

TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

A Critical Study of Selected Aspects of its
Historical, Curricular and Administrative
Development

VOLUME I

by

JOHN MCGREGOR NIVEN

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
Department of Education,
University of Natal

Pietermaritzburg

1971

Table of ContentsVOLUME I

	<u>Page</u>
Acknowledgements	(vi)
Introduction	(viii)
<u>Part One : The Origins and Early Development of the Systems of Teacher Education in South Africa</u>	1
<u>Chapter 1 : Early Beginnings: the Provision and Training of Teachers in the Cape of Good Hope</u>	1
The Provision of Teachers in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries	1
<u>Chapter 2 : Colleges and Certificates: the Expansion of Teacher Education in South Africa: 1870-1910</u>	10
1. The New Colleges	11
2. The Certification of Teachers	14
3. Teacher Education during the Colonial Interregnum: 1902-1910	20
4. The Establishment of Institutions of Higher Education	24
<u>Part Two : The Development of the Present Systems of Teacher Education: 1910-1960</u>	27
<u>Chapter 3 : Ex Unitate Vires - as well as division and provincialism</u>	27
1. The Union Education Department and Higher Education	28
2. University Development in the Union of South Africa	29
3. The First Class Teacher's Certificate	32
4. Technical and Vocational Education	34
5. The Necessity for the Rationalisation of Teacher Education	39
6. Malherbe's Scheme for the Rationalisation of Educational Administration	40
<u>Chapter 4 : The Development of Provincial Systems of Teacher Education: 1910-1945</u>	43
1. <u>The Cape Province</u>	43
(a) Training and the Supply of Teachers	43

	<u>Page</u>
(b) Liaison with the Universities	46
(c) Development of Courses in Provincial Training Colleges	49
(d) Effects of Economic Depression on Teacher Education	52
(e) The War Years: 1939-1945	54
2. <u>Natal</u>	55
(a) The Teacher Training Pattern in 1910	55
(b) Liaison with the University College	56
(c) Courses for the Preparation of non-graduate teachers	63
(d) Economic Depression and the Supply of Teachers	66
(e) Developing Trends in School and Teacher Education patterns in Natal: 1930-1945	68
3. <u>Orange Free State</u>	70
(a) The Teacher Education Pattern at the time of Union	70
(b) Liaison between the University College and the Normal College	73
(c) Development of Normal College Courses	79
(d) The Supply of Teachers in the Orange Free State	84
4. <u>Transvaal</u>	88
(a) The Teacher Education Pattern at the time of Union	89
(b) Liaison between the Normal Colleges and the Universities	92
(c) The Development of Normal College Courses	102
(d) The Supply of Teachers to Developing Schools	113
(e) Developing trends in the pattern of education in the Transvaal and their implications for post-war teacher education	119
5. <u>Conclusions</u>	122

	<u>Page</u>
<u>Chapter 5</u> : <u>The Post-War Era : 1945-1960: The Implications for Teacher Education of 'Secondary Education for All'</u>	124
1. The educational premises on which the new era began	124
2. The training of teachers to meet the requirements of the new age	128
3. The Particular Problems of Teacher Education in South Africa	130
4. Vocational Education: the Central Problem in the development of systems of secondary education	133
<u>Chapter 6</u> : <u>The Evolution of Provincial Systems of Teacher Education: development up to the 'Sixties'</u>	135
1. Introduction	135
2. Differentiated, multi-lateral or streamed systems of education	136
(a) Transvaal	136
(b) Natal	139
3. The Development of Teacher Education in the Transvaal and Natal	142
(a) Transvaal	142
Conclusion	155
(b) Natal	155
Conclusion	164
4. Non-differentiated, pre-vocationally streamed systems of education	165
(a) Cape Province	166
(b) Orange Free States	171
5. The education of teachers in the Cape Province and Orange Free State in the post-war period	174
(a) Cape Province	174
(b) Orange Free State	178
6. General Conclusions	184
<u>Chapter 7</u> : <u>Towards the Co-ordination of Teacher Education in South Africa: 1910-1960</u>	187
1. Introduction	187
2. The Gutsche Memorandum: 1924	188
3. The University Commission, 1928: (the van der Horst Commission)	189
4. The First Report of the National Bureau of Education, 1930	192
(a) Cape Province	196
(b) Orange Free State	197

(iv)

	<u>Page</u>
5. The Inter-Provincial Consultative Committee, 1934	201
6. Education Conferences of the 'Thirties	203
(a) Teacher Training Conference, Pretoria, 1933	203
(b) New Education Fellowship Conference, 1934	205
7. The Problems of the 'Forties	206
(a) Teacher Shortage	207
(b) Growth of the Secondary School	208
8. The Development of Technical and Vocational Education and its effect upon Differentiated Education	211

Tables included in the TextVOLUME I

<u>No.</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
Table 1:	Recruitment of Teachers in Natal: 1927-1935	67
2:	Enrolment at Normal Training College, Bloemfontein: 1912	72
3:	Enrolment in Normal Schools in the Orange Free State: 1913-1915	84
4:	Statistical Review of the Pattern of Teachers' Qualifications: 1923-1943	87
5:	Enrolment for Primary School Courses: 1941-1945	88
6:	Enrolment in Transvaal Normal Colleges: 1909	91
7:	Examination Results of the 1939 Group: Pretoria College of Education	101
8:	Failure Rates among First Year Students registered at the Pretoria College of Education: 1942	101
9:	Recruitment of Teachers by the Transvaal Education Department: 1911-1939	114
10:	School Enrolments: Pretoria and Witwatersrand: 1941-1944	118
11:	Enrolment of First Year Students: Johannesburg College of Education: 1937-1944	119
12:	Pretoria College of Education: Enrolment of Degree Students: 1960-1963	143
13:	Expansion of Numbers of Student Teachers in Training in the Transvaal: 1955-1962	150
14:	Transvaal: Enrolment of Students by Home Language: 1956-1962	152
15:	Recruitment and Wastage of Teachers in Natal for the 10 year period: 1938-1947	162
16:	Wastage and Recruitment of Teachers: O.F.S.: 1947-1957	180

Figure included in the Text

1:	Transvaal: Enrolment in Teacher Training Courses 1955-1962	151
----	--	-----

Acknowledgements

This is the second educational research topic which I have undertaken under the supervision and promotion of Professor R.G. MacMillan, Vice-Principal of the University of Natal, and former Head of the Department and Dean of the Faculty of Education in that university. Apart from invaluable help and advice with regard to the organisation of the research, and the design and presentation of this thesis, membership of his Department at a time when much of what has been recorded was being written was an inspiration and spur, the value of which it is difficult to estimate. He will understand what is meant when, in terms of the usual acknowledgement, I record my thanks and appreciation to my supervisor for ever ready help, encouragement and guidance in the prosecution of this study.

My thanks are due to countless people in education authorities, universities, colleges of education and colleges of advanced technical education who have at all times proved so helpful in answering questions of both general and specific nature, who have willingly given up their time and often at a moment's notice invited a stranger in and discussed with him at length their problems and his. If this research has taught me one thing with regard to teacher education in South Africa, it is that this branch of professional education is served by a devoted band of disciples who work in many instances in varying states of isolation from one another. It would be of national advantage in the years that lie ahead if financial provision could be made available to secure greater personal contact between this relatively small but important group of teacher educators.

Thanks must also be expressed to a group of people who have been indefatigable in the provision of sources and information - the librarians of universities and of education authorities and colleges of education, all of whom have been helpful not only in the matter of published and unpublished material, but also in the answering of questions regarding such material and the making of suggestions as to its whereabouts.

In the matter of financial assistance, thanks are due to the Human Sciences Research Council and its President for an ad hoc grant which permitted travel to the Transvaal, Orange Free State and the Cape Province permitting direct interviews with members of Education Departments, universities and colleges of education.

(vii)

Finally, my sincere thanks must go to my wife and daughters who for four long years have never complained when weekends and holidays have been devoted to that exacting mistress, educational research, rather than to them.

Introduction

This study, in a sense, mirrors the attitudes of the society in which it is based towards a fundamental pedagogical task, that of the preparation of its teachers. Almost throughout the Western world, the concept of elementary education for all was accepted as a responsibility of the society with little thought being given to the preparation of teachers to make the concept a reality. From this emerged, with the dichotomy of full education for a privileged elite, and basic education for the mass of society, the widespread idea that elementary school teachers stood in need of professional training while secondary school-masters required only a thorough grounding in academic studies in the university. It has only been with the full realisation about the middle decades of this century of the need for education at secondary school level for all members of society, that the necessity for a well-educated teaching force has become an accepted reality. With this has come the acceptance of teacher education as an essential pre-requisite of a national system of education rather than merely a poor and somewhat depressed Cinderella of the school system.

Part One of this survey therefore seeks to examine the origins and early development of systems for the preparation of teachers in the days before the unification of the states of South Africa. Part Two carries on the historical investigation and the growing moves towards the professionalisation of teacher education up to the middle of the present century. Central to the development of this theme is the major problem of constitutional provision for the control of education in the Union of South Africa. The resultant lack of a national policy for education in general and teacher education in particular sets the stage for the second two parts of the survey. Part Three endeavours on a highly selective basis to examine some of the problems which confront the teacher educator and the educational planner at the present time, concentrating in particular upon aspects of demography and the supply of teachers, as well as the nature of the courses offered. The final section of the study examines the reform period of South African education at elementary and secondary school levels represented by the legislation of the decade of the 'sixties. In particular the proposals of the National Education Policy Act of 1967, and its amendment of 1969,

regarding the structure of teacher education in this country are examined. Finally, proposals are made with regard to the implementation of this policy in the present decade.

Inevitably as this investigation has proceeded, as the power of the researcher's lens has been increased, so the breadth of the study has been replaced by depth. The depth has not been consistent, reflecting the personal predilections of the investigator. An attempt has been made to examine aspects of the preparation of teachers for the White group only. Previous experience of an investigation into a much more restricted field than is represented by South Africa revealed the practical impossibility ~~of~~ of a wider study than this. Can such a study have any function in the educational literature of the society? This is a question which is of concern to every researcher in the field of the social sciences. For the first time since the creation of Union in 1910, and the framing of the famous but ambiguous phrase in Section 85 of the South Africa Act, this country has been able to contemplate the formulation of a national education policy. The relationships between institutions and authorities charged with the preparation of teachers has in the past largely been based on divisive and separatist tendencies. If a national education policy is to be securely based, it must have at its core a teacher force which is committed to its implementation. It is in the hope that teacher education may be based upon policies which draw institutions and authorities together upon a professional basis of common interest rather than upon the coercive effect of ministerial edict that this study may have some slight value. It is in this spirit that it has been undertaken.

Part One: The Origins and Early Development of the Systems of Teacher Education in South Africa

Chapter One: Early Beginnings: the Provision and Training of Teachers in the Cape of Good Hope

Introduction:

In South Africa today we find ourselves in a situation in which the nation's legislators have agreed that it is necessary that there should be enunciated a national educational policy. This policy, fundamental to which is the policy with regard to the education of its teachers, will presumably represent a synthesis of practices as implemented by five different governmental authorities each controlling its own institutions for the training of teachers, as well as eleven autonomous universities. Each of these authorities and institutions has a developmental history behind it. Thus, if we are to understand the significant features of these modern systems, we must follow them back in very much the same way that the historian traces genealogical lineage. The educational trees which represent the systems in operation in South Africa today, all have links to the original stock which developed from European off-shoots in the settlement at the Cape of Good Hope. It is to this stock that we must at first briefly return if there is to be understanding of subsequent developments.

The Provision of Teachers in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries:

In the early decades of the Cape settlement, education was almost exclusively the responsibility of Church officials, with such persons as the "sieckentrooster", "voorlezer" and "voorzanger" acting as schoolmasters in the various towns and villages. An ordinance of de Chavannes in 1714 attempted to formalise the curriculum by refusing to sanction the use of texts other than those in use in the Fatherland. By 1792 the report of Scholarch laid down the desirable qualities to be looked for in schoolmasters to be appointed in the settlement: "A teacher should be a well-educated and refined man, trained for the work, thoroughly understanding spelling, be able to write in a perfect hand and to sing the Psalms in whatever key they may be sung. He

should also have sufficient knowledge of music to be able to teach those desirous of learning to sing the hymns of Lodensteyn and others. In ciphering he should be able at once to solve the questions in the ordinary little book of Bartjens, based on that of Blassiere. He should also be no stranger to Italian bookkeeping for the benefit of those children who might afterwards enter a mercantile life. It would also be of advantage if he understood the French, English or any other language, but, as all this could scarcely be expected from one man, not too much stress should be laid upon it. The teacher, however, should also be a member of the Dutch Reformed Church in order to be able to catechise his pupils at least twice weekly in preparation for confirmation. Above all, his conduct should be irreproachable and an example to his pupils, that he might be able to censure them should they misbehave."¹ Clearly clerical and moral attributes of the teacher were deemed far to outweigh those of an academic nature. However, the observer goes on to report that in practice "hardly one of them could write a decent hand, most of them spelt imperfectly and could in Arithmetic hardly reach the Rule of Three."²

This was scarcely to be wondered at for precisely the same standards were to be noted in other parts of the world well into the nineteenth century. In Massachusetts, it is recorded "the ranks (of teachers) were filled largely with young girls, spinsters, former clergymen, farmers, mechanics and college students. The one common denominator among such an incongruous lot was the singular hope that school teaching would be a temporary job until something better obtained, either in a profession or trade, or through marriage."³ Of this situation, Horace Mann observed "having gained the purpose for which they entered upon the business, they abandon it - not merely without regret, but with alacrity."⁴ Messerti records that "rote memorisation and corporal punishment became the main stock in trade for

1 Report of Scholarch, 1792: as quoted by McKerron, M.E.: A History of Education in South Africa : 1652-1932 : p.139.

2 Ibid:

3 Messerti, J.C.: Horace Mann and Teacher Education : Chap. IV : Yearbook of Education, 1963, p.71.

4 Horace Mann: Ninth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board, 1846, p.40.

such teachers..... At one time it was estimated that more than half the people keeping school had less than one year's experience. Clearly the classroom had become a place of crude apprenticeship for the broadest range of endeavours, as well as a dumping ground for the misfits and unsuccessful."¹

The opinion of the Royal Commission on Education in England (the Newcastle Commission) in 1860 is well-known, and is quoted elsewhere in this study. The fact is that it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that formal training for elementary school teachers was considered necessary, and even today, in England and Wales a graduate teacher without any professional training is entitled automatically to the award of qualified teacher status by the Ministry of Education and Science and as such may practise in any primary or secondary school.

Particularly attracted to teaching in the Cape was a class of person not recorded to the same extent in either England or America. In 1837, Colonel Bell, Secretary of the Cape Colony, reported that "from whatever cause it may proceed, there is certainly in this colony something like a prejudice against the profession of schoolmaster, few of the Cape-born inhabitants indulging in it. In thinly inhabited districts, there are, or were, numbers of persons formerly belonging to corps disbanded in the Colony, or discharged from regiments serving in this station, who, for want of other means of livelihood, became so-called teachers in the Boers' families. These were generally drunken, disreputable characters; and it is not to be wondered at that the uninstructed Boer could scarcely honour a profession which he saw so degraded in the person of the professor."²

There is no doubt, however, that the British authorities did endeavour to improve the standard of instruction at least in the urban settlements. Lord Charles Somerset, during his term of office, had encouraged schoolmasters to come to the Cape. However much this action may be judged as having an ulterior motive, there is no doubt that it was an important milestone in the improvement of standards of instruction in the Colony, and represented the first infusion of the Scottish tradition into South African education.

¹ Messerti, J.C.: op cit.: p.72.

² McKerron, M.E.: op cit.: pp.140/141.

This question of raising of educational standards at the Cape was regarded as being of fundamental importance as may be judged by a memorandum of J.F.W. (later Sir John) Herschel, astronomer at the Cape, transmitted in 1838 by the Governor, Sir George Napier, to Lord Glenelg at the Colonial Office. "Having understood from your Lordship that Government had resolved to place the system of the Free Schools on a footing more efficient than heretofore, under masters adequately remunerated and superintended, the best consideration seems to be, in what manner the new system may be worked so as to diffuse the greatest amount of general information and moral instruction among all classes, as well as those who directly avail themselves of the institutions, by sending their children to school, as among those who may derive instruction at second hand from these, or be stimulated to self-improvement by their example and success."¹ Among other innovations, he suggested that there be appointed "visiting lecturers, who should attend the schools in rotation, and deliver at each a short course of general utility and interest." Upon further reflection, he was "disposed to believe that the same, or even greater advantages may be secured by adopting in each school, a system of oral instruction on the part of the master in the nature of lectures.....in which the pupils should not merely be passive listeners, but occasional respondents."² To facilitate the implementation of this scheme, he proposed "to attach to each school a small library of books.....some necessary apparatus (of course on a very moderate scale)", the pupils themselves being "encouraged to form local museums of every object of interest in the animal, vegetable or mineral Kingdoms."³ It is interesting to note that he also suggested that "At Graham's Town, it seems already high time that a step (in the direction of university education) were taken by giving the school there at once the name of a College, and by appointing in addition to the master, two professors, who, in conjunction with him, might divide between them the field of science and literature,

¹ Herschel, J.F.W.: Memorandum: Further Consideration of the Working of the Government Free Schools at the Cape of Good Hope: Enclosure No.2 in Maj. General Napier's despatch to the Colonial Secretary, 6th March, 1838.

² Ibid: p.2.

³ Ibid: p.3.

morals and physics, so as to embrace all the subjects of instruction needed for a much more complete education than could be contemplated in the country places."¹

In this work of extending education and the general standards of instruction one begins to recognise that in the Cape as elsewhere "the introduction of elementary schooling for the masses constituted a change out of which most of the present problems in teacher training have grown. Before education was extended to more than a carefully selected and small minority of the population, the practical task of preparing teachers was not very great." Apart from that provided by the universities for the learned professions, "it was felt that the training of teachers for the vernacular schools.....was.....that which associated training more closely with the practice than the principles of a trade or craft."²

The work of Somerset and Napier assisted ably by men such as Herschel as cited above, resulted in 1839 in the establishment of the office of Superintendent-General of Education in Capetown with Rose-Innes the first incumbent of an office of imposing title, but remarkably restricted establishment.³ Rose-Innes found himself the lone professional administrator, guide, mentor and inspector for that very large geographical area which constituted the Cape Colony. Indeed, it was not until 1872 that the first two deputy inspectors were appointed, by which time Rose-Innes had been succeeded in office by Langham Dale.⁴

McKerron notes that "though it is certainly true that the

¹ Ibid: p.4.

² Holmes, B.: Section II: Organisation of Teacher Training : Yearbook of Education, 1963, p.120.

³ It is probably the best instance in South African history of how the endeavours of a handful of far-sighted men can bring about reform which in the normal course of events would have taken a thousand years..... This was a very important event as 'no other country in the world has as yet made such an appointment'.

Nel, B.F. & Duminy, P.A.: A Survey of the Development of the Training of European (White) teachers in South Africa (1652-1960) p.104 quoting Pells, E.G.: Three Hundred Years of Education in South Africa, p.21.

⁴ McKerron, op cit.: pp.145/6.

early teachers in this country were inefficient, yet it must be remembered that it was not until the latter part of the nineteenth century that Europe began to evolve an adequate system for the training of teachers."¹ Malherbe records that the earliest formal training was that provided by Buchanan's Normal School which was established in Capetown in 1842.² It appears to have been an unsuccessful venture for Malherbe records that it was abortive. It operated in Capetown for 18 years, but Rose-Innes said of it that "he knew of no pupil trained there who entered teaching."³

With this unpromising start to training in a field which was inadequately recognised and provided for abroad, it is not surprising that "many teachers continued to be men of little integrity, less education and no training..... The highest educational positions had to be filled with professionally trained teachers from Europe, especially Scotland - no wonder they left their mark so deeply imprinted on South African education, that, like education in New Zealand and Australia, it has always been modelled on that of Britain."⁴

It was on this unsuccessful essay into the professional preparation of teachers that the next step was taken. Bone records that one of the main efforts of the nineteenth century "was to lift teaching out of the unskilled labour category into that of the skilled crafts. This is perhaps best seen in the pupil-teacher system whereby, until as recently at 1926, the indenturing of 'apprentices' to 'master' teachers provided one avenue, not merely into teaching, but into qualified teacher status."⁵ Of this system Bone says "This is the traditional system of craft training. It is the system in which the major pre-occupation is to pass on, literally, 'the tricks of the trade'. Characteristic is the careful and comprehensive working through ALL the 'materials' used in the trade - in teaching, the school

¹ Ibid: p.141.

² Malherbe: Education in South Africa, 1652-1922: Chap.VIII.

³ McKerron, op cit.: p.146

⁴ Rousseau, H.J.: University Teacher Training: D.Ed. Thesis in the University of South Africa (P.U.K. vir C.H.O.), 1951, p.12.

⁵ Bone, R.C.: Teacher Education & the Training Colleges in England and Wales: University of Leeds Institute of Education: 1963/64, p.2.

subjects - 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."¹

This system of pupil-teacher training was the first system of controlled teacher preparation which left its mark upon South Africa. It had originally been introduced into England from Holland about mid-century. It was subsequently introduced into the Cape by Dale in 1859 and later became an established feature of the educational scene in all four of the states and colonies of South Africa. Pupils were admitted to the scheme at the age of about 13 years having successfully completed Standard IV (later raised to V). They were then 'apprenticed' for five years, this later being reduced to three in 1861. The pupils were generally attached to the larger schools in the main centres, and from this emerged, as will be seen, normal classes, normal schools and normal colleges. The instruction in general consisted in the subject matter which was being taught in the schools, and the method used that "of slavish imitation of instructors".² Grants were made available to encourage students to undertake this training. Malherbe records that teachers received an extra grant for every candidate that succeeded in passing the final examination.³ Of this system in its operation in the northern states of South Africa, Kellermann writes "virtually the only training in the South African Republic and the Orange Free State was represented by the system of pupil teachers, taught by slavish imitation and blissfully ignorant of principles of education or even method".⁴

Inadequate and inefficient though the pupil-teacher scheme may have been, it was the main source of supply of teachers for elementary schools in South Africa until well into the twentieth century. As alternative forms of training of a higher standard became available, these teachers, who, upon successful conclusion of their

1 Ibid: p.3.

2 See McKerron, op cit., p.146.

3 The amount of the grant was stated to be £5 for a first class pass, and £4 for a second class pass: Malherbe, op.cit., Chap. VIII.

4 Kellermann, J.E.: Die Geskiedenis van die Opleiding van Blanke Onderwysers in Suid Afrika: D.Ed. Thesis: Stellenbosch, 1936, p.139.

apprenticeship, were awarded the Teachers Third Class Certificate, were employed particularly in rural schools. Ultimately the course leading to the award of the Third Class Certificate became a full-time one in a normal or training college and the system of apprentice training fell away. It had, however, stood South Africa in good stead.

At the start of the new century it is found that both advantages and disadvantages of the system were fully recognised. The Superintendent-General in the Cape wrote of the pupil teacher course that the practical character of it "makes it popular with many parents as a course for girls. They receive a useful education, the better assimilated because they have also to act as teachers and explain the difficulties of Arithmetic and Grammar to young children. They acquire a certain degree of skill in Needlework and Music and also attain some power in the management of children, a valuable part of their training which helps to the formation of character, and from the sense of responsibility it awakes. A very large number of girls, therefore, take the course, teach for a few years in small country schools and then leave the teaching profession.

"The unsatisfactory side of this procedure is that it necessitates the frequent appointment of young, and inexperienced teachers of a narrow and limited education and that it creates generally a low conception of the training required for the teacher office. On the other hand our system of training teachers in divisional town schools is one that best meets - indeed, the only one that could meet - the great demand for teachers from the numerous small rural Third Class and Private Farm schools which are scattered widely over this extensive country."¹

In the Transvaal the advantages of a full time system of teacher training had already been noted. In 1906, Mr. (later Sir John) Adamson observed that "under a system by which a future teacher passes straight from secondary school to training college, what he gains is invaluable, what is lost he is, on the whole, better without. For, by a prolonged course in secondary school, the future teacher gets what the pupil-teacher system denies him, the elements of a liberal education in company with others whose business will not be teaching; he escapes the blighting evil of premature specialisation. What he loses he can well

¹ Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1907.

do without, or rather learn when he is old enough not to mistake ends for means; not to imagine that folded arms are essential to educational progress; not to exalt 'chalk and talk' into the first place among educational instruments."¹ Curiously something of a similar argument has been advanced at a later stage as an advantage of basing secondary teachers courses in the Universities.

The pupil teacher system started in 1859 by Langham Dale came under increasing fire in the opening decades of the twentieth century. Malherbe states that the reforms with regard to certification and courses introduced in the 'twenties mark the real end of the pupil-teacher system. He says that "the pupil teacher has been replaced by the student teacher..... Several training schools and colleges were..... established, and these institutions took over the training work, which had hitherto been performed, often in a very step-motherly fashion, by the Public Schools."²

This establishment of new institutions and the introduction of new courses of training was not achieved overnight. It was a long process starting in the 1870's and continuing until the creation of the broad framework of South Africa's universities nearly half a century later. Nor was it a smoothly continuous growth process, for it was seriously interrupted by war and constitutional change. It is to these developments that attention must now be given.

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1906, para 59, p.34.

² Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., pp.147-9. It is recorded that in the period 1893-1923 the percentage of professionally qualified teachers in the Cape rose from 34,2 to 87,1, the majority of whom had qualified through the pupil teacher system for the award of the Teachers Third Class Certificate.

Chapter Two: Colleges and Certificates - the expansion of
Teacher Education in South Africa: 1870-1910

If the first half of the nineteenth century saw the expansion of South Africa from the confines of the Colony to the establishment of the four states which form the basis of the present republican provincial system, the second half, despite its feuds and wars, was a period in which the processes of civilisation and government were consolidated and expanded. Amongst these were the provision of education, and, if the early attempts through Buchanan's Normal School, and the pupil teacher system, met with limited success, it was an indication of the realisation by the authorities concerned of the need to improve the condition of the schools and the quality of the instruction in them.

The second phase in this developmental process was the establishment of institutions in which selected pupils or students might receive full time professional training for service in the elementary schools. At this stage in South Africa, as in England, the concern was to provide a basic elementary education for the majority, with limited provision of education at a higher level for a select elite. Teachers for the small numbers of secondary schools were almost exclusively trained and recruited abroad. An interesting divergence of opinion as to the purpose and functions of elementary and secondary schools took place in Natal about this time. The matter was pungently ventilated by the Headmaster of one of the two secondary high schools, the Pietermaritzburg High School, in a communication to the Natal Government. "The Council of Education may well be left to guard its own right and dignities, but the rights of a rising generation of Colonists, with which I have been temporarily entrusted, are to me more important and sacred than the rights and dignity of any council, however august and influential. In three years, through consulting proprieties, I have stood by and hollowly acquiesced in the most hollow farce that even South Africa can show, namely, the present High School system. What has failed and cannot but fail, is the present scheme for the promotion of it. No one knows better than the Superintendent Inspector of Schools, who sits at your table, and whose duty it is to give you the reasons why. He can tell you that a school of 60 boys in all stages of advancement, with the teaching staff of an average Irish Hedge school cannot go far in the prosecution of higher education..... I will no longer be mute when

the cause of Higher Education is being assassinated before my very eyes."¹

1. The New Colleges:-

As far as teacher education is concerned, then, the main task was to train practitioners for service in the elementary schools. The pupil-teacher system, adequate though it had been, did not give the background that could be given by full-time professional training. According to McKerron the first formally designated training college in South Africa was opened in Wellington in 1874. This being known as the Huguenot College, it was designed for women students and was intended solely for the training of teachers, although it subsequently undertook a much wider spectrum of responsibility in the provision of higher education.² Other girls schools, which sprang up about the same time in imitation of the Huguenot College, also undertook teacher training. An example of these was the Bloemhof Seminary in Stellenbosch, which ultimately became the Denne Oord Training College. McKerron claims that the real start of the systematic training of teachers came with the establishment of the Dutch Reformed Normal College in Capetown in 1878. This college set out to train teachers for 1st and 2nd class schools in the Cape. Students were admitted at the age of 16 years, and by 1896 the college had an enrolment of 34 students. By 1913 this was absorbed into the Education Department of the South African College. By the turn of the century a further four training institutions had come into existence in the Cape. These were established at Grahamstown and Caledon in 1896, at Uitenhage in 1899 and Burghersdorp in 1900. Small wonder it was that with these training institutions as well as a well-

¹ Clark, R.D.: Headmaster, Pietermaritzburg High School in a communication to the Council of Education: quoted by Jennings, H.D.: The D.H.S. Story, 1866-1966, p.46.

² This institution should not be confused with the Wellington Training College. The Superintendent-General records in his annual report for 1895 that a new training school is to be established at Wellington. It was intended that a lower grade training school (T₃) should be formed consisting of three classes; that the work should be that prescribed for student teachers; that students should give the whole day to the work of their classes; that subjects should be treated in such a way as to benefit the pupils professionally, and that a practising school should adjoin the Training School for criticism lessons. Report of the Superintendent-General for Education, 1895.

