology, School Librarianship, Communication Skills, Music Education and Microteaching. All these, besides School Librarianship and Music Education which are offered as optional subjects, are compulsory courses which must be taken by all students. It would, however, appear that an acceptable arrangement would be to provide a separate group of optional subjects of which Music and School Librarianship would form part. To this group of optional subjects would be included all subjects which are of particular value to the young teacher in helping him to play a full part in the life of the school, and at the same time enabling him to draw upon either his personal interests as in the case of subjects such as Games Coaching, Play Production, and School Librarianship, or to extend academic interests developed during his undergraduate years, for example, Religious Instruction, Music, and Vocational Guidance. Such an arrangement would facilitate the adoption and application of the proposed integrative approach in the handling of the three compulsory practical subjects namely, Educational Technology, Communication Skills and Microteaching. The microteaching practical sessions, for instance, would provide opportunity to try out techniques in the use of audio-visual media and language skills acquired through practice during practical small group workshop or laboratory sessions. It must be emphasized that in order to avoid duplication the practical subjects need not be accorded normal formal lectures but should instead be handled during practical small group workshop or laboratory sessions.

Regarding Communication Skills, the subject must seek to develop the student's ability to communicate with his pupils at an appropriate level both in terms of the spoken and written word. The course should consist in the main of tutorial work sessions interspersed with regular tests and the emphasis should be placed on speech training and written comprehension exercises at a level appropriate to the school situation. There should also be no written final examination on the subject but rather those who in the opinion of the tutor have developed the

necessary facility should be gradually exempted and at the end of the academic year only a practical oral examination should be given.

Educational Technology as a subject must seek, amongst others, to develop in the students an awareness of the role of audio-visual media in the learning process, and, therefore, a willingness to become familiar with new devices as they become available and to improvise and develop some of these using available materials in the environment. There is need to co-ordinate practical lessons on educational technology with the relevant theoretical aspects of the course on general methods. The lessons should further find their full practical application in microteaching sessions as well as in the actual teaching situations in the schools during teaching practice sessions. As in the case of Communication Skills, there should be no written final examination on this subject but students' performance should be evaluated on a continuous basis and a comprehensive practical examination may be conducted at the end of the academic year.

Ryle makes the significant point that :

*"We learn how by practice, schooled indeed by criticism and example, but often unaided by any lessons in theory."*<sup>47</sup>

This implies that formal explanations of the principles of teaching are likely to have far less effect on students than periods of critical practice accompanied by theoretical advice from the lecturers. Both microteaching and actual teaching practice in the schools provide this necessary opportunity for 'critical practice'. Microteaching is basically a scaled-down teaching encounter in which the teacher teaches a group of about five pupils for a period of from five to twenty minutes. This approach to teacher training was developed at Stanford University from 1963 onwards.<sup>48</sup> The Stanford team first attempted to simulate teaching situations by having students 'teach' groups of their

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47. Ryle, G., The Concept of Mind. p. 41.

48. Cf. Morrison A. and McIntyre, D., op cit., p. 84.

peers; but, finding that the students tended to react negatively to this, they arranged for them to teach short lessons to small groups of school pupils, the goal being to provide experience of 'real teaching', but in simplified conditions. Thus, the most original idea was that of using these simplified conditions to help students practise specific skills of teaching, with both the student and his supervisor focusing their attention on any one occasion on the predefined skill. A further innovation was the use of videotape recordings so that students might directly observe their own teaching instead of having to depend on the reports of others. A standard procedure involves a programme of the following type :<sup>49</sup>

- (a) A particular skill is defined to student-teachers in terms of a pattern of teaching behaviour and the objectives which such behaviour is aimed at achieving; some attempt is made to justify the value of the objectives and the suggested efficacy of the skill.
- (b) Videotapes are shown of teachers using the skills in micro-teaching or in normal classroom teaching, together with a commentary drawing attention to specific instances of the teachers' use of the skill.
- (c) The student-teacher plans a short lesson in which he can use the skill and teaches it to one group of pupils.
- (d) A videotape of the lesson is replayed to the student, who observes and analyzes it with the help of a supervisor; the supervisor attempts to make reinforcing comments about instances of effective use of the skill and draws the student's attention to other situations which arose where the skill could have been exercised.
- (e) In the light of the videotape feedback and the supervisor's

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49. Ibid. pp. 85-87.

comments, the student replans the lesson in order to use the skill more effectively.

- (f) The revised lesson is retaught to a different but comparable group of pupils.
- (g) A videotape of the 'reteach' lesson is replayed and analyzed with the help of the supervisor.
- (h) The 'teach-reteach' cycle may be repeated.

The advantages claimed for microteaching as a training technique are that :<sup>50</sup>

- (a) it provides a learning-environment for student-teachers which is less complex than the normal school classroom and therefore one in which there is greater opportunity for the deliberate practice of teaching skills;
- (b) it provides a context in which the student-teacher's primary responsibility is to learn, not that of coping with the various needs and demands of his pupils;
- (c) it allows the student systematically to analyze his own teaching and to make his own evaluations of it;
- (d) it allows for repeated practice until a skill is mastered in one context before it is necessary to transfer the use of that skill to other contexts;
- (e) the systematic definition and practice of teaching skills allows links to be established between students' theoretical studies and their practice teaching.

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50. Ibid. pp. 87-89.

Morrison and McIntyre have the following significant observations to make about microteaching as a training technique.<sup>51</sup> First, there is the problem of assessing the effectiveness of microteaching which seems to be more difficult than it might at first appear. It is relatively easy to find out whether a student's use of a particular skill in the microteaching context improves with training, but the more important question is whether microteaching experience leads to improvement in a student's use of skills in a normal classroom context. The problem here is that, while one may be confident that a specified skill is of value in teaching, the decision as to whether or not it is appropriate to use that skill in the context of any particular lesson must generally be highly subjective. Thus the evidence that a teacher does not use any 'higher order' questions in an observed lesson need not imply that he is deficient in the skill of using such questions. In this regard, however, reference must be made to a study by W. Borg<sup>52</sup> who specified to teachers the sort of lesson which he would like them to teach before and after they attended a microteaching course, and again four months later. Borg's evidence shows dramatic changes in the desired directions in teachers' behaviour, changes which were largely sustained four months later, thus demonstrating that the course had enabled the teachers to 'turn on' the desired behaviours when they were wanted to do so. The question, of course, is whether their normal teaching behaviour changed to the same degree.

Secondly, the value of showing videotaped models is, according to Morrison and McIntyre, increased if they are accompanied by a commentary which directs students' attention to specific instances of the use of the skill. The provision of such 'cued perceptual modelling' is one of the most important factors contributing to the effectiveness of microteaching. However, the use of model videotapes of teaching sequences planned to illustrate the specific teaching behaviours involved in the skill needs to be supplemented with the use of model videotapes of 'real' classroom teaching.

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51. Ibid. pp. 89-91.

52. The details of the study are supplied by A. Morrison and D. McIntyre. op cit., pp. 91-92.

Thirdly, videotape feedback leads to significantly greater improvements in students' performance of a skill than are obtained when no such feedback is provided, whether or not supervisory feedback is also provided. The value of videotape feedback, however, depends on how well students have been prepared for practising a skill. Such preparation involves on the one hand the necessary justification of the skill's value in teaching which may imply considerable attention being given to the theoretical rationale for the skill and to evidence about the effects of its use. On the other hand, students require preparation in order to be able to identify and assess their own skill-relevant behaviours, which suggests that skills should be defined in terms of systematic observation categories which students are trained to use. One example of such a system is that devised by N.A. Flanders generally termed 'interaction analysis system'. Regarding supervisory feedback, there may be little general relationship between the presence or absence of supervisor and students' performance of skills in the microteaching context; however, the presence of a supervisor may be necessary for student morale. Among the tasks that tutors should perform are categorizing the student's teaching behaviour, reinforcing effective use of the skill, and suggesting further or alternative ways of using the skill in specific situations. Also, the pupils' assessments as feedback can be more reliable than those of supervisors and can also lead to greater change in teaching behaviour. However, to this end, pupils would need to be first involved in microteaching over a considerable period of time and actually be trained in the use of rating scales or other instruments.

Fourthly, Morrison and McIntyre conceded that in some situations it is difficult to arrange for any pupils for microteaching classes, and largely for this reason, the pupils' roles in some microteaching programmes are played by student-teachers. A case in point here are the microteaching programmes at the University of Transkei. The limitations of such simulated teaching situations are, as Morrison and McIntyre have correctly observed, that in some cases students' reactions tend to be unfavourable because of the perceived remoteness of the situation from that of classroom teaching. On the other hand,

potential advantages are that the ability of the class to give feedback on the basis of a full understanding of what the teacher is aiming to do, and the possibility of practising a wider range of skills through the deliberate introduction of, for example, disruptive 'pupil' behaviour of a type which pupils themselves may rarely be able to produce in the microteaching context. Morrison and McIntyre thus conclude that there does not appear to be any objective evidence regarding the relative effectiveness of microteaching with role-playing peers. In the light of the preceding evidence, it is, therefore, strongly advised that the Education Faculty at the University of Transkei should, in addition to adopting microteaching involving the use of simulated teaching situations with role-playing peers, consider the possibility of drawing pupils from the senior secondary schools close to the University. It is essential that the microteaching situation should be as far close as possible to the real classroom situation and the adoption of simulated teaching situations may, in the light of the preceding, amount to taking a great risk in terms of time which is extremely precious in the case of the one-year post-graduate course in particular. Numerous variables related mainly to differences in students' personalities may turn the whole exercise to a time-consuming, fruitless and unproductive undertaking.

Fifthly, there is, according to Morrison and McIntyre, little evidence regarding the appropriate number and length of microteaching lessons as well as the length of the interval between 'teach' and 'reteach' lessons. However, eight years following the making of this observation, McIntyre and Duthie investigated into 'Students' Reactions to Microteaching' and some of the results of their experiment showed that (i) student's preference tended generally to be for relatively long microteaching lessons, (ii) students for whom the interval between 'teach' and 'reteach' was one or two days thought the interval 'about right', and (iii) students preferred microteaching to be spread out over the whole semester.

The sixth point relates to the relation between microteaching and the other teacher education courses including the school teaching practice

programme. Once more reference must be made to the results of the experiment conducted by McIntyre and Duthie on 'Students' Reactions to Microteaching' :

*"The psychological theory discussed in lectures is intended to provide a rationale for the skill, which is then explicitly defined in a lecture leading into the microteaching practice. In addition to the verbal definition, one or more concrete 'models' of the skill are shown on videotape. Curriculum seminars in subject groups are intended to show the relevance of the skill to the teaching of a student's own subject ... The major weaknesses are in the inadequate establishment of the relations between the skills and the psychological theory, and in the lack of value which most students find in curriculum seminars; ... the majority of students suggested that the psychological theory should be dealt with more fully and ... less time should be given to curriculum seminars and more to relating psychological theory to skills."*<sup>53</sup>

In another experiment by Clive Millar on 'Changes in the Evaluative Behaviour of Student Teachers Resulting from Professional Education' the results were as follows :

- "(1) By the end of their first semester of professional education students show an increase in the amount of attention paid to cognitive, as opposed to affective, aspects of teacher behaviour;*
- (2) They pay more attention to teacher questioning;*
- (3) They show an increase in the amount of attention paid to cognitive, as opposed to affective, aspects of pupil behaviour;*

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53. Ibid. p. 92.

- (4) *They appear to pay more attention to all aspects of pupil behaviour;*
- (5) *They pay less attention to the teacher's personal qualities;*
- (6) *They increase the range of phases of teaching attended to."*<sup>54</sup>

Thus, Millar concludes that a combination of theoretical study and micro-teaching is effective in influencing professional behaviour of student-teachers. To this, McIntyre, McLeod and Griffiths add :

*"Perhaps the most fundamental idea of microteaching is that students should focus their attention upon specific aspects of teaching and should plan, practise and analyze these aspects of their teaching in terms of clearly conceptualized criteria ... One may contrast three approaches to the practice of teaching :*

- (i) *The traditional approach, in which there is no planned narrowing of focus, in which criteria are commonly neither explicitly theory-based nor even explicit, and in which evaluations are often not based on descriptions of the observed teaching.*
- (ii) *The skills approach, in which evaluations are based upon descriptions of teaching in predetermined terms, and in which both descriptive distinctions and the associated evaluative criteria are explicitly theory-based.*
- (iii) *The exploratory analytic approach, in which emphasis*

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54. Millar, C., 'Changes in the Evaluative Behaviour of Student Teachers Resulting from Professional Education'. McIntyre, D., G. McLeod, R. Griffiths, (Editors), Investigations into Micro-teaching. p. 106.

*is placed on the description of teaching in pre-determined theory-based terms, and in which any evaluations are tentative and based on reflection upon the observed teaching as described in these terms."*<sup>55</sup>

The above arguments for evaluative judgements of teaching being based on clear descriptions of the teaching in terms of theory-based criteria are not relevant only to the microteaching context, but equally apply to teaching in normal school classrooms. Further, it is particularly desirable that students who have learned to describe and evaluate their teaching according to various explicit criteria in the microteaching context should be helped and encouraged to use the same criteria, among others, in their school teaching practice. One possibility of relating microteaching to school teaching practice is the so-called 'shallow end' approach where students' first experience of teaching is in the more sheltered environment of microteaching, from which they move through an intermediate stage of group teaching practice to their first block teaching practice. This approach makes it possible for students' attention to be successively directed, at a theoretical and a practical level, towards different facets of classroom teaching, with the intention that school practice should provide the context for relating and synthesizing skills and strategies which have already been considered and practised in less demanding situations. A second, possibly complementary, way of using microteaching is to give students 'remedial' training in skills in which they or their supervisors have diagnosed them to be relatively weak in their practice teaching in schools.

Finally, Morrison and McIntyre correctly assert that :

*"A major problem in the design of microteaching programmes is in the selection of skills. One question is how narrowly to define each skill. It seems probable that skills defined in terms of only one or two behavioural criteria can be more*

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55. McIntyre, D., G. McLeod, R. Griffiths, (Editors), op cit., pp. 33-34.

*effectively mastered in microteaching; ... But the most important and most difficult question concerns the validity of the skills themselves: with how much confidence can one assert that each of the skills practised will lead to more effective teaching? ... Many skills which have been included in microteaching programmes can at best be labelled 'hypothetical skills', based as they are on a mixture of psychological theory, isolated research findings, and personal hunch.*"<sup>56</sup>

In the light of this assertion and a view also propounded by the team of researchers on microteaching at the University of Stirling, a question again arises as to whether microteaching experience leads to improvement in a student's use of skills in a normal classroom teaching context. J.S. Bruner deliberately chose to entitle his book 'Towards a Theory of Instruction'<sup>57</sup> most evidently in order to emphasize the main thesis of the book that theories of learning are by no means the same thing as theories of teaching. Using as his example educational psychology which, as it is claimed, provides the necessary theoretical basis for microteaching, Bruner contends :

*"It is reasonably plain to me as a psychologist that, however able psychologists may be, it is not their function to decide upon educational goals ... It is, if you will, the psychologists' lively sense of what is possible that can make them a powerful force."*<sup>58</sup>

According to Edith Cope, there can be no correlation between micro-teaching experience on one hand and actual classroom teaching on the other because microteaching :

*"... pays no attention to value systems, to social contexts, nor to the psychological interactions of student teachers*

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56. Morrison, A. and D. McIntyre, op cit., p. 91.

57. Cf. Bruner, J., Towards a Theory of Instruction. 1966.

58. Ibid. pp. 33-34.

*and children. Perhaps its subtlest and most dangerous assumption is the one that, out there, made tangible by the box diagram, is a fact called a teaching episode. Once a teaching episode is considered as a fact, then it should be a comparatively simple matter to devise an objective record of it. But teaching occurs in the social world of the classroom and the school, and the social world is a construct created and sustained by all its participant members: students, children, teachers and supervisors ... Supervision which concentrates on the teaching episode as an objective 'fact' may well become guilty of treating people as things ... 'Persons are distinguished from things in that persons experience the world, whereas things behave in the world' ...; 'all educational research is concerned with persons, and 'persons experience, things behave' ...; it (research) must utilize techniques which acknowledge people's humanity and the validity of the reality which they experience.'*<sup>59</sup>

In the preceding paragraphs the weaknesses and limitations of micro-teaching as an approach to the preparation and provision of teachers have been outlined. It must be pointed out, however, that these should not be conceived as constituting justification for abandoning and eliminating microteaching from the teacher education practical courses. In the absence of certain guide and formula to teacher education, there is need to utilize data from all sources and to try all available techniques and strategies. A more positive action, therefore, would be to modify and improve present microteaching provisions and practices in the light of the weaknesses and limitations outlined in the preceding paragraphs. The organization of practical teaching experiences overall during the course must take into account the complexities of the social context of the classroom and the school.

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59. Cope, E., 'Research into the Practical Elements of Teacher Training', Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE), How Long is a Piece of String? pp. 19-30.

#### 1.2.1.4 Teaching Practice

Most investigations of students' or teachers' attitudes to professional education programmes have shown that teaching practice and general methods courses are seen as the most valuable components of these programmes. The conclusions of Clark and Nisbet, based on the opinions of teachers two years after they left College, are typical :

*"These teachers tended to regard teacher training as essentially a matter of learning the techniques of teaching. Other aspects of the course, aimed to further their general education or to foster professional insight, were often regarded as a waste of time."*<sup>60</sup>

To Niven, the general method course is the 'microcosm of initial preparation of the graduate teacher'<sup>61</sup> while to Ryle, the significance of teaching practice lies in the fact that, as was pointed out earlier, 'we learn how by practice, schooled indeed by criticism and example, but often quite unaided by any lessons in the theory'.<sup>62</sup> The latter implies that formal explanations of the principles of teaching are likely to have far less effect on students than periods of critical practice accompanied by theoretical advice from the tutors and teachers in a practical context. Thus, informed and guided school experience is central to the development of the practical knowledge required in teaching, but both the judgement and style implicit in good teaching may be best acquired by students being in continuous contact with a competent performer. Tibble also concurs that :

*"Many students and ex-students, when asked to evaluate their course in a college or department of education, say that the most valuable part of it was the periods*

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60. Clark and Nisbet (1963) cited in A. Morrison and D. McIntyre, op cit., p. 71.

61. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 356.

62. Cf. Supra. p. 379.

*of practice in the schools.*"<sup>63</sup>

However, the importance which is attached to teaching practice and to methods courses should not be taken to imply satisfaction with these aspects of the teacher education curricula. When asked, respondents have been as critical of the content, procedures and arrangements of these aspects as they have been of others. In a recent British enquiry, Cope<sup>64</sup> polled student teachers, their supervisors and teachers in the schools about the positive and negative aspects of teaching practice. Students indicated that they derived most satisfaction from the opportunities of working with children, their membership of the school community, being able to apply ideas developed through theoretical study and sensing a growth in self-confidence and their commitment to the profession. They experienced frustration at the relative brevity of the practice and the need to accept the authority of others in the classroom, and felt anxiety about assessment of their skills. The supervisors or students' tutors valued the helping aspect of supervising students and the legitimate opportunity to work in schools, though they shared the students' reservations about brevity and lamented the inadequacy of supervisory time that was made available. Teachers in the schools welcomed the influx of new ideas and personalities in the schools but sometimes resented the disruption caused. Cope also found that students and teachers in the schools agreed in seeing the tutor (students' lecturer) as :

*"an unrealistic visitor into the school situation, whose liaison with teachers is less than adequate ...; lecturers are deluding themselves as to the extent of their success in reducing the effect of assessment pressures."*<sup>65</sup>

On the contrary, students acknowledged the fact that if their lecturers

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63. Tibble, J.W. 'Organization and Supervision of School Practice'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 100.

64. Cope (1971b) cited in A. Morrison and D. McIntyre, op cit., p. 67.

65. Ibid. pp. 67-68.

under-emphasized the effect of assessment on them (students), the teachers exaggerated it. A rejection of the students' lecturers and their work was further illustrated by Cope's interesting finding<sup>66</sup> that although 72 percent of teachers claimed to welcome the introduction of new methods by students, only 20 percent of them claimed to approve of the methods advocated by the students' lecturers. Morrison and McIntyre refer to a growing body of research evidence which supports the students' view that their lecturers as supervisors are largely irrelevant to what they learn from teaching practice.<sup>67</sup> In a further study, Cope<sup>68</sup> explored the advantages of a system of teaching practice in which all supervision was the responsibility of class teachers. She found great difficulties in establishing the fuller communication between the teacher training institution and the schools. Students reported that they found this system superior on several criteria, although less helpful in relating their experiences to their theoretical studies and in identifying their strengths and weaknesses.

Cope's studies, and others in recent years, suggest that school teaching practice, while in many ways satisfying to students and potentially valuable for a number of identifiable purposes, could be much more profitable if it were planned in greater detail, with more thought given to the various objectives sought and the particular kinds of experience likely to lead to their achievement. In addition to these studies, literature on teaching practice in general abounds with exhortations that teaching practice needs to be more properly planned and better organized. E.C. Wragg's criticisms of traditional block teaching practice are noteworthy :

*"Traditionally block practice begins with a preliminary visit or series of visits to the school ... The early days of the practice usually consist of observation by the student of the teachers and classes for whom he is shortly to be responsible. This can often be an arid experience for the trainee as he*

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66. Ibid. pp. 68-69.

67. Ibid. pp. 69-70.

68. Ibid. pp. 70-71.

*rapidly sizes up existing conditions and becomes eager to take over. Finally, usually operating on a reduced timetable, he teaches normally to all external appearances a permanent member of the staff until, often to the surprise of his classes, who may have come to accept him as their teacher rather than 'the student', he reaches the end of the requisite period and returns to college. Somewhere along the line he will have been visited by one or more supervisors, probably been observed by one or more teachers in the school, and been categorized as fit or unfit to enter the profession. Countless interactions will have occurred. Most of them will appear to have been forgotten, many will have been filed and labelled in the student's memory and may significantly affect his future actions, and some will have left indelible scars and be recounted and analyzed privately and publicly on numerous occasions.*

*"At its worst teaching practice can become a capsule of sensory experiences floating in a vacuum, divorced from the preparatory programme, and, except for supervisors' visits, having no connection with the training institution. Afterwards some memories persist, but from the other world of institution life there is no way back. It need not be this way."<sup>69</sup>*

Another problem area inherent in teaching practice is supervision of student teachers. Wragg<sup>70</sup> argues that the supervision of student teachers "is a craft which most supervisors, whether they be teachers or college tutors, have learned for themselves." In itself a complexity of skills, it has "tended to be untaught." It remains "idiosyncratic", and therein lies at once its strength and weakness for "under the blanket term 'supervision' must be included not only

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69. Wragg, E.C., op cit., p. 169.

70. Ibid. pp. 173-174.

extremes such as non-directive counselling and ferociously autocratic tyranny, but a host of more moderate variations." Wragg correctly argues that supervision is determined by a number of factors, but the two common phenomena, both based on comparisons by the evaluator of himself with the person being judged, are compensation and projection. Regarding the former, Wragg contends that it refers to :

*"the tendency in exercising critical judgement to require the person under scrutiny to manifest a much greater amount of a quality than the observer himself possesses. If, for example, the observer subconsciously senses that he himself is untidy, badly organized and ill prepared in his own teaching, he may compensate by insisting that the student should be neat, organized and well prepared for his lessons."*<sup>71</sup>

Projection occurs, according to Wragg, when :

*"the supervisor projects himself into the place of the student, imagining how he might be reacting in a similar situation. If his self-image tends to be an exaggerated picture of what he judges to be his virtues, this sort of comparison can often be an unfair one. It is too easy to imagine oneself to be dynamic, good-humoured, tolerant, witty, sensitive, firm if necessary (but always in the kindest possible way), and repress memories of one's own sloth, intolerance, sarcasm, moodiness and insensitivity. Projection sometimes leads the supervisor to take over the lesson and test the fantasy, though there may be other reasons when this occurs."*<sup>72</sup>

Since counselling usually involves judgement, and judgement is influenced by many factors, such as those described above, awareness of the frailty of human perception is an important quality for supervisors

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71. Ibid. pp. 169-171.

72. Ibid. pp. 171-173.

to possess. Given the fragility of perception and the absence of any consensus about the qualities of good teaching, the supervisor must nevertheless act in some positive way, even if only to respond to the student's expectations. The student's wish is to improve his teaching. He sees the supervisor as more than a mere mirror. Depending on his own and the supervisor's personality and needs, he may see him as a director, a counsellor, a friend, a penetrating critic, a moulder, an enemy, a saboteur, an assessor, a government agent, a teacher, or even as a surgeon whose task it is to excise what is bad and repair what is broken. In the face of most of these expectations a confession of apparent total uncertainty and vagueness by the supervisor can be seen as unhelpful and lead to considerable frustration. This is not to say that certainty and precision are necessarily better. The problem is rather how to offer help and advise within the framework of limitations delineated above. In the face of such uncertainties many supervisors opt on occasion for total non-directiveness, which in itself can cause massive anxiety.

The role of supervisor and assessor are usually combined, it being argued that those who have witnessed the student in the classroom and counselled him are in the best position to measure the quality of his teaching. There is a case for a non-assessing supervisor, that is a person of experience whose sole task is to counsel, assessment being made by others. It is not likely, however, that students would prefer it this way. A purely counselling supervisor could become a trusted friend, and not to solicit his comments on the student's capabilities might even do the student a disservice. Yet to solicit them would be to make him an assessor. Herein lies the second problem in respect of supervision of student teachers on teaching practice: while the lecturer is only able to visit each of his students at the most about twice a week, with a good half of his time being spent in travel from school to school or in other duties at the teacher training institution, the person the student is in daily contact with in an apprenticeship situation is the class or subject teacher in the school and yet the lecturer retains the assessment function inasmuch as his judgement, in addition to that of the class or subject teacher, quite often tends to

be the most decisive. It is highly probable that it is for this reason that students regard their tutors as 'unrealistic visitor(s) into the school situation'<sup>73</sup> The source of the problem is to be found in the historic development of teacher education over many decades.

Reference has repeatedly been made to the features of the middle nineteenth century system of apprenticeship training. The whole concept of teaching practice which Stones and Morris describe as being 'anachronistic'<sup>74</sup> represents a legacy of the middle nineteenth century craft apprenticeship. In the middle nineteenth century, pupil-teachers were attached to master-teachers and continued their own education while gradually picking up, by imitation and practice, the skills involved in organizing and giving lessons to groups of children. Thus, the pupil-teacher movement had at its core the initiation of the apprentice into the mysteries of the craft by processes of telling, demonstrating and imitating. The master teacher told the students what to do, showed them how to do it and the students imitated the master. This process depended for its success on certain prior conditions: the existence of an established body of subject matter, rules of thumb to be transmitted and the acceptance of the authority of the master by the student. The early teacher training institutions took over this apprenticeship training from the schools and adapted it. The professional training in class and school management and methods of teaching was the province of a Master (or Mistress) of Method. He was usually in charge of a school, called a 'demonstration' or 'practice' school, attached to the teacher training institution and the practical training of the students took place largely in that school. The students observed model lessons and gave 'criticism' lessons in the presence of staff and other students. It was in essence an apprenticeship system with the Master of Method and other teachers in the 'practice' school as the master-craftsmen. This system persisted in essence well into the twentieth century. After the Second World War and as a result of knowledge explosion, the bases for the continued existence of the system has been

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73. Cf. *Supra*. p.

74. Stones, E. and S. Morris, *op cit.*, p. 7.

steadily undermined. The traditional teaching skills and techniques have been challenged as being inadequate for the new curricula. The term 'Master of Method' has gradually disappeared and has been replaced by lecturer in education. The insistence by education lecturers on the exercise of critical faculties as one of the goals of education has been taken to heart by the students and their willingness to submit to a master teacher's authority and to follow his techniques has been weakened. The recognition that the terms 'education' and 'training' denote differences in aims, content and procedures has led to the change in titles from 'teacher training' to 'teacher education' and from 'training colleges' to 'colleges of education'. Herein lies the dilemma for the change of name from 'training' to 'education' implies that teaching practice should as well be transmuted from mere 'craft apprenticeship' into a more rigorous theory-based activity. At the same time teaching practice, being the closest approximation to the real classroom situation for which students are prepared, must seek to equip them through training with the practical skills and techniques so that as teachers they should also possess the necessary technical competence for, as was pointed out earlier, teaching, as much as any other art, has its own techniques and the process of acquiring those techniques is training. In teaching practice, therefore, the acquisition of skills must be by such a person who fully understands their theoretical justification and who is capable of engaging in a serious critical reflection necessary for their appropriate selection and use in the classroom.