³ McKerron, M.E.: op cit., pp.146-8.

established system of pupil-teacher training, the Cape became the centre of supply of trained elementary school teachers for South Africa. The Superintendent-General reported in 1905 that "undoubtedly there is a great leakage from the teaching profession..... There is for this year a leakage of 227 certificated teachers to be accounted for. A large number have married, and a large number, especially of the newly certificated, have entered the service of the new colonies. It may be observed, in passing, that for many years, the Cape Colony, as the oldest and longest settled of the South African states, has been in the habit of furnishing the majority of the South African trained teachers for the states north of the Orange River."¹

However, the northern states had not been inactive in the matter of the provision of teachers, and the last decade of the old century saw considerable advances made. Indeed, the regime of Dr Mansvelt in the South African Republic was characterised by a constant battle with regard to the improving of the quality of teaching staff, their training and their certification. The seriousness of the situation may be judged from the extracts of his report in 1895: "In het afgelopen dienstjaar verlieten enkele goede onderwijzers onze scholen om een andere meer vaste of winstgevende betrekking aan te nemen Gelijk ten vorigen jare moet ik ook nie melding maken van den grooten onderwijzersnood. Deze is nog steeds stijgende..... Vier vyfde van de kinderen onzes volks is buiten de school. Over enkele jaren kunnen we eerst een voldoende aantal onderwijzers nite onze eigene scholen hebben."² He had previously entered a plea for the expansion of teacher training in the South African Republic, beyond the pupil-teacher system. "Ik beschouw het voor ons land van het hoogste belang dat terstond maatregelen genomen worden om ons eigen onderwijzerspersoneel to vormen ten einde niet langer van de onzekere ongewenschte hulp uit het buitenland afhankelijk te zijn."³ Mansvelt's campaign bore fruit with the establishment of a normal department in the State

¹ Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education, 1905.

² South African Republic: Report of the Superintendent of Education 1895, pp.13-14.

³ Report of the Superintendent of Education: S.A. Republic, 1893: as quoted by Malherbe, E.G., op cit., Chap. XII.

Model School in Pretoria in 1896,¹ with a similar addition to the Staatsmeijssiesskool in 1897.² These two normal departments coalesced to form the Pretoria Normal College in 1902.

The need for training beyond the pupil-teacher system was also realised in the Orange Free State during the same period, and the Normal College was founded in Bloemfontein in 1899.³ Due to the outbreak of war, however, it was closed in the same year, and reopened again in 1902. Education authorities in Natal were somewhat tardy in their recognition of the need for better trained teachers. The pupil teacher system was introduced in 1874, and it was not until 1908-9 that the Natal Training College was established in Pietermaritzburg. The report for the year 1910 records an enrolment of 71 students, the full time staff consisting of a principal and two lecturers and new appointments including specialists in Dutch, infant teaching, domestic science, singing, nature study and manual work.⁴

Attention was also given in the Cape Colony to the provision of vacation courses for 'acting' (untrained) teachers. These were started in 1894 in all the training schools, and details of them figure in all the annual reports until 1904, with the exception of the three war years. It was stated in 1895 that "the main object of the course of Lectures.....is to improve acting teachers in the daily work of their profession; the granting of certificates is a subsidiary matter and is only done after taking into account the teachers past services in connection with the Education Department and any professional or academic certificates previously gained."⁵

The need, then, for better training of teachers was slowly

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. XII.

² McKerron, M.E.: op cit., pp.148-149.

³ Two of the best pupil-teacher training centres were at the Grey and Eunice Schools in Bloemfontein. Just before the war of 1899-1902, the Free State made an attempt to establish a training college, but it was only after the British conquest of the Republics that rapid improvement commenced.
Kellermann, J.E.: op cit., p.245.

⁴ Natal: Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1909-1910, p.2.

⁵ Cape Colony: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education for 1895.

but surely realised throughout the four states. By the time Union was achieved in 1910, despite the setback of the war, all four states had established major institutions for teacher training, with a number of training centres in operation in the Cape.

An important principle regarding teacher training is discernible even at this early stage; a principle which not even at the present time has been fully resolved. The four states which constituted South Africa were completely independent of one another. This is understandable in the case of the two northern republics which had broken away from the Cape Colony. Interestingly there is little or no record of co-operation or co-ordination between them. While one might look for this between the two colonies it must be remembered that Natal from its annexation had been in an inferior position to the Cape. The former had been under the control of a Lieutenant Governor who had been responsible to the Governor in the Cape. Responsible government was only achieved in Natal in 1896, and any suggestion that there might have been co-operation or co-ordination between the two colonies would possibly have seemed in Natal to suggest once again a bending of the knee to the Cape. Thus, with a de facto situation in which the Cape trained the majority of teachers for the elementary schools of South Africa, there was no suggestion of pooling or co-ordinating of resources for the supply of teachers. This separatism after 1910 was to be described as provincialism which has been a potent force in the maintenance of divisions in the development of teacher education in this country.

2. The Certification of Teachers:-

With each state producing its own teachers, it is obvious that an early problem would be the recognition of diverse certificates and their equivalence. It is necessary therefore to look briefly at this aspect of training, which has continued right down to the 'seventies of the present century to be a fundamental question at the heart of inter-governmental and institutional co-operation.

As long as the pupil-teacher system of training was the only one in operation in the South African states, no problems of certification or recognition of certificates arose. From 1859 onwards in the Cape, and later in the other states, pupil teachers served their three-year apprenticeship after completing Standard IV and were then recognised as

qualified teachers. They became journeymen in their trade, respected and efficient in their various communities where untrained teachers were the rule rather than the exception.

With the introduction of the first professional qualification, however, the situation began to change. In 1873 the Elementary Teacher's Diploma was introduced in the Cape Colony. This comprised final examinations in English, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and School Management taken at the end of the 'pupil-teachers' course. 'Dutch or Kafir' were regarded as optional extras. The heavy emphasis of the time on the 3R's is clearly discernible, as is the emphasis upon the practical day-to-day routine of the school. By the end of the first decade of operation of this qualification, in 1883, 292 candidates were entered for the examinations. In the same year the Ross Report criticised the existing systems of teacher training and certification in the Cape. It was felt that the training given in preparation for this diploma was too general and did not meet the particular needs of the small rural farm schools. Additionally it was stated that the students who were produced showed a distressing lack of general culture.¹

In the meantime a further qualification had been added in 1878 in the Cape. This was the Middle Class Teacher's Certificate. This was awarded upon the successful completion of a two-year course, with an admission level approximating to matriculation. Incidentally, the passing of the matriculation examination or its academic equivalent was a pre-requisite for admission to the professional examination. The structure of this course then developed as one year of academic studies plus one year of professional training.

By the early 1880's, therefore, teachers might have served their pupil-teacher apprenticeship and secured qualified teacher status, have obtained the Elementary Teacher's Diploma, or the Middle Class Teacher's Certificate. McKerron notes the growing confusion and the need for standard certificates for the registration of teachers. He states, for example, that the Elementary Teacher's Diploma, or Third Class Teacher's Certificate, as it became known, could be obtained in a variety of ways which indicated a wide range of standards. Thus it was awarded after three years of training beyond Standard VI, or one year after matriculation. Two years of training plus one year of study in

¹ See Malherbe, E.G.: *op cit.*, Chap. VIII.

selected university subjects was also accepted, as was one year of training after passing of the University Intermediate examination. Three years of practical experience plus successful attendance at three vacation courses, as well as 10 years of successful practical experience were also means whereby the Certificate could be obtained.¹ Malherbe states in addition that the Elementary Teacher's Diploma was obtainable by anyone who had reached the age of seventeen years. Both Malherbe and McKerron state that "it was frequently taken by girls who had no intention of teaching."² It is no wonder that, having weighed the teacher training of the day in the balance, the Ross Report found some of its products wanting, or, perhaps more truthfully, lacking.

These two basic certificates in the Cape became known as the Third Class Teacher's Certificate and the Second Class Teacher's Certificate respectively, and, even though they meant different things in different states, and even, as has been suggested, in the same state, they were generally accepted as conferring professional status on teachers by each of the four governments. It is mentioned in this connection that, even though there was no formal training of teachers in the South African Republic by the 'eighties, the reports of the Superintendents of Education, du Toit and Mansvelt, from 1853 onwards, contained frequent expressions of concern over the certification of teachers.³ Malherbe records that in 1898 only 27% of teachers in the

¹ McKerron, M.E.: op cit., p.147.

² Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. VIII.

³ It is to be noted that Education Acts were passed by the Volkeraad in 1874 and 1882, but in neither is there any reference to the training of teachers.

"En voornaam middel tot verhooging van het peil van het onderwijs is het stellen van het eisch van een certifikaat van afgelegd examen als onderwijzer voor elke persoon, die erkenning vraagt. Het is mijn vaste overtuiging dat geen degelijk schoolwezen kan tot stand komen zonder algemeene handhaving van deze voorwaarde..... Tegen dit kwaad zal nog lang gestreden moeten worden en die tijd sal misschien spoedig gekomen zijn dat de eisch van een certifikaat van examen van dezen staat algemeen verplichtend gesteld moet worden..... Ek geef U.H.Ed in overweging, den E.A. Eersten Volksraad aan te bevelen, aan onderwijzers die minstens 10 jaren ons onderwijs trouw gediend hebben, en onder dan 40 jaar zijn, een certifikaat van gelijkstelling met het certifikaat van examen as onderwijzer, derde klas, te verleenen." S.A. Republic: Report of the Superintendent of Education: 1895, pp.14-15.

South African Republic had teachers' certificates, 40% had professional certificates of some kind, while 61% were authorised to teach.¹

Dissatisfaction with the Middle Class Teacher's Certificate with its involvement in preparation for matriculation was expressed in the Cape in 1896. "Nearly three quarters of this year's candidates have had to prepare for matriculation. The result is that nearly all their efforts and time have been devoted to the latter examination. This is most unsatisfactory; especially when it is considered what a large sum Government contributes to their training."² In commenting on this situation, the Superintendent-General remarks that "there can be little doubt that most of the candidates profited by delaying their (professional) examination until a year after matriculation; and it would assuredly be well if an increasing number of candidates followed their example."³

This almost simultaneous deploring yet advocacy of teacher training at a post-matriculation level set the pattern of development for the first three decades of the new century. Very evident is the gulf existing between the two levels of certification, T₃ and T₂. While the latter is being urged as a post-secondary qualification,⁴ Malherbe records that in 1894 the former had become a formal three-year course of training, and adds that at this time "it was not considered safe to venture on a higher admission standard than Standard IV."⁵ Indeed according to official reports the admission level was only raised to Standard IV in 1899, to Standard VI in 1901, to Standard VII in 1909 and to Standard VIII in 1920.

The third and highest level of training, the First Class

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. XII.

² Cape Colony: Government Gazette, 20th July, 1896.

³ " " : Annual Report of Superintendent-General of Education: 1895: published 1896, p.27.

⁴ "It has definitely been announced that in specifying matriculation or its equivalent as a condition of admission [to the T₂ course], the Department is not to be understood as insisting upon Latin or Mathematics, especially in the case of ladies, and that a really good general education is what is meant." Extract of the Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education: 1907.

⁵ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., p.148.

Teacher's Certificate, which the nomenclature of the two other certificates presupposed, was intended for higher secondary teachers. McKerron notes that mention is made of this certificate and its recognition in all four states round about the 1890's. More precisely, Malherbe records that the first mention is made of it in 1892. The 1874 Act in the South African Republic laid down the examination requirements for the certificate, but it was also a certificate which could be awarded without examination to teachers of long experience and exceptional merit. The annual report on education in the Cape for 1895 states that its purpose was "to encourage the better educated teachers, and especially graduates, to devote part of their leisure to the study of professional literature - works, that is to say, on the Art, Philosophy and History of Education - and to seek daily to improve their professional skill."¹ This was expanded on by the Superintendent-General in his following report:- "Four aims ought to be kept steadily in view by candidates, viz.:

1. to acquire a sound knowledge of Mental and Moral Science which bear on Education;
2. to make themselves familiar with the History of Education, and the historical development of Educational Theories;
3. to know the best methods of teaching school subjects, of managing classes, and of managing a school;
4. to be able to put these methods into effective operation."²

Without doubt, this was the forerunner of the modern professional diploma awarded under various titles to graduates after a fourth year of professional study. The important difference is that experienced teachers could be awarded the certificate without examination. This was to raise problems of administration and recognition in the early years of Union. It is a subject which will be returned to in both Parts Two and Three of this study.

An additional complication in this embryonic pattern of teacher certification was provided by the Natal Government where, according to McKerron, a Fourth Class Teacher's Certificate was awarded

¹ Report of the Superintendent-General of Education: Cape Colony: 1895, as quoted by McKerron, M.E.: op cit., p.148.

² Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education for 1896.

for a number of years. This was obviously a matter of expediency in the face of teacher shortage, for it was awarded to those candidates for the Third Class Certificate who had obtained a sub-minimum aggregate percentage of 33 1/3. This anomalous position is rendered doubly anomalous by the statement in the report of the Superintendent of Education in Natal in 1910 that it is necessary to bring the certification of teachers into line with other provinces. It is stated that it is expedient to regrade the existing certificate and issue a lower certificate - the Third Grade Teacher's Certificate - on the results of the Entrance Examination, the professional papers and practical tests. The existing Second Grade Certificate would then be abolished and the existing T₃ Certificate would be regraded to replace it. This served merely to confuse further an already confused situation at the time of Union. A further certificate was granted in the Orange Free State - the Kindergarten Professional Certificate.¹

The situation at the turn of the century, therefore, was that the states of South Africa recognised three levels or classes of teachers' certificates, to each of which were a number of avenues. The question of equivalence was therefore one which concerned all education authorities. The majority of certificated teachers in service had qualified for the award of the Third Class Teacher's Certificate, and this had in general become a formal full-time course in various normal departments, schools and colleges. In addition to locally awarded certificates, were teachers in possession of certificates of examining authorities in England, Scotland, Holland and Germany, to name the main external sources of supply of teachers for South Africa's schools.² The progress which had been made in the training and recruitment of teachers was brought to a temporary halt by the war, but this was followed by considerable strides made during the interregnum of colonial government prior to the establishment of Union in 1910.

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. XIX.

² „Dr. N. Mansvelt, Superintendent van Onderwys tot by die uitbreek van die tweede vryheidsoorlog, het alles in sy vermoë gedoen om Engelse invloed in die onderwys teë te werk. Daarom het hy op 'n groot skaal onderwysers van die Nederland ingevoer om die skole en die onderwys suiwer te hou.“
van Coller, H.P.: Onderwysersopleiding in Brittanje en Transvaal: p.379.

3. Teacher Education during the Colonial Interregnum 1902-1910

The education authorities in both the Cape and the Transvaal reviewed the situation carefully during this period. Thomas Muir reported in 1906 that "several causes combine to make it difficult to train an adequate supply of teachers even for the European schools of the Colony. The first is the high number of teachers required in proportion to the number of pupils. Owing to the large number of very small schools this proportion works out at the rate of one teacher for every twenty pupils. The second cause is the short time the trained woman teacher remains in the profession, the average term of service being under five years. The number of trained teachers, therefore, required every year simply to fill up vacancies in the ranks is large beyond the average. Another cause lies in the vast extent of the country, and the difficulties of travelling. Teachers trained in the more thickly populated centres decline invitations to posts in the more remote districts. The isolated life deters them, and the physical discomfort and expense of the long journey. From this it follows that the work of training must be carried on at many centres through the Colony. Indeed, experience has proved that the only efficacious method of meeting the demand for trained teachers in the small rural schools of outlying districts is to train a sufficient supply in the central town school of the division. In the last place it may be added that for many years the northern South African states have drawn largely on Cape Colony for their supply of teachers."¹

At the same time, while noting the gradual abandonment of the pupil-teacher system in England and Scotland, Muir did seek to justify its continuance in the Colony: "In the first place, it is not a cheap means of staffing schools, but as the main source of supply of certificated teachers that the pupil-teacher system is subsidised by the Government. Pupil-teachers are not reckoned by the Education Department as an effective part of the teaching power of the school."² After recording that 2209 pupil-teachers were undertraining in 1906, he made reference to the various options permitted in the course. "After passing Standard VI, candidates may enter a three-year pupil-teacher

¹ Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education, 1906, p.23.

² Ibid: p.24.

course; or, if they desire, they may proceed to the School Higher Examination or the Standard VII Examination. They are, if successful, excused the first year of the course and may enter as Second Year students.... Or candidates may proceed to the Matriculation Examination. They are in that case excused two years of the pupil-teacher's course.... In the year under review the matriculation students numbered 69. They make good candidates, and generally obtain places in the first class; but their practical experience is necessarily small."¹

Here again are fresh complications with regard to certification. How was the upper level of the certificate awarded to the pupil-teacher to be distinguished from the Middle Class Teacher's Certificate? Furthermore, could such distinction really be justified if the level of the Third Class Certificate was to be built up to a post-secondary stage?

A similar situation existed in the Transvaal where a Third Class Certificate could be granted to a teacher "who either (i) (a) has taught successfully for a period of not less than two years in a Government school, or in a school recognised as efficient.....(one year's residence at the Normal College being reckoned.....as equivalent to a year's experience of teaching), and (b) has passed the qualifying examination; or (ii) possess equivalent qualifications."² The qualifying examination referred to consisted of two parts, professional and general. Possession of a Matriculation Certificate of the University of the Cape of Good Hope exempted the candidate from the second part, which consisted of eight subjects, in only three of which, English, Arithmetic and Geography, was a minimum of 30% required, while an aggregate minimum of 43% was required for the award of a full certificate and 30% for a provisional certificate.³ Thus, the regulations for the Transvaal Third Class Certificate made obligatory the possession of a pass at matriculation level or its equivalent. Similarly for the Second Class Certificate it was necessary to have passed the Intermediate Examination of the University of the Cape of

¹ Ibid: p.25.

² Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education for 1906: Regulations for Issuing Teachers Certificates, pp.182-3.

³ Ibid: pp.186-7.

Good Hope, to have passed a professional examination, after one year's training¹ and to have had four years of experience, or alternatively to have passed the professional examination and to have had six years of experience. Candidates for the T₂ who had obtained a Bachelors Degree, were required either to undergo a recognised course of training, pass the professional examination and have two years of experience, or alternatively to have passed the professional examination and to have had three years of teaching experience.²

Thus again, we find the general raising of standards of admission and levels of training in the teaching service. T₃ by today's standards would be regarded as non-university training while that of T₂ would possibly be equivalent to university training at graduate or non-graduate levels. The inference with regard to the First Class Certificate is again plain - it is obviously one to be awarded to teachers, preferably graduates, of high standing and long experience.³

This picture of the formal raising of standards and regularising of certificate requirements in the Transvaal does not, however, represent the whole truth, for there was still the very large proportion of recruits who were obtained through the pupil-teacher system, or even as untrained teachers. Of this, Adamson notes in 1907 that "the teaching quality of our recruits varied, of course, greatly, but was on the whole distinctly low. This is true first of their general attainments; matriculation, to be explicit, is a general standard which but a small proportion have attained. It is truer still of their professional attainments; the number of those who have been expressly trained for the work of teaching is small, and the number who have taken any professional course....is not great..... The training of teachers all the world over is altogether inadequate to the need..... During the past two years especially there has been a migration of.....teachers.....towards the town..... We suffer from a

¹ Nel, F.G. & Duminy, P.A.: A Survey of the Development of the Training of European (White) Teachers in S.A. (1652-1960): p.113. The level of professional competence required is defined as having "a fair knowledge of educational matters".

² Transvaal: Annual Report: 1906, pp.196-197.

³ The T₁ Certificate has been described as being "for intelligent teachers with long teaching experience". Coetzee, J.C.: Onderwys in Suid Afrika: p.283.

world-wide tendency of the better class teachers to drift townwards."¹ A most significant rider to this appears in the annual report for 1910. Normal College products "All become absorbed in the permanent staff ultimately, but it takes time. The reason is that though the number of vacancies has been large, the number to which Normal College candidates could be appointed was relatively small..... Posts of a lower grade, Grade D, are for uncertificated and untrained teachers. Unfortunately the posts of Grade D make up the majority of the vacancies. It would be well, of course, if we could abolish Grade D posts altogether and have no chance for the uncertificated and probationary employee. This is, however, a counsel of perfection. The resources at the disposal of the Department make it impossible to appoint none but certificated teachers, even if the latter were forthcoming in sufficient numbers."²

With regard to the thorny problem of the recognition of certificates, Adamson states that "not the least of our difficulties.... has been caused by the different standards obtaining in the various South African Colonies. In order to get over this very serious difficulty, and fix upon a professional passport which would be credited throughout South Africa, I recently drew up a scheme for three grades of South African certificates and submitted it to a meeting of heads of Education Departments at Capetown. Though it was generally agreed that a common certificate for all the Colonies was desirable, some members of the conference felt that the time was hardly ripe for its institution. It was agreed that meanwhile the various departments should endeavour to bring the syllabus of their examinations as far as possible into line."³

Adamson's foresight in 1907 clearly anticipated a vexatious problem which has exercised educational administrations in the Union and in the Republic ever since. Indeed, today, on the threshold of the 'seventies one of the major problems being faced is the number of teacher's diplomas and certificates being issued, and the ways in which these can be rationalised and reduced.

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education: 1907: pp.19,20.

² Transvaal: Annual Report: 1910: p.51.

³ Ibid: p.21.

4. The Establishment of Institutions of Higher Education:

The latter part of the nineteenth century saw the establishment in South Africa, and the Cape in particular, of a number of colleges which provided instruction at both secondary and higher levels. These colleges appear to be traceable in lineage directly to the memorandum of Herschel to the Colonial Secretary in 1838, to which reference has already been made. Malherbe records that by 1891 five of these colleges had been established in the Colony. They were the South African College, Diocesan College, Rondebosch; Victoria College, Stellenbosch; St. Andrews College, Grahamstown, and Gill College, Somerset East.

Although they provided the nucleus for university development in the Cape, the majority of work done in the early years was of a secondary school type, and there were occasions when they did prove to be something of an embarrassment to the colonial government. In 1895 it was stated that "the total number of professors or assistants employed at the five colleges is now 32 - a markedly excessive staff when we consider the number of students and classes - a preposterous staff when we consider the amount of university work to be done. Year by year this glaring waste of power must be kept in view."¹ A year later the Superintendent-General reported that there was "no relief to the Professors from the drudgery of purely school work."² It is recorded that by 1909 matriculation work had disappeared from all Colleges under the Higher Education Act.³ In the same year, the annual report on education observed that, "a twofold benefit might be expected to accrue. The professors would have more time for advanced work, while the pupils of junior classes would be in the public schools under a discipline more suitable to their years."⁴ About the same time the number of colleges was reduced for economic reasons - Gill College was closed, while St. Andrews College was restricted to secondary school work, all higher education work in the Eastern Province being concentrated in Rhodes University College in Grahamstown.

In the Orange Free State, Grey College in Bloemfontein had

¹ Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General, 1895.

² Ibid: 1896.

³ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. VIII.

⁴ Cape Colony: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General, 1909, p.14.

originally operated on the same basis as the colleges in the Cape. However, in the period of the interregnum it too was raised to the status of a university college. The Transvaal University College in Pretoria, the small Natal University College in Pietermaritzburg and the South African School of Mines in Johannesburg (the embryonic University of the Witwatersrand) completed the picture of the teacher institutions of higher education in South Africa in 1910. A most important institution in the development of higher education in South Africa, was not a teaching foundation at all. The University of the Cape of Good Hope, the determinant of academic standards, was purely an examining and degree granting body.¹

While they originally concentrated upon the Arts and Sciences, a significant step was taken in 1909. In that year the first South African Chair of Pedagogy was established at the Grey University College in Bloemfontein.² "The next year the Victoria College, Stellenbosch appointed Professor G.G. Cillié and the South African College, Professor Fred Clarke as Professors of Education. All three colleges provided a one year course of training which included, on the theoretical side, the History and Philosophy of Education, but no Psychology of Education."³

Of the situation in the Transvaal it is recorded that "sedert die totstandkoming van die Transvaalse Universiteitskollege in 1906, is onderwysers ook aan die inrigting opgelei. In die verdere ontwikkeling van onderwysersopleiding in die Transvaal vind ons 'n noue samewerking tussen normaalkolleges en die universiteite, totdat daar in 1910 met die totstandkoming van die Unie van Suid-Afrika toegestaan is dat die opleiding van O₂ en O₃ onderwysers aan die sorg van die Provinsiale Rade toevertrou kan word."⁴

¹ Union Government: Report of the University Commission, 1914 (the Laurence Commission) U.G. 42 of 1914: p.20 paras 49 & 50. The University has been granted a Charter in the usual form by an Order-in-Council in 1877.

² Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., p.384. Rousseau in quoting Malherbe claims that this was done in 1910. There appears to be a misinterpretation of the establishment of the chair and the admission of the first students for training.

³ Rousseau, H.J.: University Teacher Training, 1951, p.14.

⁴ van Coller, H.P.: Onderwysersopleiding in Brittanje en in Transvaal met besondere verwysing na die Britse beïnvloed hier te lande veral in die eerste helfde van die twintigste eeu: D.Ed. Thesis: P.U. vir C.H.O: p.379.

On the eve of the establishment of Union, teacher training was provided for in a number of institutions at different levels of operation. Each state had made arrangements for the award of its own teachers' certificates, but the time was not deemed to be ripe for the recognition of South African-wide certificates, although professional co-operation with regard to syllabuses was regarded as desirable. The new and growing university institutions were adding, or were about to add, pedagogy to their list of academic and professional offerings. The new constitutional arrangements of September, 1909 contained in the South African Act, not only posed the large question of whether the four states could work together in unity, it brought with it a crop of unresolved educational problems with regard to the training and certification of teachers which were at an early stage to occupy the attention of educational administrators. The Act itself, in reserving 'education other than higher' to the provincial authority offered little practical comfort to those engaged in attempts to solve the problems.

Part Two: The Development of Present Systems of Teacher Education:
1910-1960

Chapter Three: Ex Unitate Vires - as well as division and provincialism

Four independent educational systems each responsible for the recruitment, training and certification of its teachers, a number of developing institutions of higher education, three with newly created, or about to be created, chairs of education, a newly established central department of education, charged with responsibility for vague and undefined higher education on behalf of a constitutional organisation as yet inexperienced in the forging of national bonds, and yet given the major powers of taxation and financial control; these were the raw materials that were given to the professional administrators of education upon the establishment of the Union of South Africa in May, 1910.

Naturally the most immediate problems which concerned them were connected with relations between the central and provincial governments, with an urgent necessity to evolve a modus vivendi in the face of constitutional and financial issues. As far as teacher education was concerned these turned on the definition of 'education other than higher' and the consequential problem of the financing of teacher education as a provincial responsibility. The further matter of relations between the central government, the provincial authorities and the universities with their responsibility for the training of teachers was subsidiary but was soon to assume considerable proportions in governmental and educational debate.

The initial issue of relations between provinces and central government was, and still is, fundamental, and the history of teacher education, indeed of all education in the days since 1910 has turned on it. The question of co-ordination and co-operation between the five authorities concerned forms the substance of much of this study. It is proposed in this and the succeeding chapter to examine the growth of the teacher training systems of each of the five authorities in turn.

1. The Union Education Department and Higher Education:

The newly established department, under the control of a permanent secretary and the portfolio of a Cabinet Minister, immediately found it necessary to determine whether or not the training of teachers constituted higher education. Certainly in some provinces, for example, the Cape and Natal, training for the Third Class Certificate was undertaken with an admission level which was of secondary rather than higher education. At the same time all the provinces were advocating that all teacher education should ultimately be raised to a post-matriculation - or higher education - level. The fact that Adamson's suggestion of a standardised system of teachers certificates had not been very enthusiastically received by the meeting of Heads of Education Departments in 1907 did not augur well, however, for any surrender by the provinces of their control of teacher education.

A conference of Directors of Education held in Bloemfontein in late 1911 recommended that the training, examination and certification of teachers for the Third and Second Class Teacher's Certificates should remain a provincial responsibility. This was confirmed at a meeting of Administrators and Executive Committees with the central government held in Capetown in March, 1912.¹ In fact, at a previous conference of the four Directors it was stated that the training and certification of teachers should be regarded as a function of the provincial authorities as long as primary and secondary education was under that control.² These decisions were upheld in subsequent legislation which has thus served to entrench provincial control of teacher education. For example, in the Financial Relations Fourth Extension Act of 1922,³ teacher training is omitted from the definition of higher education. Education given in universities and university colleges is specifically defined as higher education. Section 12 of the Act, however, authorises the provinces to maintain institutions for the training of

¹ See: Rapport van die Ondersekretaris voor Onderwijs over die Twee Jaren geëindigd op die 31ste Desember, 1912: p.2.

² National Bureau of Educational & Social Research: A Comparative Study of the Training of Teachers in South Africa: Research Series No.7, Chapter Two.