The changes outlined in the preceding paragraph were not, however, accompanied by a fundamental re-thinking about how best to achieve the above objective and thus help students to acquire the necessary skills in a meaningful way in these changed conditions. With Stones and Morris it may well be agreed that the concept 'teaching practice' as it is today "is now inappropriate and in need of reconsideration."<sup>75</sup> The lecturer is no longer the mastercraftsman alongside whom the students work sharing the daily traffic of the classroom, observing each other, dealing with the same children. However much help the student in fact gets from the class or subject teacher in the school

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75. Ibid. p. 7.

(and this varies enormously), it is important to note that the teacher is not officially responsible for the student: at the best it is a divided responsibility, at the worst the teacher may withhold help for fear of interfering or may feel resentment that someone so fleeting and remote as the lecturer from the teacher training institution should be thought better able to help than the person on the spot and responsible for the children in question. Commenting on this unstable relationship between the staff of the school on one hand and that of the teacher training institution on the other, Tibble has this to say :

*"Despite good (in most cases) personal relationships ... one does often feel that the relationship is based, as someone once said of the marriage relationship, 'on a mutual misunderstanding'. It is not uncommon for young teachers, joining a school staff, to hear a comment from someone that now they can forget all the cloudy theorizing they learned at college (or university) and get down to brass tacks. This is often linked with the belief that most college (or university) lecturers have had no relevant teaching experience."*<sup>76</sup>

Such a fragile relationship based as it were 'on a mutual misunderstanding' cannot provide the conditions necessary for giving the students the most effective support and assistance in the acquiring of practical skills. This situation is aggravated, according to Tibble, by the combination in one person who serves as a 'non-participant observer of what is going on in the classroom' of two significant roles namely, that of a supervisor and that of an assessor :

*"This is not only because two visits a week in the role mostly of a non-participant observer of what is going on in the classroom are a quite inadequate basis for an apprenticeship relationship. It is also because the tutor has another role, in fact, of which the student cannot but*

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76. Tibble, J.W. 'The Organization and Supervision of School Practice'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 102.

*be aware; it is that of an assessor or inspector. Now it is notoriously difficult, for psychological reasons, to operate simultaneously the assessing role and the helping role - they tend to contradict each other. Tutors when taxed with this reply by playing down the assessing role, saying they only do this at the end of a practice, or perhaps that their relationship with the student is so good that the assessing does not get in the way of the helping. This may be so in the case of a competent student who knows he is good; it can hardly be so for the majority of students."*<sup>77</sup>

It can thus be agreed with Stones and Morris in conclusion that :

*"Although the practical component in teacher education is considered of key importance, it is attracting an increased amount of criticism in its present form. It has been considered largely ceremonial in its functions; its behavioural objectives, it is alleged, are seldom identified, and evaluation is suspect ... (It is) 'entangled in a mass of confusion, unmade decisions, and experiences ... without a comprehensive definition and clear-cut statement of goals and purposes ...' "*<sup>78</sup>

In the light of the preceding considerations and criticisms, some progress can now be made in describing critically the teaching practice arrangements, procedures and practices at the University of Transkei. Here, teaching practice forms an integral part and a key component of the pre-service teacher education curricula and courses. The pattern adopted and followed in respect of teaching practice arrangements, procedures and practices is by and large the same as that followed in many neighbouring South African universities and abroad and, thus, is seriously beset with all the defects outlined in the preceding para-

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77. Ibid. p. 103.

78. Stones, E., and S. Morris. op cit., pp. 6-7.

graphs. The Education Faculty decided on a maximum period of seven weeks of teaching practice in order to meet the requirements laid down by the Committee of Educational Heads in the Republic of South Africa; this, in the view of the Faculty, is intended not to prejudice teachers trained at the University of Transkei in obtaining teaching posts in the Republic of South Africa. It might well be argued that this feature represents one of the many manifestations of the socio-economic and political pressures underlying the relationship that exists between the Republic of Transkei and the Republic of South Africa. The arrangement, as it were, caters for the Transkeian citizens resident and working in the Republic of South Africa as well as for the South African citizens who work in the Republic of Transkei. The period of teaching practice is divided into two main sessions namely, three weeks of block teaching in the first semester and another three weeks in the second semester, and in order to make up for the seventh week students undertake concentrated microteaching sessions in addition to the normal microteaching sessions reflected on the Faculty time-table and scheduled for the whole academic year. Future plans are that this seventh week of teaching practice will be undertaken by the students in their home schools under the supervision of school teachers who will then submit to the University evaluation reports on the performance of the students as teachers.

The first session of teaching practice is a carefully controlled period of guidance, support and advice, and the assessment that accompanies the exercise is on a very limited scale and geared towards enabling and assisting the student to discover and fully understand his strengths and weaknesses. During the second teaching practice session in the second semester greater emphasis is put on the assessment of the student's performance in classroom teaching, but guidance, support and advice continue to be accorded attention. The value attached to teaching practice by the Faculty of Education is signified by the existence of a special committee, the Teaching Practice Committee which plans and organizes all teaching practice activities and also liaise with the relevant University faculties and bodies as well as with the schools. The Bureau of Educational Research also makes a valuable

contribution by continually undertaking to evaluate every teaching practice session and then submit its recommendations for improvement to the Faculty. The relations with the schools have continued to be lukewarm despite the Faculty's repeated attempts to improve them and encourage the support of the headmasters and the subject teachers. For example, a meeting of the staff of the Education Faculty and the headmasters of the nine senior secondary schools currently used for teaching practice was attended by only three headmasters on Tuesday 6, March 1984.<sup>79</sup> The following expectations of the Faculty regarding teaching practice were outlined, elaborated and agreed upon, and it is evidently clear from their nature that they represent yet another desperate attempt by the Faculty to develop cordial relations with the schools and to solicit their co-operation and support :

- "(a) *Headmasters and Heads of Departments (subject heads in the schools) to formally meet Unitra (University of Transkei) students and generally discuss school policies and procedures. It should be emphasized that the Unitra students are subject to the needs of the school. Students are to be acquainted with the physical premises of the school e.g. library, classroom, etc.*
- (b) *Unitra students should be placed under the direct supervision of the respective Heads of Departments who would allocate their duties and introduce them to the teachers concerned.*
- (c) *Unitra students should then observe teachers for two to three days for practical purposes.*
- (d) *Unitra students should then teach, according to their teachers' request and scheme of work, with teacher or Head of Department supervision. Therefore, teachers*

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79. Cf. Minutes of First Meeting with School Principals to Discuss Teaching Practice, March 6, 1984.

would know what work was covered, and Unitra students would gain advice from the teachers or Heads of Departments.

- (e) Teachers should also acquaint students with administrative aspects like marking of attendance registers and drawing of record books, etc.
- (f) Unitra students should also teach while other Unitra students, including school teachers, observe. This is to encourage Unitra student interaction.
- (g) Unitra students should also participate extra-murally. This is extremely important since they are future full-time teachers.
- (h) Unitra students would be observed no less than three times each by the Faculty staff. The supervising teacher or Head of Department could join this observation.
- (i) Heads of Departments, in conjunction with teachers, should compile a report on the Unitra students' performance and pass it on to the Headmaster. The Headmaster would then post it to the Faculty of Education.
- (j) Unitra students will be expected to conform to the structure of the schools in which they do teaching practice.
- (k) Unitra students will be expected to keep a file of their activities whilst at the schools. Headmasters could once in a while check the file as they find fit."<sup>80</sup>

A series of conclusions can be drawn from the preceding. The expectations represent in essence a detailed description of the procedures, activities and practices of the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei in respect of teaching practice. These procedures and practices are the same as those which are currently the subject of criticism and reprobation. Some of the most critical features relate to inadequate conditions for an apprenticeship relationship. This particularly relates to the necessary effective support and assistance to students by their University lecturers. Further, the solicited support and guidance to students from the subject teachers and Heads of Departments cannot be guaranteed. Assessment procedures are inadequate and instruments unreliable especially when such assessment is carried out simultaneously with supervision and guidance, and by a person who is not in daily contact with the student in an apprenticeship situation. There is also an unstable relationship between the Faculty of Education and the schools. Regarding the latter, the expectations of the schools concerning teaching practice as enunciated by the representative of the headmasters at the aforementioned meeting bear full proof :

*"(a) Unitra students were ill-equipped with factual content.*

*(b) Unitra students could not plan lessons well.*

*(c) Unitra students ... lacked motivation, dedication, enthusiasm and seriousness ... Often, perhaps in most cases, teachers had to reteach what had been taught by Unitra students."<sup>81</sup>*

This was obviously more of an expression of resentment and vindictiveness than of a sincere and objective consideration of how best the schools could help in promoting the ends of teaching practice mainly by assisting the students and helping them acquire the necessary professional competence. What seems necessary in this case is a

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81. Ibid. p. 4.

generation of a professional 'us' situation rather than the evident situation of 'we' and 'they' on both sides inasmuch as carping criticism undermines and ultimately destroys.

There is yet another case for the reappraisal of the purpose and form of teaching practice as it is currently conducted at the University of Transkei. Its organization and procedures make it, in the words of Wragg :

*"... a capsule of sensory experiences floating in a vacuum, divorced from the preparatory programme, and, except for supervisors' visit, having no connection with the training institution."*<sup>82</sup>

The source of the divorce between the theoretical elements of teacher education courses on one hand and the practical elements including teaching practice is also to be found in the historical development of the whole field of teacher preparation and provision. It was M.V.C. Jeffreys who aptly summarized the whole attitude to teacher education which has been responsible for the hiatus between the theoretical and practical elements of teacher education courses :

*"We think it is more important in training teachers, to produce well-educated people than to produce technically competent practitioners."*<sup>83</sup>

The disdain that drips from the last three words is at the root of the problem of providing meaningful practical experience for the student teachers. The statement by Jeffreys must in this context be dismissed in favour of the assertion by Wragg that :

*"Indeed training programmes for many jobs have an 'application course' element to them, this being the*

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82. Wragg, E.C., op cit., p. 169.

83. Jeffreys, M.V.C. Cited in A. Stones and S. Morris, op cit., p. 5.

*time when what has been learned must be applied in conditions as similar to the real ones as possible. The question in other kinds of training programme is whether the novice should do the job day by day and be released say once a week and occasionally for longer periods to study it, or whether he should spend his time learning away from the job, and have regular short or long periods of exposure to work inserted in between study phases. In teacher training both options are available."*<sup>84</sup>

The common approach, and one which is adopted in Transkei, is the second of the above two approaches described by Wragg namely, the approach whereby the student teacher spends his time learning in a teacher training institution and is accorded regular periods of exposure to the job situation inserted in between study phases. However, the problem is that the courses of study which are intended to give the student a basic theoretical background to practical teaching are either taught as academic disciplines or merely take the form of a series of practical hints and suggestions which lack unifying concepts and, therefore, fail to provide the necessary theoretical insights to practical teaching. It has been repeatedly pointed out that there is need to draw out the conceptual and practical relationships between educational theory, curriculum studies (or school subject methods) and practice for, to repeat the words of Renshaw :

*"The development of (practical) skills, acquired through training, must be informed by theoretical knowledge ..., otherwise a student is unlikely to build up the authority, autonomy and breadth of understanding which are so fundamental to the making of responsible professional judgements. Professional study is not limited to the development of technical competence in a narrow, specific task, for the partnership between theoretical and practical knowledge is central to the idea of initiating students into a*

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84. Wragg, E.C., op cit., p. 174.

*a profession rather than training them for a trade."*<sup>85</sup>

Once more, the need for an integrative approach to teacher education in which there would be joint planning of course objectives and outlines as well as some form of team-teaching strongly recommends itself. In this way, strong lines of communication amongst the theoretical courses, curriculum studies and practical courses including teaching practice would be established. Teaching practice, in particular, would need to be accompanied by concentrated and rigorous theoretical advice to the students. An integrative approach would thus make possible the necessary joint conceptualization and development of a wide range of approved teaching models. Stones and Morris distinguish between an attempt by the student on teaching practice to 'model the master teacher' on one hand and an attempt to 'master the teaching model' on the other. The first is linked to the craft apprenticeship whereby teaching practice is viewed as a process of initiation in which the master teacher's teaching skills, performance, personality and attitudes are acquired by the student through observation, imitation and practice. The arguments against this approach are that a master teacher, however versatile, can offer a student only a limited set of skills, attitudes and personality traits. The selection of skills and techniques is the master teacher's, reflecting the master teacher's values, experiences and personality. The student's values, experiences and personality will at least be marginally, and at most radically different from those of the master teacher. In its extreme form the approach denies the individuality of the student. In a moderate form it encourages the student to copy isolated bits of teaching behaviour, of attitudes and of relationships as being effective, but their effectiveness may well hinge on their being a part of a total teaching behaviour; when fragmented and adopted by another, they may be ineffective or even harmful. Further, to say a student must adopt another person's teaching style is to say he must change his personality and the majority cannot. Finally, since there are no universally accepted criteria to help identify master teachers, the approach operates against experimentation

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85. Renshaw, P., 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 57.

and innovation and promotes through the process of imitation conservatism and traditionalism.

The 'master the teaching model' approach implies that students should base their practical experience and teaching practice activities on mastering teaching models. Tutors and students together develop the models out of their discussions of the theories of teaching and learning. Stolurow defines a model as :

*"... a commitment to a position and can be tested if properly formulated. It is not a loosely assembled, unarticulated set of statements that some theorists can point at with pride in their eclecticism."*<sup>86</sup> . 26

Stones and Morris suggest the following steps that are generally followed when developing a teaching model :

*"... first, a theoretical analysis of teaching behaviour which takes into account the objectives of the teaching, the beginning knowledge and skills of the pupils, the processes by which the objectives are to be achieved, the variables likely to interact with these processes, the learning outcomes and feedback to the teacher; second, the building of a conceptual model which will make clear the relationship of these elements; third, the conversion of the model into lesson plans, or a series of plans by the incorporation of specific content and procedures; and fourth, the evaluation of the model in operation for its validity to describe and to predict processes and outcomes."*<sup>87</sup>

The main advantage of the 'master the teaching model' approach is that it makes possible the necessary integration of theory and practice and further offers practical, usable help to all students irrespective of

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86. Cf. Stolurow, L.M. Cited in E. Stones and S. Morris, op cit., p. 11.

87. Stones, E. and S. Morris, op cit., p. 10.

the student who is expected to accept increasing responsibility for self-improvement. Unfortunately, the approach was prematurely abandoned in Transkei even before the instrument had been put to its full use; self-appraisal by the students using the instrument had not yet taken off in a meaningful way. In recommending the Appraisal Guide for Britain, Stones and Morris have this to say :

*"... an instrument similar to the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide would reduce the subjective element in evaluation and prove helpful to the students' self-evaluation. Used ... by tutors, the student teacher himself, pupils, and student peers, the objectives and criteria would be made fully explicit and the process of evaluation would be less personal so that the student being evaluated would be more likely to take a dispassionate view of the process and even make his own contribution to the evaluation."*<sup>89</sup>

The abandoned Appraisal Guide at the University of Transkei has been substituted with a rating five point scale. Stones and Morris make a point that the commonly used rating scales have been subjected to criticism and that current developments are towards the use of a teaching profile. In the light of the preceding, it would obviously appear that the Education Faculty at the University of Transkei would have to reconsider its recent decision to abandon the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide which can be used with better results when modified and adapted.

An important question in the discussion of any type of assessment is whether the approach adopted is impressionistic or analytic. In Transkei a combination of impressionistic and analytic methods are used and assessment is based on the student's performance in at least three lessons. Impressionistic assessment can be effective especially when

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89. Ibid. p. 133.

- (ii) through orthodox block teaching practice which represents a watershed of the application of teaching principles gained from the theoretical studies in education and from curriculum studies as well as practical teaching experiences acquired through the above three approaches and through the minicourse programme described below.
- (c) The Minicourse programme: Closely related to and yet different from the simulation work through microteaching described above is the minicourse programme. The minicourse model provides a self-instructional package and requires a videotape recording system. The minicourse provides feedback through self-evaluation. The approach relies heavily upon illustrations by model teachers rather than supervisory feedback to provide the student with an operational definition of the behaviour patterns or skills to be learned. Minicourses focus on specific skills rather than generalities.

A subject which has been attracting increasing attention in recent years relates to the assessment of teaching practice. The areas of great concern in this regard are the suitability of the form of assessment, the validity of evidence used in assessment such as the impressionistic or analytic approach, the degree of involvement of external assessors or examiners, the validity and reliability of criteria used in assessment and the nature and degree of feedback to students.

In respect of the form of assessment and criteria, the Faculty of Education at the University of Transkei has been using, until very recently, the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide<sup>88</sup> which is an American approach to the problem of the standardization of criteria. The Appraisal Guide defines the major teacher competencies which the programme of secondary teacher education at Stanford University aims to develop. The Appraisal Guide also makes possible self-appraisal by

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88. Also reprinted in E. Stones and S. Morris. op cit., pp. 251-256.

several judges are involved in assessing the same piece of behaviour. In Transkei, however, the members of staff of the Education Faculty rarely organize themselves into small teams so that a team of at least two or three tutors assess at the same time the same piece of teaching behaviour in an attempt to get standardization of assessment. It is desirable that in some cases individual staff members should act as moderators. Regular formal assessment meetings of all members of staff involved in the assessment of students' performance should of necessity be held. This is not yet a feature of the teaching practice at the University of Transkei. There is also a good case for the involvement of external examiners in the assessment of teaching practice.

Finally, a recommendable feature of teaching practice at the University of Transkei is the fact that the students are not only informed of the criteria that are used by their tutors in assessing their teaching behaviours but also have the assessment of individual lessons communicated to and discussed with them by their tutors on the scene of assessment. The only defect in this regard is that the student is only able to know the results of assessment in general terms and not as a precise mark. Conversely, a lesson for which one gives, say, 67 percent cannot be distinguished in any objectively measurable terms from one which is given, say, 66 percent, or 68 percent or 69 percent or 70 percent.

It must be pointed out in conclusion that the preceding detailed analysis of the battery of courses and their interrelationships by and large applies to all pre-service teacher education curricula and courses in Transkei and will thus not be repeated.

#### 1.2.2 The One-Year Non-Graduate Course : The Higher Diploma in Education (Non-Graduate)

The provision that obtains in many universities for the admission into the one-year professional course of students who have almost completed studies for the award of a degree equally applies at the University of Transkei. The courses of study for the non-graduate diploma are in effect similar to those provided for the graduate diploma, and the non-

graduate diploma is converted to graduate status upon the student's completion of the degree requirements. Thus, the remarks pertaining to the graduate diploma apply also to this group of courses.

This arrangement, however, must be adopted with great caution for some organizational problems occur when, as at the University of Transkei, some concessions are made allowing the students concerned to study concurrently both the diploma courses and the outstanding courses necessary to complete the degree. Common problems relate to the drawing of the time-table and organization of teaching practice. However, since all the faculties concerned, with the exception of the Faculty of Science, at the University of Transkei duplicate lectures by offering day and evening lectures, the problems referred to above are not as great as they would otherwise be. The problems as encountered so far by the Faculty of Science are due mainly to the fact that the students in that Faculty are required to undertake long sessions of practical work. Repeated negotiations with the Faculty of Science with a view to working out a compromise solution have not been fruitful. On March 29, 1984, the Dean of the Faculty of Science wrote as follows in reply to a memorandum from the Faculty of Education on the subject :

*"We appreciate that your students have to put in 7 weeks practice time and we have had correspondence on this in the past ...*

*"Both the departments of Botany and Zoology have high numbers of second year students and already duplication is undertaken without the additional staff necessary ...*

*"Although I offer no solution to your student problem in having such teaching requirements, but if a B.Sc. student was away for effectively 7 weeks, ... I just would not expect that student to pass (35 lectures and 7 practicals minimum, 14 practicals maximum per subject).*

*"It is with regret that I am unable to accommodate your*

*request for such an extended 7 week period of absence."*<sup>90</sup>

It must be conceded that the regulations of the Science Faculty should be as binding as those of the Education Faculty. It would therefore appear that, in the interest of the students, the Faculty of Education should decree that under the prevailing conditions no student will in future be allowed to register for and study the non-graduate diploma courses concurrently with the degree courses offered in the Faculty of Science. In that case, it would be comfortably left to the discretion of the student to decide for himself whether he would prefer to meet the degree requirements as laid down by the Faculty of Science first before he could register for the one-year post-graduate professional course or to register for, study and complete the non-graduate diploma course in the hope that at some other future time he would then find opportunity to complete his degree studies and have the non-graduate diploma converted to graduate status.

### 1.2.3 The Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (SSTD) Course

The Secondary Teachers' Diploma course owes its existence to the Post-War expansion of secondary education and the concomitant acute shortage of professionally qualified graduate teachers. At the time when the teacher training colleges concentrated on the preparation and provision of teachers for the primary schools, the universities introduced the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course in order to meet the problem of teacher shortage in the secondary schools. The entrance requirement into the course has continued to be Senior Certificate or School Leaving Certificate and, as a result, the course provides for the majority of students who do not have full matriculation exemption and thus cannot be admitted into degree courses. However, when a student eventually satisfies the normal matriculation entrance requirements for admission to a degree course, he obtains credit for the degree courses completed towards the Secondary Teachers' Diploma, and if the requirements for

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90. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Letter from the Dean, Faculty of Science Addressed to Chairman, Teaching Practice Committee Dated March 29, 1984.

a degree are not all satisfied, a Non-Graduate Diploma in Education may in certain circumstances be awarded and further be converted to the post-graduate Higher Diploma in Education when all the requirements for a degree are eventually satisfied. Generally, the student selects and studies over a period of two years a specified number of academic subjects outside the Department or Faculty of Education and then spends the whole of the third year in the Department or Faculty of Education. Thus, the course is of three years' duration. The courses of study in the Department or Faculty of Education are similar to those provided for the graduate diploma course and, thus, the remarks pertaining to the graduate diploma apply also to this group of courses. It must, however, be regretted that in Transkei for the Secondary Teachers' Diploma the courses do not take into account the level of entry.

The diploma course as offered at the University of Transkei displays a number of administrative and organizational features which are peculiar. The first relates to nomenclature for the course. Previously known by its original name, the nomenclature for the course was changed to Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma in 1982 in order to distinguish it from the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course which had just been introduced in the Teacher Training Colleges to replace the old Junior Secondary Teachers' Course. The second relates to entrance requirements for admission into the course. When the entrance requirements for admission into all Teacher Training College courses were raised to Senior Certificate or School Leaving Certificate in 1981, the University was inundated with students who otherwise could have sought admission into the Colleges, but instead preferred to apply for admission into the Secondary Teachers' Course offered at the University obviously because of the high status and esteem traditionally attached to and associated with a university qualification. The majority of these students could not cope well with the high academic and professional standards prescribed by the University, and the result was a high failure rate in the course in that year. Table R on Page 415 illustrates this phenomenon :

Table R  
Pass and Failure Rate in the First Year of Study  
of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma, 1981-1983

Year	Number of Candidates	Number of Passes	Percentage	Number of Failures	Percentage
1981	87	29	33,3	58	66,7
1982	33	19	57,6	14	42,4
1983	54	31	57,4	23	42,6

Source: University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Examination Results Records, 1981-1983.<sup>91</sup>

Besides the noticeable very high failure rate in 1981, the table also reveals great disparity between the total number of candidates, namely 87, who sat for the examinations in 1981 (excluding the considerable number of students who had dropped out in the course of the year) and almost a mere third of that number, namely 33, in 1982. This phenomenon can be attributed to the modification of the entrance requirements for admission into the course in 1982, a measure that was expressly designed in order to deal with the problem which had been experienced in 1981. The revised entrance requirements still remain in operation and in this regard the Faculty Regulation E28 stipulates as follows :

*"The entrance qualifications for the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma shall be :*

*E28.1 A Senior Certificate with at least an E aggregate*

*E28.2 An E pass in English on at least the Second Language, Higher Grade*

*E28.3 At least a D symbol (SG) or E symbol (HG) in each of*

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91. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Examination Results Records, 1981-1983.

*the two subjects to be taken as teaching majors*  
 E28.4 *Merit selection of students will be done by a*  
*Committee of the Faculty of Education."*<sup>92</sup>

Despite the noticeable improvement in the pass rate as a result of the introduction of the above measures, the value of the course, given the very low current annual output on one hand and the introduction of degree courses in the Teacher Training Colleges on the other, remains only that it provides opportunity for easy progression of students into degree studies at the University. In order to avoid duplication which is fast becoming obvious, the Taylor Commission had recommended that this course would eventually have to be the sole responsibility of and form part of the teacher education programmes offered in the Teacher Training Colleges.<sup>93</sup> It would appear that the consideration of this recommendation is now overdue for the entrance requirements for admission into the course not only make a mockery of it but will continue to hamper the necessary growth in student numbers and annual output of teachers.

Lastly, another point of departure from the traditional pattern relates to the curriculum or programme structure which is integrated in the sense that academic and professional courses run concurrently in each year of study. In the first year, students study two academic subjects in addition to Communication Skills, Principles of Teaching, and one practical subject selected from amongst the following: Music or School Librarianship. The second year of study comprises one first year and one second year academic subjects together with curriculum studies, Educational Psychology, Educational Technology, and Teaching Practice including Microteaching. In the third year, students take one first year and one second year academic subjects as well as curriculum studies, Educational Administration, Educational Philosophy and Development, and Teaching Practice including Microteaching. The implementation of this

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92. University of Transkei, Prospectus. 1984. Regulations for the Faculty of Education. The Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (SSTD). E28. p. 183.

93. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei. 1979. Figure 3. p. 134.

complex structure is made possible by the duplication of lectures in the relevant faculties but, as in the case of the non-graduate diploma as previously indicated, teaching practice presents insurmountable problems for students taking academic courses in the Faculty of Science. If the diploma as a whole including its integrated structure are still to be retained, it is advisable that integration should at least be restricted to the second year of study and the third year should be reserved for and devoted to such practical professional subjects like teaching practice, Educational Technology, Microteaching and School Librarianship or Music. Such an arrangement would enable the students to satisfy the requirements for the diploma in respect of the academic subjects in their second year of study and with little interruption since teaching practice in particular would be phased in and undertaken in the third year of study. A similar pattern has already been proposed by the Faculty of Education in respect of the integrated or concurrent degree in education and, thus, as will be pointed out, the implications of the structure of the concurrent degree in education are far-reaching in respect of the continued retention of the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma.

There is a case for the retention of the integrated structure which was introduced in 1982 and for three years the course has continued to be offered along the traditional lines. Some of the findings of a special Faculty Committee that was appointed at the end of 1981 to investigate possible causes of high failure rate in the Secondary Teachers' Diploma included the following: For many students the course was a gate-way into the University and an avenue and a stepping-stone to other opportunities that the University could offer other than teaching. Consequently, many were registered in the Faculty of Education in their first year of study but very few turned up for the professional courses in the Faculty in the third year because many of them converted their registration and switched over to degree studies once entrance into the University had been attained and the normal entrance requirements for admission to degree studies had been satisfied. Thus, the Faculty of Education admitted and registered many students each year but in turn lost the majority of them in the 'wilderness' each year. It was thus necessary for the Faculty to devise some means of keeping a constant

check on and monitoring the progress of its students taking academic courses in the other faculties. The concurrent programme could provide that means. Again the students had no sense of belonging and did not readily identify themselves as 'education' students until the third year of study. This postponement of their professional identification had a direct impact on their professionalization which involved a modification of attitudes over a considerable period. To add to this, reference must be made to the argument advanced earlier in this study that amongst the effects which one might hope to find resulting from teacher education courses are increased academic and professional knowledge, improved teaching ability and modification of attitudes towards children, teaching and education. Regarding the latter, Morrison and McIntyre found from a review of studies on the subject that :

*"The attitudes of individuals tend to change in the direction of those held by the majority in groups of which they are members, and also towards the attitudes held by groups to whose membership they aspire ...; the students formulated their attitudes in their first two years in the college within the frame of reference provided by the college, particularly its staff ..."*<sup>94</sup>

Although the foregoing considerations were sufficient to justify the introduction of the concurrent pattern, it would, however, appear that the move could have been accompanied by a modification of the course content since some of the 'education' courses which had previously been taken by students in their third year of study were now to be taken under the new approach in the first year of study. In terms of their structure and content, the courses for the concurrent Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma are similar to those provided for the one-year graduate diploma course. Consequently, the courses are heavily weighted in terms of content and, thus, do not provide for the necessary smooth transition from school to university. Niven made this point when he commented on

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94. Morrison, A. and D. McIntyre, op cit., p. 77.

the proposed 'education' syllabuses in a new integrated degree to be launched at the University of Transkei by the Faculty of Education in 1985 :

*"My concern is to endeavour to try to make the transition from school to university as meaningful as possible without the pressure which might result in the student continuing as a 'regurgitator' instead of developing maturity as a thinker."*<sup>95</sup>

It can thus be concluded that the necessary revision and modification of course structures and content was an important omission on the part of the Faculty when it introduced the concurrent Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma course.