³ Act No. 5 of 1922.

teachers for schools maintained by them. This state of affairs is confirmed by the Financial Relations Consolidation Act of 1945, and the Financial Relations Amendment Act of 1959. The former, however, in Section 17(e) includes the training of teachers in the definition of higher education. In the Vocational Education Act of 1955, the training of nursery and secondary school teachers is included in the definition.¹ The original confusion remains while legislation is on the Statute Book to prove that up to the implementation of the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969, universities, colleges of education and technical colleges all have the right to train teachers from nursery to secondary school level. The provincial right to the training of teachers for its schools appears to be a mixture of usage plus the decisions of early conferences and the various financial relations acts. It would appear that the position with regard to teacher education has to a large extent been regularised by the passing of the National Education Policy Act of 1967 and the Amendment Act of 1969.²

Accepting then, the decision of these early conferences, that teacher education for the T₃ and T₂ certificates was to be the responsibility of the provinces, a singularly small field of operation was left for the Union Education Department. It was restricted to higher education in the form of the developing pattern of universities, to teacher preparation for the First Class Teacher's Certificate, and to attempts at professional co-ordination of and financial contribution to education in general through the provincial departments of education. The relevant sections of these responsibilities must now be considered, although preparation for the First Class Certificate and attempts at co-operation will be dealt with more specifically in a later section.

2. University Development in the Union of South Africa:

As outlined in the previous chapter, the situation with regard to higher education in 1910 was that there were seven embryonic universities with a central examining and degree granting authority

¹ N.B.E.S.R.: Training of Teachers in South Africa: Chapter Two.

² South Africa: Act 39 of 1967 and Act 73 of 1969.

which was independent of central government or provincial control. In reporting on conditions in the university colleges, a parliamentary select committee set up in 1913, the Thomson Committee, declared itself to be in favour of a single strong national university.¹ The argument in favour of this was the economic wastefulness of small single college institutions. The experience of the Cape in this situation had been of the waste of teaching power, as was testified to by the 1895 report of the Superintendent-General of Education in the Colony.² Then, as now, a university was regarded as a prestige institution. Where was a national university to be located? Historically, the Cape as the mother province would seem the obvious choice. Already, however, signs were emerging that the Transvaal was to become the economic mainspring of the Union, and, after all, Pretoria was the executive capital. The Thomson Commission was, therefore, unable to suggest a location for its proposed national university.

The University Commission³ under the chairmanship of Sir Perceval Maitland Laurence, reported in July, 1914 and examined three possible alternatives - single college universities, a single national university and a federation of groups of colleges. "The ideal of a single national university is rather an ideal than a practical objective. In view of the distances involved, and scattered nature of our population, such a university could not meet the reasonable requirements of the people of the whole Union. If it drew to itself a large proportion of the students from the other Provinces, it would impair the usefulness of the existing college(s); if it failed to do so, it would fail to justify its existence..... For the promotion of university teaching and research, we must look to the existing colleges as instruments and coadjutors of the university. These considerations point to the adaptation to our requirements of some organism of a federal character."⁴

The federal solution proposed by the Laurence Commission

1 Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chapter XX.

2 See page 24.

3 Union Government: Report of the University Commission, (the Laurence Commission), 1914: Government Printer, U.G. 42 of 1914.

4 Ibid: and Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 31.12.1917, pp.2-3.

involved the establishment of two universities, the first in the South, and incorporating the South African College, Victoria College and Huguenot College. The second would be constituted in the North, of the Transvaal University College (Pretoria), Grey College, and Natal University College. The two remaining institutions, Rhodes University College was to be given the opportunity to join either the Northern or Southern group, and the School of Mines which subsequently became known as the University College in Johannesburg was seen as developing into a Faculty of Science and Technology which would serve both universities.¹

This proposed arrangement was to a certain extent cumbersome and obviously presented problems of co-operation and administration. The Universities Statutes Commission resulted in the passage of various bills which have been collectively entitled the University Acts of 1916. Briefly, under these acts:-

1. the University of the Cape of Good Hope, Huguenot, Rhodes, Natal and the Transvaal University Colleges as well as the School of Mines became incorporated in a federal university styled the University of South Africa with its headquarters in Pretoria.²
2. Victoria College was incorporated as a university styled by the University of Stellenbosch.³
3. The South African College, Cape Town, was constituted as the University of Cape Town.⁴

The university pattern established by these Acts endured until the late 'forties when, as a result of the recommendations of the Brookes Commission,⁵ various of the constituent colleges of the University of South Africa were granted independent status.

Once these universities were established as autonomous institutions, the professional responsibility for them which devolved upon the Union Education Department diminished. However, there

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. XX.

² Act No. 12 of 1916. To complete the development, the School of Mines was incorporated as the University of the Witwatersrand by Act No. 15 of 1921.

³ Act No. 13 of 1916.

⁴ Act No. 14 of 1916.

⁵ Report of the Commission on the University of South Africa, 1946. U.G. 44 of 1947.

remained the matter of financial responsibility. According to Malherbe, in terms of the Higher Education Provisions Act all universities and colleges were deemed to be state-aided institutions. To these the government contributed three quarters of approved staff salaries on a fixed scale, together with half the total expenditure of the preceding year on recurrent maintenance and general expenditure. In 1922 a Departmental Commission determined that the grant payable would be based on the income raised by the institutions concerned. Thus began a long series of negotiations regarding the financing of South African universities, a significant step in which was the derivation and application of the Holloway formula in 1948.¹ The matter is still under review and is certain to occupy a considerable amount of the attention of the 1968 University Commission (the van Wyk de Vries Commission) which has not yet reported.

This matter of the relations between the Union Education Department and the universities may seem peripheral to the subject of teacher education. This is not so, however, for the universities have been responsible for a considerable amount of teacher education, and have, with increasing emphasis throughout the period of Union, been declared to be the institutions which should be totally responsible for this function. Additionally considerable discussion has taken place with regard to the respective costs of training of teachers in provincial colleges and in the universities.²

3. The First Class Teacher's Certificate:

It has already been established that, by agreement if not legislation, the provinces were to be responsible for the training and certification of T₃ and T₂ teachers while examination and certification for the highest certificate would be a responsibility of the Union

¹ In 1947 the Universities Advisory Committee was entrusted with the task of producing a new formula. With the assistance of the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research this was done in 1948: Annual Report of the Secretary of Education, Arts and Science: 1948: p.8.

² See Report of the Secretary of Education, Union Education Department, 1930 and the report of the Director of the National Education Bureau for the same year.

Education Department. What was to constitute the T₁ Certificate? E.B. Sargent probably spoke for all the provinces when in 1902 he addressed a meeting of teachers in the Wanderers Hall in Johannesburg. This "certificate (is) to be bestowed on only a few of those who have gained the certificate of the second order. The qualification in this case should be the writing of a thesis of approved merit on some educational subject."¹ The regulations for the First Class Certificate which were published in 1912 came as a shock. Adamson noted that "an entirely different group of teachers appears to be contemplated. The candidates in view are young graduates who are prepared to supplement their degree by a course in pedagogy."² "A first class certificate should aim at raising the professional standing of the whole body of teachers, rather than at providing for a special few."³

However, if the provinces had got their way over the training of teachers for the second and third class certificates, the first class certificate, with training given in the universities, was demonstrably a matter of higher education, and the Union Education Department was not prepared to give ground. Lectures on a pre-determined common syllabus were to be given in the universities and university colleges; examination and certification was the responsibility of the Department. It is interesting to note from a number of annual reports that the quality of instruction in the various institutions appeared to the examiners to vary considerably. Of the T₁ Examination in 1919 it was stated that "at no previous examination has the difference in the quality of the work performed at the various training centres been more noticeable. So marked was the inadequacy of the work of certain institutions that your Committee felt themselves justified and in duty bound to comment very adversely and severely on the fact. On the other hand, members felt that, with the staffs at their disposal, some of the institutions in question could not possibly undertake the work with any assurance of success. They cannot be considered to be

¹ Extract from The Star, Johannesburg, 2nd July, 1902: quoted by Oberholzer, C.K.: Die Pretoriase Normaalkollege - 'n terugblik oor 50 jaar, 1902-1952: pp.17-18.

² Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1912: p.47.

³ Ibid: p.49.

adequately staff or equipped for the task."¹

The obvious next step in the evolution of this pattern of training was for the more efficient institutions to seek authority to draw up their own syllabuses, conduct their own examinations and award their own certificates. "There can be hardly any doubt that the multiplicity of training centres is acting detrimentally on the qualification of candidates presented, and the status of the certificate. For that reason the desire of the more efficiently equipped institutions to institute their own course of training.....demands the serious consideration of the Department."²

This recommendation was followed by positive action by the University of South Africa. It was recommended by Senate and approved by Council "that in the Faculty of Arts (Department of Education) there be instituted:-

- (a) a lower diploma in Education obtainable after a three year post-matriculation course of training in academic and professional subjects;
- (b) a higher diploma in Education obtained by graduates in Arts or Science on the successful completion of a year's course of training in professional subjects."³

Thus, direct responsibility for the training of academic teachers for service in the expanding secondary schools of the country was abandoned by the Union Education Department and taken over by the independent universities. This introduced a further factor of difficulty in any co-ordination of policy with regard to teacher education in South Africa.

4. Technical and Vocational Education:

Negotiation between the Union government and the provincial authorities had left the latter the de facto controllers of primary and secondary teacher training of a non-graduate level, even if a

¹ Union Government: Annual Departmental Reports (Abridged), No.2, 1920-1, p.334. Report of the Chairman of the T₁ Examination Committee.

² Ibid: 1921-2: p.258.

³ Ibid: 1922-23: p.171.

major share of the financing of this training was provided from the consolidated revenue fund. By the mid-'twenties responsibility for graduate teacher training had been transferred to the independent universities. Thus two groups of authorities, jealously independent of each other and subject to minimal central co-ordination were responsible for the provision of teachers for South African schools. The original constitutional provision of provincial control only of 'education other than higher', became increasingly difficult to interpret in direct proportion to the rising standards of entry to teacher training, which by the end of the 'twenties had become universally in South Africa, matriculation level or its equivalent.¹

Just as financial relations between the central and provincial governments had been the fundamental point of contact between the two in the first decade of Union, so in the 'twenties this was to prove the cause of the establishment of a further stumbling block to educational co-operation in South Africa. A number of commissions and departmental committees had examined the related questions of vocational education and the financing of education in general in the first fifteen years of Union. In 1911 Professor Snape of the South African College reported to the Conference on Technical, Industrial and Commercial Education in Pretoria that "technical education can only be properly considered from the point of view of the Union as a whole, and in relation to the industries of the country In my opinion it should be placed directly under the control of the Minister of Education for the Union."² The conference endorsed this view and recommended that both technical and commercial education should be placed under Union Government control.³

¹ With these rising standards of admission the former lowest level of training through the pupil-teacher system fell away. Malherbe regards the reforms of the 'twenties as marking the real end of the pupil-teacher system. These reforms included the introduction of the higher and lower diplomas in the universities, which have been dealt with above.
Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., Chap. VIII.

² Snape, A.E.: Extract from the Report on Technical Instruction in the Union of South Africa: contained in the Report of the Conference on Technical, Industrial and Commercial Education: Nov., 1911: U.G. p.19.

³ Report of the Conference, November, 1911, as detailed above.

A word of warning on the difficulty of exercising such control by the Union authorities was sounded by the Laurence Commission in 1914. "It must suffice.....to observe that the topic is one in regard to which the difficulties inseparable from the present system of dual administration.....present themselves in a very acute and salient form. It is obvious that to draw any clean-cut distinction, in the case of technical training, between 'higher' and 'other than higher' education is practically impossible."¹ The case for central control of education had been put strongly to the Commission by the Under-Secretary for Education: "Assuming the desirability of Parliamentary control of all education, I would suggest that the process of unification be accomplished in the following order:-

- (a) the training of teachers and vocational education as carried onin special institutions;
- (b) the education of the natives, to be followed by:
- (c) education as represented by the ordinary primary and secondary schools."²

Few people were, however, willing to accept the validity of the initial assumption at that stage. The Commission felt that it was beyond its terms of reference to deal with matters affecting the constitutional control of education. Beyond recording the fact that "the arrangements (for the provision of education) both from the administrative and financial point of view.....do involve no small amount of embarrassment and many practical difficulties,"³ the Commission expressed the view that it was unlikely that "Parliament (would) feel justified in dealing with the matter until the further inquiry into the whole subject of local self-government.....is completed."⁴

That the dual control to which the Commission referred had an adverse effect upon technical teachers is testified to in a report of 1919. "Soos in die geval van die besitters van die onderwyser-sertifikaat eerste klas van die Unie is die status van die besitters

¹ Union Government: Report of the Laurence Commission, 1914: U.G. 112 of 1914, p.7.

² Ibid: pp.8 & 9.

³ Ibid: para 29, p.11.

⁴ Ibid: para 28, p.11.

van die tegniese-onderwysersertifikaat van die Unie nie geheel bevredigend nie; daar word in verskillende dele van die Unie verskillende waarde aan die sertifikaat geheg."¹

The matter was carried a step further forward by the report of the Hofmeyr Commission of 1923. In referring to pre-vocational education, the report stated that "the proper provision will consist of a course taken at a Secondary School. Such a course would not usually be of less than two years' duration, and Secondary School curricula should be so organised and diversified as to provide opportunity for studies, which, though of a general character, have nevertheless some bearing upon the needs of a juvenile as a potential worker."² Importantly, the Commission stated that it saw "no reason for the differentiation of Commercial and Technical High Schools as distinct types calling for a special name. The facilities they offer.....should be offered by the secondary school system generally, and should not be regarded as something unique and distinct from it This fact alone.....affords a strong reason for grouping these schools along with similar schools in the province in which they are situated, placing all alike under the immediate control of the Provincial Administration, such control to be exercised in conformity with a policy which is determined by a Union Board of Education."³

This seemingly sage advice, which accords well with the legislation of 1967 and 1969, was not, however, accepted at the time. The inevitable economic depression following upon the First World War was felt in South Africa in the early 'twenties. The needs of vocational education were recognised, but the provinces lacked the financial strength to provide for it. Therefore as a result of negotiation between central and provincial authorities, it was agreed that responsibility for technical and vocational education should be assumed by the central government through the Union Department of Education. "At the conference held at Durban at the close of October, 1924, the Minister [of Education] proposed, as a part of the scheme for adjusting the financial relations between the Government and the

¹ Union Government: Report of the Secretary for Education, 1919, p.17.

² Union Government: Report of the Educational Administration Commission: 1923: U.G. 19 of 1924, para 42, p.50.

³ Ibid: para 496, p.59.

Provincial Administrations, that this Department should, by arrangement for each Province, assume responsibility for all vocational education hitherto under Provincial control..... Agreement was reached as to the terms of transfer as from April, 1925, of the schools and services affected and it is hoped that within a reasonable period, it will be possible to develop and work on a national policy for all education, the conditions and curriculum of which will be governed by the requirements of the actual or prospective occupations of the pupils."¹

This was the corporate body of education in South Africa finally divided and portioned out: central government, provincial education departments and universities all had their responsibilities for providing teachers for narrow, specific and hard-to-define sections of primary and secondary education. "The taking over of vocational education by the Union Government was based on financial and not on educational considerations. The result has been that the administration of the education of the adolescent has become more complicated and, from the point of view of school organisation, much less efficient than it might have been."² The Union Education Department was, therefore, charged purely on financial grounds, with responsibility for training teachers for differentiated technical and commercial high schools.

This situation has continued until 1969 when these schools, in terms of the Educational Services Act of 1967, reverted to provincial control. The process by which this reversion took place can be traced from the report of the de Villiers Commission on Vocational Education in 1948, through the Vocational Education Act of 1955 and the work of the National Advisory Education Council in the years from 1962 onwards.

The training of this group of teachers has always been undertaken by the technical colleges of South Africa, which have been, to a greater or lesser extent, directly under the control of the Union Education Department, or the Department of Education, Arts and Science. Such teacher training departments have, in the main, been small and have suffered in being firstly a very minor part of the total educational effort of these colleges, and, secondly, through their students having been cut off from any but incidental professional contact with their

¹ Union Government: Abridged Annual Reports: Union Department of Education: 1924-5, para 4, p.413.

² Union Government: Report of the Secretary for Education: 1935, p.6.

colleagues preparing for service in other fields in South African schools.

5. The Necessity for Rationalisation of Teacher Education:

The education authority of the central government was hemmed in and circumscribed in what it could do. Educational co-operation was realised to be necessary, but the schisms which had their roots in history and anthropology, and which had been deepened and widened by war, were further driven apart by economic necessity. Education was hopelessly divided. The Secretary for Education described it as "dividing the indivisible".¹ Clarke said of the separation of vocational education "on the plea that the infant (education) appears to lack nourishment, we take a vertical cut at the trunk, slice off an arm and a leg down one side and hand them over to Union as 'vocational', leaving the 'cultural' torso to the provinces..... A very lowly species of worm might survive such treatment; not a delicate organism of spirit like an educational system."²

It is not only with the advantage of hindsight that we realise the questionable nature of these arrangements. As has been stated the professional experts of the day regarded the developments as being inimical to sound educational growth. With specific reference to teacher education one authority who severely criticised the artificial divisions was E.G. Malherbe. In his work "Education in South Africa 1652-1922",³ he sets forth a practical scheme for the co-ordination of education which, in view of recent moves in this direction, warrants consideration.

The fundamental premises upon which Malherbe based his proposals were:-

1. Education is primarily a function of the state; in South Africa this has always been the case. The prime function of the schools must be to create a true South African nationality. To this end it was necessary to abolish a system of educational administration

¹ Union Government: Abridged Annual Reports: Education: 1923-24, p.380.

² Clarke, Prof. F.: in an article to the Cape Times: November, 1924.

³ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit, Chap. XXI: p,461 et seq.

which must perforce perpetuate divisions. In support of this the Provincial Administration Commissions Report of 1917 stated that "one does not need to be an educational expert to realise that the education of the youth of the country should be a systematic whole, that primary, secondary, technical and higher education shall all be made to fit into each other in an organic scheme."

2. The advocacy of a national system does not mean support for a bureaucratic system of educational rigidity. Malherbe obtained support from Dr. Viljoen in this: "The bane of our present system is the want of elasticity and the lack of freedom. The Codes of Instruction.....have become a veritable bed of Procrustes to which all pupils.....must adapt their length."¹
3. Various institutions and organisational aspects of education are national functions by their very nature. In these were particularly included the training and certification of teachers.
4. There was urgent need for guidance in certain fundamental educational matters in South Africa. While it was necessary to guard against deadening uniformity, it was necessary to be aware that confusing variety could be a disadvantage. Again the training and certification of teachers proved a case in point.
5. The fundamental administrative problem in South Africa was distance to which was allied a scattered population.
6. Malherbe's Scheme for the Rationalisation of Education Administration:

Central to the scheme was the proposal that there should be a new regional governmental authority which in terms of educational administration would be between the provincial authority and the local school board or committee. It was proposed that the country should be divided up into seven such regional areas. These corresponded to the Western Province, the Eastern Province, Natal, the Orange Free State and Griqualand West as a single unit, the South Western Transvaal based on Johannesburg, the South Eastern Transvaal with Ermelo as its centre, and the Northern Transvaal with Pretoria the centre. With the advantage of nearly half a century's geographical and economic development to assist

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., p.462: quoting evidence of Dr.W.J.Viljoen, Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Province, to the Provincial Administration Commission, 1916.

us in regional delimitation, some of the Transvaal divisions seem impractical. The point remains, however, that in general they represent viable units. In all save one, the South Eastern Transvaal, there is a basic structure of a minimum of one university with related colleges of education, or at least colleges in reasonable proximity.

As regards the administration of education, Malherbe proposed that there should be a Minister of Education in overall control of a centralised portfolio of Education, assisted by a National Board of Education whose powers would be executive in the implementation of legislation. This national body would be responsible for all education, and not merely for the white group.¹ The central professional body would be presided over by an appointed Superintendent-General of Education.

At the regional level, Malherbe showed the influence of his American studies. For this he proposed a Board of Education, its chairman to be elected by the taxpayers of the region. This body would then appoint a Director of Education for the region, and would through him, and with the assistance of local and national revenue, control the administration of education for the region.

In conclusion, Malherbe states that "some such scheme of nationalisation.....will....have to be the ultimate result if we want to secure that variety which is the essence of growth and healthy rivalry, while at the same time preserving a uniformity which guarantees the national integrity of the state and grants equality of opportunity to every future citizen of the Union of South Africa."²

One may criticise details of the Malherbe plan. Provincialism may never give way to a more local regionalism, but the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 and the Report of the Gericke Commission on the training of white persons as teachers in 1968 have both stressed the need for a regional approach in the administration of teacher education. The National Education Council, albeit with advisory rather than executive powers, has been established, with an executive council, be it noted, of

¹ "While native education will always have to remain an integral part of the national system of education in South Africa.....yet the principle of 'differentiation' ought to be recognised with regard to education also."
Malherbe, E.G.: op cit., p.473 (footnote).

² Ibid: p.482.

seven members. One of the problems which the new organisation will have to solve is the interpretation of regionalism. Is it to be co-incident with provincialism, or is it more closely to approximate to the English administrative unit of the 'area training organisation'? These are questions which will be dealt with in some detail in Part Four.

The problems of teacher education with which the Union of South Africa was confronted upon its establishment are, many of them, still with us. Admittedly the main issues of levels of training, the provision of a certificated teaching force for the nation's schools have, in general, been solved. The deeper constitutional, administrative and professional issues are due for resolution in the 'seventies, following the establishment of a framework of a national education policy in the 'sixties. That these issues have remained unresolved for sixty years is mainly due to the fundamental division between provincial and central control. It is necessary now to examine briefly the developments in each province in the half-century of the existence of the Union of South Africa.

Chapter Four: The Development of Provincial Systems of Teacher Education: 1910-1945

1. The Cape Province:

(a) Training and the Supply of Teachers:

A memorandum¹ published in 1913 serves to show the extent of the institutions for the training of teachers existing in the Cape Province at the time of Union. This includes the Normal College, Capetown, The Training Institute, Capetown (a pupil-teacher centre for the Peninsula), the Training Colleges at Wellington and Grahamstown, and the Training Schools² at Robertson and Paarl. Additional centres were designated pupil-teacher centres and these included Stellenbosch (85 students), Graaff-Reinet (48 students), Cradock (27 students), Oudtshoorn (25 students) and Kimberley (21 students). Finally, there were centres where although no specialist teacher-trainer had been appointed, training was undertaken by the ordinary members of the school staff. This was the situation in Worcester, Kingwilliamstown, Beaufort West and Uitenhage. Beyond this there was a list of individual schools which undertook pupil-teacher training. Of this system, the memorandum stated that "there can be no doubt that this system of probation and promotion has been most effective in its working. Any town that was really suited by its situation and surrounding circumstances to possess a Training School has in time succeeded in attaining its object."³

University teacher training in the Cape at the time was in its infancy, the first step having been taken by the Victoria College in the establishment of a chair of pedagogy. The South African College and

¹ Cape Province: Memoranda on the Establishment of Training Schools in the Cape Province - first memorandum, 11th November, 1912.

² "The difference between the two types of institution as defined by law is that a training college must have had for at least one calendar year a minimum average enrolment of 20 students who have completed the full high school course, or a course of an equivalent length. Save for this there is no difference between the two types of institution, since the larger training schools offer several of the courses which are more distinctly training college work."
Cape Province: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education, 1921, p.16.

³ First Memorandum on Training Schools in the Cape Province: op cit., pp.34-36.

Rhodes University College were to follow suit.

It is worthwhile examining this list to obtain a picture of the levels of teacher preparation, and the point at which maximum effort was being made. Of the fifteen departmental training colleges, institutes and colleges mentioned above, no less than ten were solely concerned with the training of pupil-teachers.

Pupil-teachers and students attending full-time courses in preparation for the Third Class Teacher's Certificate constituted by far the greatest proportion of the training programme in the Cape. The entry level to the T3 course varied, but for the majority this constituted Standard VIII.¹ The recommendation of the Education Commission of 1911 that "three years' notice ought to be given, and at the end of that period, no teachers' certificates should, in our opinion, be issued except after an examination at the end of a two years' professional course subsequent to matriculation or its equivalent."² Thomas Muir reacted sharply to this suggestion: "The carrying out of this regulation would be simply ruinous to our supply of elementary teachers. Any sensible Principal of any of our Girls' High Schools could inform the Education Commission that they have many candidates for the Third Class Certificate likely in every way to make good elementary teachers who would never pass the matriculation examination or its equivalent, or, at any rate, would have to work so hard and so long to be successful in the attempt, that it would affect their health and future energy."³ He went on to point out how the raising of the admission level to matriculation or its equivalent was impracticable at the time. "The number of new certificated elementary teachers needed per annum for the Cape Province is 1,150..... For the Union of South Africa the number needed would be rather more than double this - say, about 2,500... Now the average number of passes at the matriculation examination.....during the last three years.....was roughly 900..... If then, it be ordained that after three years no student can enter on the Elementary Teachers Course of training without having passed the matriculation examination,.....the number of passes must jump in three years time from 1,000 to somewhere between 3,000 and 4,000. To anyone

¹ The admission level was raised in the Cape Province to Standard VII in 1911.

² Cape Province: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General: 1912, p.40.

³ Ibid.

who understands the slow rate of educational growth, this demand will seem not only impracticable, but preposterous."¹

The 1911 Education Commission drew heavily upon the evidence of Mr. Household, one-time Director of Education to the Gloucester County Council. Based on this evidence, the Commission recommended that "it is almost universally agreed that for secondary teachers a separate training course is necessary."² Secondly, Household gave the impression to the Commission that at the time the English Board of Education had "found it necessary to make the pupil-teacher system a dead letter."³ This explains their insistence on matriculation as the desirable level of entry to teacher training. Muir demolished both propositions with characteristic verve, and advocated the retention of the status quo in teacher education in the Cape at the time. In fact it was not until 1929 that a matriculation level of entry to teacher training was achieved.⁴

There is no doubt that Muir was correct in his assumption that the raising of the entrance level to matriculation would affect recruitment. Even the much more modest lift from Standard VI to Standard VII in 1911 had a noticeable effect. In 1913 he reported that "the raising of the admission has caused a serious diminution of the supply of teachers for the last two years. When a year's work is added to any course, it is scarcely possible to avoid a net loss of one year's output; but in the present case the loss has been considerably greater..... The small number is partly due to a diminution in the number of candidates taking the course - a consequence of the raising of the entrance standard; but it is also largely attributable to a leakage at the end of the second year. Many students seemed to think that the equivalent of the old course was still sufficient and so went out as uncertificated teachers."⁵

The same situation pertained at the end of 1915, the year of Muir's retirement. "The annual requirements will not ordinarily fall

¹ Ibid: p.41.

² Ibid: p.42.

³ Ibid: p.43.

⁴ Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General: 1929.

⁵ Ibid: 1913: Paragraph on the Supply of Teachers.

far short of 1,100 European and 800 non-European teachers. To meet this demand in 1915, there were available.....491 European teachers and 213 non-European teachers..... It will be clear, therefore, that notwithstanding all that has already been done to provide for the training of teachers, there is still need for extending the training school system."¹

(b) Liaison with the Universities:

The Cape Province had accepted the situation with regard to the Union Education Department-controlled First Class Certificate rather more philosophically than had Adamson in the Transvaal, for example, and, by the end of the Great War period, this new mode of teacher preparation was not only beginning to make itself felt, but was resulting in the development of a spirit of co-operation between the Department and the universities.

"For some years the Department was responsible for the training and certification of secondary school teachers, especially through the agency of the 'special T₂ course'. But the latter was replaced by the Union First Class Certificate Course and the view is now strongly held that the training of special secondary school teachers in South Africa is a matter for the universities acting in conjunction with the Union Department of Education. In addition to offering a professional training, theoretical and practical, the universities can supply the requisite knowledge of subjects and subject matter in academic courses varying in length from a full honours degree course to a single preliminary year's attendance at university classes. Students who have taken a short academic course should be reasonably well fitted at least for the first two years of secondary work. In regard to the character of the practical training provided, it is, of course, essential that there should be agreement on the main points between the universities and the Department."²

The initial negotiations between the universities and the Department were indeed fruitful and as a result Dr. Viljoen in the following year, 1919, was able to report that "the Department has virtually arrived at an understanding with the universities whereby the training of primary teachers, and of teachers of special practical subjects will remain

¹ Ibid: 1913/1914: p.18.

² Ibid: 1918: Authorities responsible for Teacher Training: p.10.

a departmental function, while the universities will attend to the training and examination of secondary teachers. It has been further suggested that, for the benefit of existing teachers, the universities should institute special or vacation courses in those subjects in which specialised instruction according to the most recent and approved methods is desired."¹

It was further recorded in 1920 that "it has been decided that in future the training of secondary school assistants shall be the function of the universities."²

The next step was the suggestion that the universities should set their own examinations, and award degrees in Education. The Department, while accepting the policy in principle, viewed with some concern, particularly as a result of the limited number of places available in secondary schools, and incipient over-production of teachers, the rather narrow academic specialism of some university products. "Teachers trained at university institutions, and holding university degrees, will be very useful, and doubtless will in years to come, prove the main source of supply for the higher posts in the educational service. To meet the practical requirements of the present and the immediate future, it is suggested that, as far as possible, teachers trained at university institutions should be prepared to teach not less than three secondary subjects. The vast majority of secondary institutions are very small and, consequently, have limited staffs. In the past great difficulty has been experienced owing to the paucity of subjects professed by secondary teachers."³

The new courses for the preparation of teachers did, however, bring certain problems with them. Where under the old pupil-teacher system there had been an imbalance in training on the side of practical work, there was now more than a danger of the reverse effect being felt. Of a more immediately practical nature, too, was the problem of the pressure from growing institutions upon practice teaching places in small communities. In commenting that in some instances "the training of

¹ Ibid: 1919: p.18.

² Ibid: 1920: p.5.

³ Ibid: 1922: p.13.

teachers has tended to become too much a matter of theory",¹ the Department sought to control the second problem by laying down the regulation that "the number of student teachers enrolled at a centre should never be more than five times as great as the number of full-time teachers employed in primary schools or departments that are available for practice purposes."² It was added that "no one expects the training institutions to present the schools with fully formed teachers; but if the provision of adequate facilities for individual practice in class teaching is to be entirely subordinated to the ambition to secure an enormous enrolment of student teachers, the value of the training will be seriously impaired and the paramount necessity of it hard to prove."³ This is a problem still to be found in the Cape Province at the present time. The educational community of Stellenbosch is quite inadequate to cope with the practical teaching requirements of the University and the Training College. A similar, though not so serious, problem exists in Grahamstown and, even, though to a lesser extent, at Graaff-Reinet.

It was in the period of the mid-'twenties that a further problem with regard to the training of teachers and relations with the universities developed. This time, with developing economic depression and consequent financial stringency, resulted in a tendency to over-produce teachers from the numerous institutions in operation in the Cape. This was complicated by the fact that, although the contrary might have been assumed from the Superintendent-General's reports from 1918 to 1920, the universities had continued to train teachers for service in primary schools. Furthermore the Department had no control over the numbers of students admitted to these courses. In 1927/28 attention was called to this matter in comparison to developing practice in England. It was stated that "in England there is a steadily increasing body of opinion in favour of admitting to University Training Departments only students who wish to follow a four year course, or a one year course of post-graduate study."⁴ However, it was found that the universities and the university

¹ Ibid: 1925: p.7.

² Ibid.

³ Ibid: p.8.

⁴ Ibid: 1927/28: Teacher Training.

colleges in the Cape Province had no desire to surrender their primary school training courses.¹ This system continues to the present and is in many ways almost unique in South Africa.

The good relations existing between the Department of Education, the universities, the Union Department of Education and the National Bureau of Education were not assisted by the Report of the Secretary for Education in 1930 when an attempt was made, mainly on financial grounds, to prove that all teacher training should be co-ordinated by the Union Department and conducted by the universities. The pattern of training established between the province and the universities has endured; the surplus of teachers in the late 'twenties lasted until the mid-'thirties. Since then there has been, as elsewhere, a chronic shortage of teachers, and the problem of over-supply has not recurred.

(c) Development of Courses in Provincial Training Colleges:

Shortly after the establishment of Union, the level of admission to the training for the Third Class Certificate was raised to Standard VII as has been described. Despite Muir's opposition to the running down of the pupil-teacher system and the raising of admission levels, which was based on administrative, rather than professional grounds, it was obvious that the trend was in favour of better educated teachers. In 1920 the pupil-teacher system of training, which had stood the Cape and the other states of South Africa in good stead from 1859 onwards, formally came to an end. In the same year the admission level to the lowest course of training was raised to Junior Certificate or Standard VIII.

"From the beginning of 1920 the new scheme for the training of teachers came into effect, and the system of pupil teaching, so long in vogue in this Province finally disappeared. The standard of

¹ In his first report as Superintendent-General, Prof. M.C. Botha said of the situation: "The universities and university colleges also train teachers. A good deal of variety prevails in the arrangement of course; the P.T.H. Diploma of U.C.T. or Stellenbosch, for example, is a 3 year course of an integrated type. There are also a 4 year post-matriculation course, leading to both a degree and a teacher's diploma, and a one- and two-year post-graduate course of training. The university institutions also offer a number of courses of a more or less specialised type." Ibid: 1929.

admission to a training course was raised and the satisfactory completion of the junior secondary school course to Standard VIII became the minimum qualification for candidates seeking the Primary Teacher's Lower Certificate. Similarly, candidates for the Primary Teacher's Higher Certificate must satisfactorily complete the full secondary school course to Standard X before being admitted to a Training College for a two year's course of professional training."¹

The final stage in this development came in 1929 with the raising of the admission level to all courses of non-graduate teacher training to "Senior Certificate or the Matriculation Examination."²

Once this stage had been reached, the Province was conducting courses at a post-secondary level, while the universities were also offering courses with a Senior Certificate level of entry, which were non-graduate, and which prepared students for a Primary Teacher's Higher Certificate - but not that of the Department. Clearly some sort of co-ordination would be helpful in regularising this situation.

The Departmental courses provided a two-year course of general preparation for the primary school upon the successful conclusion of which the Primary Teacher's Certificate was awarded. A further optional year of training led to the Primary Teacher's Higher Certificate. The third year course was a specialist one in a primary school subject for which specialisation was deemed advantageous. "For men there will be a manual training course, for women there will be a choice between infant school work, physical culture, domestic science, etc..... Students taking physical culture or domestic science may proceed to a fourth year of training so as to obtain the full qualification for a specialist teacher of either the one or other subject."³

Thus there developed in the Cape the system which grew up in other provinces, as well as abroad, of a period of general training followed by specialist training for a particular level or aspect of education. This 2 + 1 or 2 + 2 year structure was a feature of teacher education which persisted until the 'sixties and is still to be found in modified forms today.

¹ Cape Province: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General, 1920: p.5.

² Ibid: 1929.

³ Ibid: 1929.

The introduction of specialisation in training was to have a considerable effect upon the pattern of training institutions, particularly in the Cape where the practice had been to have a considerable number of small institutions all concerned with generalised primary training. Obviously not all institutions could offer specialised third or fourth year courses. Students might well have to move from one college to another to complete their training. By the same token, small, isolated colleges or schools would become increasingly uneconomic, and would have to be closed in the interests of efficiency and most economic use of specialist lecturing staff. Professor Botha records in 1930 that "we have been too lavish in the past in establishinginstitutions for the training of teachers. At the end of 1930 the training school at Uitenhage had to be closed down. If our training of teachers is to be effective, the required quota of students should be considerably raised..... Otherwise differentiation of courses and breadth of culture will be impossible of attainment owing to the necessarily limited staff. The need for centralisation is even greater here than in the case of the country primary school, but it seems to be a much more difficult task to convince the public of this truth."¹

One further aspect of the development of provincial colleges during the 'thirties was the gradual extension to them of the responsibility for examining their own courses internally. From wholly external examinations at the time of Union, the colleges were almost autonomous in this respect by the time of the second World War. In 1930 it was stated that "since examinations have become largely an internal matter, it will be an easier task for heads of training institutions to reject those students, who, in the course of their first year of training, do not show the necessary promise and ability."² Four years later de Vos Malan observed in his report that "the colleges have had a large measure of responsibility for the examination of their students. I have decided to extend this responsibility, and have given the principals notice that in and after 1936 the written external examination will be limited to the two official languages and to the requirements for the Bilingual

¹ Ibid: 1930.

² Ibid:

Certificate."¹ Provision was made for the supervision of practical teaching tests and practical subjects. "The Department will continue to be responsible for the issue of the certificate which will be based on the external tests and on a return furnished by the Training College which will show the attainment of each second year student in the subjects examined internally."²

In the period under review the provincial colleges in the Cape had developed from small, isolated institutions concerned almost exclusively with the practical preparation of teachers at a very humble level, to a group of moderate sized colleges spread geographically through the Eastern and Western Provinces and operating at a post-secondary level. They had also during this period been accorded almost complete recognition of their professional standards.

(d) The Effects of Economic Depression on Teacher Education:

A world wide feature of economic development after the first World War was a period of financial hardship resulting from the cutting back of national expenditure, the decrease in international trade and the consequent failure to reabsorb into the normal pattern of production the large number of men who were released from the armed forces. This phenomenon began early on in the 'twenties with a partial recovery towards the end of that decade followed by the more serious depression and unemployment in the early 'thirties. It was the economic stimulation caused by rearmament in the middle and later 'thirties that restored a more normal growth rate once again.

Attention is drawn to the effects of financial stringency in the educational system of the Cape in 1922.³ The number of schools in operation was reduced; no additional teaching posts could be granted, no matter what the necessity. The position in some schools was described as deplorable in the extreme. How could a young and inexperienced teacher, it was asked, be expected to afford education worthy of the name to over fifty pupils distributed through all the standards of the primary school? It was noted that the restriction of posts had caused the

¹ Ibid: 1934/35: p.36.

² Ibid: p.37.

³ Ibid: 1922.

unemployment of a very large number of teachers. Very pertinently, the Superintendent-General observed that "the existence of a large number of qualified but unemployed teachers is bound to have a serious effect not apparent at first sight. There is a fall this year in the number of students entering upon a course of training for the teaching profession..... All the signs point to a shortage of teachers in 1925; and unless we are careful, the shortage will persist for a number of years after that. The result will inevitably be the panic-stricken offer of inducements to enter the teaching profession; and it is not inconceivable that, in the long run, the State will have to spend much more money than would have been necessary, had the temporary financial pressure not compelled us to tamper with natural growth. This kind of thing is called 'economy'."¹

These were, indeed, words of foresight and Dr. Viljoen added to them in 1923/24 when he reported that "if there is one department more than any other in educational administration where stability and continuity are essential, and where panic action and the lack of foresight quickly bring their nemesis, it is that of the training of teachers."²

His expected shortage of teachers did not, however, materialise in 1925 and it was stated then that "there is good ground for believing that we are at present training too many teachers for the needs of the Cape Province; and the Northern Provinces, which could in the past be relied on.....as a market for our surplus products, are now very largely doing their own training work. The university institutions.....the training institutions under the Department, and the Dept. itself, must come to some arrangement whereby young people will not be prepared for vacancies which in some cases will never arise."³

Two obvious solutions to this situation of over production was first to raise the level of admission to teacher training courses. This was done, as had been noted, in 1929. The second was to make more effective the selection of recruits for training. This was realised

¹ Ibid: 1922.

² Ibid: 1923/24: p.19.

³ Ibid: 1925/26.

as the report for 1930 indicates.¹ It was, however, 1934/35 before the new selection procedure was commented on. "Before the student writes for the Senior Certificate examination, he is interviewed by the circuit inspector, who, in consultation with the principal of the high school attended, advises the Department whether he is likely to make a good teacher. If the student is accepted.....he is at liberty to enrol provisionally at a Training College and his enrolment is confirmed on his passing the Senior Certificate examination. Although this system of selection came into force for the first time in 1935, evidence is already to hand of the beneficial results of this method of recruiting."²

Perhaps it is a significant result of the application of selection procedures, an effect which Viljoen warned of a decade previously, or merely a sign of the return of full employment due to the return of economic prosperity that the 1938 report remarks on the fact that "the supply of unmarried certificated teachers having become exhausted in the third quarter of 1938, it became necessary.....to employ married women." Whatever the explanation, this period of unemployment and curtailment of training had an effect upon recruitment which was to be felt for many years. This was not confined to the Cape Province.

(e) The War Years: 1939-1945:

From the point of view of teacher education it is necessary to comment upon two main features during this period. Firstly, the incipient shortage of teachers became first an actual shortage, and then an acute shortage. Teachers were released for active service, and shortage of labour together with more attractive employment opportunities resulted in fewer recruits coming forward for training. The second was part of a world-wide phenomenon and was related to the first. It was the growth, through returning prosperity, and the realisation of the need for more education, of the secondary school. The report for the war years notes that from 1933 to 1945 the percentage of pupils remaining at school to Standard VIII rose from 39 to 56, and to Standard X in the period 1935 to 1945 from 20 to 27. This induced the Superintendent-

¹ "We need to be more careful in the selection of candidates suitable for the teaching profession."
Ibid: 1930.

² Ibid: 1934/35.

General to observe that he believed "the amendment of our Educational Ordinance.....is overdue..... Urgent reorganisation of our school system in order to adapt our schools to the needs of the pupils and the demands of our time cannot be undertaken unless.....necessary extension of compulsion is affected."¹

This was an issue which was to affect education throughout the Western world. It will be considered in more detail in the next chapter.

2. Natal:

(a) The Teacher Training Pattern in 1910:

By contrast with the Cape Province, the situation in Natal was very much simpler. Not only was the geographical area very much less and, therefore, the distribution of the population more restricted, but the population itself was relatively smaller. To provide teachers from local sources for the developing elementary schools, the pupil-teacher training system had been introduced by Superintendent Russell in 1874. This was confined very largely in the early years to the Model Schools in Pietermaritzburg and Durban. Expansion in this field took place in the two main centres, and by 1910 a few pupils were also being trained in country schools. Teachers for the secondary schools were largely recruited abroad.²

Formal full-time training of teachers for the Third Class Certificate was commenced in the Natal Training College in Pietermaritzburg in 1909. It has already been recorded that for a time Natal awarded a Fourth Class Certificate, but the need to bring the nomenclature of certificates into line with practice in other provinces was stressed in the Annual Report in 1910. Thus, the situation arose that the Natal Education Department was responsible for training students for the T₂ and T₃ certificates through its college, and in liaison with the newly established Natal University College.

¹ Ibid: 1941/5: p.23.

² Natal: Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1912: p.8: "The dearth of men candidates for the profession of teacher again requires comment..... The Department is still compelled to import from Britain."

This institution admitted its first students in 1910. Like other university colleges at the time it was affiliated to the University of the Cape of Good Hope, which controlled the examinations and awarded degrees. With the introduction of the new First Class Certificate by the Union Department of Education, Natal was at a disadvantage for it was not until after ten years of existence that the decision was taken to establish a chair of education at the new university college. It was not until 1916 that the Superintendent was able to report that "negotiations are.....now in progress between the Union Department of Education, the University College and this Department to establish local facilities to enable teachers to obtain the First Class Certificate without leaving the Province."¹

(b) Liaison with the University College:

This attitude of ready co-operation between the Education Department and the University College was in evidence from the foundation of the new institution. In his report for the year 1910, the Superintendent remarked that "the University College is today an accomplished fact..... As a national institution the new College must command the unqualified support of every Secondary School in the Province; and, if Natal is to rank educationally with the other provinces, the people themselves must take an active personal interest in its success."² With the University College and the Natal Training College as well as the headquarters of the Natal Education Department all established in Pietermaritzburg it was perhaps more natural for a closer co-operation to develop between the three, than was the case in the Cape Province with its diverse colleges, schools, and universities spread throughout the Province. The situation in Natal, with its single institutions of teacher education, was much more akin to that in the Orange Free State.

Even before the establishment of Education in the University College, active co-operation on academic and professional levels was in operation for the training of teachers. It was noted in 1915 that, while the Natal Training College provided for the T₃ course, "in co-operation with the University College further training is undertaken

¹ Natal: Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education: 1915, p.5.

² Ibid: 1910: p.2.

for the T₂ course."¹ Of this course it was stated that the professional part only occupied one year. As a result only very limited practical teaching could be undertaken, this being restricted to one morning per week in schools. "It would be a distinct advantage if some slight easing of the syllabus were to allow of the time available for teaching to be doubled."² Thus, even before the university college moved into the professional field of teacher education, a practical division of responsibility grew up between it and the Natal Training College, with the former being responsible for the academic curriculum and the latter for professional training.

It was in 1917 that the first candidates were admitted to the First Class Certificate course. The graduates with Bachelors degrees in Arts were admitted to an eighteen months course, to be examined by the Union Education Department. Part One, the practical side of the course, was assigned to the Training College, and was examined after twelve months. This included Physiology, Hygiene, Physical Training, Art and Music. Part Two, the academic component, was examined after eighteen months. "In the case of university students, without previous training or experience in teaching, the academic part might well be examined earlier in the course, and Part One, which deals principally with subjects which involve the acquirement of skill, should be examined as late as possible."³ The following year the Principal of the Training College reported that the first class students were "generally old enough to realise the importance of their work, are ready to accept suggestions and are keen to work out an idea thoroughly. Hence they have a good foundation for the five years practical work necessary before their certificates are confirmed."⁴ He did, however, find some difficulty with them in the matter of practical teaching. The Vice-Principal reported that "my hardest task has been with the first grade students, who, being older and less plastic in their power of adaptability found difficulty in the conditions and in the practice of

¹ Ibid: 1915: p.5.

² Ibid: p.6. In the following year it was advocated that the T₂ course should be extended to eighteen months with the final six months devoted to practical teaching.

³ Ibid: 1917: p.66.

⁴ Ibid: 1918: Report of R.A. Gowthorpe: p.70.

an art quite new to them. Having had merely academic experience themselves, they were prone to employ lecturing, and academic methods in their teaching. It proved a matter of great difficulty for them to grasp what is meant by real teaching, as contrasted with mere telling, and to appreciate the pupils' and the elementary schools' point of view. Some experience in teaching at an earlier stage in their career would doubtless be beneficial."¹ This official, Professor Alexander Reid, found this aspect of the work of the Training College to be particularly frustrating. In 1929, as Principal, he observed that "the students in the Diploma course, (which replaced the T₁ in 1923), have worked faithfully, and most have been very successful..... It must be admitted, however, that some of the men students could do better. Laziness in young men, and a casual way of doing no more than is required to make sure of a pass cannot be excused, and ill becomes those seeking the highest teachers' qualifications. In short we are getting the best product of the girls' schools, but not the best product of the boys' schools, though some of the men students in training are specially good. Their numbers are too small, however, to ensure even a minimum supply to the schools."²

Professor Reid may have overstated his case to some extent in this judgement, but, nonetheless, he had a valid argument. One cannot but wonder whether this university-training college co-operation might not have been better served by adopting the Transvaal principle. This, as will be seen, involves in the main registering all students for teacher education courses as college of education students primarily and as university students on a secondary basis. There is no doubt that many university students in Natal who were committed to teaching regarded their membership of the university college as being of prime importance, and consequently tended to regard their association with the Training College and the practical-professional side of their preparation as being subordinate and unimportant.

This was an attitude which developed rather than being overcome with the establishment of Education as a subject within the university. When this was done, the university was responsible for the philosophical and academic part of the Diploma courses, which included

¹ Ibid: p.72.

² Ibid: 1929: p.35.

the History and Principles of Education and Educational Psychology. At the same time the Training College undertook the practical side of training including practice teaching, primary school method, physical education, woodwork and needlework.

During this period of co-operation which lasted until the mid-fifties there is no doubt that the Training College rendered extremely valuable service to the generations of university students preparing for the Higher and Lower Diplomas. The sense of cleavage was unfortunate, and might have been largely overcome had the two institutions been closer together. This was a fact which did not escape the notice of the educational administrators. In 1939 it was noted that the geographical separation of the two institutions was "a continuing disadvantage"¹, while in 1936 it was apparent to the Principal that "more and more must the Training College work in close co-operation with the University College. To achieve this desirable relationship, nothing short of a new Training College in close proximity to the University College will ever solve the problem."² It should perhaps be stated in fairness that the first of these reports was concerned with the physical problem of time taken in travelling between the two, but in the second there was a genuine concern for the relationships existing between them.

While the Training College was providing professional training for graduates, the University College was also concerned in the provision of academic courses for students in the T₂ and latterly the T₃ courses. Admission of the latter students turned on the acceptance of the matriculation examination as the basic level of entrance to training courses. This had been stressed as desirable as early as 1916.³ At the time, however, it proved to be impracticable due to the problems of teacher supply, and it was only ten years later

¹ Ibid: 1930: p.28.

² Ibid: 1936: p.28.

³ "We find these (matriculants) are so far in advance of the other students in the class that it would be possible to excuse them further work in English.... Greater rigour in admissions would ease the work considerably."
Ibid: 1916: p.28.

in 1926 that this admission level was finally achieved.¹

It has already been recorded that the University College was responsible by 1915 for the academic component of the Second Class Certificate course. In 1926 with the achievement of the higher entrance level it was agreed that the University College would admit T₃ students to selected first year courses, but the Superintendent records that "the removal of the T₃ students from the university was much regretted..... Modern tendencies the world over are to put the teacher-in-training in the university."² The Principal of the Training College is more explicit as to what became of this early abortive attempt to upgrade the academic content of the T₃ course. "An arrangement was made with the university college authorities whereby new entrants, to gain still wider experience and a less restricted outlook, were to have a T₃ course, partly academic at the University College, and partly professional at the Training College..... Twenty seven students started the course in February, 1926, but, due to financial stringency were transferred to the Training College in June."³ It is recorded that one additional lecturer was employed to cope with the additional burden.

The proposal was, however, finally implemented in 1929 when the Principal reports that T₃ students undertook first year courses at the university in English, Afrikaans, History, Geography and either Mathematics or French.⁴ Successful completion of these five courses meant that students had completed the requirements of the full-time first year B.A. course of the University of South Africa. Undoubtedly this practice encouraged many T₃ teachers to continue their studies after qualifying in order to achieve graduate status. In the first

¹ The gradual raising of the Training College entrance qualification to matriculation standard has been the most far-reaching advance in the history of the Training College, for the matriculants are, on the whole, not only of much higher scholastic attainments, but their personal qualities as teachers are considerably greater." Principal of the Training College: Ibid: 1926: p.32.

² Ibid: p.4.

³ Ibid: p.32.

⁴ These subjects were subsequently reduced to three. The Broome Commission observed that it was impossible to include more than this; if students failed one subject they did not pass the first year of the B.A. Course: para 264: Report of the Natal Education Commission, 1937.

year of operation of this scheme, however, the failure rate caused some concern for it is recorded that of the 27 entries, only 11 completed minimum first year requirements.¹ It seems possible that this was a matter of adjusting to the new conditions, for in the following year the level of academic success was regarded as 'satisfactory' with only three failures in individual subjects being recorded.²

It was in this year that the Superintendent reported, with what seemed to be some satisfaction, that "all students have pursued courses of study at the University College, while the Training College has become increasingly identified with the more strictly professional side of teacher training. This demarcation of activities brings the system for the training of teachers in Natal into harmony with the modern system as practised in Great Britain."³ In 1933 a modification was introduced into the T₃ course by undertaking professional training in the first year and academic studies in the second.⁴

The pattern of teacher education in Natal had therefore become one which was characterised by a very remarkable degree of co-operation between the University College, the Training College and the Natal Education Department. It has already been recorded that there were some problems which were occasioned by the method by which it was implemented. How successful in general was the system judged by the products turned out?

The Superintendent and the Principal of the Training College at various stages refer to the inadequacy of the T₃ product, although this appeared to improve markedly after the introduction of the matriculation level of admission in 1926. The inadequacy of the Diploma training was stressed particularly during the depression period of the early 'thirties. "The Diploma qualifications, good though they are, are too specialised and do not train men effectively for work in

¹ Ibid: 1929: p.35.

² Ibid: 1930: p.28.

³ Ibid:

⁴ Ibid: 1933: p.20.

the smaller schools of Natal."¹ A year later in 1932 it was stressed that "the system cannot provide purely secondary work for such a large proportion.....of teachers with university degrees. It will therefore become more and more necessary for the university graduate to be thoroughly trained in primary work also, or he will run the risk of becoming unemployable."²

The Broome Commission Report of 1937 recommended that "the co-operation between the Training College and the Natal University College should be maintained and further developed"³, but it warned that "the conditions under which teachers are trained in Natal compare very unfavourably with those obtaining in other Provinces."⁴ It accordingly recommended that "a training college on modern lines (should) be built on a site adjacent to the university..... Arrangements should be made for the college, while continuing as a Provincial institution to be constituted a special school or department of the University College. The management should be vested in a governing body representative of the Provincial Executive, the Education Department, the Training College, the University College and the teaching profession." Significantly it was recommended that "members of the training college staff should no longer be graded as school teachers, but should be accorded the status of College lecturers on a level with the staff of the University College."⁵

This recommendation echoed the evidence of the Chief Inspector of Schools to the Commission in which he said "it would seem desirable that the teacher training department of the University College and the Natal Training College should come under a unified control, so that the whole scheme of training of teachers in Natal might be closely and

¹ Ibid: 1931: p.19.

² Ibid: 1932: p.6.

³ Province of Natal: Report of the Education Commission, 1937: para 259.

⁴ Ibid: para 260. In respect of the Diploma Courses run jointly by the University College and the Training College, the Commission was critical for it maintained that a one-year course gave insufficient time for the all-round professional training of teachers, while the academic year of the university was too short a time for students to gain real insight into the educational value as well as the implications of the subjects studied: para 264.

⁵ Ibid: para 262.

continually adapted to the needs of the educational system."¹

Although these recommendations of the Broome Commission were not implemented, the relations existing between the Training College and the University continued to provide for active co-operation until the mid-'fifties. Even after this time harmonious relationships have continued between the Education Department and the University, particularly the Faculty of Education. This matter will be returned to in Chapter Five.

(c) Courses for the Preparation of non-graduate Teachers:

A considerable volume of material relevant to this topic has been dealt with above in view of the liaison existing between training institutions in Natal. There are, however, non-university aspects of the development of these courses which require comment.

In the early years the main qualification held by the majority of teachers was, as has been noted, the Third Class Certificate. This could be obtained by qualifying examination after the pupil-teacher apprenticeship, or by a full-time course of training in the Natal Training College. By 1911 it was stated that the main source of supply was the latter.² One of the main problems was the inadequate opportunity for practice teaching. In the second year of training this was restricted to one day per week in the second year. From the point of view of the curriculum, it was felt that there were too many subjects and it was recommended that these should be reduced.³ This has been a problem of training college courses not only in South Africa but also in England and Wales, where the introduction of three-year courses in the early 'sixties provided only a partial solution.

By 1917 the scale of the teacher training operation in the province may be judged from the following enrolment figures:

¹ Ibid: para 266.

² Natal: Annual Report of the Superintendent: 1911: p.2.

³ Ibid: p.3.

T ₃	-	24	students	entered	with	the	T.C.	Entrance	Examination
		8	"	"	"	"	"	Matriculation	
T ₂	-	2	"	"	"	"	"	N.U.C. Intermediate	
								Certificate in Arts (1 yr)	
T ₁	-	3	"	"	"	"	"	B.A. Degree ¹	

Thus there were in all 37 students in training in that year. This serves to give a useful comparison with the teacher training programme in the Cape Province. This was confirmed by the Superintendent in 1919 when he reported that "the importance of the work of the Training College may be seen from the fact that in 10 years no fewer than 450 teachers have been trained and have entered the service as teachers."² Despite this effort, the supply of teachers failed to satisfy the demand. "We cannot expect to do much recruiting from other provinces; indeed, for very excellent reasons, the stream is more likely flowing in other directions; for we are quite unable to make proper provision for the teaching of Dutch²..... The lack of young and qualified men.....is especially marked, and qualified assistants for commercial work are unobtainable..... To supply normal needs, we should turn out not less than 70 trained teachers a year, of whom at least half should be men; in fact, we get about 40, of whom 5% are men..... It would be unwise to shut our eyes to the menace of today."³

As has been noted in the case of the Cape Province a more liberal attitude was gradually adopted in the matter of examinations in the Third Class Certificate course during the period under review. The matter was originally raised by the Principal of the Training College, R.A. Gowthorpe, in 1916. "The wisdom of crowding a test of two years work into an examination extending over three days is questionable. I am hoping that some change may be made that will relax the strain incidental to the existing arrangements."⁴ A complete change only came, however, in 1934, with internal examinations taking place, the

¹ Ibid: 1917.

² Ibid: 1919: p.4.

³ The Broome Report in 1937 also commented that the 'Hollands' Course at the Natal University College was "unrelated to the needs of schools or teachers": para 264.

⁴ Natal: Annual Report of the Superintendent: 1919: p.14.

external examiners assuming more the rôle of moderators.¹

The question of extension of the duration of the T₃ course also drew the attention of educationists from time to time. The first stage was the raising of the admission level to matriculation; as noted, this was achieved by 1926. The question of specialist training had cropped up as early as 1919, and at that time the Principal of the Training College had declared himself "strongly in favour of all students who intend to take up a special subject taking the full Third Class Course for two years before being allowed to select their special subject. The general course in teaching, and the curriculum are well calculated to provide a good all-round basis on which specialisation may be founded later with some prospect of real success."² In regard to specialisation, the lecturer in infant method noted that it was included as part of General Method in the normal course. No attempt at that time was made to provide for such specialisation, and she felt that a further years work was needed for this.³ With regard to the extension of the period of training, the Broome Commission was unable to accept the recommendation of the Natal Teachers' Society that all training should be extended to four years in duration. Instead it advocated that the two-year course for women teachers should remain, but that it was desirable to increase the length of the period of training for men. The recommendation was made that "in view of the fact that most of the men teachers will be required for secondary school work,.....it will become necessary for practically all men teachers to take the extended course of training offered by the university."⁴ The Commission did recognise the need for special training of teachers for service in rural schools.⁵

The following year (1938), the Principal of the Training College observed that the T₃ study course was unduly heavy, and pointed out that a third year of training was necessary particularly for specialist courses. The need for specialist training in art,

¹ Ibid: 1934: p.32.

² Ibid: 1919: p.65.

³ Ibid: p.67.

⁴ Report of the Education Commission, 1937: paras 280/281, p.57.

⁵ Ibid: paras 283-288.

handicrafts, rural education, music, physical education, and infant work was stressed. In this connection, reference was made to specialised training being undertaken in other provinces. As a result of this recommendation an experiment was mounted in 1939 in which six selected students were admitted to a third year specialised course in Domestic Science.¹ This was the real commencement of dual-structured courses which became a feature of training colleges and persisted until the 'sixties when more fully integrated three-year courses of training became the basic preparation for teaching.