#### 1.2.4 The Integrated Concurrent Degree Course

The general dissatisfaction with the one-year post-graduate course has been explored and the concept of the integrated concurrent degree in education has been proposed as the possible solution to the weaknesses of the one-year post-graduate course. The integrated concurrent degree is already in operation in many universities in Southern Africa and abroad. The course is due to be launched at the University of Transkei in 1985. To this end the course structure and syllabuses have been drafted and are currently undergoing the normal processes prescribed by the University for the introduction of new courses. A detailed critical examination of the draft proposal is therefore limited by possible changes which the proposed structure and syllabuses may still undergo before the course can eventually be launched in 1985. The salient and fundamental features of the course must, however, be examined since its introduction has been approved by Senate.

The course will extend over a period of four years. The structure of

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95. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Comments Submitted on 'Education Syllabuses in a New Integrated Degree' by J.M. Niven, dated April 18, 1984.

the course, however, does provide for the award of a diploma at the end of the third year of study. The diploma, which is to be designated Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma, has implications for the future retention of the present structure of the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma. Regarding the directions of study, the degree will be obtained either in arts or science or commerce subjects and in 'education' courses taken concurrently in the first, second and fourth years of study, with the third year being devoted to the study of specified courses in the Faculty of Education. The degree will thus be respectively designated as B.A.(Ed.), B.Sc.(Ed.), or B.Comm.(Ed.) and, in this way, the nomenclature will be in line with that set out by the Committee of Heads of Education in the Republic of South Africa.

Concerning admission requirements, students will be admitted only if they fulfil the general admission requirements of the University for the degree of Bachelor and, in addition, the admission requirements of the faculty in which their direction of study lies. The Taylor Commission, however, recommended that a degree of this nature should also provide for the upward professional development of in-service teachers along the 'right-hand route'<sup>96</sup> of the teacher education programmes provided by the Faculty of Education at the University. To this end, it is provided that :

*"... students who have successfully completed a Diploma in the Faculty of Education, or who hold a qualification deemed to be equivalent by the Faculty may, with the special permission of Senate, be exempted from certain of the prescribed courses."*<sup>97</sup>

In the first year of study the students will take three first year degree courses at least two of which will be in recognized school subjects and also one 'education' course of a general introductory nature which will be designated as 'Education I'. In the second year, the students will

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96. Cf. Supra. Chapter Five. p. 230.

97. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Faculty Board Document No. 5.1. August. 1983.

take two second year degree courses in recognized school subjects, Communication Skills and an 'education' course designated as 'Education II'. The two sections of the 'education' course which will be taught and examined separately as papers one and two will be Principles of Teaching and Educational Psychology consecutively. As was pointed out earlier, the third year will be devoted to the following courses all of which will be taken in the Faculty of Education: Teaching Practice, Educational Technology, curriculum studies in two school subject areas and either School Librarianship or Music or Physical Education or Typing. Finally, the fourth year of study will comprise one third year degree course in a recognized school subject, Teaching Practice and an 'education' course designated as 'Education III' comprising Educational Administration, Education Systems Management and Comparative Education, Development Studies and Educational Foundations. It is envisaged that the 'education' course will be divided into three sections which will be taught and examined separately as papers one, two and three. Evidently, teaching practice is continued in the fourth year in order to emphasize the practical aspects of the professional degree. However, in view of the heavy load of courses in this year, it would be advisable for teaching practice to be limited to the third year. Since that year comprises only courses of a purely practical nature, it should be a concentrated rigorous activity lasting for several weeks, or even a term. The success of the programme will, however, depend on the careful and discreet implementation of its seemingly grand design which caters for three groups of students by means of one and the same course structure at the same time. The first group of students will be those who on their successful completion of the third year of study will be awarded the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma. The second will be those who will follow the normal programme to its logical end from the first to the fourth year of study and be awarded on their successful completion of the entire course a degree in education. The third group of students will comprise the already qualified teachers who will be taking the course in order to enhance their professional and academic standard. With the introduction of this multi-purpose course, the Faculty will have expanded considerably both its pre-service and in-service teacher education facilities.

CHAPTER EIGHT

TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULA AND COURSES

(ii) In-Service and Training College  
Curricula and Courses

1 In-Service Teacher Education Curricula and Courses

The significance of the in-service education of teachers has been repeatedly referred to throughout this work and was particularly examined in great detail in Chapter Three. The limited facilities for the in-service education of teachers in Transkei were revealed by the Taylor Commission which recommended that :

*"A comprehensive structure of in-service teacher education should be designed to provide all teachers an opportunity to progress from the lowest certificate to the highest professional qualification ...*

*"The University of Transkei should mount programmes for training teacher trainers for their roles in teacher education."<sup>1</sup>*

In acting upon this recommendation, the Faculty of Education adopted the scheme suggested by the Commission which made provision within the entire Education Faculty curricula and course structure for the progression along the 'right-hand route'<sup>2</sup> from the lowest to the highest professional qualification of all teachers wishing to improve their academic and professional qualifications. The curricula and courses which constitute the 'right-hand route' of the Faculty curricula and course structure represent the contribution of the the Faculty towards the academic and professional development of serving teachers. This is a crucial area in the education of teachers,

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1. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei. 1979. para. 14.8. pp. 135-136.

2. Cf. *Supra*. Chapter Five. p. 230.

and an opportunity which must be seized in Transkei is occasioned by the teachers' demonstration, as Table S below reveals, of insatiable desire for more education and great interest and unqualified willingness to participate in the curricula and courses designed by the University for this purpose. It is also evident from Table S below that the University, and the Faculty of Education in particular, will have to consider the possibility of devoting substantially increased resources to the field of in-service teacher education. In subsequent pages, references will be made to this table in order to highlight the implications for the re-organization and expansion of the curricula and courses for in-service teacher education currently offered by the Faculty of Education.

Table S

Student Enrolment Figures in the Faculty of Education. 1981-1984

Courses	Year and Student Enrolment				Total
	1981	1982	1983	1984	
Certificate in Primary Education (CPE)	68	64	8	-	140
Diploma in Primary Education (Dip.Ed.Prim)	-	-	6	8	14
Diploma in Secondary Education (Dip.Ed.Sec)	-	-	84	91	175
Higher Diploma in Education (Graduate)	2	6	9	43	60
Higher Diploma in Education (non-Graduate)	1	-	23	33	57
Higher Diploma in Education (Part-time)	3	-	19	61	83
Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (SSTD)	127	42	95	123	387
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.)	10	21	38	51	120
Master of Education (M.Ed.)	1	1	6	8	16
Doctor of Education (D.Ed.)	-	-	1	2	3
Total	212	134	289	420	1 055

Source: University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Students Statistical Records. 1981-1984.<sup>3</sup>

3. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Students Statistical Records. 1981-1984.

The courses which are specifically intended for serving teachers amongst those listed in the above table are the following: Certificate in Primary Education, Diploma in Primary Education, Diploma in Secondary Education and Higher Diploma in Education (Part-time). Although the last three post-graduate degree courses in the list namely, Bachelor of Education, Master of Education and Doctor of Education, may be offered on a part-time basis as in-service courses, they are, nevertheless, intended to prepare administrators and curriculum developers and will thus not be considered in this study. Some of the observable features of in-service teacher education courses which the above table reveals are the following :

- (a) The total number of students taking in-service courses has been more than half the number of full-time students admitted in each year. This has far-reaching implications for the necessary expansion of in-service teacher education facilities in the country as a whole.
- (b) The Certificate in Primary Education course was evidently discontinued in 1983 and the eight students who took the course in that year were clearly those who could not complete the course within the prescribed period of two years. However, the total number of students who were in the course in 1981 and 1982 namely, 68 and 64 respectively, reveals that the course was in considerable demand.
- (c) The Diploma in Primary Education had only six students in 1983. In 1984 there were eight combining the first and second year students. This is highly revealing in terms of the future position of this course within the in-service teacher education curriculum structure.
- (d) The largest number of students ever admitted into a single course in any one year was attained in 1983 when a total of 84 students were admitted into the Diploma in Secondary Education course. All other student figures above 84 in the table combine students who are in different years of study in

any one course in a particular year. A number of events involving the Certificate in Primary Education and the Diploma in Primary Education courses contributed to this phenomenon and these will be examined in subsequent pages.

- (e) The Higher Diploma in Education (Part-time) seems, as student numbers reveal, to have done well to cater for three groups of students namely: first, those who for a variety of reasons could not afford to spend an additional fourth year and study the course on a full-time basis; secondly, those who completed their degree studies on a part-time basis while employed elsewhere or already as teachers; and, thirdly, those who never had intentions to become teachers but eventually decide, due to a variety of reasons, to join the profession.

With these considerations in mind, the different in-service courses will now be examined, and in the process, some of the issues raised in the preceding observations will be further elaborated and analyzed.

### 1.1 The Certificate in Primary Education (CPE) Course

The Certificate in Primary Education course was very short-lived in that when the Government Education Department made it policy that the entrance requirement for admission into all teacher education programmes should be at least a Senior Certificate, the course was discontinued because only a pass in one approved matric subject, a Primary Teachers' Certificate and at least two years' experience in primary school teaching had been set as entrance requirements for admission into the course. The aims of the course were to improve the classroom performance of primary school teachers and to equip them with skills required for the guidance and promotion of learning. The course was taken over a period of two years of part-time study. The students attended lectures at the University for three days every month and for four weeks a year during school holidays. The curriculum comprised the following courses: Human Development and

Learning, Education in Developing Societies, English Language Skills, Mathematics Skills, Environmental Studies, an approved school subject, Elementary Teacher Education or Project. The Elementary Teacher Education course was intended for the Teacher Training College teacher educators who took the CPE course in order to upgrade their academic and professional knowledge and skills.

The curriculum was thus fairly specialized as evinced by the study of one primary school subject. Specialization in the case of primary school teachers ignores the reality situation in the primary school classroom where the teacher teaches all the subjects to his or her class. Also, a significant omission in the curriculum was a course on methodology or general methods of teaching. The teachers' methods of teaching need to be continually up-dated.

The course was introduced in 1981 with a student complement of well over seventy qualified teachers who held teaching positions in the school system. It was a heterogeneous group of students, a kind of a 'mixed bag' as it were, and the differences that existed amongst them related to their professional and academic qualifications, the levels at which they were teaching in the school system and motives for taking the course. Some of them held the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) and Senior Certificate and others the Primary Teachers' Certificate and Junior Certificate. Some of them were teaching in the primary schools, some in the junior secondary schools, some in the senior secondary schools and others in the Teacher Training Colleges. A consensus of opinion which developed amongst the lecturers in the Faculty of Education in the course of the first year was that to the majority of the students the improvement of their teaching skills, the enrichment of their knowledge of the school subject content and their general professional development which were the main objectives of the course, all made very little significance as compared to their strong aspirations and expectations related to such benefits as promotion, increased salary, acquisition of a university certificate and its concomitant recognition, status and esteem which they hoped to earn on successful completion of the course.

Herein lies Dore's thesis in a book he most appropriately entitled  
The Diploma Disease : Education, Qualification and Development :

*"... there is a lot to be said for doing the educating in special places called schools and universities. Unfortunately, not all schooling is education. Much of it is mere qualification-earning. And more and more of it becomes so. Everywhere, in Britain as in India, in Russia as in Venezuela, schooling is more often qualification-earning schooling ... And more qualification-earning is mere qualification-earning-ritualistic, tedious, suffused with anxiety and boredom, destructive of curiosity and imagination; in short, anti-educational."*<sup>4</sup>

The disquiet produced by the above description of the current educational realities lies at the root of the urgent need to improve the quality of teachers and teaching for it is teachers who must eventually break the vicious circle of the 'ritualizing disease of qualificationism'. To this end, teachers need to know not only the symptoms and the causes of the disease but, more importantly, the preventive and curative measures as well. Herein lies one of the greatest challenges of in-service teacher education curricula and courses. The source of the disease lies, according to Dore, in the differences that exist between 'schooling' on one hand and education on the other and also in the schools' pre-occupation with 'schooling' as opposed to education :

*"The effect of schooling, the way it alters a man's capacity and will to do things, depends not only on what he learns, or the way he learns it, but also on why he learns it. That is at the basis of the distinction between schooling which is education, and schooling which is only qualification, a mere process of certificating - or 'credentialling' ...; 'education' ... has mastery as its object ...; ... whether the mastery is an end in itself, or whether the*

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4. Dore, R., The Diploma Disease : Education, Qualification and Development, p. ix.

*knowledge is mastered for use, and whether that use is a practical one or mere self-indulgent pleasure, it is mastery of the knowledge itself which counts. In the process of qualification, by contrast, the pupil is concerned not with mastery, but with being certified as having mastered. The knowledge that he gains, he gains not for its own sake and not for constant later use in a real life situation - but for the once-and-for-all purpose of reproducing it in an examination. And the learning and reproducing is all just a means to an end - the end of getting a certificate which is a passport to a coveted job, a status, an income. If education is learning to do a job, qualification is a matter of learning in order to get a job."*<sup>5</sup>

In in-service teacher education, however, there can be no contradiction between education as 'learning to do a job' and as 'learning in order to get a job'. Central to the idea of the in-service teacher education courses leading to the acquisition of such awards as certificates and diplomas is the recognition of the important contribution that this latter aspect of the courses inevitably makes towards the effectiveness of such courses. The whole concept is based on Maslow's theory of motivation. Maslow, a psychologist, insists on the assessment of the needs of learners as a precondition to the designing of programmes which the learners will then take with interest thus facilitating the attainment of the desired outcomes in the learners themselves. The needs of teachers have thus been found to range from their personal needs namely, qualification, promotion, status and income to needs related to the mastery of the job namely, teaching. Thus, teachers attend in-service teacher education courses leading to the acquisition of awards out of their own free will because the courses promise them full self-actualization in terms of the improvement of their teaching skills, mastery of the school subject and general professional development on one hand and satisfaction of their personal needs namely, qualification, promotion, status and income on

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5. Ibid. p. 8.

the other. Since the above personal needs of teachers are closer and more related to the survival needs, they are naturally more prized than the needs related to the mastery of the job. This, then, explains the attitude of the CPE students towards the course. A desirable situation would be one in which there is a fair balance between the needs related to the mastery of the job and the personal needs. Such a situation can only develop when the in-service teacher education courses are directly related to the practical problems of teachers in the schools and when the theoretical aspects of such courses seek to explain and throw light directly on the day-to-day school and classroom problems of teachers. Only then will the teachers study them with interest and even to a point of relegating their personal needs to the background at times.

There is still more evidence to suggest that the in-service teacher education courses at the University of Transkei do not fulfil the above requirement and that they are, instead, suffused with theory which is irrelevant to the practical needs and problems of teachers in the schools and, thus, do not address themselves to the teachers where they are. The incidence of high drop-out rate in the CPE course, in particular, is a case in point. Out of a total of well over 70 students who were admitted in 1981, 64 continued with the course in 1982 and only 19 wrote the examinations in all the prescribed courses including the project at the end of that year and finally, passed. There might have been, of course, some other individual student personal problems which could have contributed to the phenomenon of high drop-out rate, but it is equally true that generally students will abandon any course of study if they find it difficult and irrelevant to their needs. The case often advanced at the University of Transkei was that there were very few contact periods with the students. The implication is that the courses had not been designed with this in mind and they were, as a result, heavily loaded with content. The case of few contact periods can hardly be acceptable as justification for the obvious poor performance of students and their high drop-out rate. There are many people who have acquired either a Junior Certificate or a Senior Certificate, and some even a degree, entirely through correspondence. Some have never been afforded

opportunity to be exposed to direct teaching. The main contention, which all the above argument seeks to illustrate, is that for the sake of developing and sustaining student motivation as well as ensuring course effectiveness, the in-service teacher education courses must address themselves to teachers where they are and be relevant to their school and classroom practical problems.

Finally, the 1981 and 1982 student enrolments respectively constituted, as the above table clearly illustrates (Table S), by far the highest number of students in the Faculty in both years. This phenomenon had far-reaching implications in respect of the expansion at the fastest rate of the in-service teacher education facilities at the University. The teachers had clearly demonstrated their interest and willingness to participate in the programmes that the University could provide for their professional development. This fact should have been taken into account when the decision was made to discontinue the CPE course thus forcing the experienced teachers to plod wearily through Standard X when it was and is not necessarily what the primary school teacher needs.

## 1.2 The Diploma in Primary Education (Dip.Ed.Prim.) Course

The demands of the Government Department of Education in respect of entrance requirements for admission into teacher education programmes and the resultant discontinuation of the CPE course had an adverse effect on and jeopardized the educational plans of the Faculty of Education regarding in-service education of teachers in particular. The original plan which was a blueprint of the recommendations of the Taylor Commission in this regard provided for a meaningful progression of primary school teachers from the CPE course through a Diploma in Primary Education course to a first degree in education. The integrated concurrent degree in education referred to in the preceding pages represents the envisaged course. Alongside the Diploma in Primary Education course would be a Diploma in Secondary Education course, and on successful completion of these courses, the students would proceed to the degree study referred to above in which one group would specialize in primary education and the other in secondary education. Whereas the entrance requirements for admission into the

Diploma in Secondary Education would be a Senior Certificate, it would not be necessary for students who sought admission into the Diploma in Primary Education to possess a Senior Certificate though it was stipulated that the Diploma would not be awarded until a student had satisfied this requirement. The argument was that students taking the Diploma in Primary Education course had to fulfil all the requirements for admission into the degree study while they were still in the Diploma course. The entrance requirement for admission into the Diploma in Primary Education course would thus be a Certificate in Primary Education (CPE). With the discontinuation of the CPE course, there were problems regarding the future position of the Diploma in Primary Education course within the entire in-service teacher education structure.

The Government Department of Education stipulated that it would not in future recognize any award, be it a certificate or diploma, if the holder did not possess a Senior Certificate at the time of entry into the course leading to the award. The Faculty of Education on the other hand made it policy to undertake in-service education of primary school teachers. The majority of primary school teachers did not possess a Senior Certificate but, instead had a Junior Certificate as their highest academic qualification. Both available courses for primary school teachers namely, the Certificate in Primary Education (CPE) course and the Diploma in Primary Education (Dip.Ed.Prim.) course were rendered non-functional by the Government policy on teacher education. In the Faculty of Education, deadlock ensued. The carefully laid plans of the Faculty were thus jeopardized.

There were two possibilities. The Faculty of Education could abandon its plans in respect of the in-service education of primary school teachers and concentrate on the in-service education of secondary school teachers or, the entrance requirement for admission into the Diploma in Primary Education course could be raised to a Senior Certificate and the Certificate in Primary Education course be discontinued in conformity to the Government requirement that all awards should at least be at the level of a diploma. To abandon the in-service education of primary school teachers would be to negate one of its chief commitments

and responsibilities in respect of the preparation and provision of teachers. So, the Faculty opted for the second possibility, acknowledging though the fact that the step would exclude hundreds of primary school teachers from the opportunity of improving their qualifications and professional skills. They would have to plod wearily through Standard X before they could be admitted to the Diploma in Primary Education course. The second problem inherent in the decision related once more to the students' needs for qualification, promotion, status and income on one hand and mastery of the job namely, teaching on the other: since the entrance requirements for admission into the two diploma courses namely, the Diploma in Primary and the Diploma in Secondary Education, would be the same, being Senior Certificate, it was obvious that the majority of teachers would prefer, for the sake of status, the Diploma in Secondary Education course. This phenomenon is clearly evident in the above table (Table S). Thus, the position of the Diploma in Primary Education course would still remain uncertain and, with it, would go the problem of many primary school teachers without Senior Certificate who would be excluded from the in-service education facilities provided by the Faculty at the University.

Thus, the normal minimum entrance requirements for admission into the Diploma in Primary Education course were set out as follows :

*"A pass in the Senior Certificate or equivalent examination;  
A recognized primary teachers' certificate;  
At least three years' experience of teaching at a primary  
school."*<sup>6</sup>

It is significant to note that the requirements as set out above exclude even those primary school teachers who have already obtained the Certificate in Primary Education of the University if such teachers do not possess a Senior Certificate.

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6. University of Transkei: Prospectus, 1984. Regulations for the Faculty of Education. The Diploma in Primary Education (Dip.Ed.Primary). E.13. p. 177.

The Diploma course extends over at least two academic years of part-time study. In the first year, the students study the following courses: Fundamentals of Educational Psychology, English Language Skills and one of the following groups of school subjects as curriculum studies: Language and Social Studies or Mathematics and Science. In the second year, the students continue with curriculum studies and, in addition, study Principles of Teaching, undertake a Project and select and study one subject from the following: Educational Technology, Non-formal Education, Pre-school Education, School Administration, School Librarianship and Music Education. This last miscellany of courses tarnish what otherwise would have been a more meaningful structure than the CPE curriculum and course structure. Two courses namely, Non-formal Education and, to a certain extent, Pre-school Education would hardly attract experienced teachers who are mainly interested in courses that are relevant to problems which afflict them as teachers as well as classroom work in general. One wonders whether the right place for these two courses is not the Diploma in Adult Education course which the Faculty also offers. Educational Technology and School Administration are so basic to the work of teachers that it would be more fitting to offer them as part of the core courses, with at least one in the first year and the other in the second year of study. Educational Technology would, however, be best handled when coupled with Principles of teaching in the second year of study. Thus, School Librarianship, Music Education and possibly Arts and Crafts could comprise the optional subjects from which the student would be required to select and study only one. There is a case for a choice between Language and Social Studies on one hand and Mathematics and Science on the other, otherwise the curriculum would be heavily overloaded.

The Diploma in Primary Education course was launched in 1983 and it opened, as would be expected with an enrolment of only six students. The students attend lectures at the University for three days every month and for one week during school holidays. Depending on how the courses are handled, the problems experienced in the CPE course are not likely to recur in the Diploma course since the curriculum structure

appears to be more meaningful and constitutes an organic unity which encompasses almost all the activities of the primary school teacher in the classroom.

### 1.3 The Diploma in Secondary Education (Dip.Ed.Sec.) Course

At present, the most popular in-service course amongst teachers is the Diploma in Secondary Education course, on the completion of which students qualify for admission to the integrated degree course. Although the course was primarily designed for secondary school teachers, primary school teachers who satisfy the requirements for admission are allowed to take the course. It is not likely that the latter group of teachers will be keen to remain in the primary school on their successful completion of the course. In the long run, and unless a preventive measure is applied in the form of a more meaningful in-service facility for the primary school teachers than the present Diploma in Primary Education course the Diploma in Secondary Education course will be likely to attract recruits from the primary schools.

The entrance requirements for admission to the Diploma in Secondary Education course are a Senior Certificate, a recognized teachers' certificate and three years' experience of teaching at junior secondary school level. In Transkei at present, the junior secondary school and the primary school classes are, in the majority of cases, combined in one school, a phenomenon which makes it difficult for the Faculty of Education to differentiate between secondary and primary school teachers when admitting students into the Diploma in Secondary Education course. Teachers teaching in the senior secondary schools and Teacher Training Colleges are rightfully allowed to take the course in order to upgrade their knowledge and teaching skills since the majority of them are teaching above their level of qualification and training. Consequently, the course is, in terms of student enrolment, highly inflated.

In the first year of study, the students take the following courses:

Educational Psychology, English Language Skills, and two school subjects as curriculum studies. In the second year, the students study Principles of Teaching, continue with curriculum studies selected in the first year, undertake a Project and select and study one subject from the following: Educational Technology, Non-formal Education, Pre-school Education, School Administration, School Librarianship and Music Education. Regarding this last group of optional subjects, the comments that were made in respect of the Diploma in Primary Education course structure equally apply in their case here. Besides the necessary specialization in two subjects as curriculum studies, the curriculum and course structure for the Diploma in Secondary Education course is basically the same as that laid down for the Diploma in Primary Education course.

The Diploma was also launched in 1983 and it opened with a total enrolment of 84 students, which constituted more than half of the total number of students in the Faculty in that year which was 163 including those taking post-graduate degree courses. It is therefore evident that the University of Transkei, and the Faculty of Education in particular, would do well to devote substantially increased resources to in-service teacher education. However, any step in that direction bristles with problems related to co-operation and co-ordination with the Government Department of Education which is currently working on what has been termed a master-plan for the in-service education of teachers in the country namely, the 'Draft Proposal for the establishment of An In-Service Teacher Education College For the Republic of Transkei' prepared by the Managing Director of the Educational Consultants International (ECI), Dr D.E. Lomax.<sup>7</sup> The future of in-service teacher education will depend for its success on the rationalization and development of an effective vehicle for co-ordination and close co-operation between the University and the In-Service Teacher Education College. Above all, the most determinant factor would be a kind of voluntary, spontaneous and peaceful co-operation between the two institutions.

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7. Information in this regard was secured in the course of discussions with Senior Officials in the Department of Education in February, 1984.

#### 1.4 The Higher Diploma in Education Part-time Course (HDE Part-time)

In 1983 the part-time post-graduate professional course was re-suscitated as a result of pressure from two main sources namely, first, from the professionally unqualified graduate teachers already teaching in the schools and, secondly, from the students taking degree courses at the University on a part-time basis while at the same time working in the civil service or industry or elsewhere. It may thus be well argued that the course is both a pre-service and an in-service course. The course is in all respects similar to the one-year post-graduate professional course examined earlier except that the part-time course extends over a period of two years. Therefore, the remarks which were made in respect of the one-year post-graduate professional course equally apply to the part-time version of the course.

The part-time students attend lectures at the University during weekends. The courses which they take in the first year of study include the following: Educational Psychology, Educational Technology, Principles of Teaching, Communication Skills and School Librarianship or Music. In the second year, they take Educational Philosophy and Development, Educational Administration, Microteaching and Teaching Practice. For teaching practice in the second year, the students make their private arrangements for leave from their places of work. The serving student teachers, however, do teaching practice at the schools in which they teach.

That the need for a course of this nature has long been felt is illustrated by the rapid increase in student numbers in two years, as indicated in Table S. As was pointed out earlier, the opportunity to join the profession has been extended to, in addition to the two groups of students referred to in the first paragraph, those students who, for a variety of reasons, cannot afford an additional fourth year at the University as full-time students. The course will improve the output of graduate teachers quite significantly and substantially.

### 1.5 Conclusion on University Curricula and Courses

It must be acknowledged that the University of Transkei has made significant strides and achieved in a short span of time what took many established universities of the world many decades to accomplish. Within a period of five years, the University of Transkei has developed and launched no less than ten teacher education programmes, all of which are directly responsive to the clearly felt needs of the country. However, the curricula and courses merely constitute a means to an end and are by no means an end in themselves. It is not a multiplicity and proliferation of teacher education programmes that is needed but rather an immediate realization of the aims and objectives of such programmes as are in existence. Therefore, the University of Transkei must, while acknowledging the current pressures for further development and expansion, give first priority to the improvement, modification, careful implementation and consolidation of the existing programmes. No matter how relevant to the needs and problems of the country and no matter how complex and grand their design, the value of teacher education curricula and courses depends in the final analysis on their effectiveness in bringing about the desired changes in the quality of the teaching force which in turn depends on the implementation of such curricula and courses with great care and precision. Without these, their exacting development and construction becomes a mere palliative.

## 2 The Teacher Training College Curricula and Courses

The manner in which teacher education curricula and courses have developed in Transkei under the missionary authorities, Cape Provincial Administration, Bantu Education Department and Transkeian Education Department during the era of Self-Government has been outlined in this study. It has also been shown how during the first few years of political independence the socio-economic and political pressures contributed to the perpetuation in Transkei of some of the features of neo-colonialism such as, in respect of teacher education in particular, the adoption and continuation of the pre-independence *status quo* whereby all the academic and professional aspects of teacher education

including all courses, syllabuses, and examinations remained in the hands of the South African Department of Education and Training.