(d) Economic Depression and the Supply of Teachers:

The modest scale of teacher preparation in Natal in comparison to the Cape Province has already been mentioned. As a result the fluctuations of demand for teachers were not as great nor as seriously felt. The Superintendent does, however, comment on the difficulty, particularly in the early 'thirties, of placing teachers in schools, and of the increasing number of graduates being appointed to primary schools, resulting in a criticism of the specialist nature of the graduate training.²

The following table traces statistically the effect of the depression on the training and recruiting of teachers, and of the expansion of the Province's educational effort during the period of the depression:

¹ Natal Province: Report of the Director of Education for 1938/39: Report of the Principal of the Natal Training College.

² Superintendent's Reports for the years 1931 and 1932.

Table 1 : Recruitment of teachers in Natal : 1927-1935¹

Year	Source of teachers recruited						Wastage	No. ³ available for expansion	
	Natal		Cape	OFS	TVL	Ex- Union			Total
	N.T.C.	Other ²							
1927	55	23	38	2	2	2	126	164	22
1928	51	23	51	5	1	2	133	83	50
1929	43	35	38	3	nil	11	130	99	31
1930	49	27	42	5	4	1	128	82	46
1931	46	17	16	1	1	nil	81	106	25 deficit
1932	42	15	nil	1	nil	nil	58	67	9 deficit
1933	35	28	nil	nil	nil	1	64	94	30 deficit
1934	63	28	nil	nil	nil	1	92	90	2
1935	105 ⁴		9	1	5	1	121	81	40

The dependence of Natal on teachers trained in the Cape Province in the pre-depression years is clearly marked. 1932 stands out as the low-water mark for training and recruitment in Natal, although the years 1931 to 1933 are to be marked as years, in which, as a result of the depression there was no expansion of educational effort in the Province.⁵

The year 1935 shows that the upward trend had again been established and it must be noted that from that time onward there has

¹ Ibid: 1927-1935.

² These figures include the output of Higher and Lower Diploma students from the Natal University College.

³ In the years 1931, 1932 and 1933 not all teachers who left the service were replaced.

⁴ The break-down of these figures is not available.

⁵ The figures quoted in Table 1 show trends only. They do not show the total numbers of students enrolled either at the Natal Training College or in diploma courses at the Natal University College. The table merely reflects the numbers who found employment with the Natal Education Department. It is significant to note that the full effect of the depression was felt later in Natal than in the Cape.

been no recurrence of a surplus of teachers.

(e) Developing Trends in the School and Teacher Education Patterns in Natal : 1930-1945:

From the early 'thirties onwards the Secretary of Education in the Union Department of Education drew attention on a number of occasions to the importance of the secondary school meeting the needs of the developing world of modern industry and technology. Further, it was stressed that there was a need, not only for more appropriate education, but that this education should last longer. We have already seen that the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape was of opinion, by the early 'forties, that the Cape Education Ordinance needed overhaul to meet the changed situation.

In Natal in 1937 the Professor of Education of the University College, Professor G.W. Ferguson, said in evidence to the Education Commission that "the most important question of the moment is the question of the re-organisation of post-primary education and of the relation which such re-organisation should bear to industry and future employment..... There.....are few high school teachers who would not be glad to relinquish the drudgery of working with pupils with no academic bent through Junior Certificate and Matriculation syllabuses."¹ Following upon this evidence and that of the Hadow Report of 1926,² the Commission recommended the adoption of a differentiated system of education in which three courses would be offered extending over four years from an age of approximately 12+ years. The three courses recommended were academic, practical and an intermediate, or composite, course.³ Although this early recommendation in favour of differentiated secondary education was not implemented, it had inherent in it two important issues for education in the Province:-

- (i) new types of secondary school teachers would be required which would necessitate a re-assessment of relationships between the University College, the Training College and the Education

¹ Report of the Natal Education Commission, 1937: para 70, p.15.

² Board of Education (England): Education of the Adolescent, HMSO: 1926.

³ Report of the Natal Education Commission, 1937: pp.17 et seq.

Department, as well as new courses for their training. The Commission, as has been noted, favoured the development of liaison between institutions concerned, "The success of the attempt to bring the schools of Natal into line with modern educational development will in a very large measure depend upon the teachers employed in the schools..... It is of fundamental importance.....that for the carrying on of the system in future, arrangements be made with the Training College and the University (College) for the preparation of teachers who will be suitably qualified to undertake the work of the new schools."¹ Looking at the problem from the point of view of the child in the modern age, the Chief Inspector, in evidence, had asked: "What are the needs of the school-children? The answer should indicate the type of education to be given by the teacher. This should have a profound influence upon the type of training the teacher should receive from the universities and the training colleges. In other words the system should be fitted to the needs of the child; not the child fitted to a system imposed from above."² The result of these recommendations was the introduction of new teacher training courses introduced in the 'forties leading to the award of the Natal Teacher's Diploma.

- (ii) the raising of the school leaving age. This led to the introduction of the Consolidated Education Ordinance of 1942, which, amongst other matters, fixed the upper limit of compulsory schooling at sixteen years.

The implementation of these measures and their effect upon the development of teacher education in Natal will be considered in Chapter Five.

¹ Ibid: para 270. This recommendation appears to conflict with that of paras 280/281. See page 65 of this study.

² Ibid: para 266, p.54.

3. The Orange Free State:

In many ways the developments in teacher education in the Orange Free State, both before and after Union, more closely resembled those in Natal, than those in the Cape. The geographic area was more compact than the latter, but, even though there was a widely and thinly spread population, administration was easier, being centrally situated rather than located on the South-Western perimeter as was the case in the Cape.

(a) The Teacher Education pattern at the time of Union:

The Orange Free State had undoubtedly undertaken much more pioneer work in this respect than had Natal. A Normal College had been established in Bloemfontein in 1896, and, even though this had to be closed due to war, it was re-established in 1902, and had been doing valuable work in preparing students for the Third Class Professional Teacher's Certificate. The pupil-teacher system was in operation, as in other provinces, and, as in the Cape, a number of larger schools had been designated as 'normal schools'.¹

Grey College at the turn of the century had undertaken courses of higher education in affiliation with the University of the Cape of Good Hope, whose examinations were written by the Bloemfontein students. The preparation of teachers in the Orange Free State received a fillip in status, if not in numbers, by the creation of the first chair of Pedagogy in South Africa in 1909.

Thus at Union there was provision for the training of both graduate and non-graduate teachers in the Orange Free State. The numbers involved were, however, modest. In an endeavour to meet the requirements of the Conference of Directors of Education in 1911, the Report of the Department of Education for 1911/12 notes that normal courses were being instituted at:

¹ "The pupil-teacher system....was introduced at Grey College and the 'Dames Instituut Eunice'. Brebner (Inspector of Schools) realised that this could only be a temporary measure. 'The pupil-teacher system was not altogether satisfactory and neither the Grey College, nor the Eunice Girls' School could give a thorough and systematic training for the Teaching Profession' (Memoir of the Life and Work of Rev. J. Brebner)" quoted in O.F.S. Report of the Provincial Education Commissioner of Inquiry: 1951: para 768: p.269.

"The Normal Training College, Bloemfontein
 The Secondary School, Bethlehem
 The Secondary School, Boshof
 The Secondary School, Kroonstad
 The Secondary School, Ladybrand."¹

These were Third Class Professional Certificate courses to which students were admitted for a three-year course on completion of Standard VIII. The first two years were spent on academic work following the normal secondary school syllabuses, intended to prepare students for "the Senior Certificate, or Matriculation Examination of the Cape University."² With regard to age it was stated that "candidates at the time of admission to their First Certificate Examinations be at least 18 years of age."³ The subjects of the examination were "English, Dutch, Arithmetic, Geography, History, Manual Training, Physical Training, (with) two optional subjects chosen from Drawing, Vocal Music, Hygiene and First Aid, Elementary Mathematics and Elementary Science."⁴ The emphasis upon training in the handling of specific subjects, as was common at the time, is very evident in this curriculum. It was stressed that only the first two years of training could be taken in any of the 'normal' schools, "the third year must be taken at the Normal Training College, Bloemfontein..... This course has been adopted mainly from an economical point of view, as the relatively small number of students likely to attend at each centre..... would not justify the employment of a staff of specialist teachers on lectures, such as will be required for the final year of the course, at each and all of the five centres mentioned."⁵

¹ Orange Free State: Department of Education: Normal Courses: Regulations: 1911/12: para 2.

² Ibid: para 6.

³ Conference of Directors of Education, Bloemfontein: 1.12.1911: Training and Certification of Teachers: Recommendations: para 8(c).

⁴ Ibid: para 8(d). The Directors Report for 1911/12 throws light on the syllabus for the third year. "The student teachers will be given special instruction, under a Master or Mistress of Method, in such subjects as Hygiene, Psychology, History of Education, and Principles of Educational Method, and will also be required to do a certain amount of actual teaching to test their capabilities on the practical side: pp.14-15.

⁵ O.F.S.: Report of the Director of Education: 1911/12, p.15.

By 1912 it was reported of the preparation of graduate teachers that "a year's course of training for secondary teachers has been established at Grey University College (now under the Education Department of the Union.....). Very few students have, however, attended those classes up to now, notwithstanding the free bursaries offered; and the assistance afforded from that source towards supplying the deficiency of candidate teachers has been negligible."¹

It was small wonder, then that the number of teachers emerging from the local training plant was inadequate to meet the needs of the schools. The order of magnitude of output from the Normal Training College may be judged from the enrolment figures for 1912.

Table 2 : Enrolment at Normal Training College, Bloemfontein, 1912²

Year	Male	Female	Total
3rd	14	35	49
2nd	-	6	6
1st	-	9	9

This meant that the maximum output of T₃ teachers for the year was 49, as they could not undertake the final year's course at any other institution. Therefore, states the Director, "the great majority of candidates appointed to teaching posts.....have, as in previous years, been drawn from outside sources, - chiefly the Cape Province."³

It was this need to obtain teachers from beyond the borders of the Orange Free State that had in part led to the establishment of a Council of Examiners in terms of Section 101 of the Hertzog School Act of 1908. This Council had its powers and functions partly defined by the Classification of Schools and Teachers Act of 1909. Its functions were to:-

¹ Ibid: p.14.

² Ibid: 1912: Report of the Normal Training College. It is reported that in the 11th course in 1910 there had been 27 women and 6 men in the final year, and in the 12th course in 1911 the numbers were 38 and 6 respectively.

³ Ibid: 1911/12: p.14.

- (i) conduct examinations for Professional Teachers Certificates;
- (ii) grade all teachers in the service, and all other ungraded teachers who might enter the service afterwards;
- (iii) enquire into and report on the linguistic or general qualifications of any teachers in the service against whom complaints have been lodged by school committees.

This Council of Examiners came close, therefore, to being a professional body for the registration of teachers. The Director pointed to the obvious snag in the professional status of the Council. "The Council of Examiners occupies the anomalous position of being in some respect under the Department, in others on an equal footing, and, again, in others above the Department."¹ The Department, however, finally secured ascendancy. "The Amending Ordinance No. 9 of 1913, Section 64, provides that the Council of Examiners shall continue to exist in a materially modified form by the appointment of the Director of Education as a member and ~~ex-officio~~ Chairman. Thereby, this lady, which up till then, like Mahomet's coffin, had floated between heaven and earth, became more closely associated with the Education Department, of which, after all, it is an integral part." (Report of the Director of Education, 1916: p.9). Thus was lost at the outset the opportunity to create a professional council which would register teachers. If the status of the teacher in South Africa and elsewhere is to be effectively raised it may be necessary to think in terms of a body of this sort. The Orange Free State then adopted the normal South African pattern of the provincial education authority being recruiter, selector, trainer, certifier and employer of teachers.

At the outset, then, the Orange Free State had strong resemblances to Natal. There were two small, but growing institutions and the majority of the teachers were recruited from abroad, chiefly from the Cape Province.

(b) Liaison between the University College and the Normal College:

The most obvious concern of the University College at the start of the period was in the training of teachers who had attained graduate

¹ Ibid: 1910/11: p.13.

status for the First Class Certificate the regulations governing which were promulgated in 1913. As in the Cape and Natal, provision was also made for a Second Class or T₂ Certificate, the basic requirements for entry being the possession "of a University Intermediate Certificate in Arts or Science, or a certificate of equivalent value."¹ Significantly it was stated that "the strictly professional examination should necessitate ability to meet the requirements under the corresponding heading of the Third Class Certificate."² Clearly the emphasis was very much more on the academic rather than on the professional side of training. It seemed that a situation was developing very similar to that in Natal at the same period.

This was further heightened by the Report of the Director in 1919 when he said of the two-year T₃ course: "When the two-year course is introduced, I should like to see our T₃ students spend as much of their first year as possible at the Grey University College in order to broaden their outlook and to enlarge their knowledge.

"The Normal College is not the place for the academic treatment of a subject, but the place where the best modern methods of presenting matter for the assimilation by the pupil should be studied, which of necessity entails the study of the child and its nature."³

In 1921 the training of teachers in the Orange Free State became the subject of a special commission of inquiry (the Kottich Commission). In the meantime, however, the Director of Education reported that an interim agreement had been reached between Grey University College and the Normal College with regard to the course for the Third Class Certificate. Students for this course would undertake a first year B.A. or B.Sc. course at the University College before registering as students of the Normal College.⁴

The Kottich Commission's report had little or no effect upon relations existing between the two training institutions, being more concerned with courses for the training of teachers for rural schools.

¹ Ibid: para 9(d).

² Conference of Directors of Education: 1.12.1911: Training and Certification of Teachers: para 9(a).

³ O.F.S.: Report of the Director of Education: 1919: p.10.

⁴ It should be noted that by 1919 Matriculation or the Senior Certificate Examination was the de facto level of entry to the T₃ course. See Director's Report, 1919, p.60.

The interim agreement with the Grey University College therefore continued, and the Principal of the Normal College reported in 1923 that the new professional T₃ course was being followed with the emphasis on methods rather than content. He seems to have had some misgiving with regard to the change for he said, "experience alone will show how far a course devoted almost entirely to the study of method and the development of skill will produce a satisfactory teacher."¹

The next investigation into education in the Province, the de Villiers Commission in 1926, did not particularly approve of the interim agreement for the primary certificate and proposed some sweeping changes, although still preserving the principle of liaison between university and college. "The Normal College is the most vital part of our educational organism. It is the nursery of the teaching profession and unless it is the home of the highest Christian and educational ideals, in which there is an atmosphere of single-minded and unswerving devotion to duty, the right type of teacher will not be reared there. To derive full benefit from the wholesome influence of such an institution, the prospective teacher should remain there long enough to imbibe the spirit of the true educator."²

Accordingly, the Commission recommended that for "the duration of the (two-year) course the students be enrolled as Normal students and reside at the Normal College."³ As regards the academic content of the course it was suggested "either (a) that the Normal students should be entered as students at the Grey University College, where they should attend lectures in two subjects each year.....or (b) that they should follow at the Normal College an advanced scientific course in agriculture and technical subjects (for men), and in music and domestic science (for women). This would enable the Normal students, should they so choose, to enjoy the broader culture of the University."⁴

¹ Ibid: 1923: Report of the Principal of the Normal College.

² O.F.S.: Report of the Education Inquiry Commission (the de Villiers Commission), 1926: p.38 para 175.

³ Ibid: para 183, (ii) v(iii). It should be noted that at this time women students could obtain a lower primary certificate after a one-year course.

⁴ Ibid: para 183 (iv).

This brought the situation of the Normal College students in the Orange Free State into line with those of Natal and the Transvaal. It is interesting to note that when the Normal College students were registered as university students in their first year, they tended to drift away from the Normal College and from teaching. This is an opposite parallel to the position in Natal where graduate university students undertook part of their courses at the Natal Training College. In connection with graduate students in the Orange Free State it is to be noted that their connection with the Normal College had been ended by 1919 for in that year the Principal of the College observed that "the close connection of the T₁ course with the College has meantime been broken."¹ The decade of the 'twenties, then, was a period when the bonds between the Normal College and the University tended to be loosened.

Resulting from the de Villiers recommendations, and the effects of economic depression, new courses were introduced in 1928, that for the lower primary teachers certificate being of two years' duration, and for the higher primary certificate, three years. Links were maintained with the University College in these new courses.

After an unpromising start to the 'thirties, when the Secretary for Education and the Director of the National Bureau of Education sought to criticise severely the provincial handling of teacher training, and the Director of Education in the O.F.S. had replied somewhat caustically,² the matter of liaison between the training institutions once again came under discussion. In his report for 1935, the Rector of the Normal College advocated the extension of all courses to a minimum of three years, based on the dual structure noted previously in Natal. It was proposed for the Orange Free State that, with standard

¹ O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1919: p.60.

² O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1931: p.32. I: "The authority which controls education, and, consequently appoints and pays teachers, should have control, and, if possible, complete control, over the training of teachers, for, should the product of the training be unsatisfactory, there ought to be no obstacles in the way to effect drastic changes immediately. There are evidences already that one of the Provinces is dissatisfied with the practical training that secondary teachers receive in the course for the Higher Education Diploma at our Universities, and the more so because it is not very easy to have improvements made to meet the case."

entry at matriculation level, there should follow two years of general professional training which should, in turn, be followed by a further year, either of an academic nature at the University College of the Orange Free State, or of specialist training. Of the academic content of training courses it was stated that "it will probably not take long before candidates will be allowed to undertake academical work concurrently with professional work with a view to obtaining a university degree. That such a development will soon lead to a mixed or composite course, whereby teachers will as a general rule gain a university degree seems to be a solution of the question of teacher training towards which South Africa is drawing year by year."¹ If this was to be the case, then obviously the Normal College would either have to move into closer relationship with the University College, or find some alternative means of gaining degree status for its students.

The next step was taken in 1936 when "in order to ensure more correlation between the training of primary and secondary teachers, and to remove defects in their training, a regional committee was appointed.....and consists of representatives of the University College of the Orange Free State, the Normal College and the Education Department, with the Director of the Department of Education as Chairman."² The question of liaison and co-operation between the two institutions reached a crucial stage in 1938 and drew a heartfelt expression of hope from the Rector. "There is one urgent problem which is at present occupying the attention of us all; the co-operation of the Normal College and the University College..... May such an arrangement be made which on educational grounds will justify itself in the long run."³

Further moves towards co-operation took place in the following year. "It was resolved to modify the curriculum of the Normal College so as to include a portion of the B.A. Course. A Commission..... visited Universities and Normal Colleges in Natal and the Transvaal with a view to discovering the most effective form of co-ordination between university and normal training..... The Course at the Normal College was modified so that the curriculum for the Lower Primary Certificate

¹ Ibid: 1935: p.109.

² Ibid: 1936: p.63.

³ Ibid: 1939: p.53.

includes three B.A. subjects (English, Afrikaans, and Biology OR Psychology) for the first year, with only professional subjects for the second year."¹ The Rector at the same time continued to press for three-year training for all, claiming that it was necessary "to clear the way for procuring a good form of co-operation between the Normal College and the University College. It will then be possible to maintain a principle that has for a long time been accepted in the Free State, namely, that the purely professional part of the training of all primary school teachers should last a least two years."²

The culmination of the effort to achieve increased co-operation between the training institutions took place in 1945. The Rector of the Normal College reported in that year that "after years of deliberation, the amalgamation of the University College and the Normal College took place.....which means that the Normal College now forms an integral part of the University College of the Orange Free State and is known as the Faculty of Education of the University College.

"The agreement between the Orange Free State Administration and the Council of the University College terminates a conflict of several years duration, and one which often had a retarding effect upon the training of primary teachers, and which adversely influenced the relationship between students of the two institutions..... I believe that it will lead not only to the bridging of the gap which has always existed between primary and secondary teachers, but also that by this step the possibility has been created of more effective co-ordination in the training of teachers in the Orange Free State."³

This amalgamation was a fundamental achievement in the history of teacher education in South Africa. In no other province had or has such a union come about. As is frequently the case in matrimony, the path of true love has not always run smooth. One cannot but speculate whether it was an amalgamation of this sort that the Minister of National Education had in mind in the original draft bill on the training of teachers introduced into the House of Assembly in 1968.⁴

¹ Ibid: The influence of the Natal pattern is clearly visible in this.

² Ibid: p.109.

³ Ibid: 1941/45: p.197.

⁴ House of Assembly: AB 68 of 1968. See Part Four of this study.

(c) The Development of Normal College Courses:

The courses offered at the time of Union, and the new courses leading to the three teachers' certificates, as proposed by the Conference of Heads of Education Departments in Bloemfontein in 1911, have been mentioned above. From the outset, the staff of the Normal College was against entry to training at the level recommended for the Third Class Certificate (i.e. Standard VII). "It is the unanimous opinion of the Staff that the lowest qualification for admission to a teacher's course should be a standard equivalent to matriculation, and that the course should extend over two years."¹ This was a level which was not achieved until 1919, significantly earlier than either the Cape Province or Natal. In 1914, however, the Commission of Inquiry into Primary Education which reported in 1916 failed to accept this recommendation and consequently drew a comment from Dr. W.J. Viljoen in his report for 1917. He was "unable to agree with the opinion that the matriculation certificate or its equivalent was not an indispensable condition for admission to the Normal Training College. No student should be admitted to the Training College who has not at least completed the secondary school course."² In stating the two purposes of training college courses as the supplementation of the students academic education as well as the training of students in the principles and practice of education, he emphasised that "training colleges were never intended as a refuge for the mentally deficient. The interests of society and of the State demand that the education of the youth should be entrusted only to those who have been specially prepared for the work and have proved themselves fit for it."³

The Primary School Report had recommended that a special teacher training class should be attached to three or four of the best schools in the province. This was in accordance also with the pattern laid down in 1912, the first two years being done in these schools, and the final year at the Normal College. The Report recommended that the 'pupils' in these courses should spend two to four hours per week in

¹ O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1912:
Report of the Principal of the Normal College: p.23.

² Ibid: 1917, p.21.

³ Ibid.

practice teaching 'distributed among the best teachers of the school'. This proposal Viljoen rejected vehemently as "a return with a vengeance to the antiquated pupil-teacher system which has been abolished practically everywhere."¹

Viljoen's objections to the lower standard of entry to the T₃ course had in practice been met by 1919, as already recorded. It is therefore somewhat surprising, at least superficially, to find that the report of the Kottich Commission in 1921 recommended that the level of entry to a new course of training for the Rural Teacher's Diploma be "the Junior Certificate or equivalent qualification."² This new course was one of the Commission's main recommendations in pursuance of its principle term of reference.³ It seems that a dangerous precedent was being advocated here, for the rural teacher was being classified as an inferior being to the teacher in the urban primary school. The Commission recommended a course of two year's duration, "academic as well as professional"⁴ to be undertaken as circumstances permitted at "a second Normal Institute in another education centre in the Province."⁵ Perhaps the most significant condition stipulated was that "the Rural Teacher's Diploma plus two years successful teaching experience admits students to the new T₃ course."⁶ While one acknowledges the unfortunate state of rural schools of the day, which occasioned the Commissioner's remark that "a large wastage of national energy results from the fact that young people, at a critical stage of their lives, are entrusted to the care of incompetent persons"⁷ one finds it difficult to accept this inferior form of training for rural school teachers.

1 Ibid.

2 O.F.S.: Report of the Commission of Enquiry into the Paucity of Teachers in the O.F.S., etc.: 1921: Chap. II(a)(1).

3 More specifically, this was to enquire "whether sufficient teachers are trained in the OFS to satisfy our requirements, and, if not, how this state of affairs can be improved."

4 Ibid: II(a)(2).

5 Ibid: II(a).

6 Ibid: II(a)(3).

7 Ibid: II(a).

The curriculum was to include Afrikaans, English, Arithmetic, History (including Bible History), Geography, Drawing, Singing, Nature Study, Needlework, Physical Exercises, Hygiene, Theory and Practice of Education. The aim and object of the course was to improve "the education in the rural areas so that the rural child may eventually enjoy the same privileges as the town child, i.e. to receive efficient and methodic instruction which will enable him to become a self-reliant member of society and the church."¹ While the aim was laudable, the method by which it was proposed to achieve it was questionable. This was also the opinion of the education authorities and the recommendations of the Commission were not implemented.² Instead, it was proposed that for women students only there be instituted "Class IV" Teacher Grade which would involve a one-year course of practical training after attaining the School Leaving Certificate. This was designed to produce teachers for the lower classes, and which was part of the pernicious world-wide view of the time, that teachers of the lower standards and sub-standards only needed an inferior level of training.

The matter of the training of competent teachers for rural schools continued to exercise the Education Department, for in 1925 it is noted that "it is remarkable how we continue to appoint young, untried teachers to be Principals of Schools. In one breath we dilate on the great difficulty of running one-teacher schools, and with the next we appoint our teachers with the lowest qualifications to take charge of them. Has not the time come when it can be laid down that a necessary qualification for appointment as a Principal of a school, however small, is a certain amount of experience?"³

The principle of differing lengths of training for men and women students is one which persisted long in the Orange Free State. It was included in the new courses introduced in 1928. At this stage the old nomenclature of Third Class Certificate was dropped and a

¹ Ibid: Chapter II(b).

² The Director was unable to recommend this course on the grounds, inter alia, of its effect upon the teaching profession for it "involves a lowering of the status of the profession if the standard be reduced." Annual Report, 1921: p.46.

³ Ibid: 1925: p.82.

division into Lower Primary and Higher Primary Certificates adopted, as was the case in the Cape Province. Under the new system, the Lower Primary Teacher's course, which, naturally, attracted mainly women students, was to be of two years' duration, while the Higher Primary was three years. Indeed, it was found as recently as 1963, when three-year training in the Transvaal was considered basic, and when the principle of three-year training was accepted in Natal, that in the Orange Free State the duration of the training course for men students was three years, while that for women was optionally two or three years.¹

General three-year training was, however, a long way off. As already recorded, the next step was the introduction of the dual structured course, with a year of specialisation in academic subjects, agriculture, technical subjects or infant method, which was advocated in 1935 and introduced the following year. "In this way co-operation between the Normal College on the one hand and the University College and the Glen School of Agriculture on the other takes the form of healthy, natural evolution and growth, and more natural and fruitful courses of study will take the place of the unnatural and lean university or agricultural courses of one year only, following immediately upon matriculation as is the case at present."² Interestingly, the Principal of the Normal College reports in the following year that it would be possible to take a fourth year course at the College in which students would be able to follow specialisation courses for a further year, with particular emphasis upon technical subjects.³

The regulations for the new courses were accepted by the Teachers' Registration Board in 1937, with a new system of examinations also being introduced.⁴

¹ Personal interview with the Rector, Teachers' Training College, Bloemfontein, May, 1963. The courses introduced in 1928 were a result of the recommendations of the de Villiers Commission in 1926. These advocated a two-year course for all, with academic subjects followed at the University College, or specialisation courses in agriculture technology, music or domestic science at the Normal College. See page 75.

² O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1935: p.111.

³ Ibid: 1936.

⁴ This was the natural successor in law to the Council of Examiners.

As in both the Cape Province and Natal, concern had been expressed on a number of occasions with regard to the advisability of student performance being based purely on final examinations. In 1932 the Report of the Teachers' Registration Board observed that "under the present system, students trained at the Normal College are examined chiefly by 'external' examiners who have no connection with the institution. The staff of the College is of opinion that, from a pedagogic point of view, it is desirable that the examinations should become more and more of an 'internal' nature. After careful consideration, the Board tentatively agreed to the principle of internal examinations on the condition that certain requirements are complied with."¹ The Principal in welcoming this decision stressed the importance of internal promotion examinations which, he claimed, were necessary to ensure a standard of professional efficiency.

In 1935 the subject was returned to again but the Teachers' Registration Board could not accept wholly internal examinations. Instead it declared that the change-over "would be too revolutionary and not advisable under the present circumstances, and that it would be wiser to adopt the system which is at present followed by most of the universities (that) examinations are conducted jointly by internal as well as external examiners."² This solution was naturally of assistance when it came to the amalgamation of the two institutions, while at the same time conferring upon the College a considerable degree of freedom from Departmental control of examinations.

Further modifications were made and in 1937 the Teachers' Registration Board agreed to a system whereby certain subjects were to be examined when they were completed, and not held over to a final examination. At this stage emphasis was placed upon the Theory and History of Education and Educational Psychology along with the two official languages as the most important subjects carrying the most marks in the examination.³ This appears to indicate that by the end of the 'thirties courses had been professionalised and it was no longer training in the sense of preparation for a trade.

¹ O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1932: p.117.

² Ibid: p.109.

³ Ibid: 1937: Report of the Acting-Rector of the Normal College.

This situation of growing professionalism through the medium of two- and three-year courses, and in close collaboration with the University College as a constituent part of the Faculty of Education, marked the remainder of the period until the end of the Second World War.

(d) The Supply of Teachers in the Orange Free State:

Like Natal, and unlike the Cape, the teacher training plant was modest and the output was never very large. Indeed, the early official reports present a fairly continuous lament regarding the precariousness of the supply position.

The dependence of the province upon teachers recruited mainly from the Cape Province has already been mentioned. The figures for the supply of T₃ teachers in the early years have been given. Although the normal school system was designed to assist both pupil and school, the numbers involved were pitifully small as can be seen from the table below.

Table 3 : Enrolment in Normal Schools in the O.F.S. 1913-1915¹

Centre/Year	1913	1914	1915	Total
Grey College	6	7	5	18
Eunice	9	10	14	33
Oranje	6	7	7	20
Bethlehem	20	22	7	49
Boshof	22	22	13	57
Kroonstad	17	12	6	35
Ladybrand	17	11	7	35
Reddersburg	1	12	10	23
Total	98	103	69	270

On the one hand it is not surprising that enrolments in the schools of Bloemfontein are comparatively small, as a substantial enrolment for these first two years of training also took place at the Normal College.

¹ Director's report: 1916.

On the other hand it is surprising that the Normal School at Boshof was able to handle the numbers that it did. It must be borne in mind that these candidates were enrolled for a two-year course, so that the output for any particular year can be estimated approximately by halving the enrolment for the school for the year.

As has been stated previously, the total annual requirement of teacher recruits by 1920 was of the order of 400. It is obvious that the majority of teachers still had to be recruited from abroad.¹ It seems that the Director's and Principal's reports in 1920 make a fair assessment of the situation. The Director comments that "the only way.....to meet the need is to increase the supply of qualified candidates for admission to a Teacher's Course, or to lower the qualification for a certificated teacher. Here arises the criticism of Matriculation as a standard for admission and with this criticism I cannot agree..... I should like to see a higher standard, but with the prevailing scarcity of qualified teachers, the time has not come for raising the minimum standard, although every opportunity should be given for improved courses."² The Principal added that "the centre of gravity in Education has shifted from the Primary to the Secondary stage..... The remedy then would seem to be to encourage in every possible way an increase in the number of pupils in secondary schools, so that a sufficient supply of qualified candidates may come forward... It would be a wrong policy to lower the qualification for a certificated teacher at this stage of our educational progress."³

This uncompromising policy obviously caused difficulty and hardship at the time,⁴ and may be contrasted with the situation in

¹ O.F.S.: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1917: p.8: "The question of increasing our annual output of qualified teachers is a burning one and must be met, either by the expansion of the present or the establishment of a second Normal College." See also the Kottich Report of 1921 (Commission on the Paucity of Teachers in the O.F.S.)

Ibid: 1919: "All efforts to supply the needs of the Province in respect of professionally trained teachers must prove futile, as the boarding accommodation is too limited.....the Department will be compelled to employ unqualified teachers."

² Ibid: 1920: Director's Report.

³ Ibid: p.108.

⁴ See the statistics for unqualified teachers in the O.F.S. in Table 4.

Natal and the Cape Province where a matriculation level of entry to teacher training was not achieved until the middle and late 'twenties respectively. This fact, coupled with the decision to extend the length of training courses in 1928¹ probably enabled the province to ride out the storm of unemployment associated with the depression more easily than other provinces.

An interesting picture is to be obtained from Table 4 which attempts to abstract significant developments in the pattern of the qualification held by teachers for a period spanning the depression and extending into the Second World War years.

The low-water mark of employment appeared to come in 1932, when it was reported that 60 posts, particularly in farm schools, had been abolished, and the intake to the Normal College was limited. This policy of limitation was continued in the next three years, in 1934 only candidates with first class matriculation passes being admitted to training. This arbitrary method of selection was sharply criticised and the Director agreed that "it is inadvisable to assign too much diagnostic value to tests that can be applied to candidates."² In 1936 it was possible once more to admit all those candidates with the necessary qualifications and the ability for training. On the question of selection it was stated that "it is quite possible that an applicant who has passed his matriculation in the third class will turn out a better teacher than one who has passed in the first class."³ Each candidate was now to be reported on by his headmaster, and interviewed by the circuit inspector before final selection. In this way "the Department has substituted a *Selectio Humana* for a *Selectio Scholastica*."⁴

From this point onwards the supply position steadily deteriorated, in 1937 the Department was compelled to appoint married women; in 1938 there was a complaint regarding the inadequate number of suitable applicants for teacher training and the total output of teachers for the

¹ See Director's Report for 1927. It is noted in this that the failure of all students to secure teaching posts is to be adjusted by lengthening of courses when in 1928 there will be no output of Lower and only a few Higher Primary teachers.

² Ibid: 1935: p.47.

³ Ibid: 1936: p.63.

⁴ Ibid.

Table 4 : Statistical review of the pattern of teachers' qualifications¹

Year/ Qualification	1 9 2 3			1 9 2 7			1 9 3 3			1 9 3 7			1 9 4 3		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
T ₁ (Degree+UED)	66	23	89	239	47	286	216	37	253	273	54	327	307	54	361
T ₂ (Higher Prim.)	82	53	135	99	34	133	209	133	342	262	167	429	258	172	430
Lower Primary	443	828	1271	415	991	1406	372	713	1085	328	581	909	261	572	833
Unqualified	318	241	559	105	72	177	11	11	22	26	23	49	23	18	41
Total	1036	1187	2223	939	1233	2172	1075	969	2044	1110	890	2000	1054	859	1913

- Note
- (i) this table does not include all grades of teachers; merely four selected groups
 - (ii) the predominance of men in the graduate group
 - (iii) the increase of men in the higher primary group starting in the 'thirties
 - (iv) the steady decrease of lower primary teachers in service from 1927 onwards
 - (v) the virtual disappearance of the unqualified teacher by the end of the 'twenties
 - (vi) the total number of men in service remains relatively constant, while the total of women teachers decreases steadily after 1927.

¹ Ibid: Synthesised from the statistical schedules in the Annual Reports for the relevant years.

primary schools was reduced to 74. Worse was, however, to follow during the war years.

Table 5 : Enrolment for Primary School courses 1941-1945¹

Year	Male	Female	Total
1941	44	203	247
1942	38	210	248
1943	41	187	228
1944	31	161	192
1945	25	142	167

In drawing attention to this serious decline, which he found to be more than the disruption caused by the second World War, the Director noted that "on all sides, even on the part of the authorities, it is averred that education is one of the most important services in any democratic country..... A nation which does not ensure that the best facilities are provided for the education of its youth, is a nation which is on the decline which must eventually lead to ruin. If, therefore we wish to assure that the education of our youth shall be undertaken by the best elements among our people, then the conditions of service must be sufficiently enticing to attract the best elements."²

4. Transvaal:

The Transvaal presents an interesting contrast with the other provinces. From the point of view of size it is more closely allied to the Cape, as it is in the number of training institutions which have developed there. Here the similarity tends to end for the attitudes of the two provinces are very different. The Cape Province, the old

¹ Ibid: 1941/5, p.203: Enrolment Statistics, Normal College, O.F.S. The decline in the enrolment of women students is particularly significant and inclines one to agree that the cause was more than the effect of war. Note the correlation in this respect with the previous table.

² Ibid: 1941/5: p.205.

mother settlement of South Africa, from which the other constituents of Union sprang, and which provided not only a pattern of education but also that of the training and certification of teachers, has witnessed the movement of initiative, influence and control to the Northern Province. From the point of view of school enrolment, the numbers of teachers required is very much greater than that of other provinces, even though the Transvaal, like Natal and the Orange Free State, started as an importer of trained teachers from the Cape. The concepts of large colleges and different relationships existing with the universities have resulted from the growth of population in the province, and are unique in South Africa.

(a) The Teacher Education pattern at the time of Union:-

In the period of reconstruction after the South African War, and until 1923 when he retired, the Transvaal was extremely fortunate in having Mr. (later Sir) John Adamson as its Director of Education. This man of vision and foresight, drive and energy, was recognised as an authority in education far beyond the borders of the Province. His annual reports are never merely dull and factual, but present a professional and enlightened approach to the educational problems of the day. His successor, H.S. Scott, remarked in 1924, "in every sphere of the Department's work, the hand of Sir John Adamson has left its mark (He) clearly recognised the keystone of any educational system is the teaching staff and the last nineteen years have marked a development in the training of teachers which has been phenomenal. In 1905 the standard of matriculation was, on the academic side, still an ideal to be aimed at. In 1924 the possession of a degree has ceased to excite any comment and might almost be deemed to be a commonplace requirement for anyone aspiring to be a teacher."¹ One might say that these achievements were paralleled in other provinces, which is undoubtedly true. Of equal validity, however, is the fact that in many aspects, such as a common nomenclature for certificates, as well as the raising of admission levels, the initiative came from Adamson in the Transvaal. As a public official in the administration of education in his day, his stature was large and his influence profound.

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education: 1924: pp.5-6.

By the time of Union, the Transvaal was issuing three classes of certificates, the highest or First Class being awarded to teachers of standing and experience, on the basis of a thesis based upon original work. The Second Class was awarded to teachers of at least four years experience who had obtained a pass in the Intermediate level of B.A. at the Transvaal University College, and who had successfully completed a course of professional training extending over one year at the Pretoria Normal College.¹ The Third Class Certificate which, as in other provinces, involved both professional and academic training, was a three year course, the academic part occupying two years, from which exemption could be obtained if the candidate was in possession of a matriculation certificate, and the professional part one year.² To obtain the certificate it was necessary to pass the academic and professional examinations, and thus this certificate was open both to pupil-teachers and to students of normal colleges. The entrance level to training was obviously that of Standard VII.

By 1908, approximately 200 students were enrolled in the three normal colleges at Pretoria, Johannesburg and Heidelberg, the vast majority preparing for the Third Class Certificate. Adamson reported that "as regards the development of a well-qualified teaching staff, we have not only made a good start, but are well on the way towards the goal."³ In 1910 the hope was expressed that the matriculation would be the standard of entrance for all students, making possible a more efficient system of professional training, with much greater emphasis being placed upon practical teaching. It was advocated that three fifths of the time should be spent in the schools. "The present amount of time that can be spent in schools.....is much too small..... The students leave these institutions with an incomplete and immature acquaintance with the problems which arise daily in the classroom and with the ordinary methods of solving them..... I propose that two years shall in every case be the period of professional training..... I do not consider that the system of training can be considered satisfactory

¹ Ibid: 1906: p.194. The examination was to consist of two parts: a practical teaching test and a written examination of a professional nature.

² Ibid: p.182 et seq.

³ Ibid: 1908: p.24.

unless.....on an average three school days out of five in every week are spent in the schools..... With a higher entrance standard and a period of professional training twice its present length, (the colleges) should be able to add to the theoretical knowledge of the history, ideals and methods of education, some of that practical ability which marks the experienced classroom teacher."¹

"A good start" had been made. Enrolments were building up in three institutions and there was a vital approach to the need for developing teacher education.

Table 6 : Enrolment in Transvaal Normal Colleges, 1909²

Centre/Course	T ₃		T ₂	T.U.C. Academic	Total
	Part 1	Part 2			
Heidelberg	53	16	-	-	69
Johannesburg	32	33	-	-	65
Pretoria	74		15	40	129

It will be seen how effective the supply of teachers was in meeting the demand from the schools.

The Principal of the Pretoria Normal College effectively stated the aims and functions of these institutions at the time. "The functionis to give students intelligent ideas about ends and means in the three sides of their professional work - organisation, instruction and nurture of character; to demonstrate methods and to afford opportunities for properly supervised practice in the art of teaching..... A course which was entirely formal and consisted of nothing but the examination of methods, whether of teaching or of discipline, would be a dreary affair and would, moreover, be opposed to the principle that the effectiveness of a teacher is generally proportional to his interest as a student..... This is a professional school in the sense that it assumes

¹ Ibid: 1910: p.53.

² Statistics abstracted from the Annual Reports of the Transvaal Normal Colleges, 1910. One of the major problems in the Transvaal was that at the time there were an inadequate number of posts available for certificated teachers.

that the student has reached a certain standard of general education and may, therefore, give himself over more or less completely to the theory and practice of teaching."¹

This is an important statement for it reveals the difference in the stage of development reached in some of the institutions of the Transvaal compared with certain other provinces where the emphasis was still heavily on the side of the general academic education of the student.

(b) Liaison between the Normal Colleges and the Universities:

The policy of co-operation was started before Union with amicable relations developing between the Transvaal University College and the Normal College in Pretoria. This relationship was much of the same type as that found in Natal and subsequently in the Orange Free State where the university was responsible for academic courses and the College for professional training. Evidence of this co-operation is to be found in Table 6 where it is seen that in 1909 40 students of the Normal College were undertaking the academic component of the T₂ course at the University College.

A severe test for the development of these relationships occurred in 1912 with the publication of the regulations of the new First Class Certificate of the Union Education Department. Adamson was bitterly opposed to the new policy,² but once it was established, he loyally accepted it and sought to implement it by encouraging increased help to the University College by offering professional courses for undergraduate students at the Pretoria Normal College in 1913.³ The following year the view was expressed by the College that the T₁ students "constitute the group least experienced in practical class work."⁴

In 1916 for the first time, as this was the first year in which there was a fourth year group undertaking professional studies in education, a full-time lecturer in Education was appointed to the staff

¹ Ibid: Report of the Pretoria Normal College: pp.207,208.

² Ibid: 1912: pp.48/49.

³ Ibid: 1913: the Report of the Pretoria Normal College indicates that for the first time the professional training for the T₁ course was undertaken by the College.

⁴ Ibid: 1914.

of the University College. This made for a complication in relationships between university and normal college, which had been based on academic and professional studies respectively. Now some of the professional work was to be undertaken by an embryo Department of Education in the University College. It is recorded that he assisted in the practical teaching work undertaken by the Normal College.¹ In this year 23 students enrolled for the fourth year of professional training for the T₁ course.

By 1919 relations between the institutions were further developed. By this time the University College in Johannesburg was contributing and here and in Pretoria the teacher education courses (the T₃ course) became joint or combined courses undertaken between university and normal college. Heidelberg, because of its isolation presented difficulties, but it was agreed that students in this college would complete their professional studies before moving to one of the other centres for the academic side of the course.² It was in this year also that the T₁ course was introduced in Johannesburg, providing an English-medium course for graduate teachers.

Thus was developed a pattern which was the keynote of teacher education courses in the Transvaal until the post World War II period, with the university undertaking the academic courses and the colleges the professional training. As in other provinces with the achievement of matriculation as a uniform standard of entry, as well as of the steady expansion of numbers for the First Class Certificate, the connection between the three classes of certificate tended to become somewhat vague. This was particularly so in the case of the T₂ certificate. In 1921 Adamson sought to clarify matters with regard to courses. In the first year of this course as well as of the T₃, students studied three or four academic subjects as, being all matriculated, they were virtually university students. Their subject choices were approved on admission by the principal of the normal college, who was also a professor of education of the university. Subject choices were as far as possible regulated to match the requirements of the schools, and were thus somewhat restricted. During the first year a certain number of professional skills were handled by the

¹ Ibid: 1916.

² Ibid: 1919: Report on the Normal Colleges.

normal college staff. These included oral language work, woodwork, needlework, singing and drawing, as well as demonstration lessons and exercises. It may well be imagined that the major administrative difficulty encountered in the mounting of these courses was the co-ordination of college and university time tables, in what had virtually become a common first year for T_2 and T_3 groups.

The bifurcation of the courses came in the second year which for the T_3 student was a professional year involved with theory of education, educational psychology, practical arts and skills not undertaken in the first year, demonstration lessons and teaching practice. The T_2 student, however, continued with additional subjects being taken at the university with concurrent professional work going on as in the first year. In the third year of the course, the T_2 student was engaged in full-time professional study. The T_2 student could then go on to a fourth year course in which he would complete his degree. In this he was differentiated from the T_1 student who undertook his undergraduate studies in the first three years, and followed them with professional studies in the final year.

Thus it was becoming clear that the T_3 certificate was becoming a two-year Primary School Certificate, while the T_2 was developing into a three- or four-year qualification also in the main for the primary school, while the T_1 represented the graduate training for the secondary school teacher. It should be noted carefully that, in each course, there was a strong component of academic studies undertaken in the university as well as professional training given in the colleges. Of this structure, Adamson remarked, "almal sal iets opvang van die gees, veral die akademiese vryheid, van universiteitsonderwys of hulle een of twee of al die trappe naar die verkry van 'n graad opklim..... Dit sal beteken dat hierdie wydte en vrygewigheid oorgedra sal word naar die professionele vakke, wat beskou sal word, nie as 'n liggaam van vaste reëls nie, wat werktuiglik moet toegepas word, maar as beginsels wat rekbaar en buigsaam is en wat, in hulle toepassing, die afwisseling van behandeling moet weerspieël wat vakke en individuele leerlinge voortdurend eis."¹

The practical effects of these course developments were shown by the Principal of the Pretoria College when he noted that the life of the

¹ Ibid: 1921: Report on the Normal College.

student with his interests now divided between university and college is fuller and more complicated. It involved, too, an adjustment on the part of the teaching staff of the Normal College because a considerable part of the academic work had fallen away. Lecturers found that they were much more closely involved in tutorial work and particularly in giving individual guidance during teaching practice periods.¹

The new arrangements were no panacea, however. In 1922 the Johannesburg Normal College found it necessary to criticise the one year of professional training for the T₂ certificate. It was found that the shortness of the course as well as the diversity and number of subjects studied, created an atmosphere of haste and professional superficiality. It was felt that there should be a more intensive study of fewer subjects together with a more thorough grounding in methods and practical teaching.

Indeed, they came to the conclusion hinted at above, viz. that there was need for the T₂ certificate to be awarded in two grades - high school and primary school. It was felt that, if this was done, the content of courses could then stand in closer relationship to the syllabuses and curriculum of the type of school in which the student expected to teach. It was felt also that, from the college's point of view, more importance should be attached to the professional competence of the student than to academic competence. There was a feeling that the Normal College was tending to be relegated to a subordinate position vis-a-vis the university.²

The practical problems of liaison were being experienced at Pretoria. The most urgent of these was the question of time tables at the two institutions. The unforeseen complication arose of second year T₂ students taking some first year courses in the university. This meant that the normal college time table had to be made to accord with both the first and second year time tables of the university.

At this stage a third normal college was preparing to move into special relationship with a neighbouring university college. A teacher training centre had been established at Potchefstroom in 1918.

¹ Ibid: Report of the Pretoria Normal College.

² Ibid: 1922: Report of the Johannesburg Normal College.

In 1920 the Theological College there had become a constituent university college of the University of South Africa. The training centre became a full normal college in 1921, and by 1922 college and university college had entered into the same relationships as were found in Johannesburg and Pretoria.

The history of the development of inter-institutional liaison over the next ten years is one of general progress along the lines indicated for 1921. Normal college reports indicate the incidental administrative and professional problems that one would expect to find in such a situation. Time tables continued to present a growing problem, particularly in Johannesburg and Pretoria. The introduction of Biology as a school subject was found in Johannesburg to produce problems of academic courses in the university.¹ By 1929 in Pretoria History of Education in the T₂ course was recognised by the university as a subject for degree purposes. It was, however, taught in the Normal College. Thus there was a beginning of recognition of normal college work for degree purposes.² In 1927 the Johannesburg College expressed the hope that the university would assume total responsibility for the training of graduate teachers, and in 1930 noted that the 'combined' course was producing good results. Professional relations between institutions during this period were sound; the problems were mainly of an administrative nature.

The question of the nature of certificates referred to above, however, continued to be a problem which became increasingly urgent. In 1924 Dr. Hugo Gutsche presented a memorandum on the training of teachers to the Director of Education. In this memorandum he examined the relation of university courses to professional training and maintained, *inter alia*, that in "the two year (T₃) course, where students take a few academic subjects in the first year only,.....the participation in university life is almost negligible..... In fact the students themselves feel that they are being looked down upon by the degree students and they would prefer to have all their courses in the normal colleges."³

¹ Ibid: 1930 and 1931: Reports of the Johannesburg Normal College.

² Ibid: 1929: Report of the Pretoria Normal College.

³ Ibid: 1924: Memorandum: Some Remarks on the Training of Teachers: Gutsche, H: p.65.

This in itself was perhaps small justification for any amendment of the scheme of teacher training. He did, however, query whether the taking of "three academic subjects at a university is the only way of coming into contact with a larger life and with more varied intellectual interests" and whether "it would be more to the advantage of the educational system if students intending to teach in rural or small primary schools were not expected to take any university courses."¹ In pursuance of his remarks which ranged far beyond the question of university liaison in teacher education, Gutsche proposed that the certificates to be awarded in the Transvaal should be as follows:

- "(i) The Primary Lower Certificate, similar to that in the Cape Province", a non-graduate certificate,
- "(ii) The Primary Higher Certificate. The pupil after passing his matriculation takes a three and a half years' course, two years to be spent at the university and one and a half years at the normal college." It was recommended that academic and professional courses should not run concurrently.
- "(iii) The Secondary School Certificate. The pupil takes the full degree course, with at least one and a half years' normal college training."²

Although these proposals of Gutsche had little impact at the time, their influence was felt in the decade of the 'thirties. One sees in them a desire to simplify, and rationalise teacher education in the Province in terms of the needs of the schools. One sees also the polarisation of institutions towards academic and professional, with little room being vouchsafed to Departments of Education within the universities.

The next development in the pattern of co-operation between colleges and universities came in the early 'thirties. "On 21st June, 1930, a special committee consisting of the three Rectors of the Transvaal University institutions submitted a report.....with recommendations to incorporate.....the existing Normal Colleges in the Transvaal in the three University institutions as Faculties of Education, with the exception of the Heidelberg Normal College. The proposals for this

¹ Ibid: p.66.

² Ibid: p.70.

incorporation have, however, not materialised."¹

A committee of investigation comprising members of the inspect-
orate, then put forward proposals for a new scheme of training which
were accepted by the Executive Committee. These included the abolition
of the Second and Third Class Certificates and their replacement by
the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma. The level of admission to the new
diploma course was to be that of matriculation and the course was to
be of three years' duration consisting of an academic part of one year,
and a professional part covering two years.²

The new proposals went part of the way to meeting the objections
raised by Gutsche, the normal colleges and others. The weight in the
training courses had been re-distributed with the emphasis upon the
professional side. It reduced the universities' active academic
participation in teacher training, especially in contrast to the old
T₂ course. It did not seem, however, to meet the particular needs of
the rural schools, which had been one of Gutsche's main theses. The
recommendations in this new scheme, in general, accorded well with those
put forward by the 1933 Conference on the training of teachers convened
by the Minister of Education in Pretoria.

The increasing emphasis upon professional training was welcomed,
but there were weaknesses which were commented upon by educationists in
the Transvaal. As far as the universities were concerned, it was felt
that the scheme had been implemented with undue haste and without an
opportunity to study the full implications. The reduction of the
university academic component from two years to one upset the balance
particularly in Faculties of Arts which had in varying measure been
expanded to provide for the requirements of teachers in training. This
had particular significance for the staffing of some university depart-
ments.

The abolition of the old T₃ certificate had legally made the
entrance level to training that of matriculation, "maar hierdie minimum
het ook die maksimum geword. Ofskoon die akademiese vereistes
oënskynlik net 'n bietjie leer was as dié vir die O₂, was dit nogtans
'n feit dat die O₂-kandidate gewoonlik nie die minimum in ag geneem het
nie, en 'n volle eerste- en tweedejaar-universiteitskursus vir 'n graad

¹ Ibid: 1932: p.20: The Training of Teachers: (1) The New Scheme.

² Ibid: p.21.

geloop het."¹

It was also felt that the conditions governing the award of the new Diploma made it increasingly difficult for the student who wished to continue his studies for a degree. He would now have to undertake two further years of academic study, and at the time there was no financial assistance in the form of bursaries or grants available for this purpose. Further, the disabilities under which the Heidelberg students laboured in not having a university nearby were perpetuated.

"En van die groot voordele van die ou skema was die kulturele waarde van universiteitslidmaatskap. Deur lid te wees van 'n universiteit het die student geleentheid om in aanraking te kom, nie net met die lede van die universiteitspersoneel nie, maar ook met ander studente wat verskillende belange het. Die nuwe skema het slegs een universiteitsjaar toegelaat, en dit die eerstejaar wat merendeels 'n tydperk van aanpassing is by nuwe standaarde en nuwe metodes."²

Despite continuing goodwill and co-operation, particularly at the level of the Higher, or graduate, Diploma, it seems that the introduction of this new teacher training scheme marks the beginning of the drifting apart of colleges and universities in the Transvaal particularly in the non-graduate courses. Admittedly the principle of the universities being responsible for academic work, and the colleges for professional studies was restated, while the need for co-operation and goodwill was emphasised,³ the university component of the main course in which it was concerned was reduced by half, while that of the professional was doubled. After all, Gutsche's argument against the old T₃ course could now with equal justification be applied to the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma: "where students take a few academic subjects during the first year only,.....the participation

¹ Ibid: 1936: p.61. It is clear from this that the T₂ certificate in the Transvaal had become equivalent to the non-graduate diploma which was accepted by regulation of the Senate and Council of the University of South Africa in 1923.

² Ibid: p.62.

³ Ibid: p.63: "Samewerking en welwillendheid, met geleentheid vir raadpleging, die beste middels is vir die oplossing van moeilikhede wat ontstaan as twee of meer liggame gesamentelik verantwoordelik is vir 'n onderneming."

in university life is almost negligible.... Is this the sine qua non of securing living and progressive minds in our schools?"¹

The establishment of Regional Committees in Pretoria, Johannesburg and Potchefstroom was a valuable step in securing co-operation between all concerned in teacher education in each region. "Hierdie komitees bestaan uit verteenwoordigers van die Departement, die opleidingskollege, die universiteit, die inspektoraat, die tegniese kolleges, die Gesamentlike Komitee van Onderwysersverenigings, en die publiek..... Die komitees is gevra om die Departement met raad by te staan oor sulke sake soos die koördinasie van werksaamhede in verband met die opleiding van onderwysers, en die verhoudings tussen kolleges en universiteite."² These Regional Committees began in 1936 to draw up training schemes for their own areas. This permitted useful flexibility of approach; this aspect will be more fully examined in the next section of the present chapter.

Under the new scheme some of the difficulties existing with regard to the administration of combined courses were overcome. The Pretoria College of Education reported this with evident relief in 1936.³ Towards the end of the decade, however, a further factor was introduced which has affected relations between Departments, colleges and universities ever since. This is the question of failure rates in academic subjects at the universities. The Pretoria College of Education first drew attention to this in 1939. A comparative examination of the results of the 1939 group of students was undertaken.

¹ Ibid: 1924: pp.65-66.

² Ibid: 1936: p.63.

³ The 1936 Report on the Johannesburg Normal College records that in that year it became the Johannesburg College of Education. All normal colleges in the Transvaal are from that date referred to as colleges of education in this study.

Table 7 : Examination results of 1939 group - Pretoria College of Education¹

Examination Subject	1936 J.C.		1938 Sen. School Cert.		1939 First year	
	Number failing	%	Number failing	%	Number failing	%
Afrikaans A	43/2177	2.7	23/2797	0.8	40/97	41.2
English B	57/2147	2.7	320/2797	11.4	34/46	73.9
History	203/4136	4.9	269/4783	5.6	19/57	33.0

From this it was concluded that "the transition from the high school to the university is.....marked by a tremendous slaughter, even among the selected candidates..... If the standard required by the university be reasonable, then the Transvaal Education Department must reorganise its high school course. On the other hand, if this standard be not reasonable, it should also be the duty of the Department to take such precautionary measures as will prevent such satisfactory students becoming the victims of a course of study instituted by the Department."²

The matter was raised again by the same college in 1942, when high failure rates were stressed particularly among the students in the combined course. There is also an interesting variation of failure rates from subject to subject.

Table 8 : Failure rates among first year students registered at the Pretoria College of Education : 1942³

Course	1/3	1/4	Course	1/3	1/4
	Percentage	Failure		Percentage	Failure
Afrikaans	46.2	5.9	Biology	11.4	5.6
English	72.8	47.1	Sociology	44.2	25.0
History	46.4	15.4	Geography	Nil	Nil

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1939: p.142.

² Ibid: 1939: p.142.

³ Ibid: 1942: Report of the Pretoria College of Education: 1/3 refers to first year students in the three-year or 'combined' course, 1/4 refers to first year students in the four-year graduate or Higher Diploma Course.

In 1943, undoubtedly influenced by this situation, a new three year non-graduate course of training was introduced. This was a purely professional course and had a dual-tiered structure similar to that which has been noted in other provinces. It was naturally criticised on the grounds that it represented a lowering of academic standards in the teaching profession, but it was justified in view of the growing shortage of teachers as well as the fact that some aspects of part degree courses were in themselves unsatisfactory as they were incomplete and were not devised with the needs of the school in mind. However, the old three-year combined course, two years professional and one year, academic, continued to be offered in all three centres.¹

At the end of the review period, then, there was effective liaison in the Transvaal between the colleges of education and the universities, particularly at the level of Higher Diploma. A drift apart was discernible in the non-graduate diploma courses, with the colleges gradually assuming total responsibility for training at this level. Thus the situation of amalgamation noted in the Orange Free State was reversed in the Transvaal. This left unresolved the question of the function of the departments of education in the universities in the province.

(c) The Development of Normal College Courses:

Some evidence has already been led regarding the courses of training offered at the time of Union. The Transvaal was fortunate that a matriculation level of entry was achieved de facto, if not de jure, at an earlier date than in other provinces. This, however, proved to be a not unmixed blessing as will be seen when the question of the supply of teachers is examined.