The present decade, however, has witnessed unprecedented changes both in the organization and administration of the Teacher Training Colleges and in the nature and structure of the teacher education curricula and courses. The following have been some of the main features of change. First, there has been a change in the nature of the Colleges, from the narrowly based 'schools' for the training of teachers to the more broadly based 'colleges' for their education. Secondly, the entrance requirements for admission into all the College courses has been raised to at least Senior Certificate level. Thirdly, the period of training has been extended from two years to at least three years. Fourthly, the course content has been revised and some depth studies have been included in the College courses. Fifthly, there has been an increased involvement of the Teacher Training Colleges in the preparation and provision of secondary school teachers which had been for many years the sole responsibility and jealously guarded domain of the university. These developments have tended to draw the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei more closely into the university orbit and have at the same time attempted to accord these institutions some greater measure of freedom in curriculum development.

In the light of the preceding, the future place of the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei gives rise to thought. Some of the questions that present themselves are the following: Are the Teacher Training Colleges likely to retain their present nondescript character for any reasonably long period of time and thus remain administratively part of the school system while academically and professionally they are part of the University and expected to meet and satisfy the standards set by the University? Is it likely that the pattern adopted in Lesotho, for example, may in the long run be introduced in Transkei whereby all the teacher education colleges were phased out and one large institution was established in order to centralize all the available resources and manpower, thus enabling co-ordination with the University to be far more practicable and easier? Will the Teacher Training Colleges, perhaps, develop into regional universities similar

to the institutions in the United States of America or will they develop into degree awarding institutions through a National Council for Academic Awards similar to the pattern that has been introduced in England? Whatever will be the future trend in the development of the Teacher Training Colleges, will depend on and largely be determined by the degree of success or failure on the part of the Colleges themselves in their implementation of the present University curricula and courses. The two courses which are currently being offered in the Teacher Training Colleges and which will therefore be examined below are the Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) and the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD).

### 2.1 The Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) Course

The raising in 1982 of the entrance requirements for admission into the primary teachers' course of initial preparation from the Junior to the Senior Certificate and of the minimum professional qualification from the level of a certificate to the status of a diploma as well as the extension of the period of initial preparation from two to three years not only represented milestones in the development of the preparation and provision of primary school teachers in Transkei but also, and more importantly, had far-reaching implications in respect of the standard of the teacher education curricula and courses. The historical account of the development of the initial preparation and provision of primary school teachers in Transkei illustrated the above statement and will further put the subsequent consideration of the curricula and courses currently offered in a better perspective.

The development of teacher education courses for the primary school teachers in Transkei has been inseparable from and inextricably interwoven with the development of the primary schools and primary education. The developments have, in the case of teacher education, culminated in the present decade in the association of institutions which prepare primary school teachers with the University. A question may then be well asked as to whether the link with the University and introduction of University curricula and courses in the Colleges have brought about desirable structural changes in the nature

of the curricula and courses for the preparation and provision of primary school teachers. The current policy regarding the teacher education curricula and courses in the Colleges is that they should first be designed, provided and monitored by the University of Transkei. Secondly, all should extend over at least a period of three years of study. Thirdly, they should be upgraded and enriched by means of university academic courses taken on a part-time basis. According to a policy statement issued in November, 1982,<sup>8</sup> two Colleges namely, Mount Arthur and Shawbury would concentrate on the preparation of teachers for the lower primary school which includes Sub-Standards A and B and Standards I and II. Three, namely, Arthur Tsengiwe, Bensonvale and Sigcawu would prepare teachers for the upper primary classes namely, Standards III and IV. Five Colleges namely, Bethel, Cicira, Butterworth, Clarkebury and Maluti would prepare teachers for the secondary school. Thus, half of the ten teacher training institutions in Transkei prepare primary school teachers and the other half secondary school teachers. The division between teachers of the primary school and secondary school is thus maintained by means of this structural organization of the institutions for the preparation and provision of teachers, and further entrenched by the use of such nomenclature as 'junior' Colleges to describe the institutions for primary school teachers and 'senior' Colleges when reference is made to those that prepare secondary school teachers. This division is inimical to the quest for a unified profession and likely to have an adverse effect on the status of the primary school teachers. In accounting for the balance in the distribution of institutions for both primary and secondary school teachers which was achieved by upgrading Clarkebury from a 'junior' to a 'senior' status, the Educational Planner for Teacher Training Colleges said :

*"We have no problem of primary school teachers ... Instead we have a surplus of primary school teachers and we have had to turn away many applicants and, indeed, many teachers*

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8. Cf. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education, Memorandum on Affiliated College Specialization and Problems dated 18 November 1982.

*of long experience ...*<sup>9</sup>

It may, however, be argued that on the basis of evidence illustrated by means of Table S,<sup>10</sup> the real need is not so much to expand the facilities for the quantitative as it is to improve provisions for the qualitative supply of teachers for the primary school. Thus, whenever reference is made to the phenomenon of teacher shortage in the primary schools in Transkei, the concept is used in a qualitative sense.

The distinction made in terms of policy between the lower and upper primary classes in the preparation of teachers is a realistic approach to teacher education for the demands of the two levels are not exactly the same. In the upper primary, the child switches to a foreign language medium and also begins to see learning material in distinct but related units called subjects. In the lower primary, learning is still experienced as a diffuse activity and centres mainly around the three R's. The teacher of the lower primary classes is by and large an infant teacher who must be well versed in the elements of child study as it relates to the child's home background in its infancy with special reference to how the child in the home setting learns, the factors which influence his learning process negatively or positively, his potentialities and his social, economic and cultural needs. Research in this very important field is still seriously lacking and needs to be undertaken. The results of such research would yield valuable knowledge which would be useful in promoting and facilitating teaching and learning throughout the entire primary school phase. However, the position as it is today is characterized by heavy reliance on the old and new psychological theories about European children and these theories are being taken on faith as being applicable to the African child. Surplus books largely designed for non-African children are still being imported to meet the educational needs of the children on the pretext that any book is better than none. It is often said that no one is qualified to teach a child he does not understand. Another area which requires particular attention in the

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9. Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Educational Planner for Teacher Training Colleges on 18 June 1984.

10. Cf. *Supra*, p. 423.

Lower primary curriculum is that of school readiness and the bridging between school and home. Despite the commendable organization and distribution of the Training Colleges for the primary school teachers outlined above, the curricula and courses, which are a decisive factor for the attainment of the goals and objectives of these institutions, make no distinction in their nature and form between the two categories of primary school teachers they are enjoined to prepare. The courses comprise a multiplicity of subjects which are arranged into the following four main groups :

- (a) Professional Subjects which include Principles of Education, Human Development and Learning, School Organization and Teaching Practice;
- (b) Languages namely, Xhosa or SeSotho as a First Language, English as a Second Language and Practical Afrikaans;
- (c) Basic Subjects which include the whole range of subjects which are taught in the primary school namely, Mathematics, Science, History and Geography; and
- (d) Practical or Cultural Subjects, as they are commonly called, which include Arts and Crafts, Music, Needlework or Gardening, Physical Education and Religious Education.

The multiplicity of subjects represents a common feature of the curricula and course structures for the preparation of teachers for the primary school in many countries of the world including South Africa and England, the two countries that continue to provide Transkei with models to follow. It is significant to note that altogether sixteen subjects are prescribed and that Niven considered thirteen subjects to be excessive in the case of the Lower Primary Teachers' course in South Africa :

*"The multiplicity of subjects prescribed for the preparation of teachers for the primary school has led to a criticism of their 'bittiness' and to a rejection of them in favour of*

*what we felt to be more solid courses academically at least, for the preparation of non-graduate teachers."*<sup>11</sup>

A contrast in curriculum content of the three-year teacher education courses in South Africa and England reveals that the curriculum content of the three-year Primary Teachers' Diploma course in Transkei is heavily loaded with courses and that a serious reconsideration of the nature and content of the courses offered at the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei requires urgent attention :

(a) In South Africa<sup>12</sup> the curriculum prescribed for the three-year courses before the extension of the period of training to four years was as follows :

- "(i) Professional study of education including philosophy and methodology of education and introductory courses in child psychology;*
- (ii) Curriculum courses including the official languages, arithmetic, the social studies, religious instruction, basic science, health education and blackboard work;*
- (iii) Optional subjects, for example, physical education, art and craft, music, school librarianship;*
- (iv) Specialist subjects: depending upon the nature of the specialization, for example, academic courses for the junior secondary school namely, the background knowledge and methodology of two academic subjects, would be replaced in particular specialist subject training by, for example, physical education, industrial arts, music, art and so on;*

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11. Niven, J.M., *op cit.*, p. 312.

12. Whenever reference is made to South Africa in this work, unless specified, the Education of White Teachers is implied.

(v) *Teaching Practice for which the duration in terms of the number of weeks varied between 13 weeks to 24 weeks in the three-year course.*"<sup>13</sup>

- (b) As an example of the curriculum requirements in the three-year course in an English college of education, the course of the City of Leeds Training College, a constituent college of the University of Leeds Institute of Education, is cited :<sup>14</sup>

*"Section 1 : Principles of Education, including child psychology and development, sociology, principles and methods, Physical Education, Religious Knowledge, Mathematics.*

*Section 2 : Teaching practice including observation . 70 full days or its equivalent in schools of various types.*

*Section 3 : English.*

*Section 4 : Art and Craft, English, Geography, History, Mathematics, Music, Physical Education, Religious Knowledge, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Rural Science. These are the main courses, students being required to select one of three courses for three years.*

*Section 5 : Subsidiary main courses, selection depending upon the age range of the pupil which the student proposes to teach, as well as the subject selected under section 4. This corresponds to curriculum and optional subjects and includes Art and Craft, Geography,*

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13. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 291.

14. See Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 292. (It must be noted, however, that this curriculum applied prior to 1971 and that the situation has since changed materially).

*History, Mathematics, Music, Physical  
Education, Religious Knowledge and Science  
Subjects."*

The contrast in curriculum content of the three-year college courses in Transkei on one hand and in South Africa and England on the other has been set out for the following reasons :

- (a) primarily to illustrate by contrast the nuances of differences between the curriculum content of the three-year college courses in Transkei on one hand and the course structures of similar three-year college courses in England and South Africa; one striking feature of the curriculum content of the three-year Primary Teachers' Diploma course in Transkei which distinguishes this course from its counterparts in England and South Africa is, for example, the absence of optional subjects, a provision which would reduce considerably the total number of courses prescribed for the diploma course;
- (b) to demonstrate and stress the influence of the English course structure and the common evolutionary patterns developed in the three-year courses in England, South Africa and Transkei;
- (c) to indicate how in the main these courses, despite modernization and upgrading, are in direct lineal descent from the training courses offered when the function was to train for every conceivable teaching situation;
- (d) to illustrate the enormous range of studies and thereby to underline the fact that to some extent depth studies have to be sacrificed to breadth studies.

The dilemma of the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei, as in South Africa and England, arises from the confusions of purpose which in turn arise from the uneasy position of the Colleges between the University and the schools. Caught in the middle between the schools on one hand with which they are directly in touch in their daily

activities and the University on the other whose academic and professional standards they are required to satisfy and to whose high status they themselves strongly aspire, the Colleges reflect this dilemma in confusion in their curricula and courses. The College studies have come much closer to the University model with its proliferation of specialisms and the increase in time given to abstract, academic courses in education and a corresponding decrease in time allotted to the more practical courses for immediate classroom use. At the same time, the concern with schools which constitute the least academic part of the system pulls College interests towards more practical work with children. It would therefore appear that the multiplicity of College studies represent in part a desperate attempt to meet these seemingly contradictory demands. Despite the association of the Colleges with the University and the University's unqualified willingness to accept guardianship of the academic and professional standards at the Colleges as well as its sense of devotion and attitude of trusteeship towards the general welfare of the Colleges, the latter, in the words of R.C. Bone

*" ... are still under pressure to return to the old procedure ... The argument is not unheard that 'needlework should be compulsory for Junior (School) women students'. To give a woman student with no particular flair or experience or interest the necessary skill in needlework and in its effective teaching, would require a long and time-consuming course. And if the claim is valid for needlework, it is equally - or more - valid for all the other skills and subjects in the junior school curriculum. There simply is not sufficient time, not even in the three years now available."*<sup>15</sup>

The problem enunciated above has been investigated quite extensively both in South Africa and England. A wide range of possible alternative three-year course structures have been advocated in both countries. However, both countries eventually opted for the ex-

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15. Bone, R.C., op cit., p. 6.

tension of the period of training to four years, and in England, in particular, a further development has been the introduction at the colleges of education of a teaching degree, the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree. It therefore seems clear that these developments both in South Africa and England represent future teacher education patterns that are likely to develop in Transkei. There can, however, be no question of teaching degrees in the case of the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei despite desperate attempts at the moment to encourage students at some specified Colleges to take degree courses on a part-time basis concurrently with their professional studies. This aspect is more relevant to the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course and will therefore be returned to later. More pertinent to the Primary Teachers' Diploma course under consideration is the possibility of extending the period of training to four years which is already policy in South Africa and England. The introduction of the four-year courses at the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei would have to be undertaken with great caution and not without prior consideration of the following likely problems and consequences :

- (i) The introduction of four-year courses would stagger the supply of teachers to the schools considerably. On the other hand, it might well be wise to take heed of the attitude that was adopted in the Transvaal in this regard namely that :

*"... although the supply of teachers to the schools of the province was not adequate, to wait for a period when there was a satisfactory supply before introducing extended courses, would be to wait forever; ... the modern teacher requires a more thorough academic and professional training than his predecessor and for this a four-year training period was essential."*<sup>16</sup>

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16. Cited by J.M. Niven, op cit., p. 297.

- (ii) An extension of the training period from three to four years would imply an introduction of depth studies in the Colleges. Given the low quality of the staff in the majority of the Colleges, any move in that direction would be hazardous.
- (iii) There would also be the question of cost in the extension of the length of training to four years. All Colleges would have to be increased in enrolment by 25 percent and this would apply to all costs, salaries, boarding and capital costs alike. At the present time of severe financial constraints, the country cannot afford this burden.
- (iv) Linked with the above is the problem of the current inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials. It would appear from the following report of an interview with the Educational Planner for Colleges that the Department of Education acknowledges this fact :

*"Ideally, the four-year programme is desirable in the sense that the longer one trains, it should be believed, the more competent one becomes as a teacher. But there should be a consideration of some other factors in this regard in a place like Transkei. Truly speaking even for the three-year programme we were not ready in the sense that we should have improved the facilities first so that we did not make a mockery of the very programme that we wanted to introduce. Here, one has to think of not only the extension of buildings by way of providing more classrooms but also of improving the quality of the facilities inside. What would be the point of introducing a four-year diploma but then still use the existing facilities which are inadequate for the three-year programme ... However, in the light of these developments elsewhere, the Department would like to have a four-year diploma introduced. Last year (1983) it*

*was required of us to have this introduced in 1985."*<sup>17</sup>

- (v) A four-year programme would be equivalent in terms of the length of training to the minimum period required to complete a degree study plus a one-year post-graduate course but would surely remain lower in status in the opinion of the students and public in Transkei. It was the acceptance of this problem which led in England to the decision to recommend that studies leading to the acquisition of a new degree, the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.), should be provided at the colleges of education in that country. Given the existing conditions in the Training Colleges, one would view with some sense of scepticism any move in that direction at the present time in this country.

In the light of the preceding, it would seem that the three-year teacher education courses now provided at the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei would have to be retained for a considerable length of time before any consideration can be given to the possibility of extending the period of training to four years. However, the structure of the courses for the Primary Teachers' Diploma needs to be revised and brought in line with the school curriculum requirements. The primary schools do not have the timetable divided into subjects. Instead, the majority of the separate subjects prescribed for the Primary Teachers' Diploma course are grouped into broad patterns and the pupils' interests are, in teaching, followed up, stimulated and maintained mainly by means of activity and their curiosity satisfied at any given moment by whatever subject-knowledge is necessary. This primary school practice requires that the courses currently prescribed for the Primary Teachers' Diploma should be brought together in wide bands as well such as language skills, environmental studies and so on. The course, Principles of Education, as currently offered represents an example of such an integrated study in that it alone comprises four disciplines namely, philosophy of education, sociology of education, general methodology and educational technology. Another course which

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17. Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Educational Planner for Teacher Training Colleges on 18 June 1984.

is currently offered as a separate subject and could be considered for inclusion into this broad area is Educational Psychology. This arrangement would thus reduce the total number of courses to be prescribed for the Primary Teachers' Diploma without sacrificing the necessary study in breadth and depth of these subjects.

Another weakness of the courses currently prescribed for the Primary Teachers' Diploma is that they are not equally weighted in terms of content. This is particularly true of the professional subjects. The course, Principles of Education, is an integrated course comprising four disciplines while the other two professional subjects namely, Human Development and Learning and School Organization are offered as two separate and specialized courses with narrowly defined content. It can thus be proposed, as only a mere suggestion, that in order to improve this situation the course, Principles of Education, should only include philosophy of education and sociology of education and, then, an additional fourth professional subject, excluding teaching practice, which will comprise general methodology and educational technology, should be created. One other factor which contributes to the enormous wide range of subjects for the Primary Teachers' Diploma course is the fact that students are required to take all the five practical or cultural subjects which are prescribed for this course. It is, however, significant to note that in the South African and English colleges of education the students select only one or two practical subjects from this group. Also, educationists like Hollins, Renshaw and Peters include one practical subject into the list of the five areas comprising a liberal education they advocate for as part of the course structure for the primary school teachers; the five areas are, in the words of Hollins, "... science, mathematics, English, social studies, and one of the arts."<sup>18</sup> It would be difficult not to agree with Hollins when he argues in support of his course structure that :

*"It seems then that if for primary teachers a compromise*

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18. Hollins, T.H.B., 'Desirable Changes in the Structure of Courses'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), p. 97.

*has to be made between study in depth and sufficient acquaintance with basic disciplines, it should lean towards four or five subjects ...; integration means that difficult but important skills, like the teaching of reading, are not given enough time. But, of course, it is unfair to blame the colleges too much. They cannot be expected in the short space of three years to raise the status of teachers to graduate level by concentration on difficult studies and at the same time teach every skill required in a primary school. Even with the six or seven years available for medical education it would still be difficult. It is also naive of primary-school teachers to expect their initial training to be complete ... It is also a failure on the part of the local authorities ... that the probationary year is not used to make good these gaps in initial training ..."*<sup>19</sup>

The implication then is that the course structures for the initial preparation of teachers should not be planned and designed in isolation and without due regard for the continual professional development and in-service education of the teacher. It is even moreso in the case of the pre-service curricula and courses for the primary school teachers for a period of three years is very short given the enormous wide range of subjects and skills which are needed by the primary school teacher in the real primary school situation.

The probationary year is strategically poised at the threshold of the beginning teacher's career and can, when its activities are properly planned, not only remedy the deficiencies in initial training but also bring about the necessary integration between the theoretical knowledge of principles and skills gained during pre-service training at the College on one hand and the real practical teaching experience on the other. However, R.L. Perry rightfully argues that there is a tendency for the schools to retrain probationary teachers along lines which conflict with the principles underlying initial training; in fact,

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19. Loc. cit.

there is a gulf in communication between the different sectors engaged in the training of teachers. Perry crystallizes the difference between initial training and school retraining when he states that :

*"Whereas the initial system attempts to cultivate a self-critical appraisal of teaching, the school retraining ... regards teaching as a static and routine situation for which permanent solutions in terms of teaching method are applicable."*<sup>20</sup>

The beginning teachers in Transkei are in a worse situation for the probationary period has long lost its real meaning and purpose and has become a ceremonial undertaking in which the experience of the beginning teacher can at best be termed a 'sink or swim' experience. If this state of affairs is to improve, a compromise must be made between the necessary study in depth of initial courses of preparation and the extension to that end of the period of training to four years. In making that compromise, it is suggested that the probationary year should be turned into a concentrated year of study to be provided to all beginning primary school teachers in particular by the Government Department of Education through its staff at Head Office and in the field. The curriculum content and course structure for the probationary course would have to be planned and designed by all parties concerned namely, the Government Department of Education, the University Faculty of Education, the Teacher Training Colleges and representatives of the primary school headmasters. This necessary co-operation would ensure that co-ordination between the largely theoretical courses of initial training and the practically-oriented courses of retraining and probationary course is maintained and that the gaps in initial training are attended to. The University which awards the diplomas to successful College students would have to withhold the award until the student has further satisfied the requirements of the probationary course. Also, the Government Department of Education would have to withhold certain privileges due to qualified teachers including the payment of full salary until the teacher on probation has satisfied all the

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20. Perry, R.L., cited in P. Renshaw, 'The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum', J.W. Tibble, (Editor), op cit., p. 64.

requirements of the course. Not only would students benefit from such a scheme, but it would also enable a closer relationship between schools and Colleges to be established, and encourage teachers to reflect critically on both the nature of their task and on the rationale underlying the many practical and theoretical activities that take place in a classroom. This closer link between schools and Colleges must assume central importance in the future, not only through teaching practice in the course of initial training but also on a wider plane during the probationary year and subsequently in-service education must all be viewed as a continuum based on a body of rationally determined and agreed principles. Only then would it be possible to make initial preparation of teachers complete and relevant to the needs of the schools without necessarily extending the period of initial training to four years and yet still be able to achieve both depth and breadth in teacher education studies.

Another problem relates to the nature and actual number of courses which students should take in each of the three years of study. There are two common approaches which have been widely advocated and adopted in various forms by different colleges in South Africa and England in particular. The first is the undifferentiated concurrent approach which is also presently in force at the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei. The approach which involves the development side by side of the academic, professional and practical aspects of the curriculum throughout the entire period of training has both its advantages and disadvantages. Although the approach makes possible the widely advocated full integration and co-ordination of the various aspects of the curriculum, however, the enormous wide range of courses in the case of the Primary Teachers' Diploma in particular results in one year being heavily packed with a multiplicity of courses that in many cases depth studies have to be sacrificed to breadth studies. Although most of the current proposals for teacher education assume that the concurrent approach will eventually be a fundamental element, the second approach, the consecutive approach still predominates.

The consecutive model represents a retention of the traditional university pattern comprising three years of academic degree study

followed by a single year of professional training and, thus, a perpetuation of the weaknesses of this approach which have been outlined elsewhere in this chapter. Hollins made this point when he advocated for England a two-tier structure on the basis of 2 yr + 1 yr, or, in other words, an additional course of one year's duration grafted onto the original two-year course :

*"It can now be seen that a course structure is needed which, on the one hand, allows the college to be a minor university, or liberal arts college, ... and raises the standard of general education of students to something like ordinary degree level; and, on the other, allows the professional course to be closely concerned in a more practical and specialized way, with the needs of the beginning teacher."*<sup>21</sup>

The introduction in England of the professional degree course, the Bachelor of Education, in the colleges of education could largely have been in pursuit of this ideal. In his definition of 'general education', Hollins included "the main subjects such as history or mathematics and education courses of a general nature"<sup>22</sup> such as principles of education or educational psychology while, on the other hand, the professional course would, according to him, comprise "professional preparation including practical experiences in schools, methods of teaching and what may be called the theory of instruction."<sup>23</sup> To this he, however, added :

*"It is true that there is a sense in which, as long as the college of education trains only teachers, the whole curriculum can be seen as professional education; thus, the main subjects can be used as material for teaching."*<sup>24</sup>

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21. Hollins, T.H.B., 'Desirable Changes in the Structure of Courses'. F.H. Hilliard, (Editor), op cit., p. 91.  
 22. Ibid. p. 92.  
 23. Loc. cit.  
 24. Loc. cit.

Hollins then argued that the two years for a course of general education, followed by one year of professional preparation, would allow the first course to get ahead without needing continually to refer to the classroom, and the second to be devoted to practical problems without needing to worry whether the theories of education were always systematically explored. Given the strong emphasis on the organization of the initial courses for the preparation of teachers today into a fully integrated unity, Hollins's argument above would be completely unsupportable. It is also evident from the details of his course structure that he applied as his criterion the notion of 'theory versus practice' and, much against Renshaw's argument earlier in this chapter, regarded theory and practice as being very largely incompatible with each other. Hollins included in the first two years of study the educational studies or educational theory and a study in depth of only one academic subject in the case of secondary school teachers and four or five academic subjects in the case of the primary school teachers. Regarding the additional third year of study, Hollins argued that this one-year course had to be school-based and that there should be plenty of opportunity for practice with school teachers being closely involved in it. The practical work should be varied so that various models could be seen and discussed using video tape and school visits, as well as school practice. Also, all curriculum studies and all the method-work needed to link subject-matter to work in classrooms would have to go into the one-year course of professional preparation and all such studies should explicitly be aimed at work in the schools. The danger inherent in Hollins's course structure however, would be a sharp dichotomy that would very likely develop between the theoretical studies on one hand and practice on the other with the result that the latter in particular would easily degenerate to mere apprenticeship similar to the nineteenth century teacher training practices. However, various versions of course structures designed on the basis of 2 yr + 1 yr model were adopted for some years in England before the Institutes of Education and their associated colleges were able to provide a satisfactory fully integrated three-year course.

In South Africa,<sup>25</sup> the grouping of subjects in three-year courses represented a compromise between a fully undifferentiated concurrent pattern and a consecutive pattern in that although all the prescribed courses developed side by side in each of the three years of study, their weighting in terms of time allocated to each of them in the teaching time-table varied in each of the three years of study. Niven explains the pattern in greater detail, but as an illustration for the purpose of this study reference will be made to his description of the three-year courses in the Cape Province in the early '70s :

*"... the same grouping of subjects can be identified as in the cases of the Transvaal and Natal. In terms of marks allotted in assessment, academic subjects account for 70 percent in the first year, 50 percent in the second, and 37,5 percent in the third in the junior primary course. In the professional subjects the allocation is 10 percent, 37,5 percent and 50 percent respectively, and in special subjects 15 percent are awarded in the first year, and 7,5 percent in each of the remaining two years. At the senior primary level the same principles of distribution are noted, viz. academic subjects 70 percent, 57,5 percent, 50-65 percent respectively; professional subjects 10 percent, 22,5 percent and 30 percent, and special subjects 15 percent in each of the three years. Religious Instruction accounts for 5 percent of the marks in each year of both courses."*<sup>26</sup>

This distribution, which reflects the weighting of the academic, professional and special subjects including Religious Instruction both in terms of content and teaching time allocation in the time-table, appears to be satisfactory in terms of differing emphasis in the two courses and the initial emphasis on academic studies as opposed to professional studies seems sound for it is generally argued that to

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25. Unless specified it is the education of White teachers that is referred to when 'South Africa' is mentioned.

26. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 314.

overweight the curriculum too heavily with professional courses during the first year of study is to put the cart before the horse in teacher education. Also evident, is a tendency towards a 1 yr + 2 yr consecutive pattern which represents a reversal of Hollins's 2 yr + 1 yr model described above.

The grouping of subjects in the integrated concurrent structure presently in force in the Teacher Training Colleges in Transkei seems to be haphazard, unplanned and unguided by any rationally determined and agreed principles. The syllabuses designed and provided by the University of Transkei are not accompanied by any specific indication or stipulation as to how much time should be allocated to each subject in the teaching time-table. The division of each syllabus into three equal parts implies that the intention is that all subjects should be given equal treatment during each of the three years of study. At the same time, there is evidence that the syllabuses were drafted each in isolation and without consultation because, they vary widely in terms of, amongst others, weighting in respect of content. The Colleges are at much variance in their grouping of the prescribed courses in each of the three years of study as well as in their allocation of teaching time to each of the various subjects in each of the three years of study and allotment of marks in internal assessment at the end of the first and second years consecutively. These important omissions and weaknesses can be attributed to the fact that the whole transformation of the teacher education patterns in the Teacher Colleges was more revolutionary than evolutionary at the beginning of this decade in the sense that the changes which occurred were introduced more or less simultaneously, hurriedly and without proper and careful planning. More time had been devoted to planning and designing the administrative structures involving the joint government of the Colleges by the Government Department of Education and the University and very little time was left for planning and designing the new courses and syllabuses to be introduced under the new system. A proposal that new syllabuses were to be introduced at the Colleges under the auspices of the University with effect from January, 1981 was only submitted to Senate of the University in May, 1980. The necessary syllabuses were drafted during the second half of that year and introduced at the

beginning of 1981. These new syllabuses had hardly been run for six months in 1981, when it was further decided on instigation by the Government Department of Education that three-year courses had to be introduced at the Colleges with effect from January, 1982. The syllabuses which would by then have been in existence for hardly a full year had to be adjusted accordingly. The second half of the year 1981 was devoted to that exercise and because of the pressure of time, given the University internal teaching commitments and pressure of examinations, the three-year syllabuses were very hastily designed. The weaknesses outlined above soon became evident but there was no time left to rectify them. Hence the syllabuses were launched in 1982 in their unsatisfactory condition and since then there has been a feeling of reluctance to interfere further with them for fear of dislocating attempts by the Colleges to adjust and acquaint themselves with the new academic and professional demands. The poor College examination results of the first final national examinations conducted in 1982 to which reference will further be made in the next few pages can be attributed to the above factors for both the College lecturers and students could easily get confused and lose their bearings in the face of such a tumult of change. It would then appear that in order to avoid possible further irreparable damage an urgent revision of the Teacher Training College courses and syllabuses including course structures along the lines outlined in the preceding pages is now timely and further delay may render the situation impossible.