The first major problem was encountered with the introduction of the new Union Department of Education's First Class Teacher's Certificate in 1912. The Director opposed it mainly on the grounds of the changed concept whereby the highest teacher's qualification

¹ Both the Johannesburg and Pretoria Colleges reported dissatisfaction with the three-year combined courses. The former approved of the new course as eliminating divided interests, while the latter was still concerned about university failure rates.
Ibid: 1943: Reports of the Colleges of Education.

was to be given to young and inexperienced graduates, instead of on the old basis of an award to tried and tested teachers of experience who had shown their continuing interest in education by conducting an investigation into a particular aspect of it. Adamson also objected to the new arrangements as breaking the continuity between certificates with the two lower ones under provincial control and the upper one administered by the central authority.

However, on the basis of the three classes of certificates, courses for the lowest level (T_3) were offered at the three colleges in Johannesburg, Pretoria and Heidelberg, with the second of these also preparing students professionally for the T_2 certificate. It was not long before the general professional training was felt to be inadequate to meet the needs of the schools. As early as 1912 the desirability of specialist training for infant teachers was stressed,¹ while in 1915 it was proposed that a new T_3 course which included the principles of kindergarten teaching should be introduced. This was not seen as being a replacement or substitute for the existing course, but rather as supplementary to it, all students being required to take the basic course.² Further specialisation was started in 1915 when the training of domestic science teachers was started in the School of Domestic Science in Johannesburg. Students were trained to teach cookery and a small amount of needlework, while it was proposed to add laundrywork and housewifery, and even training in dairywork was contemplated.³

A significant comment on these early courses is made by the Principal of the Pretoria Normal College, a comment which still has relevance in some quarters. "Since it is realised how very limited is the general knowledge of young teachers, advice and help are given to the student in definite courses of reading in the library. Indeed, though such reading is still driven into a corner, in it....lies the germ of higher effort in the future. In the upper forms of our schools and in our college lecture rooms, we probably do too much for our pupils. Very little is left to their own efforts.

1 Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1912: p.49.

2 Ibid: 1915.

3 Ibid.

"It is sometimes said that the effort of individual abstraction is too high an exercise to expect in this country, that the climate and external attractions are not conducive to it..... Some students at least have begun to enjoy individual and self-chosen study..... (In some subjects) we 'overlecture' and make the student who is, presumably, almost an independent adult, and in many cases as old as ourselves, still dependent and doubtful of himself."¹

By 1917 a revision of regulations for the award of teachers' certificates was thought to be necessary. It was felt that the T₂ course had failed to attract sufficient numbers of students; in that year only 12 out of 248 were registered for the course. The T₃ course was considered too narrowly specialist on the side of method and technique and therefore in need of liberalising on the cultural side, while there was also a need for specialist teachers at the infant stage. The revisions made included the permission for students to enter upon the T₂ course without previously having completed the T₃ course. The T₃ course was widened and deepened by the inclusion of three cultural subjects selected from literature, history and science. Finally, infant specialisation was included in the T₂ as well as the T₃ courses.² As far as the 'professionalising' of courses was involved, the Pretoria College of Education introduced Educational Psychology into its courses in 1919.³

A review of the organisational set-up and courses offered was undertaken in 1920 particularly in view of what appeared to be a chronic shortage of teachers. It was found, for example, in that year that the necessary recruitment of teachers for the Transvaal schools was 1043 and that precisely 160 recruits had been provided by the normal colleges.⁴ By this time the Potchefstroom training centre

¹ Ibid: 1915: p.74.

² Ibid: 1917.

³ Ibid: 1919: Report of the Pretoria Normal College: quoting Prof. H. Bompas Smith on the subject, says "Our theory, no less than our practice, requires the sympathetic insight into our children's minds which is the natural gift of all true teachers.....should be deepened and enlightened by psychological knowledge..... It must help us to understand our boys and girls as growing human persons."

⁴ Ibid: 1920.

was in operation and was on the verge of entering into the same relationship with the new university college there, as had Pretoria and Johannesburg in their centres. Ermelo had also been established as a training centre, but, like Heidelberg, out of direct contact with a university, undertook T₃ courses only.¹

The Director favoured "the establishment of two institutions, each taking 100 pupils in all, of a new type. The idea is that they should aim especially at training teachers." A two-year course was proposed "but half of each year would be spent at the college, and half at selected country schools." Potchefstroom, as is well-known, flourished, but Ermelo, through financial stringency and difficulties of organisation, languished, and was closed in 1924 as a result of a policy of concentration of teacher training centres.

The review of courses revealed the need for a revision of nomenclature of certificates, as well as a re-definition of courses because of the overlap beginning to become apparent at T₂ and T₃ levels. There was also a recognised need for the award of the T₂ certificate at both secondary and primary levels. This was noted in the previous section of this chapter as was the recommendations of Dr. Hugo Gutsche with regard to the organisation of certificates and conditions for their award.

Among Gutsche's remarks which have not been previously mentioned, was the recommendation to accept a lower standard of entry for those students proposing to prepare for service in rural schools. He urgently pleaded "for not demanding....what we have not been requiring in the case of students coming from the south."² His main reasons for advocating what was, academically, a backward step were that the requirement of a matriculation pass debarred many "who otherwise would turn out excellent teachers"; "none of the great civilised countries require academic qualifications for teachers who are to teach in rural and small primary schools"; matriculated students "no longer fit in their humble positions, and do not feel at home in their schools"; and he felt that more useful teachers would probably be turned out by spending two years in training school, rather than two additional years

¹ Ibid: 1917: pp.54-56.

² Ibid: 1924: p.67: Some Remarks on the Training of Teachers: Gutsche, H. He noted that the Lower Primary Certificate was granted in the Cape Province to students admitted at the level of Standard VIII.

in school. Apart from the first reason, the remainder tend to lack objectivity and one feels that the proposer was more concerned with the provision of teachers for one section of the community, than he was with the development of education and the raising of the standards of the teaching profession as a whole.

In both this section and the last some attention has been devoted to the question of the balance between academic and professional work. Within the latter is a further problem of balance - that between theory and practice. Adamson's plea for the extension of professional training for the T₃ certificate to two years was based largely on the need for a longer time to be spent in the schools. By the early 'twenties the T₃, T₂ and T₁ courses all had a professional component which was of one year's duration. The practical training was a constant source of worry to the colleges at this time.

In 1922, the Principal of the Johannesburg College complained of the shortness of the T₂ professional course and pleaded for its extension in order to allow for a more thorough grounding in methods and in teaching practice in order to result in better quality of work in the classroom. This, he claimed, was the main purpose of training college work.¹

Adamson, in his last annual report before he retired, returned to the theme. While welcoming the 'wider culture' which the association with the university brought, he felt that the tendency to detract from the importance of professional training had to be guarded against. In this professional training he felt that two factors were essential. These were firstly a demonstration and practising school which must act as a laboratory and workshop, and, secondly, the need to alternate the use of such an institution with visits to ordinary schools. Pretoria and Johannesburg were well served in this respect, but the smaller centres presented a problem, which was likely to become more acute if there was to be a centralising policy applied to teacher training. "Die werklike moeilikheid is egter in verband met besoeke aan skole in verband met demonstrasie en oefening in praktiese onderwys. Op die oomblik is dit.....die minst-deeglike gedeelte van die werk en dit sou nog moeiliker wees as die beskikbare getal skole verminder word."²

1 Ibid: 1922: Report of the Johannesburg Normal College.

2 Ibid: 1923: p.40

In the same year W.R. MacGregor of the Johannesburg College raised the question of the problems of practical teaching. He claimed that with the courses as they were then constituted, a disproportionate amount of time was spent in preparation of the student to the detriment of the development of ability on the part of the student 'to stand in front of a class'.¹ This, he averred, should not be possible. "It is not desirable to give students knowledge of all the subjects in all the classes, but sufficient time must be available to give students an opportunity for unbroken practice in selected classes."² This, he claimed, was a valid principle in both primary and secondary schools, and should "replace the unrealistic atmosphere of the criticism lesson."³ However, the presence of unqualified teachers in and the difficulty of new and experimental work being introduced into the ordinary schools made teaching practice less effective than it might have been.

The closing of the college at Ermelo in 1924 and the transfer of its students to Heidelberg undoubtedly increased the difficulties of practice teaching in the latter centre.⁴

It was clear by the second half of the decade of the 'twenties that the two balances constituting effective teacher education courses at the time - academic/professional and theory/practice - were both off-centre, and it became increasingly obvious in the next five years that the only way in which the situation might be rectified, was by the wholesale revision of courses.

In 1929 recommendations were made that teachers should be trained in three grades, 'junior', 'primary', and 'high school'. This resulted in the introduction at the start of 1931 of a new Primary School Certificate of general training lasting two years. This was followed by what were termed 'endorsement' courses of one year's duration which were optional. It was designed to offer training for teachers in the lower forms of the high schools, and subjects offered in Johannesburg

¹ Ibid: Report of the Johannesburg Normal College.

² Ibid.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Ibid: 1924: p.19: "it is a little difficult to see how adequate facilities can be obtained in Heidelberg or its vicinity for the practical training of so large a number of students."

included English, Science, History, Mathematics, Geography, Latin, Afrikaans, French, Hygiene, Botany, German and Greek.¹

"The new scheme", as it was called, produced by a Departmental committee of inspectors, and approved by the Executive Committee in 1932, came into operation in 1933. The three old classes of certificate were done away with and replaced by the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma awarded at a number of levels. As has already been noted, the professional element of the course was extended to two years, thus perhaps, more than redressing the academic/professional imbalance. Undoubtedly, however, this had the effect of allowing considerably more time for practical teaching. In addition, in the new diploma, only a provisional certificate was to be awarded on completion of the course, to students "during their first year of employment (serving) a probationary period before being appointed in a permanent capacity and obtaining an unconditional Diploma."²

An important innovation in the new scheme was introduced as a result of representations made by the Principals of the Normal Colleges. This was "the appointment of a Board of Examiners in connection with the training, examination and certification of teachers."³ Its functions were to

- (a) Recommend examiners;
- (b) Advise the Education Department in respect of syllabuses;
- (c) Be responsible for moderating examination papers;
- (d) Be responsible for the revision of answers to examination questions;
- (e) Advise the Education Department in respect of 'aegrotat' cases, supplementary examinations, etc."⁴

This was to be entirely a Departmental board with no representation from the universities which were an integral part in the training scheme. However, by the same token, it is doubtful whether the universities appointed representatives of outside teacher training interests to their

¹ Ibid: 1929: p.31; 1931: p.41.

² Ibid: 1932: p.21(vi).

³ Ibid: p.22 (2).

⁴ Ibid.

boards of the faculties of Arts and Science. Representation, apart from the Director or his representative as chairman, and one inspector of schools, was confined to the Principals and staffs of the Normal College, each College being represented by its Principal, and each of the major subjects being represented by one lecturer in that subject selected from all the Colleges.

This innovation is noteworthy in two respects:-

- (i) it represents something of a departure from the traditional concept of the Department as recruiter, trainer, certifier and employer of teachers. Although it was a departmental committee, the interests on it were almost entirely professional in the field of teacher education. This probably represented, in theory, at least, as objective a control of teacher education as one could achieve within the overall framework of provincial responsibility;
- (ii) it provides an interesting contrast with the Council of Examiners and its successor, the Teachers' Registration Board, in the Orange Free State. Both the composition of and the mandate to the Transvaal Board were more specific than in the latter case, but the Transvaal committee was more directly involved in teacher education.

The appointment of the Board of Examiners heralded a new approach to examinations in the Colleges, for, it was stated, "the teachers of the Training Institutions will, after the manner of the affiliated University Colleges of the University of South Africa, conduct their own internal examinations and, in return, act as external examiners to supervise and remain in touch with the work of their colleagues. This gives them a certain measure of autonomy and independence, a sensible use of which may be beneficial to their scientific and cultural development and justify the experiment being perpetuated."¹ This was perhaps the closest approach in South Africa to the interpretation of their function of examiners by the Institutes of Education in England and Wales in the decades of the 'fifties and 'sixties.

The basic principles contained in the new scheme in the Transvaal

¹ Ibid.

were endorsed by a conference on the training of teachers convened by the Minister of Education in September, 1933 and attended by representatives of all four provinces, by the universities and by representatives of teachers' associations. In particular as far as qualifications were concerned it recommended that there should be one common teaching diploma, awarded at various levels. It advocated that professional and academic studies should not be undertaken concurrently, and established that the minimum period of preparation for the award of the teacher's diploma should be three years, of which at least two years should be devoted to professional training. Matriculation or its equivalent was accepted as a pre-requisite for all primary school teacher training.¹

By the end of 1934 comments were beginning to be expressed on the courses for the new diploma. In that year the Normal College in Johannesburg stated that the students "appear to have gained in concentrated methodology and lost in width of vision, and in richness and variety of contact."² A year later comments were more numerous. Johannesburg observed that "observation of the working of the two schemes.....has only served to confirm the opinion.....that a liberal education in the atmosphere of a university should be the goal towards which teacher training should move..... However, it is neither desirable on educational grounds, nor practically possible, to make a sudden and complete change. Teacher training must move *pari passu* with the general progress of education in the country and supply the grades of teachers required for the different types of schools."³ Pretoria, on the other hand, rejected the suggestion that the new courses might be of a lower academic standard, noting that the minimum standard for admission to professional training was the possession of passes in five first-year university courses. This college proposed that students be allowed to take two additional university courses in the second year, thereby returning in modified form to the concept of the combined course whose administration had proved so difficult under the old scheme.

¹ Ibid: 1933: Report on the Conference on the Training of Teachers: 4th-7th September, 1933.

² Ibid: 1934: p.34.

³ Ibid: Report of the Principal, Johannesburg Normal College: p.137.

This division of opinion regarding courses among colleges within a single education authority raised a fundamental issue in teacher education, in fact, for education as a whole. Was uniformity necessary or desirable in an education authority, or should there be sufficient flexibility to permit of variety within a general framework? The situation had not arisen in the Orange Free State or Natal, with their single institutions. It was a basic problem in the two larger provinces. It was, incidentally, one of the issues which educationists feared in connection with centralised control of education by the Union Department of Education. Realising the danger of excessive uniformity imposed by rigid centralised control from Pretoria, an attempt was made in 1935 to permit the development of restricted regional flexibility.¹ This was to be done through the appointment of regional committees for each of the colleges linked with university institutions, i.e. Johannesburg, Potchefstroom, and Pretoria.²

Each Regional Committee was required to draw up a training scheme for its region. These schemes were implemented in Johannesburg and Potchefstroom in 1936, and in Pretoria in 1937. Some of the differences noted in the schemes were that Johannesburg and Pretoria only admitted B.A. and B.Sc. students, while Potchefstroom also included B. Comm. students; in Potchefstroom there was greater emphasis upon professional work in the second year than there was in Johannesburg; Pretoria only permitted four combinations of subjects in Arts, and four in Science, whereas elsewhere the choice was less restricted; in Pretoria, courses in the History of Education and Child Psychology were taught in the College, and passes in these subjects were recognised by the University for degree purposes, while minor differences in the methods and times of selection by students of three- or four-year courses were evident.³

1 "Ofskoon dit van belang is om 'n eenvormige standaard te handhaaf in verband met die uitreiking van sertifikate in die Provinsie, daar tog genoeg rekbaarheid moet wees om elke kollege toe te laat om op so 'n manier te ontwikkel dat volle voordeel getrek word uit plaaslike fasiliteite en dat aan plaaslike fasiliteite voldoen word." Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director, 1936: p.63.

2 For details of the composition of the Regional Committee see section 4(b) of this chapter.

3 Ibid:

There is no doubt that these Regional Committees have proved to be a successful innovation in the Transvaal system of teacher education bringing together both Colleges and the Universities. That they have endured up to the present is testimony to this. At the time it was said: "Dit het egter alreeds duidelik geword dat die kollege aansienlike voordeel sal trek uit die geleentheid wat aldus gegee word om in voeling te bly met meer uitgebreide menings oor sake rakende die opleiding van onderwysers..... Deur middel van die Streekkomitees het die onderwys-professie, die inspektoraat, en almal wat belang stel in die opleiding van onderwysers nou geleentheid om te sê wat hulle verlang voordat hulle eise klagtes word en om hul eie verantwoordelikheid te voel vir die opleiding."¹

One cannot but wonder whether the regional "joint advisory and co-ordinating committee for teachers' training"² proposed by the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 might not be modelled on the Regional Committees of the Transvaal. Furthermore the Director of Education in 1936 goes on to suggest that "dit sal ook blykbaar goed wees as 'n provinsiale streekkomitee bestaande uit verteenwoordigers van elke afsonderlike komitee ten minste eenmaal per jaar byeenkom met die doel om gedagtes met mekaar te wissel."³ This might perhaps constitute an embryo provincial teacher training committee for the co-ordination of teacher education in the 'seventies. This subject will be considered in greater detail in Part Four.

The new scheme thus outlined, together with the newly constituted regional committees applied in the main to the three colleges associated with universities in the Province. Heidelberg, which was remote from any university institution, and because the Department found it necessary to institute a Lower Diploma of two years' duration,⁴ was the obvious

¹ Ibid:

² Republic of South Africa: National Education Policy Amendment Bill: Para. 2, 1A, (2), p.4: Act 73 of 1969.

³ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director, 1936: p.67.

⁴ "Die kursus is uitsluitlik professioneel van aard, en word beperk tot die professionele vakke van die diploma kursus, maar aangesien meer nadruk gelê word op die praktiese opleiding van die onderwysers, as op onderliggende beginsels, word sekere dele van die sillabus weggelaat": Ibid: p.66.

centre for the new development. That this was seen as an inferior qualification was demonstrated by the fact that the requirements to convert this to the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma consisted of five years teaching experience as well as a further year of professional or academic training to be spent at Heidelberg. The first students were admitted to the course in 1937, but it was 1940 before the Principal was able to report that this lower level of certification was finding favour among students. By this stage other factors, such as a rapidly developing shortage of teachers, had arisen which made the two-year training for the Transvaal Teacher's Lower Diploma more acceptable.

By the outbreak of the second World War, the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma was well established in its various levels. The only major change made during the war years was referred to in the previous section. This permitted a student to undertake a three-year course of training comprising a two-year general professional course followed by a one-year course of specialist training. This took place in 1943, and meant that the academic course was then no longer obligatory, resulting in the 'combined' course gradually falling away in the post-war years. Specialist courses offered in Johannesburg included Junior, or infant work, Art and Craft and Physical Education, while the last two of these were also offered at Potchefstroom. Librarianship and Music were included in the Johannesburg courses in 1945 while Pretoria provided courses in Art and Craft, Infant Teaching, Physical Education and Domestic Science.

This situation presupposed that, in the secondary school of the post-war world, academically-biassed teachers were not the only ones who would be required. New teachers were needed for the rapidly expanding secondary schools and the import of this was already being felt by the colleges of education.

(d) The Supply of Teachers to Developing Schools:

Starting from the situation in 1910 of an establishment in which the majority of vacancies were for unqualified teachers,¹ the demand for

¹ Ibid: 1910: pp.51,52. The majority of posts available were for Grade D Teachers, the qualification for which was "the possession of a Provisional Certificate of the Transvaal Education Dept." (Ibid: 1906: p.182) which in turn meant that he was over 17 years of age and had satisfied the admission standards for a Normal College.

the products of the normal colleges and universities grew rapidly. In 1911, however, qualified teachers were being appointed to schools as supernumerary assistants. At the same time the Department was endeavouring to recruit specialist teachers for primary classes in manual training, cookery, infant work and physical culture. An approach was made to the Board of Education in an endeavour to obtain the names of teachers of these subjects who were prepared to emigrate to South Africa.¹

Two years later, in 1913, the situation was one of shortage and due to the fact that there had been 311 resignations in that year, there were 100 vacant posts at the end of the year. It was a dispiriting situation: "It is beyond question that the qualifications of our recruits are getting lower rather than higher, and it is very doubtful whether, in many cases, we are getting full value for money expended. The final and effective remedy will have been found when teaching ceases to be the cinderella among the professions and not before."²

The following table gives an idea of the source of teachers, as well as the level of their academic qualifications, who were recruited for service in Transvaal schools from 1911 to 1929:-

Table 9 : Recruitment of teachers by the Transvaal Education Department : 1911-1929³

Year	Sex		Total	Source			Academic qualifications					Professional	
	M	F		Tvl	Cape	Other	Tech Qual	De- gree	Inter- mediate	Matric	Less than Matric	Cert	Un- cert
1911	244	337	581	454	63	32	22	28	102	401	28	310	271
1913	206	360	566	447	75	44	24	27	70	339	106	216	350
1915	170	333	503	378	95	30	6	25	38	292	142	202	301
1917	289	526	815	674	101	40	12	40	31	425	307	232	583
1919	357	662	1019	862	113	44	8	53	28	535	395	293	726
1921	493	604	1097	670	303	124	32	107	94	593	271	305	702
1923	291	314	605	473	93	39	11	111	77	388	18	338	267
1925	244	322	566	455	79	32	18	83	112	338	15	392	174
1927	222	465	687	651	28	8	22	89	122	395	59	504	183
1929	229	482	711	638	54	19	6	108	145	336	116	561	150

¹ Ibid: 1911.

² Ibid: 1913.

³ Constructed from statistics contained in relevant Annual Reports.

These statistics are of considerable interest for they reveal the growth of the school system in direct relation to the economic situation of the Province, and, consequently, show the growth of the local teacher education system against a declining volume of recruits coming from outside the Province, and a steadily declining number of uncertificated teachers being employed. The following points should be noted specifically:-

- (i) the variation in the total numbers of teachers recruited with a maximum in 1921, followed by a falling off until 1925 preceding a second minor maximum before the impact of the main depression period of the early 'thirties;
- (ii) the gradual development of a preponderance of female teachers throughout the whole period;
- (iii) the importance of the Cape Province as a source of supply of trained teachers. The phenomenal fall in recruitment from 1921 to 1923 helps to explain the difficulties that this province found itself in with regard to over-supply;
- (iv) a similar dropping off, though not so marked, affects teachers recruited from elsewhere;
- (v) the quadrupling of the output of graduate teachers from 1911 to 1929;
- (vi) a maximum supply of teachers with matriculation as their level of academic attainment in 1921. Although there was a falling-off after this, one must assume from the evidence of the final column that more and more of these teachers had received professional training;
- (vii) the falling away in the recruiting of uncertificated teachers from approximately 70% in 1919 to about 24% in 1929. This may also be attributed in large measure to the effect of economic depression.

Both the statistics given above, and the annual reports of the Director of Education reveal that 1920 was a year in which the continuance of the schools at a satisfactory level of professional competence was in some doubt. Adamson had devoted serious thought to the subject in 1917. He noted that "up to the present no extension of normal college facilities has been justified for the simple but sufficient reason that we have not had as many candidates as could be taken in the three existing colleges."¹

¹ Ibid: 1917: p.54.

With an indication of an increase in the number of candidates coming forward, the problem was to decide on the order of expansion which should be undertaken. "The average number recruited in these (last) three years is 703. The first question is whether we shall continued to need so many. The next is whether we shall continue to have an external supply to draw upon. The answer to both these questions appears to be in the affirmative."¹ Accordingly it was planned that "an annual output of four hundred from the normal colleges could be absorbed"², and on this basis the new centres at Potchefstroom and Ermelo were opened.

With the advantage of our knowledge of modern history, Adamson may be blamed for not anticipating economic depression as an aftermath of war. No one had had experience of an upheaval on so massive a scale, and of the chain reaction of economic effects which were felt on a global basis. Fortuitously, perhaps, the signal result of Adamson's failure to appreciate the situation, was to increase the output of teachers at a period when the expansion of schools had to be cut back, and, therefore, to reduce the percentage of unqualified teachers in the employ of the Department more rapidly than might otherwise have proved possible.

Adjustment to the preliminary economic depression of the 'twenties was satisfactorily accomplished by controlling the number of 'foreign' appointments to the teaching service without blighting the development of normal colleges. It is true that the Normal College at Ermelo had to be closed for financial reasons in 1924. This was done, however, in the interests of economy arising from concentration of effort. The enrolment of colleges was not reduced, the additional students merely being transferred to Heidelberg. It was reported in 1925 that 757 students were in training and thus Adamson's target of an annual output of 400 teachers was being approached. At the same time it was recorded that it was unnecessary to restrict admissions to normal college courses.

It was in the early 1930's, however, that the main effects of the second and more serious phase of the economic depression were felt. The safety measures of curtailment of recruiting from outside the province, and of retrenchment of unqualified teaching staff, had largely been exhausted. By 1932 the question of redundant teachers had become a

1 Ibid.

2 Ibid.

serious problem. The following reasons were given for the seriousness of the situation: "staff reductions in high schools, the closing and centralisation of rural schools and the restriction of leave"¹ which were all measures of economy reflecting the general state of affairs in the Province, in the country, and throughout the world. It was also pointed out that there was a substantial decline in the wastage of teachers for, "owing to financial stringency, voluntary resignations practically ceased, and.....marriages of female teachers were often postponed until better times."² At the same time the numbers of appointments dropped markedly from 796 in 1928 to 366 in 1932.³ The main conclusion reached was, however, that "during previous years a saturation point has been reached in respect of supply and demand andthis made itself more felt in times of economic stringency and..... no timely measures were taken to restrict the recruiting."⁴

The "new scheme" of training, referred to in both the previous sections of this review of the Transvaal teacher education system, must now be seen in the light of over-supply and redundancy of teachers. It is this situation that made possible the extension of the minimum period of training for the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma from two to three years. The temporary nature of the situation of over-supply may be judged from the decision to re-introduce two year training for the Teacher's Lower Diploma at the Heidelberg College of Education in 1936, the first students being admitted in 1937.⁵ It must be recorded that to cope with the redundancy reported on in 1932 the Provincial Executive Committee resolved to restrict the admission of students to normal colleges, while warning was given to the university authorities that if they were "not prepared to consider.....measures for limiting the number of teachers.....the

1 Ibid: 1932: p.16.

2 Ibid: p.18. The numbers of teachers lost to the service including those through retirement and marriage dropped from 600 in 1929 to 468 in 1932.

3 Ibid: statistical table: p.17.

4 Ibid: p.18.

5 Ibid: 1926: p.66: "Daar is 'n ernstige tekort aan onderwysers, 'n tekort wat gedeeltelik veroorsaak is deur die beperking van die aantal studente wat in 1933 tot die opleidingskolleges toegelaat is."

Education Department.....will be forced, in the interests of the teaching profession, to protect the teachers trained in its own institutions."¹
 Apart from this, the flow of teachers from other provinces was practically stopped.

Fortunately this doldrum did not last overlong, and it is reported that in 1934 the quota system imposed on the normal colleges in 1932 was relaxed and in 1935 it was reported that there was a shortage of teachers once again. The temporary nature of the fluctuation in supply and demand in response to economic conditions reflects the need for sound planning in the organisation of teacher education. The imposition of ad hoc arbitrary restrictions on supply is not to be undertaken lightly for the full effects are only felt fully in the medium term while some effects are only felt in the very long term.

Suffice it to say that the condition of general over-supply of teachers has not been experienced again in the Transvaal since the mid-'thirties. The war years started a marked movement of population to the Southern Transvaal, and the economic development since the war has maintained a population growth rate with which it has been difficult for the education authorities to cope. The exceptional increase in the numbers of pupils enrolled in schools in Pretoria and the Witwatersrand can be seen in the accompanying table:-

Table 10 : School enrolments : Pretoria and Witwatersrand 1941-1944²

Centre/Year	1941	1942	1943	1944
Pretoria	12,763	13,736	13,940	16,479
Witwatersrand	56,287	59,104	59,791	65,233

This gives a school population growth of 33% in Pretoria, and 16% on the Witwatersrand in a four-year period, with 374 teachers released by the Education Department for active service with the armed forces in 1944.

To counterbalance the situation the recruitment of candidates for teacher training at the Johannesburg College of Education was declining

¹ Ibid: 1932: p.19.

² Ibid: 1944: statistical tables.

alarmingly.

Table 11 : Enrolment of first year students : Johannesburg College of Education, 1937-1944¹

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944
Male	104	84	89	95	82	70	50	56
Female	34	26	25	39	19	22	28	12
Total	138	110	114	134	101	92	78	68

It was obvious that the post-war era in the Transvaal was to be one of growing teacher shortage and more especially of English-medium teachers.

(e) Developing trends in the pattern of education in the Transvaal, and their implications for post-war teacher education:

Two of the trends have been noted in the previous section, viz. the growing concentration of population in the Witwatersrand-Pretoria conurbation, and the trend away from teaching as a career. The seriousness of the situation among the English-speaking community has been commented upon, but successive annual reports during the war period testify to the lack of suitable candidates in the Afrikaans-medium colleges, notably in Pretoria.² It was obvious that the trend noted in the Orange Free State was confirmed in the Transvaal, and that, in the post-war era, it was going to be necessary to attract many more suitable recruits to the profession, and, either, to expand the existing colleges considerably, or to establish additional ones in suitable centres to provide for their training.

The third education trend which was becoming increasingly important by the end of the 'thirties was the growing importance of the secondary school. This trend has been noted in regard to developments in the Cape Province and Natal, while the Union Education Department's

¹ Ibid.

² Statistics for the Pretoria College of Education reveal that in 1943 out of 238 applicants, 107 students were admitted, in 1944 the numbers were 259 and 117 respectively, and in 1945 176 and 90.

concern for the need to provide a differentiated system of secondary education to meet the needs of the adolescent in the modern world have also been recorded.