Another feature of the Teacher Training College curricula is the provision under the aegis of the University of South Africa of university courses in addition to the normal diploma courses provided, in terms of the Affiliation Instrument, by the University of Transkei. This is a controversial issue which will receive further critical comment later. Regarding the provision of these university courses to all students taking the Primary Teachers' Diploma course in the 'junior' Colleges, the Educational Planner for the Colleges had this to say :

*"In reality, even those students who are training for the junior primary schools have got to go and teach in the high*

*schools because we have no teachers. One says then that it is better that they be provided with some enrichment programme to make certain that they have been taught at a level even beyond that of the Matriculation standard. One thinks of this allied with the fact that it is very difficult for our education system to ignore the developments in South Africa because we should not hamper the chances of mobility on the part of these teachers."*<sup>27</sup>

There are three questions which will have to be examined when this whole matter is given critical comment later. The first relates to provisions for channels of communication and co-ordination between the two universities concerned with the College curricula and courses in Transkei or, else, the desirability of the involvement of more than one university in the provision of College curricula and courses. The second concerns the extent to which the arrangement has affected the amount of workload that a student carries in any one academic year. The third relates to the extent to which in-service teacher education programmes could provide the necessary academic and professional enrichment better and more effectively than the above arrangement.

In conclusion on the Primary Teachers' Diploma course, reference must be made to teaching practice. Besides the variations in respect of the duration of teaching practice and the availability of supporting facilities, there is close similarity between the College procedures for teaching practice and those followed at the University. Therefore, the remarks which were made earlier in this respect apply equally to the Teacher Training Colleges. However, the duration of teaching practice in the Colleges is much longer than that provided at the University. In the Colleges, the system whereby students do teaching practice at their home schools during College vacation is also followed. This opportunity for further exposure of students to the real classroom situations is profitable and must be supported. What is not yet a feature of the College courses is microteaching which is an indispensable facility in contemporary times and provides a direct

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27. Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Education Planner for Teacher Training Colleges on 18 June 1984.

contribution towards the improvement of teaching practice and its procedures. It is significant that when the Government Department of Education channelled a grant of R300 000 from the Anglo American Corporation towards the cost of audio-visual equipment and other necessary teaching and learning materials and equipment for the Colleges, the University, which was then entrusted with the task of deciding on and purchasing the materials and equipment, included the facilities for microteaching in its budget and further explained as follows the reasons for doing so :

*"With the equipment ... it will be possible to video record teaching practice sessions both at the college with peers or children and in the reality of local school classrooms. Such recordings could also be sent to the University and serve as a practical method to monitor the quality of both specific skill acquisition and practice teaching."*<sup>28</sup>

These ambitious plans have not yet been implemented because the use of the facility which will be described in some detail in the next few pages has since 1981 when the equipment was purchased been delayed by the incompatibility of some of its items and by the lack of electricity in the majority of the Teacher Training Colleges. This, too, can be attributed to inadequate planning which did not take into account the poor physical state in which the Colleges presently are. Donaldson describes the conditions in the Transkeian schools and Teacher Training Colleges in most graphic terms as follows :

*"Throughout Transkei, school buildings are characteristically run-down, are often not equipped with desks and chairs, seldom have water-borne sanitation and are unlikely to be served by electrical power ... Overcrowding is so severe in hostels and classrooms in teacher training schools that students cannot be provided with study space of their own*

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28. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Faculty Board Document entitled "Project to Equip all Teacher Training Colleges with Microteaching and Distant Teaching Facilities" (neither numbered nor dated).

*and may easily find themselves sleeping sixteen in a room designed for six ...; until it is known whether these schools (Colleges) are to be rebuilt, replaced or renovated properly, the current building activities will merely constitute holding operations."*<sup>29</sup>

The uncertainty inherent in the last statement underlies all future planning in respect of equipping the Colleges with modern microteaching and teaching practice facilities. Under the circumstances, there is enough evidence to suggest that the quality of teaching practice will for some time largely depend on the extent to which students are encouraged to exploit local resources, make their own teaching materials, develop a kind of a 'survival' kit and through repeated use of these under the guidance and supervision of their tutors learn to master the necessary teaching skills.

In examining the curriculum of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course, it will be noted, that the structure of the courses designed to prepare students to teach in the junior secondary school reveals many of the features of those for the primary school. Therefore, many of the remarks made in the foregoing pages will equally apply to the relevant issues in the structure of the courses for the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course and, for this reason, will not be repeated. It would be particularly significant, therefore, to bear these remarks in mind when considering the structure of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course.

## 2.2 The Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) Course

Three factors can be distinguished which have continued to determine and shape the pattern of development of courses designed to prepare students to teach in the lower classes of the secondary school in Transkei. First, the socio-economic pressures underlying the political relations between Transkei and South Africa have continued

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29. Donaldson, A.R., 'The Provision of Educators in Transkei: Present Structures and Constraints' Paper presented at the University of Witwatersrand. November 1, 1982.

to exercise profound and decisive influence on the pattern of development of initial courses of preparation for the secondary school teachers in particular. A case in point are the desperate attempts, even when the conditions are unfavourable, to meet the criteria for the evaluation of qualifications for purposes of employment laid down by the Department of Education and Training for the Black teachers in South Africa. These include the structure of courses, basic requirements to be fulfilled in respect of subjects to be taken, and format and wording of the diplomas to be issued. Secondly, the country is in the grip of the post-independence optimism typical of many newly independent countries of the Third World. One characteristic feature of this optimism is a strong desire to emulate, import and transplant the advanced educational structures of developed nations in the hope that these would most likely contribute to rapid social and economic progress. In teacher education the phenomenon has manifested itself in many ways and, perhaps, the most outstanding is an attempt to offer degree studies in the Colleges which are inadequately staffed and have poor teaching and learning resources and materials. Thirdly, and lastly, the pattern of development of courses of initial preparation for secondary school teachers in Transkei is also in direct lineage from the English and South African patterns inasmuch as the forces which determined and shaped the development of teacher education in England and South Africa have also been at work in Transkei. Consequently, the English and South African approaches to and patterns of teacher education curricula and courses have become a prototype for Transkei. These forces, which were described in this study as the post-war explosions namely, the explosions of expectations, population and knowledge, have had profound impact on the expansion of education and, in particular, the increasing holding power of the secondary schools both in Transkei and abroad. The implications of these changes for teacher education have both been quantitative and qualitative and these two elements have further been exacerbated by a rapid increase in the demand for high level manpower for a growing economy and a highly differentiated and extended secondary education in order to cater for children of very widely differing abilities, interests and needs. These demands have been as strongly felt in the countries of the Third World including

Transkei as in developed nations. A Conference on 'Problems and Deficiencies in the Education Systems of Developing Countries' held at Jan Smuts House, University of the Witwatersrand in March, 1972 concurred :

*"... that all problems concerned with national development were exacerbated by rapid increases in population, and that these increases provided a primary reason for development ...; educational planners moved slowly to ... concern themselves with improving the quality and increasing the relevance of such education as was already provided ...; it was not merely the population explosion which aggravated the problem of sheer numbers (of school-going pupil population), but that the rapidity of growth patterns ensured that difficulties in solving the problem satisfactorily became continuously more formidable ... The aim of universality was proving far more difficult to achieve than had been anticipated: there was firstly the problem of catching up with the ever-growing backlog of children who were at present denied any education; secondly, there was the need of making longer periods of education available to those who were already receiving some education, but were in need of more if the manpower needs of the country at all levels were to be satisfied; and, thirdly, education systems were confronted with the constantly rising expectations of the communities they serve, particularly as to the role of education in increasing opportunities for livelihood and so raising living standards."*<sup>30</sup>

Turning to the quantitative and qualitative elements of the resultant problem of the supply and demand of teachers in the education systems of developing countries, the Conference contended that :

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30. Hirschmann, D., and B. Rose, 'Problems and Deficiencies in the Education Systems of Developing Countries': Summary of the Deliberations at the Conference on 'Educational Problems and Strategies in Southern Africa'. University of Witwatersrand. March 1, 1972. pp. 1-3.

*"Population increases readily expressed themselves in distortions in age cohorts which, in turn, were soon reflected in extremely high pupil-teacher ratios. Since the supply of new teachers could only be increased from among those pupils who reached a satisfactorily advanced level of schooling, and since so few did in fact reach anything like a high enough standard, it was difficult to avoid gross overloading of the available teachers ...; the severe shortage of teachers was only part of the problem for those teachers that were there, were generally of inadequate calibre and qualification. Because of lack of financial incentives ... and of status incentives ... there was an inadequate supply of suitable candidates for teacher training."*<sup>31</sup>

For the last two decades, the education system of Transkei has been caught in this dilemma and has moved in a vicious circle which the educational planners could not break into in order to ensure progress because any increase in selectivity or any insistence on higher qualifications for teachers would only have the effect of reducing the number of teachers in service or available for service, a trend that would send the already imperiled pupil-teacher ratios soaring. Thus the teacher shortage in Transkei has been both a numerical shortfall relative to total pupil enrolment and a severe deficiency of adequately qualified teachers within the existing teaching force. In the primary schools, however, there is, in a purely quantitative sense, an excess supply of teachers as evinced by a measure of unemployment of qualified married women teachers and as was pointed out by the Educational Planner.<sup>32</sup> This can be attributed mainly to the reasons which were outlined earlier. The teachers at this level are those who took the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) course to which the entrance requirement for admission remained for many years a Junior Certificate or Standard VIII pass. In the secondary schools, on the other hand, the acute shortage of graduate teachers has been, since the inception of Self-Government in 1963, the subject matter of the

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31. Loc. cit.

32. Cf. *Infra*. pp. 440-441.

policy speeches of the various Ministers of Education, Annual Reports of the Government Department of Education, Commissions of Inquiry namely, the Cingo, the K-N-N and the Taylor Commissions, and educationists in general. In addition to the lack of financial incentives and low professional status, two more factors contributed to and aggravated the phenomenon of teacher shortage during the middle of the last decade. The differentiated curricula and syllabuses were introduced and secondary education extended, thus bringing it within the reach of the greater portion of the population. The primary schools which provided education up to Standard VI until 1974, were from 1975 classified as junior secondary schools by the addition of Standard VII and thus extended from Sub-Standard A to Standard VII. As a result of this arrangement, the number of secondary schools increased from 83 in 1974 to 1 086 in 1975, of which 1 003 were junior secondary schools. The number of pupils in the secondary schools increased from 30 000 in 1974 to 92 000 in 1975. Thus, the multiplicity of junior secondary schools resulted in an added high demand for teachers to teach the Standards V, VI and VII classes forming the lower level of the secondary school. The greatest weakness which was an indication of poor planning was, however, that in this arrangement, the principals of the newly upgraded junior secondary schools earned salaries which were higher than those earned by the graduate teachers in the senior secondary schools and yet, in terms of qualifications, they possessed a Junior Certificate and a Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC). The dissatisfaction which developed amongst the graduate teachers resulted in an exodus of many well qualified teachers from the senior secondary schools. At the same time, many non-graduate teachers who were attached to and teaching in the senior secondary schools began to seek posts of principalship in the junior secondary schools. Thus, not only did proliferation of junior secondary schools aggravate the phenomenon of teacher-shortage as there were no corresponding arrangements made to increase teacher supply for the secondary schools, but the arrangement also adversely affected the supply of teachers for the senior classes of the secondary school. In his policy speech in 1978, the Minister of Education admitted that :

*"My department has come to realize that the introduction of Standards five, six and seven in the same campus with Sub-Standards A to Standard four was a big mistake. There are far too many miniature Standard seven classes with pupils not exceeding 15 all over the country. The result has been the most uneconomic distribution of teachers at these mini-schools."*<sup>33</sup>

It was thus decided in 1978 not to consider further applications for the extension of primary schools to include junior secondary schools.

Despite the far-reaching implications that all these developments have had in respect of the necessary immediate provision and improvement of facilities for the preparation of teachers for the secondary school, the last two decades witnessed very little progress in this area. Until the beginning of the last decade, the then University College of Fort Hare remained the only source for the preparation and provision of non-graduate teachers for the lower classes of the secondary school and the annual output of qualified teachers holding the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) was very low, being only 64 teachers for both Ciskei and Transkei, for example, in 1967. The first institution in Transkei to be involved in the training of teachers for the secondary school was Shawbury Teacher Training School where in 1967 a one-year course following on the primary teachers' course was introduced in order to prepare teachers for teaching the Form I class of the secondary school. The course, however, did not evoke much interest among students as was evinced by the low enrolment of 15 students in 1967, 16 in 1968, 16 in 1969 and 14 in 1970. Consequently, it was discontinued at the end of 1970. It was at the beginning of the last decade that a more meaningful and realistic approach to the preparation and provision of secondary school teachers was adopted. When it became clear that the University Colleges could no longer provide sufficient teachers for the increasingly expanding secondary education, the South African Department of Education and Training introduced a

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33. Republic of Transkei, House of Assembly, Minister of Education. Policy Speech. 1978. p. 119.

two-year Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (JSTC) at some of its teacher training institutions in 1968. Transkei subsequently introduced a similar course first at Cicira Teacher Training School and later at Butterworth and Maluti Teacher Training Schools. The course was initially designed to prepare teachers for Standards VI to VIII, but when the junior secondary phase was introduced in 1975 comprising Standards V to VII, the intention was to train for these standards.

Conversely, the Junior Secondary Teachers' Course has been, until very recently, a very powerful source of supply of teachers for the senior secondary schools. The acute shortage of graduate teachers for the senior secondary schools was, during the second half of the last decade, almost approaching a breaking point. There were two main reasons for this. First, there was the exodus of graduate teachers to which reference has already been made. Secondly, there was, soon after independence, a sharp rise in the number of the senior secondary schools as the Government Department of Education began to build many more in response to requests with which it was inundated from the various communities for such schools to be established in their localities. In this regard, the Taylor Commission made the following observation in 1979 :

*"In 1978, there were 33 636 pupils in Stds 8-10 with 1 176 teachers, giving a ratio of 1:28,6. This figure may be accepted as a general guide only ... There is need to correct this situation, a maximum of 30-35 pupils per class is acceptable ... There are at present 110 Senior Secondary schools ... For the coming period of five years, therefore ... no further senior secondary schools should be built..."<sup>34</sup>*

However, nine more senior secondary schools have been established since then, thus bringing the total of senior secondary schools now in existence to 119.

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34. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission. 1979. op cit., paras. 11.18; 11.19.

The implications of the above developments, which are indicative of poor planning, for the demand and supply of teachers for the secondary schools were far-reaching. As more and more teachers who qualified from the three senior Teacher Training Schools and specially trained for the junior secondary phase were drawn into the senior secondary schools to teach Standards VIII, IX and X, a large number of teachers who had been trained for the primary schools were made to teach the junior secondary classes. This rather incongruous situation has lately been gradually reversed as more graduate teachers became available for the senior secondary schools as a result of the recent salary improvements which have made teaching a relatively well paid profession in Transkei. Added to this, there has been in recent years the country's ability to trade on its policies of non-racialism, thus not only luring back a large number of Transkeians who had left before the country became independent to teach either in or outside the Republic of South Africa and the homelands, but also drawing into the country a large number of expatriate teachers mainly for the senior secondary schools.

The comments in the preceding pages on the historical development of courses for the teachers of the junior secondary schools have been intended to set the stage for the next step namely, an examination of their development and structure in the present decade and by this means to throw into perspective the problems which beset the professional educator of teachers and the institutions within which he works. First, the following observations must be made :

- (a) It appears that the most powerful force behind change and innovation has been the influence of the socio-economic pressures referred to earlier which underlie the relations between Transkei and the Republic of South Africa. Under the circumstances the relevance of courses to the problems and needs of teacher education in Transkei could be seriously endangered.
- (b) There has been a gross incidence of inadequate planning which has been mainly characterized by lack of foresight and resultant chopping and changing in the development of courses for the

teachers. Added to this, has been the readiness to accept uncritically and adopt without modification every innovation introduced in the Republic of South Africa.

- (c) The greatest concern centred around the quantitative aspects of the problem of teacher shortage in the secondary schools. The struggle for quantity, however, was made more difficult by inadequate planning and general wastage from the teaching profession. Quality was increasingly sacrificed in the interests of quantity. The majority of the teachers were teaching well above their level of training. The general classroom practices were characterized by the meticulous reproduction of the text-book and rote-learning. Since in Transkei as in many other countries of the Third World, the staff of the teacher training institutions are recruited from the ranks of the school teachers and, since generally teachers tend to reproduce their own kind, a vicious circle developed in which both the general standard of education in the schools and that of teacher education in the teacher training institutions declined. It would appear, therefore, that under the circumstances if quantity was of tremendous importance, greater emphasis should have been placed on quality so as to break the vicious circle. The latter would require an alteration of the means by which the teachers were being prepared. This, in turn, would involve, amongst others, methods of improving the intake into the teacher training institutions, means of improving the quality of the staff of these institutions and possibilities of raising the quality of the curricula and courses for the preparation of the teacher who must take his position with confidence in the secondary school.
- (d) Lastly, there was, during this period, a gradual evolution of a pattern of teacher education curricula and courses similar to the patterns already developed in South Africa and England. Some of the features of this pattern were that the preparation and provision of teachers for the secondary school which had been the sole task of the University College of Fort Hare was gradually being turned into a common ground for both the University

College and the Teacher Training Schools, and, thus, the latter were being drawn more closely into the university orbit. These early developments were to form the basis of future planning in the preparation and provision of secondary school teachers.

The developments outlined above culminated in 1981 in the affiliation of the Teacher Training Schools to the University of Transkei, their up-grading from the status of 'schools' to that of the 'colleges' and, in 1982, the extension of the duration of their curricula and courses from the period of two years to that of three years. The Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (JSTC) course was replaced by the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) course and continued as before to be provided at three senior Teacher Training Colleges namely, Cicira, Butterworth and Maluti Teacher Training Colleges. In 1982, another College namely, Bethel Teacher Training College was included. This institution which had never provided for teacher training before belongs to the Seventh Day Adventists. When the provision for teacher training was introduced in 1982, the authorities of the institution requested that this be associated to the University of Transkei in the same manner as the rest of the Colleges in the country, that is, through the affiliated College Board. It was decided to restrict the newly incorporated College to the preparation of teachers of commercial subjects for the junior secondary school, a facility that had hitherto been provided to a few selected students at Cicira Teacher Training College. In 1983, another College, Clarkebury, joined the ranks of the so-called 'senior' Colleges<sup>35</sup> thus raising the total number of the Teacher Training Colleges enjoined to prepare teachers for the secondary schools to five.

Regarding the course structure of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma, the following courses of study can be distinguished :

(a) Professional Subjects

All the prescribed professional courses are compulsory and common to

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35. Cf. Supra. p. 440.

all the Colleges. They are similar to the courses designed for the Primary Teachers' course. As such, the remarks which were made earlier in this regard equally apply to the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course. There can be no valid argument to support a suggestion that these courses should be different for the two programmes inasmuch as such a view would not only be professionally unsound but also lead to the entrenchment of the two-tier status system in the teaching profession.

(b) Academic (Basic) Subjects

The general world trend favours a study in depth of one or two academic subjects in a course designed to prepare teachers for the secondary school. It might well be argued that in developing countries where the shortage of teachers for the secondary schools is most acute, narrow specialization in the preparation and provision of teachers should be discouraged at all costs. However, if quality is to be the goal in the preparation and provision of teachers, breadth studies must give way for depth studies.

In Transkei, the College students are, as a rule, required to study in depth two academic subjects. However, the four commercial subjects offered at Cicira and Bethel Teacher Training Colleges namely, Accountancy, Business Economics, Typing and Economics, are compulsory for all students training as teachers in this direction. The rationale that is being given for this rather anomalous arrangement in the preparation of secondary school teachers is that there are very few students who register for training as teachers of commercial subjects so that the few who do should be so prepared that they become conversant with all of them and, in fact, be able to teach them all when occasion demands. The curriculum content for these students is, as a result, exceptionally overcrowded with courses. There is, thus, need to undertake an analysis of the nature and extent of the supply and demand of teachers in this field and, then, if it so warrants, prune down the curriculum content for these subjects and expand the facilities in the Colleges for the preparation of teachers.

As a rule, all students study in addition to the normal diploma courses the university courses provided by the University of South Africa. These courses are taken either for non-degree purposes as a form of an enrichment programme or for degree purposes in the sense that on the successful completion of the diploma course, the student will be able to claim partial exemption from university courses in working for a degree. The latter option is open to students who possess full matriculation exemption and thus satisfy the requirements for admission to degree studies. Although the intention of the university courses is to improve the students' competence as teachers, the procedure underlying their provision has led to a number of difficulties which are likely to hamper the attainment of the objectives of teacher education in the Colleges. Some of these involve an excessive overcrowding of the student's curriculum with a multiplicity of courses and negation of the important principle of relevance which will receive attention later in this chapter. Concerning the first problem, the Educational Planner for the Colleges admitted that :

*"South Africa has been handicapped by this offer of degree courses in the Colleges ... (and is doing) ... away with (them). What does it help really to introduce these degree courses if they do not count towards the results because these degree courses have nothing to do in the determination of whether one passes or fails the year of study? ... These are two programmes. Perhaps one would have understood if one said if one is going to do this degree course, it means one is going to eliminate this aspect from one's normal diploma programme. But since these go together at the same time, what it means is that one has added to the load of the student ..."*<sup>36</sup>

An alternative pattern which, however, would need to be considered with great caution is the recognition by the University of selected College courses for degree purposes along the lines of the policy initiated in

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36. Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Educational Planner for Teacher Training Colleges on 18 June 1984.

Natal in the 1960s. In Natal, the Faculty of Education of the Natal University selected college of education courses recognized by the University for degree purposes. Niven describes the procedure adopted as follows :

*"The procedure ... has been for the training college concerned to make application to the Faculty of Education for recognition of its courses in particular subjects. A committee representing the Faculty of Education, the college, as well as the university department or faculty concerned considers the syllabuses and examinations of the training college course. Recommendations are then made to the Boards of the Faculties of Education and Arts or Science which, in turn, if acceptable, are referred to the University Senate ...; students who have completed these courses are able to claim partial exemption from university courses in working for degrees."*<sup>37</sup>

It is significant that an agreement similar to the one described above should, for the sake of relevance and expedience, be entered into between the University of Transkei and the Teacher Training Colleges. Each discipline, be it history or geography, physics or mathematics, has its own vigorous standard but the most urgent question to be resolved is that of relevance in terms of the student's and the child's own needs and those of society. If the basic academic subjects are for the personal education of the teacher, then the question of relevance presents itself quite starkly. Fafunwa expresses this view in the most unequivocal terms :

*"The teacher needs to understand the social and economic forces within his society, the political and cultural institutions of his people, to acquaint himself with the process of change and the tools for introducing social change, to understand community development and how to identify himself with the community ...; no teacher can*

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37. Cf. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 296.

*afford to be ignorant of the basic scientific facts ... where superstition and magic dominate and impoverish millions of the unsophisticated citizens ... He should be able to operate at a high intellectual level, and at the same time operate in a much lower gear ... The teacher must be sufficiently educated in local, national and contemporary world literature ... An African bias must as of right take precedence over any other cultural bias; to do otherwise is to negate the basic aim of education ... If, therefore, a change is to be effected in the African curriculum, it must be spearheaded by teacher institutions."*<sup>38</sup>

It has already been shown that the University of Transkei is already developing and modelling its curricula and courses along the lines outlined above<sup>39</sup> which then makes it better suited than the University of South Africa to provide degree courses to the College students. Another possibility which can be explored in addition to the former Natal policy presented above is an arrangement whereby College students who have completed a three-year training College course could be entitled to claim exemption from the first-year university course. It might even be possible to secure exemption from a second-year course also in the case of outstanding performance in a particular College course. It is true that the work done over three years by many of the College students in their two main subjects of study comes close to the level expected for these subjects in a university course leading to a pass or ordinary degree. It was the acceptance of this problem which contributed to the introduction in the colleges of education in the United Kingdom of the professional degree, the Bachelor of Education, in the 'seventies.

The two approaches suggested above would, however, need to be considered with caution for Niven rightfully warns that :

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38. Fafunwa, A.B., New Perspectives in African Education. pp. 94-96.

39. Cf. Supra. Chapter Six. pp. 331-332.

*"The danger in any move to recognize courses within the university or to award degrees for extended college courses, is that academic standards may be lowered with the ultimate result that the value of the degree becomes debased."*<sup>40</sup>

Reference was made in this study of the debasing of academic standards which resulted in the United States of America from the introduction of courses of this nature. Given the nature and extent of the difficulties which are being encountered in the Colleges at the present time, the likelihood that a similar situation may develop in Transkei seems to be even greater than that postulated by Niven in respect of the education of White teachers in the Republic of South Africa. A consideration of the problems which endanger the current procedure involving the provision of degree courses on a part-time basis concurrently with professional training is now overdue :

(i) Confusion of Purpose

The first problem relates to a confusion of purpose. It is generally claimed that the purpose of the degree courses in the Colleges is to raise the academic standards. The Inspector for Training Colleges expressed this view when he explained the purpose of degree courses for the students taking the Primary Teachers' Diploma course :

*"... we are upgrading the training of our teachers of the PTD level so that they can teach at the secondary school level ... Let me make haste to explain that emphasis is on 'University' level."*<sup>41</sup>

There seems to be a confusion in this case because the affiliation of the Colleges to the University of Transkei, which subsequently provided courses of a reasonably high standard for the Colleges, was also in pursuance of the same objective and purpose. It would thus appear that

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40. Niven, J.M., op cit., p. 296.

41. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education, Report on an Academic Enrichment Visit to Mount Arthur Teacher Training College. February 17, 1983.

the only advantage of the degree courses is that they provide continuity to the College courses. In that case, some of the courses provided by the University of Transkei could be recognized as courses taken towards the partial fulfilment of degree requirements. Otherwise, the procedure, as it is, represents an example of yet another aimless aping of the pattern introduced in the Republic of South Africa by the Department of Education and Training which designs the courses for the preparation of Black teachers with the exception of basic subjects which are provided in some cases by the universities including the University of South Africa.

(ii) Inadequately Qualified College Staff

Under the prevailing system, the staff of the Colleges are expected to provide, as part of their normal duties, academic guidance and support to students taking university courses. However, the majority of the College lecturers do not possess adequate academic qualifications commensurate with university academic standard. The Colleges which offer the Primary Teachers' Diploma course and in which these courses are taken by all students for non-degree purposes are in a worse position. The Principal of Mount Arthur Teacher Training College responded as follows when informed about these expectations of the Government Department of Education :

*"I am very keen indeed on the academic enrichment of our students but ... the only few graduates I have at the school ... are fairly loaded."*<sup>42</sup>

(iii) Inadequate Library Facilities

The library facilities in the Colleges are almost non-existent. One of the findings of the Panel Inspection of the Colleges in May, 1983 was that, in the actual words used in the Report :

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42. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. Letter from Mount Arthur Teacher Training College to the Secretary for Education dated February 17, 1983. Departmental File No. 7/2/1.

" - noted ... the deplorable lack/absence of facilities in keeping with the requirements of a University course standard."<sup>43</sup>

It is not likely that this situation will soon improve as long as the Colleges are not distinguished from the primary and secondary schools in the annual allocations for provision of supplies. The Inspectors realized this fact for to their recommendation that the University of Transkei should "somewhat" be a central pool from which College books would have to radiate, they added :

*"This process must, of course, be slow due to financial problems."*<sup>44</sup>

(iv) Organizational Disunity and Fragmentation of Curricula and Courses

It appears to be a serious organizational anomaly that one Teacher Training College should be associated and linked up to two different universities which have very little in common between them. Such organizational disunity strips the College of its identity and places the professional educator in a very difficult position as he finds himself required to put together the fragments of academic requirements imposed on him by the different universities into a meaningful whole. The College has thus been turned into a pawn in the struggle for professional and academic standards in which the University of Transkei, the Government Department of Education and the University of South Africa are involved. In the case of the courses provided by the University of South Africa, the procedures and requirements governing the teaching of the courses of that University in general must be observed. The University of Transkei has provided a course structure whose elements may be incompatible with the procedures and requirements set by the University of South Africa for its courses. The general

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43. Republic of Transkei, Department of Education. A General Report on Teacher Training College Panel Inspection. 16-20/5/1983. Departmental File No. 7/1/1.

44. Loc. cit.

world trend favours integration of all courses of study in teacher education and to this end consultation, co-operation and co-ordination are recommended in the designing of courses. Under the circumstances, such integration becomes impossible in Transkei. The syllabuses of the courses provided by the University of South Africa may not only be incompatible with those designed and provided by the University of Transkei but also, to say the least, their irrelevance to the needs and problems of teachers in Transkei would be a deterrent to integration. Fafunwa made a point that even basic academic subjects must be relevant to the society in which the teacher is to live and serve.<sup>45</sup>

Having thus outlined the weaknesses in the provision of basic subjects for the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course it can be concluded that the courses for the preparation of secondary school teachers seriously require some fundamental re-thinking.

#### (c) Curriculum Studies

The third component of the curriculum structure of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course comprises the curriculum studies. Here, the normal procedure generally followed in the preparation of teachers for the secondary school is adopted. The student studies the methods of teaching in the normal classroom situation the two academic subjects he selected for his general education. However, as in the case of the Primary Teachers' Diploma course, the syllabuses of some courses do not make the necessary distinction between the content of the academic subject and the methods of teaching it as a school subject. Therefore, the comments which were made in this regard earlier on the Primary Teachers' Diploma course apply equally to the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course.<sup>46</sup> Also, the remarks that were made regarding the necessary integration not only amongst the subject methods but also between the subject methods and the theoretical courses in education and general methodology course in particular also apply

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45. Cf. Supra. pp. 473-474.

46. Cf. Supra. Chapter Seven. p. 377.

here.<sup>47</sup> Equally important is the relevance of a course on subject methods to the real classroom situation and the significant role teaching practice has to be made to play in this regard.<sup>48</sup> These issues were explored in detail when examining the University courses in the previous chapter.

(d) Practical Subjects

The same so-called 'cultural' subjects prescribed for the Primary Teachers' Diploma course are offered to students taking the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course. However, in the latter case, the student is required to select only one from the prescribed list of five subjects. This is, as was suggested earlier, an acceptable arrangement. As was explained earlier, it is of great importance that the teacher should take part in at least one of the many extra-mural activities of the school for their educational significance in the development of the child's personality is of equal value to that of other subjects. The aesthetic value of the teacher can be greatly improved through, amongst others, art and music. In these fields, it is significant that equal emphasis should be placed on both the European and African styles and approaches which together constitute the child's cultural life world.

2.3 University Academic and Professional Guidance to and Monitoring of Standards in the Colleges

The Registrar of the University of Transkei, the Dean and Vice-Dean of the Faculty of Education and the Head of the Department of In-Service and Adult Education correctly concluded at their special meeting held on May 17, 1982 that "There was lack of clarity on the practical aspects of affiliation"<sup>49</sup> and, then, proposed that a joint meeting of University and the Department of Education representatives should be convened to clarify all the issues involved. An examination of the Instrument of

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47. Cf. *Supra*. Chapter Seven. p. 374. *et seq.*

48. *Loc. cit.*

49. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Minutes of Meeting on Affiliated Colleges held on May 17, 1982.

Affiliation confirms this view. The functions related to the necessary academic and professional guidance to the Colleges are described as the duties of the Affiliated College Board and there is no clear indication as to how the Board will in practical terms carry out these functions. Amongst others, it is stated that the Board, which comprises the Dean of Education, the Secretary for Education (or his representative), the Inspector for the Colleges, the Head of the Department of In-Service Education and the Principals of the Colleges, will monitor and report on the implementation of teacher education policy and programmes, propose appropriate syllabuses, set up subject study committees, deal with questions related to staffing of the Colleges, propose the form and content of certificates and diplomas and appropriate levels of entry into courses and advise the Colleges on the conduct and timing of examinations. Nowhere is it clearly stated how all the above functions are to be translated to practice. It is only indicated by implication that these duties might land at the door of the University as the Instrument of Affiliation empowers the University to confer diplomas and certificates on students registered in the Colleges. This then implies that the University must carry out all functions related to academic and professional guidance to, and monitor standards at the Colleges in order to safeguard its own standards which would be reflected by such diplomas and certificates.

Following upon this, the University delegated these functions to its Faculty of Education. Thereupon, the Faculty of Education assigned all duties related to the planning and co-ordination of the activities of its staff in this area to the Department of In-Service and Adult Education. Following the events examined in Chapter Five<sup>50</sup> involving the dissatisfaction expressed by the Government Department of Education with the manner in which the University and, in particular, the Faculty of Education was discharging these functions in relation to the Colleges, the Faculty established a separate department, the Department of Collegiate Education, to take over all the functions relating to the Colleges from the Department of In-Service and Adult Education and a

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50. Cf. *Supra*, Chapter Five. p. 252 *et seq.*

Teacher Education Unit (TEU) which had been established in the *interim*.

The present arrangement is that the Department of Collegiate Education will consist of at least four staff members each responsible for each of the four main broad subject areas provided at the Colleges namely, Mathematics and Science, History and Geography or Social Studies, Professional Subjects and Languages. The Department plans mainly for the whole academic year and co-ordinates the activities of the various subject specialists in the Faculty in relation to the Colleges. These activities include in the main preparation of teaching materials in all College subjects, seminars with College staff at the University or at their respective Colleges, moderation of internal examinations in the Colleges and submission to the Senate of the University recommendations regarding examiners and moderators for the final College examinations. The Department of Collegiate Education is also expected to undertake regular visits to the various Colleges in order to monitor the work of the Colleges and give guidance and support on the spot. It also serves as a direct official link between the Colleges and the individual subject specialists within the Faculty. It receives, examines and proposes solutions to problems and queries of the Colleges in matters related to their professional and academic work. At the moment, there is still only one member in this Department who is designated as Head of Collegiate Education.

However, the Faculty has and still continues to encounter some difficulties in its implementation of the programme of activities outlined above. The most severe setback in this regard was occasioned by the administrative problems which were described in Chapter Five as the 'scramble for the Colleges'.<sup>51</sup> Although the parties involved are at present less vocal the symptoms of the tug-of-war are still very clear. The source of the conflict remains the evident uncertainty about the boundaries between the academic and professional on one hand and the administrative aspects on the other which are still not clearly defined or understood. There is still much talk about one camp's intervention

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51. Loc. cit.

in and interference with the affairs of the other. For example, the Faculty of Education expressed dissatisfaction with the introduction of the enrichment programme in the form of academic courses of the University of South Africa for all College students as well as degree courses of that University for students with full Matriculation exemption in addition to normal College diploma courses. This, the Faculty not only regarded as a measure of interference with its academic and professional programmes in the Colleges, but also as a clear indication of the rejection and disapproval of its courses and syllabuses, or of continuing dissatisfaction with the manner in which it provided academic and professional guidance to, and monitored standards in the Colleges. This feeling continues to have an adverse effect on the attitude of the Faculty towards the work it once regarded as one of its important priorities.

Other problems which retard progress and consolidation of the courses and syllabuses in the Colleges despite guidance provided by the Faculty along the lines described above are inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials in the Colleges, inadequate academic and professional qualifications of the majority of the College lecturers in relation to the standard of the courses provided and the multiplicity and geographical distribution of the Colleges which make easy and more regular access to them difficult. Regarding the first problem namely, the inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials including, of course, library facilities, an attempt by the Faculty to provide the Colleges with audio-visual resources has been delayed by the incompatibility of some items of the equipment and by the lack of electricity in some of the Colleges. The various elements of the equipment and their specific purposes were explained as follows :

*"The video tape recorders and the Mobile Tandberg Group Trainer could ... be used by the students and College lecturers to analyse teaching or they could be used to improve their language arts skills. The video equipment could ... besides the pre-service training ... also be used in an in-service training programme. The two*

*camera studio ... could produce programmes to upgrade College lecturers ...; each teacher training college could serve as an in-service training institute for the teachers who live within a short travelling distance."*<sup>52</sup>

An investment in such an ambitious audio-visual facility the utilitarian value of which cannot be disputed, would indeed be highly profitable, but for Transkei in its present socio-economic state with all the typical indicators of underdevelopment such as lack of capital, low gross national product and *per capita* income, high illiteracy and unemployment and extreme social disparity, money would be best spent in improving the existing educational facilities and exploiting local resources. Amongst other teaching and learning materials which the Faculty has provided for use in the Colleges are series of lecture notes including a textbook on school organization co-written, produced and published by two Faculty staff members. A very crucial area which has not yet received the necessary Faculty attention is the in-service education of the College lecturers in order to upgrade their academic and professional qualifications. In this regard, it has often been explained that they could take the in-service diploma courses provided at the University. It is evident, however, from the views outlined in this work on in-service teacher education that these courses cannot attract the College lecturers as they are not particularly relevant to their work in the Colleges. For example, only three College lecturers registered for the Certificate in Primary Education (CPE) course in a total of 68 and 64 students in 1981 and 1982 respectively. There can be no immediate improvement in the Colleges until in-service courses specifically designed for the College lecturers are instituted without delay. The evident poor performance of College students in the first final examinations of the new University courses and syllabuses in 1982 as illustrated in Table T below can be attributed to a wide range of factors some of which have been pointed out in this chapter. It can equally be claimed with some measure of certainty that the greatest

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52. University of Transkei, Faculty of Education. Faculty Board Document Entitled: "Project to Equip all Teacher Training Colleges with Microteaching and Distant Teaching Facilities" (not numbered and dated).

contributory factor was the unsatisfactory qualifications of the majority of the College staff in relation to the courses and syllabuses which they taught. Table T shows the total number of candidates who sat for the examinations at the end of 1982, the numbers of passes, of failures and of those who had to write supplementary examinations in each College :

Table T  
Summary of College Examination Results, 1982

College	A Total	B Passes	C Failures	D Supp.	C + D
Butterworth	142	94 - (66%)	4	44	48
Cicira	122	97 - (80%)	1	24	25
Maluti	109	81 - (74%)	Nil	28	28
JSTC - Total	373	272 - (73%)	5	96	101
Arthur Tsengiwe	260	133 - (51%)	47	80	127
Clarkebury	258	122 - (43%)	32	144	146
Bensonvale	37	17 - (46%)	6	14	20
Mount Arthur	56	24 - (43%)	8	24	32
Shawbury	81	70 - (86%)	1	10	11
Sigcawu	198	154 - (78%)	8	36	44
PTC - Total	890	510 - (57%)	102	276	378

Source: University of Transkei, Examinations Section Records. 1982.<sup>53</sup>

A comparison between columns C (Failures) and D (Supplementary) reveals that the number of candidates who had to write supplementary examinations was greater than double that of the failures. It is suggested that for the purpose of this study, columns C and D should both be taken to represent the actual number of failures in the final

53. University of Transkei, Examination Section. Annual Results Records. 1982.

examinations written in the Colleges in October/November, 1982. This would then bring the total number of failures in the Colleges in that year to 479, which implies a failure rate of 37,9 percent. There was evidently a higher failure rate in the 'junior' than 'senior' Colleges.<sup>54</sup> In the former Colleges alone the failure rate was 43 percent while in the latter Colleges it was only 27 percent. The nature of these examination results when taken together with the analysis of the qualifications of the College lecturers presented by means of Table Q in Chapter Five,<sup>55</sup> indicate very clearly that the quality of the College lecturers was the most contributory factor to the failure rate in 1982. It was shown in Table Q that the majority of the lowly qualified College lecturers are concentrated in the 'junior' Colleges which as a rule prepare primary school teachers while the 'senior' Colleges which prepare the secondary school teachers are largely staffed with graduates.

Under the circumstances, the need for in-service courses for the College lecturers need not be re-emphasized. There is certainly an urgent need for joint planning of in-service teacher education in Transkei. To this end, a high-level in-service teacher education committee, preferably University based, could be established. The committee, which would have to be representative of the Government Department of Education and the University, would advise the Faculty of Education and Government on matters relating to all in-service teacher education courses, thus preventing duplication and gaps in provision, and exercising a co-ordinating role in making provision to meet the total in-service teacher education needs of Transkei. This is particularly important as high-level discussions relating to the establishment of an In-Service Teacher Education College gather momentum and, as the Five-Year Plan of the Government Department of Education for the In-Service Education of Teachers nears completion.

As a general conclusion on the in-service and Training College curricula

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54. Cf. *Supra*. p. 440.

55. Cf. *Supra*, Chapter Five, p. 269.

and courses, an observation which can be made is that there is enough evidence to suggest that the improvement of pre-service and in-service teacher education provisions in Transkei is and will likely continue for some time to be impeded most powerfully by the unhealthy relationships between the Government Department of Education, the University and the Colleges. This situation can be attributed to the loose association provided by the Instrument of Affiliation and particularly by the Affiliated College Board. It is thus imperative that in order to remedy this and prevent a likely future explosive situation, a new form of association which will be reasonably prescriptive of the powers, responsibilities and functions of each of the parties concerned should be developed as soon as possible. Any delay to do this could eventually lead to the collapse of the system. In Chapter Nine, an attempt is made to conceptualize a possible alternative organizational framework for teacher education in Transkei.

## CHAPTER NINE

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS : PRIORITIES IN FUTURE POLICY AND PLANNING AND A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR THE FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN TRANSKEI

The previous Chapters have pointed to a wide range of problems and defects in teacher education in Transkei. There has been strongly expressed an urgent need to revise and reform the existing *modus operandi* on which the present organization of teacher education is based. An attempt has also been made, through an examination of the existing curricula and courses, to delineate the more important problem areas in the curricula structures, content of courses and methods of preparation of teachers. The most powerful constraint to progress was, however, said to be the poor quality of the staff of the Colleges. The situation was said to be aggravated by an inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials particularly in the form of library facilities and audio-visual materials. This Chapter represents then a consolidation of the work of the previous Chapters inasmuch as it adopts and uses as the premises upon which future policy and planning as well as the proposed structure can be based, the problems emergent in current practice. To this end, a preliminary determination of priorities is essential in order to depict the climate in which the reforms must take place and set the scene for the examination of the proposed organizational framework.

#### 1 Priorities in Future Policy and Planning

Central to any attempt at planning and developing a programme of future actions in any field of human activity are the identification of problems, the assessment of needs and the formulation of goals or objectives. These are closely interrelated in so many ways that they cannot be completely separated in practice. Thus, planning which is commonly defined as a "... rational process of preparing a set of decisions for future actions directed at achieving goals and objectives

by optional means"<sup>1</sup> does not take place in a vacuum. In any given situation certain problems and needs will be more serious and some goals more important than others. Herein lies the notion of priorities in the process of planning. It is imperative to adopt and use appropriate criteria in order to determine the priorities which when met will not only result in the maximum benefit but also serve as a means of improving the educational situation in general. The priorities in the future planning of Transkei teacher education set out in this Chapter have been formulated in a smaller number of general categories. These may now be examined.

#### 1.1 The Need for a Comprehensive, Clearly Articulated and Well Co-Ordinated Teacher Education Policy

It can be claimed with some degree of certainty that nearly all the weaknesses and shortcomings in the preparation and provision of teachers in Transkei result from a clear absence of a well defined comprehensive teacher education policy. One of the evident manifestations of the absence of the necessary basic guidelines for decision-making as well as of lack of clearly articulated goals and objectives for the various courses of teacher preparation is the amorphous character of the teacher education system. This feature can be attributed to inappropriate decision-making procedures in teacher education. One of these procedures is, as was pointed out in the previous Chapter, the chopping and changing which is clearly indicative of absence of policy. Thus, decision-making in teacher education displays, amongst others, the following characteristics :

- (a) Changes in policy are many and frequent; these decisions, which are at times contradictory in nature, have continued to make difficult the establishment of the necessary routine in practice.

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1. Cf. Musaazi, J.C.S., The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. p. 119.

- (b) Quite often decisions are made and implemented in great haste and seemingly at times without preliminary consideration of the likely consequences. As a result, these arbitrary decisions tend to produce unexpected consequences. Consequently, modification of existing policies or formulation of new policies thus becomes imperative. The whole process has developed into a vicious circle in that decision-making in teacher education becomes an *ad hoc* process and a means of dealing with consequences which result from it.
- (c) Lastly, the choices made in respect of teacher education procedures and practices do not deserve to be qualified as policy-decisions because in the majority of cases they are devoid of the essential elements and necessary successive steps involved in an earnest decision-making process. In simple terms, the decision-making process involves, first, an awareness of a problem, then, a review of possible alternatives and, finally, the making of a responsible choice. The choice should always be made in the light of pre-conceived likely consequences and, thus, with complete willingness to take and bear the resulting responsibility. This procedure is not always followed in the formulation of decisions in teacher education in Transkei because of the most powerful influence of the socio-economic and political pressures underlying the relationship between the Republics of Transkei and South Africa. Instead, the impression is given that the whole process of decision-making is largely characterized by a mere aping and transplantation of choices and decisions made in the Republic of South Africa by the Department of Education and Training in respect of the preparation of Black persons as teachers. It is seemingly this indirect exercise of power without responsibility on one hand and, on the other, the assumption of responsibility for policies whose bases or rationale and likely consequences are, at the most, inadequately understood which render Transkei highly vulnerable to the criticism that it is a neo-colonial state.

It would, therefore, appear that in any consideration of teacher education reforms in Transkei, the first and highest priority should be given to a careful formulation of a clear, unambiguous and comprehensive policy. The policy should entail both a statement in broad terms of the aims of teacher education as a whole and a clear description of the specific objectives for each sector of the teacher education system.

### 1.2 The Need for Sound Co-Operation and Harmonious Relations Between the Institutions and Organizations Concerned with Teacher Education

Relations between teacher education institutions and organizations must be such as to allow the development of a high level of professional communication between them which will facilitate the progress of teacher education. Where it does not exist, it must be the policy of all institutions concerned to improve positively the relations between them. A climate is necessary in which the establishment and application of the necessary principles of sound co-ordination and close co-operation between these institutions and organizations will be possible.

Reference was made in the preceding Chapters to the establishment by the University Faculty of Education of a special department for the Teacher Training Colleges namely, the Department of Collegiate Education (DCE). The staff of the Department were to devote all their time and energies to the provision of the necessary professional and academic guidance to the Colleges both directly and by pulling together and co-ordinating the services provided by the staff of the other Faculty departments. It was hoped that the University would in this way offer the best possible services to the Colleges and thereby fully meet the demands and expectations of the Government Department of Education and, thus, harmonize and restore the good relations between them.

It is, however, fast becoming apparent that the solution to the problem of relations does not lie within the Faculty structure but, instead, with the nature and structure of the Affiliation Instrument. The

latest impression gathered from the most recent interviews with the relevant staff of the Government Department of Education and the University is that the conflicts of interest which were evident in the past have now lessened considerably. There continues to exist, however, serious tension and lack of mutual trust between the two parties. When interviewed on the subject on June 18, 1984, the Planner for Teacher Training Colleges commented as follows :

*"The fear I have is that there is lack of mutual trust ... The Department always has the feeling that the University does this or that probably for its own ends and in its own interests perhaps for the expansion of the Faculty of Education and for purposes of motivating their case of additional staff for the Faculty ..."*<sup>2</sup>

The Planner cited as illustrations of these allegations two events namely, the project on audio-visual aids and the establishment of the Department of Collegiate Education. Regarding the former, he argued that :

*"... the Department was induced to finance the Training Colleges for a project on audio-visual aids for an amount of R300 000. Up to now the Department is not adequately satisfied that this amount has been effectively used for the purpose it was intended."*<sup>3</sup>

Concerning the Department of Collegiate Education, he complained that its staff was not confined to the service of the Teacher Training Colleges :

*"The University has established a specific department for the Training Colleges, the Department of Collegiate*

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2. An Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Planner for Teacher Training Colleges. Mimeograph. June 18, 1984.
  3. Loc. cit.

*Education and, ... the fear I have is that relations might break down again because it does not seem to us that those people (the staff of DCE) are specifically used for that purpose, but for other purposes which are in the interest of the Faculty of Education or the University of Transkei ... For about three weeks, we have been requesting from the University a prospectus for the Colleges; we have neither been able to contact those people nor to procure any prospectus or, for that matter, a programme of in-service courses for the College staff. In the light of the fact that one understands these people to be doing nothing else but that which has to do with the Training Colleges, one finds it hard to say what else are they busy doing. Under the circumstances, there is nothing that the students at the Training Colleges will gain other than the ... certificates they will get from the University."*<sup>4</sup>

At the University, the reservations and misgivings regarding future relations between the Government Department of Education and the University came from the Examinations Officer for the Colleges whose functions and duties rest squarely on sound relations, co-ordination and close co-operation between the Government Department of Education which handles the administrative aspect and the University which is concerned with the academic and professional aspects of College education. When interviewed on July 13, 1984, the Examinations Officer expressed an opinion that the Department of Collegiate Education was in fact in a better position to harmonize the relations and bring about the necessary co-ordination and close co-operation between the two parties but, in order to fulfil that task effectively, it needed to be staffed initially with local personnel who understood not only the forces and factors that have shaped the structure of teacher education in Transkei but also the very network of human re-

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4. Loc. cit.

relationships and organizational structures in the education system as a whole. He thus seriously lamented the fact that all three members of the Department were newly appointed expatriates and attributed the alleged inefficiency of the Department to this phenomenon.<sup>5</sup> It may, of course, conversely be argued that given a tighter and more prescriptive instrument of affiliation in which the positions and roles of individuals are clearly defined, expatriate staff of high quality and calibre might do far better than local staff of poor quality. Therefore, it would appear that the need is for a reconsideration of the instrument of affiliation and an introduction of a more prescriptive model to replace the loosely organized Affiliated College Board which currently is responsible.

### 1.3 The Need for Well Qualified Academic and Professional Staff in the Teacher Training Institutions

In any consideration of teacher education reforms in Transkei one of the highest priorities will have to be given to the improvement of the academic and professional quality of the College staff. It is deeply regretted that since the Taylor Commission referred to an urgent need to improve the quality of the "teacher trainers"<sup>6</sup> in 1979, and despite the sorry picture regarding the quality of the College staff reflected in the University statistical reports on the qualifications of the College lecturers, there has never been a single record of practical action taken to improve the staffing conditions in the Colleges. On the contrary, the situation has become worse as a result of the continual withdrawal of well qualified staff from the Colleges in order to teach in the high or senior secondary schools where the prospects for promotion to senior positions are much better. The argument advanced by the Planner for Teacher Training Colleges when he was interviewed on the subject on June 18, 1984 cannot be accepted as sufficient justification for inaction :

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5. An Interview with Mr M. Lwana, Examinations Officer for the Colleges. July 13, 1984.
  6. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. 1979. R/104. p. 139.

*"... if you wanted to improve that quality (of the College lecturers) you would have to place the Training College lecturers at a status financially and for salary purposes higher than that of the high schools as is the case, for example, in other departments in the Republic of South Africa. But we in Transkei still have a problem of finance. The Department has had an attempt at this but did not succeed. It appeared that this would involve the Department in many millions of rands to upgrade the status of the Training College lecturers. But when once that was done, many of these problems would be eliminated."*<sup>7</sup>

However, it might be argued that as a staff retention technique it is all very well for the Government Department of Education to consider very seriously raising the status of the College lecturers to a level higher than that of the senior secondary school teachers; it is yet another matter to consider raising the academic and professional standards of the College staff by equipping them with the necessary skills and insights to make their teaching effective. These matters have been discussed by the Affiliated College Board but not resolved.

It has been clearly expounded with enough supportive evidence in this study that the calibre of the teacher educators both in terms of their qualifications and extent of their specific training for their roles is a critical factor in the improvement of the standard of the education system as a whole as well as in the country's socio-economic development and general national progress. The accomplishment of all teacher education reforms intended to improve the quality of teacher preparation depends very largely on the availability of highly competent staff in the Colleges. Following upon this, there would then be produced teachers who would be well equipped for their responsibilities involving amongst others the careful and precise implementation of the country's desired educational reforms and who would also have confidence to try out new ideas be they connected with content or

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7. An Interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Planner for Teacher Training Colleges. Mimeograph. June 18, 1984.

method. The final upshot would be economic development and progress which would enjoy a positive support of adequate trained manpower and an educated people. It is the recognition of this indispensable and valuable contribution to national development and general prosperity as well as great concern about the low calibre of the existing staff of the Colleges and their inadequate qualifications together with the need for specific training for their roles which raise this aspect of Transkei teacher education to a level of high priority in the consideration of reforms in the system.

#### 1.4 The Need to Improve the Supply and Quality of Secondary School Teachers

The previous Chapters have pointed to some common factors which influenced the development of teacher education in Britain, South Africa and Transkei. Reference was made, for example, to the three Post-War 'explosions' namely, the explosions of expectations, population and knowledge which severely struck these and other countries of the world and whose impact was more strongly felt in the underdeveloped countries. It was also clearly demonstrated how these forces contributed to the unprecedented expansion of education and of secondary education in particular which became increasingly differentiated in order to cater for children of widely differing abilities. The demand for more and better qualified teachers to staff the schools whose pupil population was fast becoming more heterogeneous was pointed out. The world-wide shortage of secondary school teachers prompted a re-thinking and rapid expansion of provisions and facilities for the preparation of teachers. Some of the features of these trends included the association of the colleges of education to the universities and the involvement of the colleges of education in the preparation and provision of secondary school teachers which for many years had been the sole domain of the universities.

In Transkei similar developments culminated in the present complex structure of courses provided by both the University and the Colleges for the preparation and provision of teachers for the secondary schools.

However, the increasingly acute quantitative and qualitative shortage of secondary school teachers has most recently prompted the Government Department of Education to introduce two additional measures in order to deal with the problem. The number of Colleges providing the normal Secondary Teachers' Diploma course has been increased from three to five by the addition of Clarkebury and Bethel Teacher Training Colleges to the original list comprising Cicira, Maluti and Butterworth Teacher Training Colleges. University academic courses either as non-degree studies and for purposes of enrichment or as initial studies representing a beginning of the normal progression to a degree have also been introduced in the Teacher Training Colleges in order to enable all teachers trained at the Colleges to teach in the secondary schools when the occasion demands.

The crux of the matter, however, is that there are at present some strong indications that all the above measures will not effectively control the current problem of teacher shortage which seems to be fast developing into an explosive situation. Although compulsory education is not yet a feature of the Transkeian education system, forecasts of future pupil population and of the supply and demand of teachers point to a high pupil/teacher ratio in the schools in the future. The introduction of highly differentiated education as well as the accompanying revision of the structure of the school system during the middle of the last decade contributed to the current trend in teacher shortage in two ways namely, qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitatively the need is for more highly competent teachers academically and professionally. The quantitative demands result from two situations. First, there are the very widely diversified fields of specialization typical of differentiated education which require more teachers than would otherwise be the case. Secondly, secondary education has been rendered easily accessible to a far larger number of pupils than had ever been the case before and, with the increase in secondary school enrolments, there has come an increased demand for teachers to staff the schools. The situation regarding the quantitative aspect of teacher shortage in the secondary schools is fast approaching a breaking point as a result of the establishment of a

multiplicity of secondary schools despite a recommendation made by the Taylor Commission that :

*"... the provision of 110 schools appears to be equitable. For the coming period of five years, therefore, the Commission considers that no further senior secondary schools be built unless an extremely good case can be made out in terms of lack of facilities and better distribution."*<sup>8</sup>

Admittedly, the existence of these numerous day-secondary schools has made it easier for many more children from low-income families to obtain secondary education as they would otherwise not be able to afford the heavy expenses of the remote boarding schools. However, the multiplicity of schools and the increase in pupil enrolment have far reaching implications for teacher supply.

Regarding the introduction of the university academic courses in the Colleges as a means of providing more teachers for the increasingly expanding secondary education, it was gathered in an interview with the Educational Planner for the Colleges on June 18, 1984 that the Government Education Department has too of late like the University developed misgivings about this measure. It was argued that since the university courses constitute a separate programme which is taken concurrently with the Secondary Teachers' Diploma course and yet has no influence whatsoever in the determination of whether a student passes or fails a year of study towards the diploma, both the College lecturers and students very largely tend to take the university academic courses quite lightly. As a result, in the case of the university academic courses "... the majority of students have failed and failed dismally."<sup>9</sup> The Educational Planner acknowledged the mistakes of the Government Department of Education which involved the excessive overloading of the diploma course by the addition of the university academic courses as a

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8. Republic of Transkei, Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education. para. 11.9. p. 102.

9. An interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Planner for Teacher Training Colleges. Mimeograph. June 18, 1984.

separate programme without improving the facilities and staffing conditions in the Colleges :

*"... these are two separate programmes ... But since these go together at the same time, what it means is that you have added to the load of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma programme ... And I want to add that we did not increase the staff or provide more facilities ..."*<sup>10</sup>

In the light of the preceding analysis and conclusions, a consideration of more effective measures to supplement the existing courses for the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools becomes a matter of high priority.

#### 1.5 The Need for an Organic Unity and Sound Co-Ordination in the Design and Implementation of Initial Courses for the Preparation of Non-Graduate Teachers

Any attempt to improve and expand the facilities for the preparation and provision of non-graduate teachers for the secondary schools will have to take cognizance of the necessary co-ordination and development into a meaningful organic unity of the initial courses of teacher preparation. One striking feature of the initial courses for the preparation and provision of non-graduate teachers for the secondary schools is their fragmentation into a multiplicity of disparate entities. These courses and provisions include the Non-Graduate Higher Diploma in Education, the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma with university courses taken for non-degree purposes, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma with university courses taken in part fulfilment of the requirements for a degree and the Primary Teachers' Diploma with university courses taken for non-degree purposes. These courses are split amongst a wide range of agents namely, the University of Transkei, the Government Department of Education in close

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10. Loc. cit.

co-operation with the University of South Africa and the Teacher Training Colleges. Co-operation and consultation among these institutions in the performance of their functions involving the designing of courses of study, drafting and provision of syllabuses and their implementation are generally on a very limited scale and, in some cases, non-existent. A case in point which represents a highly incongruous situation is the provision of the university courses in the Colleges by the Government Department of Education under the auspices of the University of South Africa while at the same time the University of Transkei provides courses of study and syllabuses for the diploma courses in the Colleges. There is virtually no consultation between the two universities on matters relating to the courses they provide concurrently in the Colleges.

Some of the features of the problem under consideration are represented by a number of irregularities in the provision of the Secondary Teachers' Diploma which includes some university degree courses for teachers of the upper classes of the secondary school. One of these irregularities relates to the academic entrance requirements for admission into the diploma. At the University, the entrance requirements for admission into an equivalent diploma namely, the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma, are amongst others a Senior Certificate with at least an E aggregate. In the Colleges, however, the minimum academic requirement for admission into an equivalent diploma namely, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma with university degree courses, is full matric exemption. Another irregularity relates to nomenclature. At the University, these studies lead to a Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma while in the Colleges similar studies lead to the acquisition of a normal Secondary Teachers' Diploma inasmuch as the degree studies constitute a separate programme which nonetheless is undertaken concurrently with the diploma programme. The irregularities outlined above have a direct influence on student preferences as evinced by the inundation of the University every year with students holding a Senior Certificate as opposed to full matric exemption and demanding admission into the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma course. These students would obviously not be allowed to undertake degree studies

concurrently with the diploma in the Colleges. In addition to Senior Certificate as the minimum entrance requirement for admission, the degree studies constitute an integral part of the Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma at the University. Added to this, is the expression of seniority inherent in the University nomenclature for the diploma namely, 'Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma' as opposed to the College nomenclature, 'Secondary Teachers' Diploma, which applies even when degree studies are included.

There is, therefore, enough evidence to suggest that the co-ordination and development into a meaningful organic unity of the initial courses for the preparation of non-graduate teachers must find a place amongst the highest priorities in the consideration of teacher education reforms in the Republic of Transkei.

#### 1.6 The Need to Expand and Co-Ordinate In-Service Teacher Education Facilities

The important implications which the in-service education of teachers has for the structure of teacher education are clearly reflected in Brian Cane's observation that :

*"In-service education is a fashionable topic for the educational agenda. Official and semi-official pronouncements on education set out the arguments for reform in this or that area of teaching and invariably end by stressing the need for an immediate expansion of in-service provision ..."*<sup>11</sup>

Likewise, this study has looked into the meaning, nature, scope and significance of in-service education of teachers and also critically and comparatively examined the in-service teacher education provisions of some selected countries of the world. In the light of this broad background knowledge, the development of in-service teacher education

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11. Cane, B., 'In-service Education for Teachers'. J.W. Tibble, (Editor), The Future of Teacher Education. p. 134.

provisions in Transkei has been critically studied. A conclusion that can be drawn from the study is that the observed increasingly growing commitment to the need and value of in-service education is a recent development in the evolution of teacher education in Transkei. The outstanding features of this development are the plans to establish an In-Service Teacher Education College and to produce a Five Year Plan for the in-service education of teachers. The spirit behind the commitment to the expansion of in-service teacher education provisions is clearly reflected in the preamble to the first draft proposal of the Five Year Plan which states categorically the urgency of the need to plan for the provision of in-service education in the Republic of Transkei in the future and to formulate policy for its implementation.<sup>12</sup>

Whatever will be the outcome of these developments, the current trends are clearly indicative of an obvious recognition of the need to expand the in-service teacher education facilities in Transkei. This attitude results from the quantitative and qualitative problems of teacher shortage which beset the education system at the present time. These problems were examined previously and will thus not be considered in detail here. One of the aspects of the problems of teacher shortage relates to the conversion of teachers to new levels of teaching as a result of the introduction of differentiated education, the consequent expansion of secondary education and the accompanying re-organization of the school structure in which Standard V has now become part of the secondary school. This phenomenon has imposed considerable professional strain upon the majority of teachers. A large majority of primary school teachers who are general teachers in terms of their initial professional education and training now find themselves functioning as specialist teachers in the secondary schools. Similarly, many junior secondary school teachers are required to teach at the senior secondary school level though lacking adequate appropriate academic and professional qualifications. The deplorable staffing

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12. Republic of Transkei. In-Service Education. Five Year Plan. 1984-1988. (A Draft Proposal). pp. (i)-(ii).

position in the Teacher Training Colleges to which reference has been repeatedly made has been partly brought about by the same forces. All these are some of the aspects of an urgent problem which requires in-service provision in order that teachers may have a chance to function effectively in carrying out their professional duties.

An apparent weakness in the current planning and actual provision of in-service education is lack of consultation and co-ordination amongst the authorities and institutions which provide these facilities. At the present time, there are a few disparate in-service programmes and these are planned and undertaken by different agencies largely without consultation with one another. These agencies are the University of Transkei, the staff of the Government Department of Education at Head Office in Umtata, the Science Education Project (SEP) which is privately funded and by such educational managers as school principals and members of the inspectorate. It has also been sufficiently established that the University Faculty of Education which already provides on a reasonably wide scale by far the best organized and most meaningful in-service courses is not represented in the committees which are currently working on the proposed plans to establish an In-Service Teacher Education College and to produce a Five Year Plan For In-Service Education. This must indeed be regarded as a serious omission at a time when the renewal and improvement of educational practice in the new nations demands the effective integration of 'what is' with 'what should and could be'. To this end, there is need for the organization into an organic unity of all the authorities and institutions concerned with in-service teacher education. This, in turn, makes imperative the harmonious integration of pre-service and in-service education of teachers who in the final analysis determine the quality of the education to be provided.

It can thus be concluded that the highest priority in the case of in-service education would have to be given to the expansion and co-ordination of the facilities for its provision.

### 1.7 The Need for an Adequate Supply of Teaching and Learning Materials in the Colleges

A significant aspect of the stream of literature about education in the developing countries concerns the production and use of teaching and learning materials as a means of bringing about the required classroom methodological modifications. However, despite a daunting quantity of information, comment and advice now available in journal articles, books and reports of innumerable conferences, seminars and workshops regarding the supply and use of teaching materials, one finds it difficult not to agree with Kenneth Richmond that :

*"... to claim that they (the classroom modifications now being advocated) add up to a radical transformation of established practice will deceive no one who is familiar with the state of educational affairs at first hand; and to assert that they amount to an actual revolution is merely melodramatic."*<sup>13</sup>

Despite the pessimism of many educationists such as Richmond, the concern about the modification of classroom practice through the introduction and use of teaching aids has increasingly gathered momentum and today it is customary to include amongst subjects for any form of educational discourse a topic on educational technology. Transkei has not been an exception to these developments. One of the topics for discussion at an INSET (In-Service Education of Teachers) Seminar held at the Holiday Inn in Umtata on June 18-19, 1984 was "The Use and Production of Teaching Materials". Leading the discussion on the subject, N.O. Anim located the greatest impediment to the modification of classroom methodology in the 'outmoded' classroom practices now prevalent in the Transkei Teacher Training Colleges :

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13. Richmond K. was cited by N.O. Anim when the latter read a Paper on the 'Use and Production of Teaching Materials' at an Inset Seminar in Umtata on June 19, 1984.

*"We have focused attention on the TEACHER, the king-pin in the whole educational process who tends to suffer most from the chronic educational disease of changelessness. How can he cope with change when he suffers from so much 'time-lag'? His lecturer at the teacher training level has used methods which were used in teaching him 10-15 years before the present hopeless trainee. When this trainee leaves the college as a new teacher in the classroom, he is already OUTMODED."*<sup>14</sup>

Since the staff of the Colleges are selected from amongst the experienced school teachers, there can be very little hope that the problem will ever be solved until the vicious cycle is broken by a careful and meaningful introduction of reforms in the Teacher Training Colleges. The position regarding the supply of teaching and learning materials in the Colleges was described in the foregoing Chapters of this study as being highly deplorable. The Educational Planner for the Colleges summed it all up as follows when interviewed on the subject on June 18, 1984 :

*"In some Colleges there is not even an apology for a laboratory (a science or language laboratory). This is no joke. There's just none. It doesn't exist. You hardly can get a projector ..."*<sup>15</sup>

Under the circumstances, it is highly fitting that the supply of the teaching and learning materials should be given a place amongst the highest priorities for reform in teacher education in Transkei. The value and indispensable role of these materials in today's classroom practice, the predominant feature of which is the significant change in emphasis from 'teaching' to 'learning', can best be described in the Churchillian statement :

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14. Anim, N.O., 'Use and Production of Teaching Materials'. Paper read at an INSET Seminar. Holiday Inn. Umtata. June 19, 1984. p. 2.
  15. An interview with Mr P.G. Qokweni, Planner for Teacher Training Colleges. Mimeograph. June 18, 1984.

"Give us the tools, and we shall finish the job!"<sup>16</sup>

Given the emphasis on learning, the teaching and learning materials, as tools, facilitate learning mainly by assisting the learner to find out for himself as he progresses from the concrete perceptual level of experience to the abstract and theoretical. In the Colleges, the students not only need to use them in facilitating their own learning but they must also learn how to use them as teachers in order to promote effective and meaningful learning by the pupils.

Having thus outlined some of the problems and priorities which should form the bases of the recommendations for the future development of the administrative, curricula and course structures, some progress can now be made to examine the proposed teacher education structure for the Republic of Transkei.

## 2 A Proposed Teacher Education Structure for Transkei

Specific suggestions and recommendations for reform in respect of teacher education curricula and courses as provided at the University of Transkei and in the Teacher Training Colleges were made in Chapters Seven and Eight. The purpose of this section is to synthesize an outline plan on which future policy may be based. This must involve an establishment of the overall aims which should, in fact, arise from the determination of priorities in the provision of education in general. Since all these were outlined in great detail in Chapters One<sup>17</sup> and Five,<sup>18</sup> progress will here to made to determine teacher training objectives, the realization of which will lead to the attainment of the overall goals. These will in turn be buttressed by means of the consideration of the main administrative functions of teacher education policy. Finally, a proposed organizational framework for teacher education in Transkei will be examined.

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16. Churchill, Sir Winston, cited by N.O. Anim, 'Use and Production of Teaching Materials'. *op cit.*, p. 3.

17. Cf. *Supra*. Chapter One. pp. 1-4.

18. Cf. *Supra*. Chapter Five p. 209. *et seq.*

## 2.1 A National Policy for Teacher Education in Transkei

### 2.1.1 Teacher Training Objectives

The main objectives of teacher education which require to be built into general educational policy in Transkei should be the following :

- (i) To provide and expand the facilities necessary for the rapid improvement of the quality and quantity of teacher supply.
- (ii) To co-ordinate the activities of all authorities and institutions concerned with teacher education so that their organic unity contributes to the development of a unified profession.
- (iii) To prepare and provide teachers capable of understanding the social and economic forces within society and the political and cultural institutions of the people.
- (iv) To prepare and provide teachers who will be able to acquaint themselves with the process of change and tools for introducing social change.
- (v) To provide facilities which will enable the teacher to understand and promote development of the community in which he serves.
- (vi) To provide for the education of teachers who are aware of the social responsibilities of the citizen and who will impart sound social values; these values must be those which can be manifestly demonstrated to be those of a free society.
- (vii) To provide such education and training as will enable the teacher to be aware of sociological evolution and the changing values of society, to interpret these to youth and to

set before them those values which are worthwhile.

- (viii) To provide for the education of teachers who are aware of the changing nature of the economy and the vocational opportunities offered to youth so that they (teachers) can assist in their guidance to satisfactory and satisfying career choices.
- (ix) To provide for the development in teachers of the scientific habits of thought and understanding of the scientific method of approach as no teacher can afford to be ignorant of the basic scientific facts in a world where every aspect of human activity in the rural community is tied to superstition, poor crops, illness, disease and so on; the necessary leadership must be provided by enlightened people who are fairly well equipped with the rudiments of science and the knowledge of people and their way of life.
- (x) To develop, through academic study, an understanding of those areas of knowledge which have professional significance; such study would develop such qualities of mind as logical and critical thought, creative imagination, judgement, rationality and autonomy in relation to each area of knowledge.
- (xi) To develop, through academic study, an understanding of educational theory which will inform professional judgements and actions; to this end the curricula will have to put emphasis on :
  - (a) The formulation of rational principles acquired through the objective study of the contributory disciplines.
  - (b) Understanding the factors that affect the development of children.

- (c) Acquiring a sensitive awareness of the dynamic relationship between school and society.
  - (d) Building up the knowledge and attitudes that will enable future teachers to understand the demands and pressures arising from the socio-economic state of a newly independent agricultural society.
  - (e) Gaining an understanding of the diffuse nature of the teacher's role.
  - (f) Developing an occupational consciousness by sharpening the future teacher's political, economical and sociological insights.
  - (g) Fostering a flexibility of mind and a constructive, critical attitude towards educational innovation, which will enable future teachers to evaluate the changing conception of teaching and research findings in the light of rational criteria.
- (xii) To develop, through training and practical experience, the technical skills necessary for the achievement of professional competence in teaching; this area of activity would stress :
- (a) The acquisition of a range of skills focused on teaching methods, appropriate learning experiences and motivation in the classroom, management and organizational expertise, evaluation procedures and record keeping.
  - (b) The development of the future teacher's critical skill, judgement and powers of reflection, thus giving him the ability to modify his performances in the light of growing experience.

- (xiii) To develop, through academic and professional study, a knowledge of the relationship between the logical and psychological aspects of learning and teaching at the different stages of children's development.
- (xiv) To produce teachers who, by virtue of their education and training, are sensitive, self-confident, self-critical and adaptable persons with the ability to work as a link in a complex differentiated teaching force.
- (xv) To establish a knowledge-based profession, thus raising the academic and professional standards of the teacher which would then enhance his status in society and benefit future generations of children.
- (xvi) To provide and expand the facilities for the continual professional development of teachers through in-service education. The in-service education of teachers would have to be directed at :
  - (a) The provision of facilities as an alternative to the conventional pre-service course for the preparation of professionally unqualified serving teachers.
  - (b) Up-grading the status of qualified, serving teachers.
  - (c) Refreshing and up-dating the mass of serving teachers without necessarily improving their professional and financial status.

#### 2.1.2 The Academic Validation

Academic validation is here taken to mean determining whether the conditions of entry to and the structure of courses, including the content and level of syllabuses, the standard of achievement required and the

school and other practical experience, justify the award of a diploma or degree. On matters such as these the policy must be quite explicit, unambiguous and prescriptive. The first issue concerns criteria for the admission of students into courses of initial preparation. In undertaking this responsibility namely, the determination of criteria, particularly academic, for the admission of students to courses of teacher preparation, it would be necessary to give the highest priority to the local needs and conditions in Transkei while not sacrificing at the same time the necessary contact with the South African Department of Education and Training, Joint Matriculation Board and Committee of Education Heads. Also, the right of the University as an autonomous institution to control its own admission policies would have to be dealt with, with great care.

Regarding the structure of courses including content and level of syllabuses, the standard of achievement required and school and other practical experience, would have to be in close liaison with the University Faculty of Education which should continue to provide these facilities at the institutions which prepare and provide teachers.

It is also essential as part of national policy to lay down very clearly the minimum length of training for teachers. Despite much talk about the possible further extension of the minimum period of training in Transkei from three to four years, it would be advised that the minimum period of three years now in force should be retained for another considerable length of time. In any consideration of further extension of the period of training to four years, problems related to staffing, provision of teaching and learning materials, quantitative shortage of teachers and the need to consolidate the new University courses and syllabuses, as currently offered in the Colleges, will have to be taken into account.

### 2.1.3 Professional Recognition

The function of professional recognition as an aspect of policy is to determine whether the professional content, structure and standards of courses are such as to warrant the acceptance as qualified teachers of students who complete them satisfactorily. Secondly, there is the consideration of whether candidates for admission to the profession are acceptable on other than academic grounds. Thirdly, it is necessary to determine whether new entrants may be judged to have completed their probation satisfactorily and to be eligible for registration which should be controlled by a Council. In the teaching profession, as in others, members of the profession should have a major role in the discharge of this function. This would enable the Council to require registered members to conform to a professional code of ethics. The provision of a register at national level is desirable in order to procure the necessary statistical information for professional and manpower surveys. It is also most desirable in the promotion of the status of the teaching profession that a register of persons licensed to teach should be maintained.

The concept of professional recognition as an aspect of policy also applies to the registration of the courses of study offered by the various institutions as well as that of the nomenclature of professional awards. These functions would also enhance the prestige of the teaching profession.

### 2.1.4 Principles Underlying the Provision and Co-Ordination of Pre-Service and In-Service Curricula and Courses

It is essential that policy should provide a clear exposition of principles which should underlie the provision and co-ordination of both pre-service and in-service curricula and courses. The statement of such principles in broad terms would provide the necessary framework for continual curriculum revision, modification and reconstruction. The main principles which require to be built into the policy in respect of the teacher education curricula and courses are the following :

- (i) The curricula and courses for the education of teachers at any level should be based on their needs as individuals, as citizens, and as members of the teaching profession.
- (ii) The education of teachers should include a broad general education, adequate professional preparation and supplementary cultural contacts.
- (iii) Breadth of general education should be directed towards sound scholarship and a cultural background in the major areas of human experience which include, amongst others, philosophy, ethics, religion, economic, social and political problems, literature and fine arts and the natural sciences. The contacts provided in the various fields that comprise general education should contribute primarily to an understanding of basic concepts, principles, and fundamental generalizations rather than to the mere acquisition of facts or information, however well organized they may be.
- (iv) Professional curricula should be determined chiefly by the nature of the educational work in which teachers engage for individual development takes place best when efforts are directed by clear realistic purposes. The curricula and courses should be built around important problems and issues determined by an analysis of situations which confront and demand solution of each individual teacher.
- (v) Professional curricula should be differentiated according to the major types of educational service to be rendered. The type of differentiation that is recommended here relates to the following broad areas and fields :
  - (a) Lower Primary, Upper Primary, Junior Secondary, and Senior Secondary school teaching.

- (b) Secondary school teaching in the following particular fields: languages, social sciences, natural sciences including mathematics, economic sciences and special subject teaching namely, music, fine arts, home economics, health education, and so on.
- (vi) Assuming that specialized curricula for teachers are differentiated according to the major types of service to be rendered, every effort should be made to promote both breadth and depth of scholarship in the fields of specialization.
- (vii) The principle of unity of purpose which is as much of a first essential to teaching as an art as it is a basic principle of all art, demands that the work provided should be continuous in thought and organization and inherently sequential. The principle need not only be limited to courses of initial preparation but also, as was pointed out earlier, a harmonious integration of pre-service and in-service education of teachers should be the goal.
- (viii) "Teaching is so much a matter of the play of mind upon mind, of the influence of personality upon personality, of the effect of character upon character that regardless of what knowledge or skill a teacher may possess, the most far-reaching results of his teaching are determined by what he is. What he finds enjoyable, what things he holds most important, what he believes - these form the foundation upon which professional education should be built."<sup>19</sup> Therefore, the curricula should include opportunities and experiences designed to develop personal, social, and professional qualities that characterize a superior teacher.

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19. Brooks, F., (Editor), The Education of Teachers. Yearbook Number XXIII of The National Society of College Teachers. 1935. p. 95.

- (ix) Before permanent appointment, a period of probation should be required during which professional adjustment service should be provided which should be closely co-ordinated with the needs of the student and his pre-service education. The period of probation represents a final step in the integration of theory and practice.
- (x) Successful teaching practice serves as the most significant measure of the student's fitness for teaching. Therefore, all prospective teachers should be required to have supervised teaching practice before certification and the latter should be refused anyone who has failed in teaching practice.
- (xi) The in-service education of teachers which should be closely co-ordinated with the needs of the teacher and his pre-service education and also provided along the lines recommended under teacher education objectives will form the integral part of all teacher education programmes.

#### 2.1.5 Control and Organization Including Financial Support

Teacher education policy must include a clear exposition of the organizational and structural framework for communication, command and co-ordination of activities and people's efforts. No enterprise, large or small, can operate successfully when duties are so vaguely defined that everybody can meddle in everything and nobody is responsible for anything. Herein lies the greatest weakness of the current Instrument of Affiliation in Transkei teacher education system. The Instrument stipulates that the University of Transkei shall be responsible for all professional matters including the designing and provision of courses and syllabuses as well as continual professional guidance to and monitoring of academic and professional standards in the Teacher Training Colleges. The Government Department of Education, on the other hand, shall be responsible for all the administrative matters including inspection, staff appointments and their remuneration, provision of physical amenities and supplies such as buildings, equip-

ment and so on. However, in real practice these matters tend to overlap in ways which can be a source of embarrassment.

A suitable teacher education organizational structure provides for the clear allocation of functions and responsibilities to the various sections and members of staff of the establishment in such prescriptive and unambiguous terms as will effectively prevent any form of confusion as to who is responsible for what. A poor organizational structure is often a major cause of inefficiency and tends to produce dissatisfaction and conflict among participants. These may in turn lead to frustration, disillusionment, pessimism and sometimes cynicism among them and thus hamper the accomplishment of the objectives of the organization. What seems wanted in Transkei, therefore, is the establishment of an efficient teacher education organizational structure with clear lines of responsibility and communication amongst the participants.

## 2.2 A Proposed Organizational Framework for Teacher Education

A brief preliminary consideration of the existing organizational structure of teacher education in Transkei is necessary in order to provide by means of comparison a clear illustration of the main features of the proposed framework.

### 2.2.1 The Existing Organizational Structure

Figure B (Page 516) shows the main features of the existing organizational structure of teacher education in Transkei in a diagrammatic form.

Some of the weaknesses of the existing organizational structure include the following :

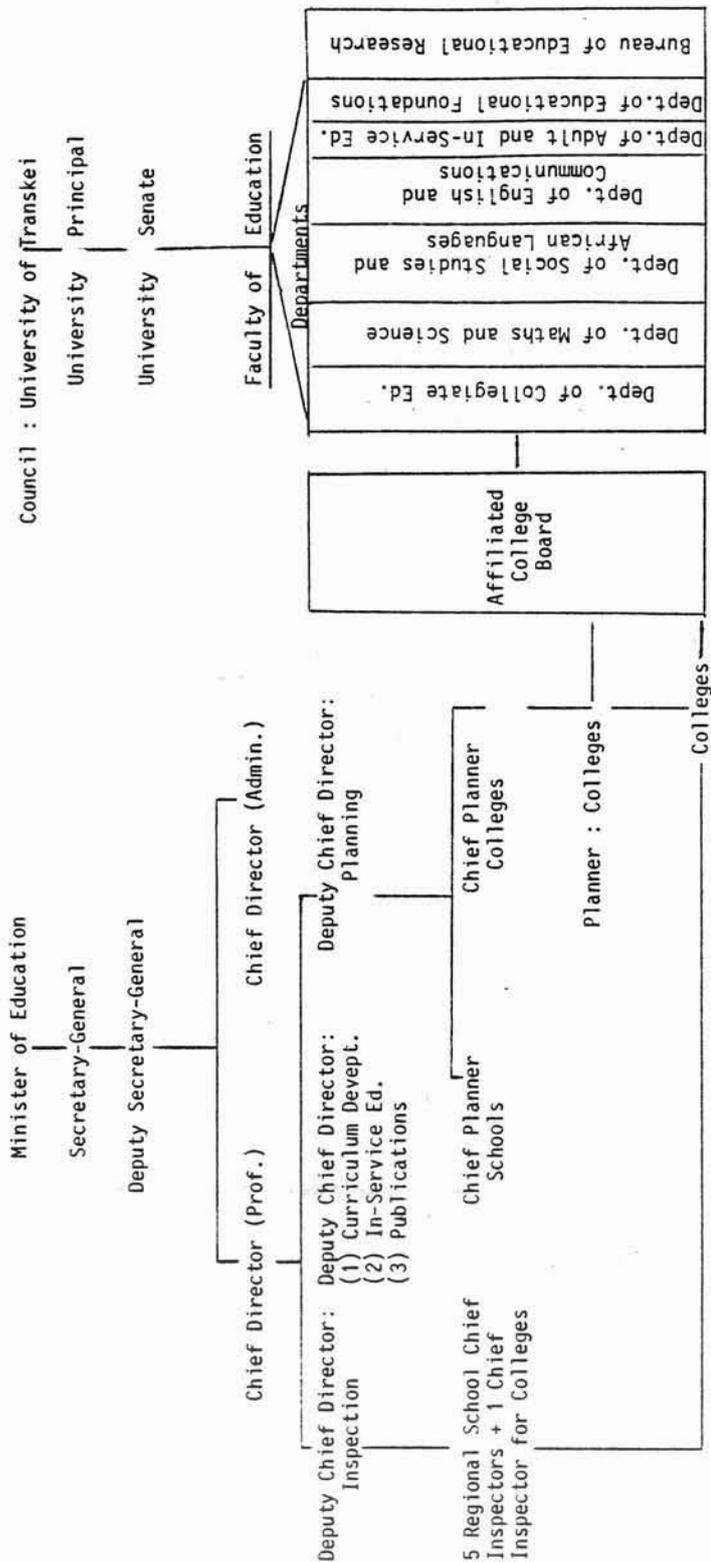


Figure B The Existing Teacher Education Structure

- (i) There is need to provide an effective means of communication between the Government Department of Education and the University at the higher levels of authority involving the Secretary-General for Education on one hand and the University Principal on the other. The functions of such a co-ordinating body would be both executive and advisory to the Minister of Education on all matters relating to teacher education in Transkei.
- (ii) There is need to separate the services provided in respect of teacher education from those which are provided for the schools in the organization of the Government Department of Education at Head Office in Umtata. Such an arrangement would have far-reaching implications for better communication and co-ordination in the professional administrative function of the Department including financial and the provision of essential supplies for teacher education. It would also have the advantage of separating tertiary level responsibilities from the primary and secondary concerns of the schools branch.
- (iii) The existence side by side of the Affiliated College Board on one hand and the Department of Collegiate Education on the other is likely to perpetuate and maintain a situation of 'we' and 'they' in the relationship between the Government Department of Education and the University. What seems necessary is the creation of a co-ordinating organization which will not only be prescriptive of duties and functions but also generate a professional 'us' situation in which both the Government Department of Education and the University will become identified in improving the quality of teacher education in Transkei.
- (iv) The Teacher Training Colleges are Government institutions. However, their association with the University needs to be clearly reflected in the structure and their position should

bespeak of their new status and roles in the preparation and provision of teachers.

### 2.2.2 A Proposed Framework

Figure C (Page 519) represents a variation of the existing organizational structure of teacher education. The proposed structure provides for the creation of the following :

- (1) Teacher Education Division (TED) within the central organization of the Government Department of Education at Head Office in Umtata.
- (2) Professional Planning Council to be representative of both the Government Department of Education and the University at the higher levels of authority.
- (3) Institute in which all institutions and authorities concerned with teacher education should be represented and which should consist of a wide range of committees with prescriptive duties and functions. The Institute would then replace the existing Affiliated College Board and Department of Collegiate Education.

The structure also provides for an establishment of a closer association of the Teacher Training Colleges with the University by placing the Institute within the ambit of the University and thus enhancing the College status so that it should reflect the new professional and academic roles of the Colleges.

#### (1) The Teacher Education Division (TED)

The Teacher Education Division, as opposed to the schools division, would provide for a unification and centralization of services connected with teacher education within the centralized organization of the Government Department of Education at Head Office in Umtata. The Division would have to be strictly concerned with the administra-

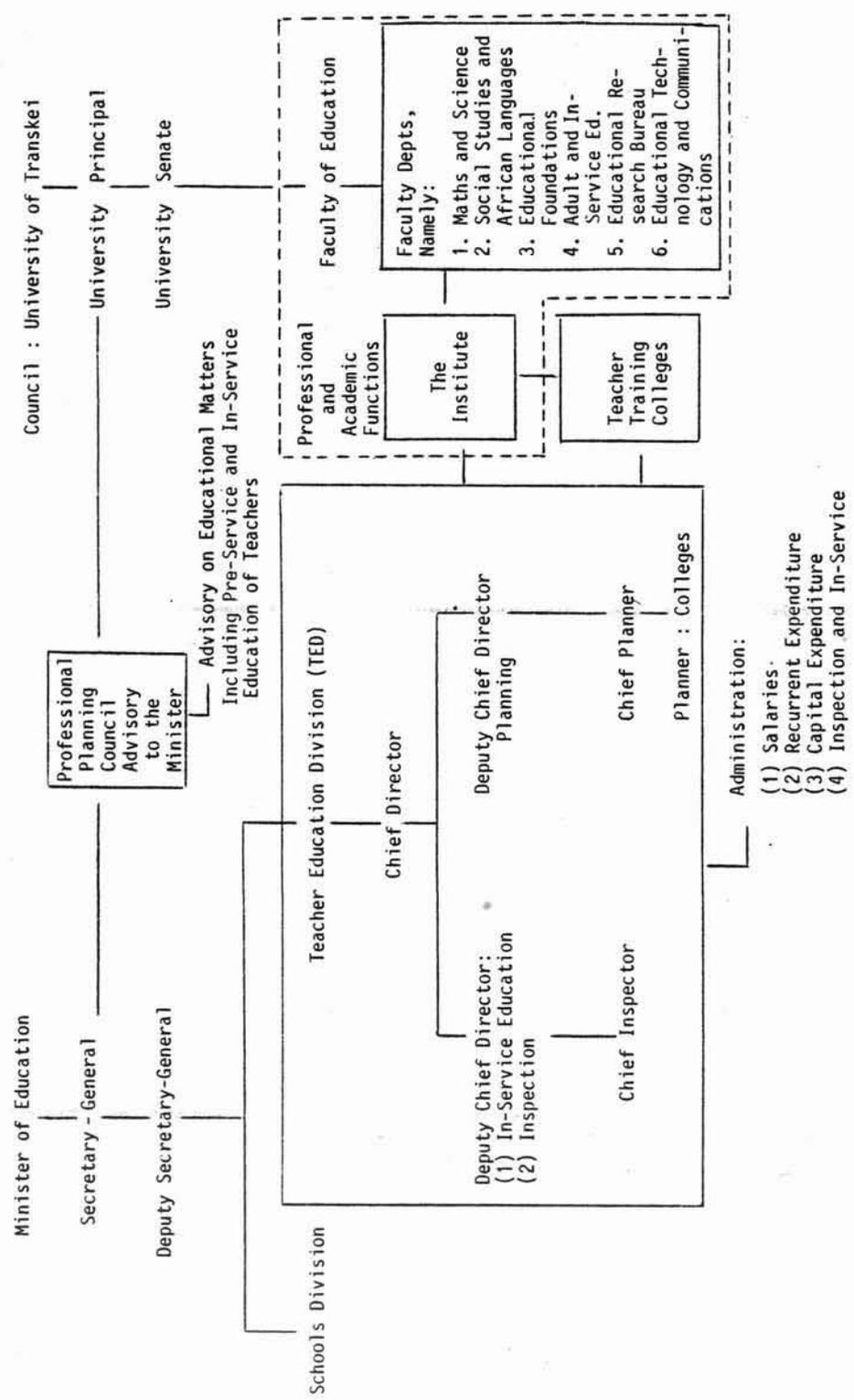


Figure C A Proposed Professional Structure for Teacher Education in Transkei

tion of teacher education and its functions would relate to matters involving salaries, recurrent expenditure, capital expenditure and inspection including in-service education. It would be headed by a Chief Director who would be directly responsible to the Secretary-General for Education. It would seem logical to combine services relating to inspection with the provisions for the in-service education of teachers under a separate Deputy Director. The existing position of the Chief Inspector for the Colleges would then fall under this arm. The second arm of the Division would be concerned with planning and would be headed by a Deputy Chief Director assisted by two educational planners namely, Chief Planner and Planner for the Colleges. The Division would make direct input into the work of the proposed Institute in which it would be strongly represented.

(2) The Professional Planning Council

The members of the Professional Planning Council would be the Secretary-General for Education who would be chairman, the University Principal who would be Vice-Chairman, the Chief Director of the Teacher Education Division, the Director of the Institute and the Dean of the Faculty of Education. The Council would in all respects serve as an overseer of teacher education in Transkei, function in an executive capacity and advise the Minister of Education on all matters relating to teacher education in the country.

(3) The Institute of Education

The concept of an institute of education is not new.<sup>20</sup> For a long period in many systems of education formal and informal arrangements have been made for teachers to meet to discuss syllabus content, methods of teaching and other related topics. An institute of education is designed to bring together all those connected with the education of the teacher, that is, the government departments of education, the colleges

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20. The Taylor Commission and later the Faculty of Education strongly advocated for the establishment of an institute of education in Transkei.

of education, the faculties or departments of education of the universities, the teachers themselves, the teachers' professional organizations and all other agencies, private or public, engaged in teacher education. The main purpose of an institute is to co-ordinate and develop teacher education provisions and facilities within a given political or geographical area. The radical transformation of teacher education structures and provisions now prevalent not only in Transkei but in many other parts of Africa as well in response to complex problems which beset teacher education has in turn resulted in complex administrative problems and challenges. Necessary curriculum reconstruction and development which can only be judiciously executed after careful study and research is one such function. Under the circumstances, an institute of education becomes highly desirable. The term 'institute' has here been adopted in view of its fairly general use for such a co-ordinating body could just as easily be designated in a different way.

The three important agencies that have a considerable stake in the establishment of an institute of education are the teacher training colleges, the university department or faculty of education and the government department of education. The first two are primarily concerned with teacher education while the third normally deals with teacher certification and employment. There are some who believe that an institute of education should be government-based. Another school of thought believes that it should be university-based. Yet another school of thought holds that institutes of education should be viewed as co-ordinating associations jointly sponsored by the university, the government department of education and the association of teacher training colleges.

The pattern which is strongly recommended here for Transkei is the English model which became prototype for many countries in Africa. The organization of such an institute is spearheaded by the university department or faculty of education and the proposed associate colleges of education within a given geographical area. Administratively, the institute is established under the aegis of and linked to the university

and composition is described below.

(a) Functions of the Proposed Institute of Education

The functions of the Institute would be very largely similar to those that were enunciated by the University Education Faculty in May, 1981. These would be :

- (i) To maintain adequate and effective contact between the University, the Government Department of Education and the Teacher Training Colleges in the interest of continual improvement and further professionalization of teacher education within the country.
- (ii) To establish and maintain adequate contact between the institutions and authorities concerned with teacher education and other educational bodies and institutions. Unity is strength.
- (iii) To serve as a consultative and advisory body to the Government Department of Education, the Professional Planning Council, the University Faculty of Education, the Teacher Training Colleges and other educational institutions on matters affecting the preparation and provision of teachers.
- (iv) To assist in curriculum development, planning and reconstruction in teacher education in particular and also to render similar assistance to the Government Department of Education with respect to other areas of education.
- (v) To undertake, encourage, co-ordinate and provide facilities for research among the Colleges and also to co-ordinate activities and research projects

between the Institute and the participating educational institutions. Such educational research efforts would have to focus on timely educational problems, particularly at this period when more than ever before education in Transkei has come to be seen as an instrument for personal and national development. Specifically, there is need for research to be carried out in the construction of relevant teaching aids and production of suitable textbook material in the various subject-matter fields as they relate both to the needs of teachers and those of the Transkeian child. There is need for a study on, for example, the socio-psychological effects of educational change which is moving the community from traditional to more modern methods of living. A University-based Institute of Education would be better equipped to pursue these studies in a more comprehensive manner than a Government-based Institute whose work would invariably be affected by and bogged down with the officialese typical of most government enterprise.

- (vi) To identify the need for and organize in-service education, extra-mural courses and programmes which may result in further development and continual improvement of the teachers' abilities and, also, to co-ordinate the activities of all authorities and institutions which are actively engaged in the provision of facilities for the in-service education of teachers.
- (vii) To encourage and promote dissemination of professional information through the publication of professional journals on research and developments in education both at a national and international level.

- (viii) To provide facilities in collaboration with the University Faculty of Education for the staff of the associate Colleges in order to enable them to undertake further studies with a view to improving their qualifications and skills.
- (ix) To provide and promote arrangements for the continual professional and academic guidance to the associate Colleges in the execution of their duties which relate to the initial preparation and provision of teachers. To this end, a group of well qualified and talented professionals would be required to form part of the nucleus of the Institute.
- (x) To promote consultation in the making of appointments to the staff of the associate Colleges. This is an important aspect in which all concerned with and involved in the improvement of teacher education provisions and facilities in the Colleges should be fully consulted.
- (xi) To hold conferences, conduct seminars and organize study programmes for the staff of all member institutions.
- (xii) To promote arrangements, where desirable, for the interchange of lecturers between the member institutions and, especially, between the University Education Faculty and the Colleges where possible.
- (xiii) To promote arrangements where desirable for the interchange of individual students or group of students between the member institutions and, where possible, between the University Faculty of Education and the Colleges in particular.

- (xiv) To assume, in collaboration with the member institutions, a managerial role involving amongst others the production of a comprehensive handbook containing rules and regulations as well as other details of information relating to courses of study offered, conditions for the admission of students and an almanac reflecting the whole programme of activities planned for each year.
- (xv) To perform such other functions as may be approved by the Senate and Council of the University.

(b) Composition of the Institute of Education

The government of the Institute would have to be effected by means of the Board of the Institute, the Institute Administration, the Board of Studies and the Subject Committees. Figure D shows the structure in a diagrammatic form :

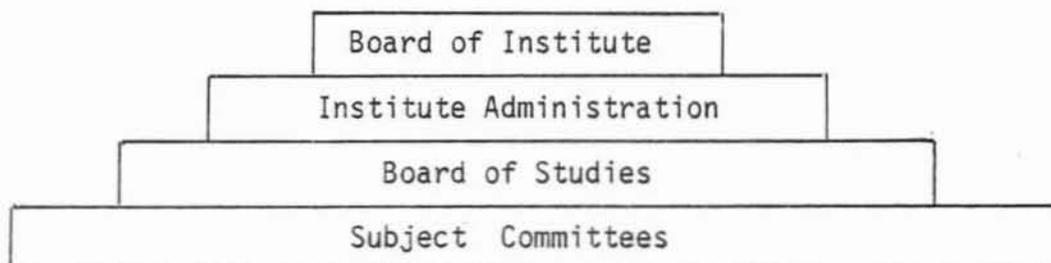


Figure D. The Structure of the Proposed Institute of Education

(i) The Board of the Institute

The Board of the Institute would be representative of a very wide range of interests and be the senior policy-making body of the Institute of Education. However, all the Board decisions would have to obtain Senate and Council approval before they could be implemented as policy. The Board would have to meet once each term and advisably before the Senate and Council quarterly meetings in order to consider reports on the implementation of policy, modify policy decisions and establish new policy guidelines. The powers and duties of the Board would have to include the following :

- (i) To recommend to Senate and Council the appointment or removal of the staff of the Institute.
- (ii) To advise Senate and Council upon the recommendation of the Board of Studies on all matters which relate to conditions of admission of students, the regulation of courses of study, the provision for research, the establishment of diplomas and certificates of proficiency, the regulation and conduct of examinations, the appointment of examiners, and such other matters as the Council might determine.
- (iii) To consider and report to Senate and Council upon :
  - (a) all projects of the Institute involving finance, accounts, investments or the use or disposal of property;
  - (b) the buildings, premises, furniture and apparatus and other matters needed within the Institute Administration for carrying on the work of the Institute.

- (iv) To consider and report to Senate and Council upon the condition of each of the associate Colleges regarding :
- (a) The suitability of its buildings and equipment.
  - (b) The number, qualifications and conditions of service of its staff.
  - (c) The arrangements to enable the staff to continue their professional education and through further academic study improve their qualifications and skills.
  - (d) The arrangements to enable the staff to formulate and express a corporate policy on academic matters and to take part in the management of the institution.
  - (e) The standard of instruction and research.
  - (f) The conditions as to age and attainments qualifying students for admission into it.
  - (g) The number of its students pursuing, or likely to pursue, courses of study for a diploma or certificate of proficiency of the University.
- (v) To consider and report to Senate and Council upon the programmes and activities relating to the academic and professional support to the Colleges as well as on any other matter related thereto which may be brought to the attention of the Board of the Institute by the Board of Studies.

- (vi) To appoint such standing committees or sub-committees as may be deemed necessary to advise the Board in relation to any special field of work or any matter affecting the academic welfare of the Institute and more particularly on syllabuses, schemes of examination and assessment including the appointment of examiners, the staffing of the associate Colleges, the admission of students into the Colleges and courses of study, in-service education and research.
- (vii) To make recommendations to the University and to the Department of Education on all matters relating to teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels.
- (viii) To prescribe the mode of conducting the proceedings of the Board, the Board of Studies and other bodies of the Institute government.

The Board should consist of the following members :

- (i) The Principal of the University (*ex officio*) as Chairman.
- (ii) The Secretary-General for Education (*ex officio*) as Vice-Chairman.
- (iii) The Director of the Institute as Secretary.
- (iv) The Chief Director of the Teacher Education Division of the Government Department of Education as well as the two Deputy Chief Directors serving under him.
- (v) Two members of the academic staff of the University appointed by the University Senate.

- (vi) The Dean and the Vice-Dean of the Faculty of Education.
- (vii) All the Principals and designated deputy principals of the associate Colleges.
- (viii) The President and one additional member of the Teachers' Association.
- (ix) One representative of each associate College elected among and representing the teaching staff of the College.
- (x) Two members of the Board of Studies of the Institute.
- (xi) Two primary and two secondary school teachers.

It would be necessary to establish an Executive Committee of the Board which would be empowered to deal with urgent matters and settle cases of emergency when the full Board is not in session. The Board Executive Committee would also preview serious matters and crucial issues before these could be tabled before the full Board meeting. This would have to be a very small committee comprising the following as its members:

- (i) The University Principal (*ex officio*) as Chairman.
- (ii) The Secretary-General of Education (*ex officio*) as Vice Chairman.
- (iii) The Director of the Institute as Secretary.
- (iv) The Chief Director of the Teacher Education Division.

(v) The Dean of the Faculty of Education.

(vi) All the Principals of the associate Colleges.

(ii) The Institute Administration

The Institute Administration would have to comprise all the full-time members of the Institute as opposed to the representatives of the member institutions. The Institute Administration would have to be led by a distinguished educationist of proven ability who would be designated Director of the Institute. The Director of the Institute would have to be appointed by a special joint selection committee of University and Government members, subject to ratification by the Council of the University to which he would be responsible for the work of the Institute. The Director of the Institute would provide links between the Board of the Institute, the Institute Administration, the Board of Studies and the Subject committees as well as between the Institute and the member institutions and authorities. He would then by virtue of his office be a member of the University Senate, Board of the Faculty of Education, Board of the Institute, Board of Studies and Subject Committees. As the Academic and Administrative head of the Institute, he would have to be responsible for organizing and conducting the work of the Institute in accordance with the decisions of Board of the Institute and the University Council.

There would also need to be an Administrative Officer, an experienced administrator who would be responsible for the maintenance of services. The Administrative Officer would be in charge of the secretarial, clerical and financial aspects as well as such services like maintenance and transport. More importantly, the Administrative Officer would be concerned with professional matters such as admissions and certification of students following upon the conduct of examinations. Much of the professional services, however, would have to be undertaken, to begin with, by the University Registrar's Department but as the Institute grows, it might be necessary to provide a Professional Secretary of the Institute. In the execution of his tasks and services,

the Administrative Officer would have to be assisted by appropriate clerical staff. The Administrative Officer and his staff would also be appointed by the University Council on the recommendation of the Board of the Institute.

There would also need to be full-time Tutors of the Institute. These would have to be well qualified professionals and capable of undertaking all the academic and professional responsibilities of the Institute as they relate to the Teacher Training Colleges, in-service education and research. During the early growth phase of the Institute, the principle to be followed in the provision of Tutors of the Institute should be one of non-specialism so as to avoid duplication of effort as well as for economic reasons since it would still be possible to use the expertise already available in the Faculty of Education. Thus, to avoid a multiplicity of subject specialists without students to teach in the Institute, a reasonable number of positions can be created by bringing the subjects together in meaningful wide bands. The functions of a Tutor appointed for a meaningfully integrated group of subjects, for example, professional subjects or science and mathematics, would be :

- (i) To co-ordinate the activities of the relevant subject specialists in the Faculty of Education with respect to the provision of academic and professional guidance to the Colleges, in-service education and research.
- (ii) To undertake frequent visits to the associate Colleges and provide the necessary guidance and advice on the spot.
- (iii) To promote the work of the Subject-Committees.
- (iv) To attend to problems of academic and professional nature brought to the Institute for its immediate and urgent attention.

- (v) To promote and co-ordinate research among the staff of the associate Colleges.
- (vi) To liaise with the academic departments of the University where they are concerned with acceptance of courses and syllabuses and with the work of examinations and certification.

Figure E shows the structure of the proposed Institute Administration in a diagrammatic form :

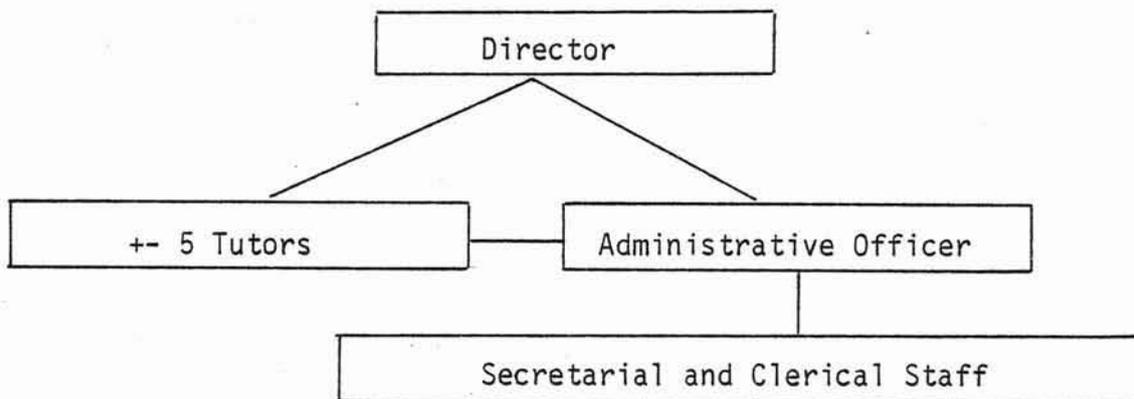


Figure E A Structure of the Proposed Institute Administration

(iii) The Board of Studies

The management of the academic and professional life of the Institute would have to be vested in the Board of Studies. The Board would promote and direct the co-ordinating work of the Institute so far as this would relate to :

- (i) The determination and provision of curricula, courses and syllabuses.
- (ii) The standard of instruction and education in general.

- (iii) The provision of facilities for and encouragement of research.
- (iv) The conditions for the admission of students into the courses of study.
- (v) Schemes of examinations and assessment including the appointment of examiners.
- (vi) The administration of schemes drawn up under regulations approved by the Board of the Institute for the award of diplomas to mark the successful completion of a period of initial preparation in the Colleges and the recommendation of students to the Government Department of Education for the award of qualified teacher status.
- (vii) The promotion and co-ordination of in-service teacher education provisions.
- (viii) The appointment of such committees and panels as may be deemed necessary.
- (ix) The academic and professional support to the Colleges.
- (x) The performance of any task and reporting on any matter referred or delegated to it by the Board of the Institute.

The Board of Studies would have to consist of the following members :

- (i) The Director of the Institute as Chairman.
- (ii) Chief Inspector for the Teacher Training Colleges as Vice-Chairman.
- (iii) The Dean of the Faculty of Education (*ex officio*).

- (iv) Chief Educational Planner for the Teacher Training Colleges (*ex officio*).
- (v) All Tutors of the Institute, one of whom should serve as Secretary.
- (vi) All Chairmen of the Subject Committees.
- (vii) One member of the teaching staff of each associate College to be appointed by the staff of the institution.

(iv) Subject Committees

The present arrangement regarding the structure and functions of the Subject Committees would have to be retained but these Committees would have to be more active than they are at the present moment and their impact in relation to the promotion of the work of the Institute would have to be strongly felt. The main functions of the Subject Committees would have to include the following :

- (i) To review from time to time curricula, courses and syllabuses in order to ascertain their relevance to the changing needs of the students and schools.
- (ii) To continually plan and organize the opportunities strongly needed in order to afford the bulk of their colleagues and themselves a chance to enrich and update their knowledge, improve their teaching skills and experiment with new methods of teaching. This important task would have to be undertaken in close co-operation and also co-ordinated with the work of the In-Service College due to be established in terms of the policy of the Government near the University of Transkei in Umtata.
- (iii) To assess the supply of teaching and learning materials and make recommendations for improvement where necessary.

- (iv) To deal with all matters relating to examinations including the determination of the methods of examining, recommendation of examiners, review of the standard of examinations as well as the level of performance of students in such examinations and submission of recommendations regarding the necessary improvements.
- (v) To consider the implementation of policy decisions handed down to the institutions and furnish the necessary feedback to the senior policy-making bodies regarding the necessary modifications.
- (vi) To deal with any other matter referred to them by the other governing bodies of the Institute.

### 3 Some Recommendations Regarding a Programme of Action Under the Proposed Structure

Although the teacher education structure proposed makes provision for dealing with the major problems identified, and indicates how the system should operate, it is necessary to indicate a priority development programme by which the problems identified could be tackled effectively. This will also demonstrate the practical applicability of the proposed structure.

The first of the problems examined earlier relates to an obvious absence of a clearly articulated, well co-ordinated and comprehensive teacher education policy. Since the proposed structure makes a clear provision for the necessary policy, this aspect need not be repeated here.

The second problem concerns a lack of sound co-ordination and difficult relations between the Government Department of Education, the University and the Teacher Training Colleges. In this connection, it must be noted that the suggested *modus operandi* represented by the proposed Institute of Education rests on two important pillars namely, a

provision of organizational machinery comprising a wide range of avenues for close co-operation among all the parties concerned and a clear exposition in prescriptive terms of the powers and functions of each constituent governing body and committee. Above all, a principle that needs to be strongly recommended for Transkei is one of co-operation and mutual trust among the individuals and institutions, remembering that no matter how perfect the administrative structures may be, the solution in the final analysis depends on the cordial wholesome interpersonal and institutional relationships and commitment.

The current concentration of effort on the design of a complex in-service teacher education structure comprising an In-Service Teacher Education College and a Five Year In-Service Teacher Education Plan is a step in the right direction. However, two important observations need to be made in this regard. First, both these major plans must be undertaken in close co-operation and co-ordination with the University and the Faculty of Education in particular which should then later be the custodian of academic and professional standards in the course of their implementation. Secondly, immediate consideration must be given to the pattern of teachers' centres similar to those established for the Indian Community in Durban and Pietermaritzburg.<sup>22</sup> The establishment of teachers' centres at vantage points with a high concentration of schools all over the country could in the short term provide immediate assistance at low costs in dealing with a range of problems in Transkei teacher education. The centres could serve a valuable purpose as a means of improving the quality of the College staff, providing and improving the quality of teachers for the secondary schools and providing and assisting teachers to make better use of teaching and learning materials. It would be strongly recommended that in Transkei these centres should be established at the existing Teacher Training Colleges where they will be able to serve their double

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22. The newly built Teachers' Centre attached to Northdale Number 4 Secondary School at Northdale in Pietermaritzburg was visited on August 27, 1984 and discussions held with the Headmaster of the school. The recommendations herein tabled have been largely influenced by that visit.

purpose effectively. It would also be possible in this way to engage and benefit from the input and expertise of some of the College lecturers. It is thus envisaged that about nine to ten such centres would be necessary to begin with in Transkei. Each centre would have to be headed by a competent and highly motivated teacher with sufficient knowledge of and experience in the use of teaching and learning materials including the modern methods and techniques of teaching. Some secretarial or clerical assistance would have to be provided where necessary. A timetable would have to be developed in order to ensure that teachers in the area served by the centre do visit it.

A matter which demands urgent attention relates to the inadequate academic and professional qualifications of the College staff. In this regard, it is strongly recommended that the University of Transkei should offer through its Faculty of Education a special Diploma in Teacher Education (Dip. Ted.) in order to afford the lowly qualified College staff an opportunity to upgrade and improve their academic and professional qualifications. The duration of the proposed Diploma would have to be determined and its course content worked out after a careful and thorough preliminary analysis of the nature of the problem and identification of the academic and professional areas of need. It is also of utmost importance that a staffing policy in respect of the Teacher Training Colleges be developed through the joint effort of the Government Department of Education and University and implemented without delay. Any further delay in dealing with the staffing position in the Colleges will precipitate an imminent crisis in this regard.

It is stressed that in the view of the findings of this research study an approach to the solution of the major teacher education problems identified will to a great extent depend on the institution without delay of the proposed structure. To this end, there would be no legal implications as the recent amendment of the University Statute empowers the University to confer diplomas and certificates on students registered in the Teacher Training Colleges.

#### 4 General Conclusion

This research study follows in the main the important work of the Taylor Commission on education in the Republic of Transkei. The recommendations herein made in respect of future policy and planning rest on two main pillars namely, the Taylor Report and subsequent developments of the early 1980s. Like the Taylor Commission, the study acknowledges the great faith that is placed on education in Transkei as a means of achieving rapid economic growth and raising the general standard of living. The attainment of more efficient and relevant educational provisions depends, however, entirely on the quality of the teaching force. Therefore, the extent to which Transkei will be able to respond to the pressures of development will be entirely dependent upon the kind of education and training and the standard of attainment expected of teachers. If the goal of accelerated socio-economic development is to be achieved within the decade of the 1990s, there will have to be not only rapid expansion of education but also a reconsideration of the existing teacher education structures and provisions aimed at raising the academic and professional standards of the teaching profession. In this connection, the development stages recommended by the Taylor Commission<sup>23</sup> as well as the observation made in this study that for a considerable period Transkei will be poised between the second and third stages<sup>24</sup> will have to be taken into account. The much needed full development of the education system into the third stage is timely and the opportunity now available should not be wasted. To fail will plunge the profession into even greater uncertainty than the doubtful gropings of the last five years (1980-1984). The possibilities of success lie ahead but real achievement lies in the will, cordial wholesome interpersonal and institutional relationships and commitment.

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23. Cf. *Supra*. Chapter Five. p. 211. *et seq.*

24. *Loc. cit.*

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