In the Transvaal concern over the necessity for more and longer secondary education had been voiced at regular intervals. As early as 1917 the Malherbe Commission had urged that the upper age limit for compulsory education should be fixed at 16 years without the alternative of a level of education attained. The Report also stressed that the primary school should terminate at the end of Standard V. The Commission obviously foresaw a considerable expansion in the lower three forms of the Transvaal secondary school.¹ "The provincial authorities decided, against the recommendation of the Director and of the Education Commission.....to establish 22 intermediate schools on a centralised basis on the Witwatersrand and in Pretoria. These schools were intended at first to serve those pupils who wanted one or two years of post-primary education. The range of subjects was more limited than that of the academic high schools, subjects like woodwork and domestic science receiving more emphasis."²

The development of these schools was slow and a proposal to institute a form of secondary education, rather than post-primary education for all was made by the Education Commission of 1928. This investigation recommended that "the existing curriculum be re-organised in such a manner that an efficient course, and one suited to the needs of the people be provided up to and inclusive of Standard VIII. At this stage a test is to be instituted which shall be recognised as the final examination for national education..... After completion of Standard VIII the pupil shall have a choice between either:-

- (a) a two-years course aiming at vocational education followed by an internal final test, or
- (b) a two- or three-years course aiming at admission to university, followed by a final test partially under external control."³

Thus the intermediate schools gave way to the junior high schools with a

¹ Transvaal: Report of the Education Commission, 1917: reported 1919: (H.L. Malherbe, Chairman).

² Behr and MacMillan: Education in South Africa: pp.132,133.

³ Transvaal: Report of the Education Commission, 1928: Abstract from the Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1939: p.12.

developing concept of two-tier differentiated secondary education. The decision in 1930 to establish an optional third year course for holders of the Primary School Certificate, and through which students could obtain endorsements of academic subjects studied with a view to teaching them in the Standards VI, VII and VIII now becomes clear.¹

A comprehensive review of the Transvaal educational system was undertaken by the Provincial Education Commission (Nicol Commission) which was appointed in 1937 and reported in 1939. At secondary school level, the Commission recommended a bipartite organisation commencing at the beginning of Standard VI. The parent was to decide whether his child was to go to a junior high school, which would provide a three-year course for children not going to matriculation, or to a high school which would be predominantly academic and which would provide a five-year course preparatory to university entrance.² The Commission recommended as a necessary pre-requisite to the introduction of differentiated secondary education that control of vocational, technical and commercial education at secondary level should be returned to the provinces.

With regard to compulsory attendance, the Nicol Commission repeated the injunction of the Malherbe Commission. The upper limit should be sixteen years, with no alternative standard of attainment to be prescribed.

With regard to the training of teachers, the Commission endorsed in general the provincial policy as expressed by 'the new scheme' of 1932. It recommended that college enrolments be increased to provide for an annual output of 450, but, mindful of recent problems, advocated that quotas must be balanced to take account of prosperity and depression.

The Nicol Report, in making a very good survey of education in the Transvaal as well as making basically sound recommendations for its improvement in the light of educational thinking, both in South Africa and the United Kingdom at the time, contained a fundamental weakness.

¹ See section 4(c) of this Chapter.

² In order to facilitate transfer between the two types of secondary school it was recommended that common syllabuses should be followed as far as possible in the first year.

³ Transvaal: Report of the Provincial Education Commission, 1939: Abstract from the Annual Report of the Director, 1939: pp.12-20.

This was not confined to the Nicol Report, but was a common feature of the times.

A relic of the Victorian era persisted in the thinking, particularly among educational administrators almost until the mid-'twentieth century. Certainly it was only about this time that the omission was rectified. Education was considered as comprising primary, secondary and tertiary levels, with the matter of the provision of satisfactorily trained teachers for the first and second of these levels as existing in a vague and rather formless way somewhere between the upper two. Teacher education was, in general, something which did not exist in its own right, but rather as an appendage of the school system.

The Nicol Commission undeniably gave some attention to the matter of teacher education. This attention, however, was not commensurate with the task which faced the colleges and the universities in the Transvaal in the production of new types of teachers for the developing system of secondary education which the Nicol Report favoured, and which grew over the next fourteen years.

5. Conclusions:

The period from 1910 to 1945 saw enormous strides made in the development of teacher education in the Union of South Africa. From a situation in which four separate systems of education, under independent governmental control, administered schools in which the majority of children completed only the primary standards, under the control of a body of teachers, the majority of whom were either untrained, or had been exposed only to the pupil-teacher system of training, there grew up, still with very loose links between them, four provincial systems of education in which secondary schooling was provided for a growing proportion by teachers academically and professionally prepared at a post-secondary level in a nation-wide system of universities and colleges.

Undoubtedly the emphasis was upon provincial autonomy and separation, but within the period, each education authority had faced similar problems and had sought to solve them in its own way. As the standard of entry to teacher training was progressively raised to matriculation, so the old system of three classes of certificate in each province had to be reviewed. Each province substituted its own new higher level of certificates and diplomas, the majority roughly equatable at various levels, but each having its own variations and local stamp.

Thus the pattern of certification steadily grew more complex.

In each province, Departments of Education, colleges and universities were all concerned with the preparation of teachers. The relations between them differed in each province, from amalgamation in the Orange Free State to separation but overlapping in the Cape Province. In Natal the tendency was towards greater co-operation with the university while in the Transvaal the centre of gravity in the non-graduate courses was moving away from combined courses towards college-based courses with specialist options.

With rising standards of entry to training college courses, as well as with the demand for more and better education in the schools, professional courses were extended from one to two years. Academic 'endorsement' and specialist courses were offered on an optional basis occupying a further year. Three years was being recommended as the minimum period for initial training. Over-supply had been followed by increasingly serious shortage at the end of the 'thirties, and thus it was impossible to make obligatory the third year of preparation. Courses, therefore, developed the dual structured feature which was common in courses in the United Kingdom. Indeed, more than another two decades were to elapse before three-year training became universal in South Africa.

Important and fundamental problems, co-ordination between authorities, as well as between institutions, the production of ever-increasing numbers of teachers for new patterns of secondary schools, and an inadequate supply of suitable recruits in the face of economic growth and the shortage of high level manpower together with complexities and increasing difficulties caused by dual control of education, were among the legacies handed on to the post-war era.

Chapter Five: The Post-War Era : 1945-1960 : the implications for
Teacher Education of Secondary Education for all

1. The Educational Premises on which the new era began:

The evidence of the last two chapters has pointed in the direction of an expansion of educational services, particularly at the secondary school level, in all four provinces in the period following the Second World War. This movement was not sudden, nor was it surprising, nor was it restricted to South Africa. The two world war periods were both characterised by movements of humanitarian as well as egalitarian character. In France a movement to extend and to liberalise the education system was born in the trenches in the Great War; the Algiers and the Langevin-Wallon Reforms of the later war were, in part, a manifestation of the same principle. In England, a similar attitude which influenced H.A.L. Fisher in the preparation of the bill which became the Education Act of 1918, was stifled out of existence by the financial stringency imposed by administrators in the early 'twenties. It came to the fore again in the second war and resulted in the Education Act of 1944 introduced by R.A. Butler.

Between these two wars, however, a sociological revolution had taken place in the western world resulting in a demand that the situation which had obtained then should not be allowed to continue. The depression years of the 'twenties and 'thirties had brought about a realisation that the nature of society had changed. Industrialisation and urbanisation, together with unemployment resulting from over-production, brought with them the acceptance that mankind as a whole required to be better educated in order to be absorbed into and to make a contribution to an infinitely more complex society than the old one had been. A mere extension of primary education had been tried and rejected. Hadow in 1926 stressed the necessity for the education of the adolescent, Spens followed it up a decade later by indicating the nature of syllabuses and curricula which should be followed in this extended education at secondary level, while Norwood suggested that education at this level required to be differentiated to provide most satisfactorily for the three broad human types to be recognised in the schools of England.

We have noted a parallel situation in South Africa with the provincial education authorities in the Cape Province, Natal, and the

Transvaal, all, through the media of annual reports, and reports of provincial education commissions, testifying to the need to raise the upper limit of compulsory education and to provide new forms of secondary education suited to the needs of the pupils and of society in which they were to take their places.

"The acceptance of education as a basic human right has had aprofound effect upon educational policy. Not for the first time was this belief proclaimed, but it gained force, and in many countries became one of the benefits promised to the masses in a post-war world in which imperialism was to be banished and all human rights respected."¹ This problem of the expansion of education has been complicated by the fact of a post-war explosion of population which replaced a declining birth rate in most Western countries during the years of economic depression of the 'thirties. This in turn has resulted in the fact that, with the greater attraction of other occupations in the industrially and commercially expanding post-war world, there has been a disproportionate reduction in the size of the group of potential teachers.

The problem, therefore, is not only the recruitment and training of more teachers for operation at levels demanded by the new schools, but to devise methods for the training of whom would enable them to handle more effectively greater numbers of pupils than they were called upon to teach in the past.

In the Western world, including the white group in South Africa, universal primary education had long since been achieved. The need was clearly recognised to be for more education for the adolescent. It was equally clearly realised that not all adolescents required the same type of education. Further it was recognised that the best interests of pupils would not be served by introducing vocational education at too early an age. At the same time, the traditional secondary school curriculum of the past had been an academic one designed to fit pupils for higher studies at the university. This type of curriculum had, therefore, achieved wide recognition by society as the only really desirable form of secondary education for the modern child. This had in turn complicated the task of educationists in designing curricula suited to the needs of pupils.

¹ Holmes, B.: Organisation of Teacher Training: Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.121.

This tendency is marked today in the United Kingdom; success is measured in terms of having one's children admitted to grammar rather than secondary modern schools, or being included in the academic classes or sets in comprehensive schools. Pressures of this sort are very much more apparent in the society of Africa, where parents are constantly pushing their children to achieve better grades than their fellows across a racial division; or in South Africa, where numerous avenues of employment open to slower learners in other countries, are closed to members of the white group. Any treatment of sociological or political factors arising from this situation are beyond the scope of this study. It is sufficient to say that the difficult task of acceptable curriculum development in the Western world is made infinitely more difficult in South Africa.

With regard to the upper limit of compulsory education it was generally conceded that this should be raised to fifteen or sixteen years to allow a minimum of three years post-primary education which should not be merely an extension of the primary school, but should be suited to the needs of the adolescent. It was commonly held that provision of education other than higher should be made on a part-time basis up to the age of about eighteen years.

The organisational pattern of the new secondary school has occupied much attention. Two basic types of organisation have emerged. The first is a full age range school providing about five or six years of secondary education of a comprehensive nature, either separating out into a number of streams after a common initial curriculum, or more fully comprehensive like the more progressive high schools of the United States, where pupils are able to elect their courses from a broad curriculum offering. The second type of organisation is the division of secondary education into a two-tier structure made up of a basic common course with a wide range of subjects for three years to the end of compulsory schooling, followed by differentiated general or vocationally-biased courses for those continuing their studies. This would provide, among others, for academic, technical, commercial and general interests.

The arguments as to the relative advantages and disadvantages of the various types of organisation and the final form of the modern secondary school are still far from settled. The truly comprehensive

school is yet to be established, but the indications are present as to its size, the nature of its curriculum offerings and the types of teachers which it requires.

It is this last point which is of particular relevance for the present study. With a traditional academic curriculum for an elite of pupils, there was no difficulty in postulating the type of teacher required. This was the professionally trained graduate teacher who was generally a subject specialist who concentrated his energies on the preparation of his pupils to follow the various academic disciplines to a more advanced level in the universities. This was the basis of the division in the teaching profession into graduate secondary and non-graduate primary teachers.

There is no doubt that in the new secondary schools the former occupies a most important place. Other classes of teacher are also necessary, however. Firstly, there is the junior secondary teacher who must be able to handle a range of subjects in the first three years of the secondary school. His knowledge requires to be reasonably extensive in the subjects he is handling and he must be an enthusiast in these subjects himself in order to inspire his pupils with an interest in them. Secondly, there is the need for the specialist in pre-vocational subjects who will be able to implant in his pupils a desire to follow the particular subject through to its implementation at a higher stage in vocational training. The woodwork, metalwork, technical drawing, domestic science and commercial teachers are included in this category. Thirdly, there is the general teacher who is particularly concerned with his pupils as members of modern society, and whose interest lie in the social sciences like history and geography not so much as academic ends in themselves, but rather as means to social integration and participation. Fourthly, there is the teacher who is concerned with cultural activities such as music, art, and craft including needlework. Fifthly, there is the teacher who is concerned with the physical development and well-being of the pupil, the physical educationist. Finally, and increasingly important as secondary differentiation and vocational opportunity both become increasingly complex, there is growing need for the class of teacher who is able on the basis of sound psychological training and study of adolescent development, to offer guidance not only to pupils but to parents and,

indeed, to professional colleagues who are not always able to recommend the best course for particular individuals to follow.¹

The post-war secondary school, then, has ceased to be what it was - a preparatory training for entry to higher education. It is a complex institution with differing aims to be realised by different means for the whole spectrum of human ability by professional persons of widely differing interests and training all having one basic goal, the maximum development of the individual in terms of his particular talents and interests.

The explosion of numbers particularly in the secondary school has created a world-wide demand for more teachers. This demand is complicated by the second explosion - that of knowledge. "The degree to which this explosion of knowledge finds practical expression in a society will help to determine the kind of teachers in greatest demand. In the economically advanced countries, further economic progress is thought to depend on the production of more and more scientists and technologists. Certainly there is felt to be an acute shortage of teachers in the natural sciences and mathematics..... At present too few practising teachers are able either to contribute to the production of scientists and technologists or to interpret for their pupils - at least in understandable terms - the modern world. Indeed, it might be argued that without an adequate background in the natural sciences no teacher is able to make much sense of this world. Any policy designed to furnish enough teachers regardless of the adequacy of their scientific background seems fraught with long term dangers."²

More teachers, new classes of secondary teachers, with due regard to the demands of developing technological societies, all mean complications in teacher education. Where and how are these various classes of teachers to be trained in sufficient numbers?

2. The Training of Teachers to meet the requirements of the new age:

This can perhaps best be summarised in point form:-

¹ It may be argued that this list ignores, in particular, the teachers of communication skills in languages and mathematics. These are regarded as being grouped in the first two classes of teacher.

² Holmes, B.: op cit., p.123.

- (a) Teachers must, in general, be trained differently in order to bring out the individual talents of the children they teach. This applies to all teachers at whatever level they operate, from the infant school to the university. They must be able to extend pupils both in class groups and as individuals. They must, therefore, be well-balanced and well-educated people, and not merely narrow subject specialists.
- (b) All teachers must be well grounded in psychology and in child development studies. These studies require a sound integration of theory and practice.
- (c) Not all teachers for the secondary school require the same training, although there are common elements in the curriculum of all secondary teacher training courses, just as there are in training courses for primary and secondary teachers. Association of students in training is valuable for it emphasises the unity of the educational process unaffected by the divisions in the schools at first and second levels of education. Also it assists in the breaking down of the divisions existing between primary and secondary, and graduate and non-graduate teachers.
- (d) There should, therefore, be a co-ordination of courses of academic, general professional and specialist professional types. The people who teach in these areas should have frequent opportunity for contact to discuss and to experience common problems, whether they be academic, professional or concerning the progress of individual students.
- (e) This involves the coming together of all institutions concerned in the education of teachers, either on a unitary or federal basis. It means the development of new relationships between institution and institution, between institution and controlling authority and between controlling authorities themselves.
- (f) The universities must be closely involved in the process, particularly on account of the knowledge explosion. They must not, however, see their own methods and techniques, their own means and ends as being the only ones suitable for the preparation of teachers for a rapidly changing school environment.
- (g) Colleges of education must be involved because of their practical professional expertise. Again, they must not seek to overload

- courses with practical training at the expense of theoretical and academic considerations.
- (h) Technical institutes must also play their part in the preparation of vocational specialists. Again, care must be exercised to ensure that this preparation is not overweighted vis-a-vis other important aspects. It is necessary to guard against purely vocational trade training in the preparation of these specialists. A craft approach at a pre-vocational level is much more appropriate, while the overall development of the pupil as a human being must never be lost sight of.
 - (i) Particularly in the preparation of teachers for the secondary school, it must be emphasised that no institution can have an absolute monopoly of expertise. Each must participate contributing its strengths while acknowledging the strengths of others and allowing them to take part, where appropriate according to the organisational pattern, in consultation or teaching.
 - (j) With the population explosion larger numbers of teachers must be trained in a steadily increasing number of specialist rôles. Institutions must expand considerably and become larger and more economic educational units, capable of offering diversified courses. Educational methodology and technology has an important rôle to play in this regard.
 - (k) With the explosion of knowledge involving both content and technique all institutions must expect to play a vastly increased part in vacation, refresher and in-term courses for teachers in service.
 - (l) The organisational pattern for such a training system cannot be rigidly prescribed, but must be developed according to the requirements of particular systems. One point is fundamental: all interests must be brought into closer contact, and to do so there must be a considerable fund of goodwill at all levels, professional, academic and administrative.

3. The Particular Problems of Teacher Education in South Africa:

In addition to the general premises regarding education in the post-war world, South Africa was faced with particular problems which aggravated rather than assisted the path towards co-ordinated and

rationalised amendment of educational, and especially teacher-educational, policy.

The first of these was the problem which has been stressed in the previous two chapters - provincialism and relations with the central government. Five systems of teacher education were in operation in support of five systems of education, all basically similar, but each distinguished by particular variations, many of which were rooted in a past which extended back to a period before the formation of Union. In addition, all were suspicious of any centralised authority which sought to reduce the powers of provincial governments. Thus, immediately after the war, any prospect of concerted action initiated by the central government for the rationalisation of teacher education in the interests of producing new types of teachers for rapidly evolving schools, was not likely to meet with enthusiastic support.

The second factor, which was allied with the first, was the matter of the constitutional division of control of education, particularly at secondary level. The difficulties of the interpretation of the phrase 'other than higher' in the South Africa Act has been examined in some detail; equally, the Union Education Department's assumption of control of vocational education, with the motives therefor have been recorded. Both factors were unresolved in the post-war period, with the result that it became increasingly difficult, if not impossible, to apply a policy in secondary education, which all authorities both provincial and central, acknowledged as being the correct one. The expansion of educational offerings in the secondary schools, whether schools themselves were to be differentiated, or have differentiated streams within them, or to become comprehensive with a range of optional subjects built round a common core curriculum, was narrowly circumscribed. The provincial schools were unable to develop vocationally-biassed subjects on any but the most restricted scale, while the technical and commercial schools had a corresponding difficulty in extending their range of academic offerings.

The third factor was a general one, but was present in increased form in South Africa. This was the predeliction of white society for an academic education, culminating in a formal traditional examination largely of academic subjects and marking the end of secondary schooling and all formal education for a considerable proportion of the population.

This terminal examination, which in the post-war period was increasingly undertaken by provincial education authorities, with the examination and performance of potential university entrants scrutinised by the Joint Matriculation Board, was for a long time popularly referred to as 'matriculation', the unconscious emphasis being on the fact that academic distinction was a necessary passport to the adult world. The fact that it was more necessary in South African society than abroad has already been noted.

A fourth problem was also one which has been mentioned previously as a general factor influencing the supply of suitable recruits to the teaching profession in developing industrial and technological societies. Again, the situation of South African society has aggravated the problem in this country. The Second World War had a most important effect on South Africa in stimulating the growth of secondary industry. With this came an increased rate of commercial expansion, and with both came a greater demand for high level manpower, and increased employment opportunities under advantageous conditions for persons who in the pre-war world, particularly during the depression years, would almost automatically have entered the teaching profession. The aggravation resulted from the fact that the white group has been called upon to provide leadership for emergent non-white racial groups in the country. This problem in terms of teacher education, then, became dual, involving both quantity and quality.

A further result of growth in South Africa, was that institutions which had tended to provide for both Afrikaans- and English-speaking pupils and students increasingly became single medium foundations, resulting in the preservation of sectional identities rather than the deliberate encouragement of a common nationalism. The Pretoria Normal College became an Afrikaans-medium institution in the early 'thirties. The Durban Teachers' Training College followed suit in 1970 when a new English-medium college took over the English-speaking students from the former. The effects of this separation have been less evident in the last decade, but it is still a factor which has inhibited the rational development of teacher education in South Africa.

The final problem which has had an important effect on the post-war development of education in South Africa is the ever present geographical one. Malherbe commented on it in his attempt at a rationalised pattern of teacher education in 1923. Again the effect

of it was heightened as a result of the war. The consequential economic development meant an acceleration of the process of urbanisation which is a feature of every country which has undergone an industrial revolution. Population becomes increasingly concentrated in industrial complexes and at nodal points along communications systems. The rural community becomes smaller. Thus, the educational administrator has to provide schools for both scattered rural areas, as well as for high density urban centres. Schools must range from large to small. Teachers in rural communities must of necessity be general practitioners in comparison with their colleagues in city schools, who are able to specialise to a much greater degree. This problem reflects back directly on the nature of the training the student is to receive. This is a factor that has been recorded in annual reports from all four provinces almost since 1910. It is today an ever present problem in secondary schools throughout the nation.

4. Vocational Education: the Central Problem in the development of systems of secondary education:

As recorded in Chapter Six a commission to enquire into technical and vocational education in the Union was appointed in 1945. Its terms of reference were wide and included special reference "to the parts that should be played by the Union and Provincial Education Departments."¹ The report of the Commission (the de Villiers Commission) was presented in 1948. "The Commission offered very strong criticism of the serious overlapping, duplicating and unhealthy competition which existed between the central government and provincial departments of education, especially after the establishment of the junior high schools in the Transvaal in 1938."²

The Commission proposed that a separate junior high school which would provide "three years post-primary general differentiated education"³ for all pupils between the ages of 12 and 15 years, and preceding vocational education as such, which was to be extended on a non-fee

¹ Union Government: Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education: 1948: U.G.: 65 of 1948.

² Behr and MacMillan: Education in South Africa: p.188.

³ Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education, op cit.

paying basis up to the end of eighteen years. The Commission advocated the setting up of a national council for education by Act of Parliament in order to provide co-ordination of the various educational services.¹ It was emphatic, however, that "the provinces should continue to administer all primary and secondary education,....and the Central government all vocational education."²

Thus commenced the process of unscrambling the secondary education egg which led through the Vocational Education Act of 1955, through the National Advisory Education Council Act of 1962, and the three acts for implementation and the co-ordination of a national education policy in 1967.³ The ideal of the comprehensive secondary school is now attainable, but has to be put into practice. The pattern of teacher education remains complex⁴ and its simplification and rationalisation depends on the implementation of the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 in the decade of the 'seventies.

1 Department of Education, Arts and Science: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 1951: p.6.

2 Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.176.

3 Republic of South Africa: Acts No. 39, 40 and 41 of 1967.

4 Teachers of vocational subjects are trained both in the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education and in provincial colleges of education. There is minimal professional consultation with regard to the courses and methods followed in the various institutions.

Chapter Six: The Evolution of Provincial Systems of Teacher Education : development up to the 'Sixties

1. Introduction:

As has already been stressed, one of the areas of education most clearly marked out for dramatic expansion in the post-war Western world was the secondary school. Primary education was universal; more education of varying type was required for the adolescent entrants to an increasingly industrialised technological world in which urbanisation was steadily developing. What forms this secondary education was to take has produced one of the most widespread educational debates of the century - there is no agreement except that it shall be diversified and that it shall provide equality of educational opportunity for all. In England the debate has centred round differentiated schools, bi- or multi-lateral schools, or comprehensive schools. South Africa had already tried differentiated schools and had found their development problematical; in addition to which there was the problem of rural areas which would find the support of differentiated schools from the points of view of enrolment, staffing and finance difficult, if not impossible to maintain.

It is natural, therefore, that provincial education authorities, in the face of a constitutionally sanctioned differentiation, would tend to favour developing a single secondary school based either upon multi-lateral or comprehensive principles, while striving for as diverse a curriculum as was permitted to them constitutionally, or was found to be acceptable by a society favouring academic traditionalism. An alternative pattern which emerged in the Transvaal under the influence of the Nicol Report of 1939 was of a comprehensive junior high school, followed by a differentiated senior high school course which might or might not be offered in differentiated schools.

In general, the provincial patterns may for the sake of convenience, be arranged in two groups with the first representing the Transvaal and Natal through differentiated courses offered on a multi-lateral basis in common schools. The second, representing the Cape Province and the Orange Free State, where the 'comprehensive' curriculum is built round a common "compulsory core absorbing over 50% of the school week"¹, the pupils having a reasonable choice of elective subjects.

¹ Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.152.

"The course endeavours to ensure a good education whilst allowing for individual differences and future development."¹

It is necessary to look briefly at the development of the systems inherent in these two groupings before examining their implications for teacher education.

2. Differentiated, Multi-lateral or 'Streamed' Systems of Education:

(a) Transvaal:

The establishment of a bipartite system of secondary schools in the Transvaal as a result of the Nicol Commission recommendations in 1939 has already been described. Following upon the de Villiers Report on technical and vocational education in 1948, a further commission was appointed in the Transvaal to study the implications of this report for the province. Relevant to the present study are the recommendations that every European child should receive secondary education for at least three years, and that provincial schools doing work at secondary level should become full-range high schools.² It was also recommended that an investigation to be undertaken into developments in secondary education overseas.³

These recommendations resulted in the first major revision of secondary school policy in the post-war era. The new Secondary Education Policy was heralded by a statement by the Administrator of the Transvaal at Kensington Junior High School on 18th November, 1949. He said that "apart from these two secondary school types (high school, and junior high school), there will in future develop a third or intermediate type of mixed character."⁴ This was supplemented by Circular No. 76 of 1949 which ruled that "a junior high school.....may, in accordance with this policy, apply for high school status..... Thus, all the so-called inferiority of the Junior High School will be removed, and the High School will avoid the charges that it trains

¹ Ibid.

² Transvaal: Report of the Education Committee First Report (the Lynch Committee) 1948: and see Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.142.

³ Transvaal: Report of the Director of Education: 1955: op cit.

⁴ Ibid: 1950: p.14.

pupils only for the universities and the learned professions."¹ Class distinction was not to be permitted through the medium of separate schools.

The Director of Education sounded a warning regarding the success of the new policy. "The large scale (junior high and farm school) experiment conceived in high idealism, and assiduously fostered administratively had.....failed to answer its purpose. It is to be hoped that the deeper underlying reasons, viz. divided control of forms of secondary education and the domination of secondary school curricula and syllabuses by university entrance requirements will not cripple the activities of the comprehensive high school."²

The kernel of the new differentiated secondary policy is revealed in the second report of the Lynch Committee in July, 1950 in which it was stressed that the secondary school should make provision for more than one course, but again stressed the need for investigation into the question of "adequate differentiation". This view was endorsed by the Steyn Committee in 1953³: "before any drastic alterations are brought about in the organisation and methods used, a study should be made in other countries of what has already been done in this direction."⁴ This was done in 1955, a mission, under the leadership of Dr. A.H. du P. van Wyk, Director of Education, being sent to the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Belgium, Holland, Sweden and Denmark. The van Wyk Report - the report of the overseas mission in connection with differentiated education - was presented in February, 1956. The main recommendations of the mission were that:-

- (i) all secondary education should be transferred to the provinces;
- (ii) there should be separate examinations for school leaving and university entrance purposes;
- (iii) there should be a general extension of the school guidance system;
- (iv) the comprehensive high school with an enrolment of 750 pupils

¹ Transvaal Education Department: Circular No.76 of 8th December, 1949.

² Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1950: p.15.

³ Transvaal Education Department: Report of the Committee on Differentiated Education, 1953.

⁴ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1955: p.14.

should be an important means of carrying out a policy of fully differentiated secondary education in the province;

- (v) homogeneous ability groups should be selected on intellectual ability and achievement, and these groups should be used in the comprehensive high school as the basis for differentiated education;
- (vi) systematic use should be made of scholastic tests in addition to intelligence tests to determine the standard of work and progress achieved by pupils, and diagnostic tests should be used judiciously for prescribing and carrying out remedial work.¹

These recommendations led to the introduction of a policy of differentiated secondary education² based upon three groups or streams, A, which was academic and led the pupil on to higher education, B, which had as its terminus the Senior Certificate or leaving examination, and C, which was adapted to the need of the child who left school on attaining the upper limit of compulsory schooling (Standard VIII). These streams have subsequently been designated the University Entrance Course, the Standard X Course and the Standard VIII Course respectively.³ The curriculum for these differentiated subjects is built round a common core "consisting of compulsory subjects which give the essential basic knowledge, the skills, religious training and social adjustment; or in other words, the 'learnings' expected of all in a democratic world."⁴ This core is supplemented by a variable range of optional subjects.

Experience over the last ten years has shown that the Standard VIII Course has tended to dwindle in enrolment (19% as against the original 43%), the Standard X Course has dropped slightly (30% as against 38%) and the University Entrance Course has increased considerably (43% as against 20%).⁵

¹ Ibid: 1955: op cit.

² Standard VI is regarded as a foundation year before the application of differentiation and may be likened in some respects to a shortened form of the French 'cycle d'orientation'.

³ Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.147.

⁴ Ibid: p.146.

⁵ Ibid: p.149: these figures are for 1964.

For the Transvaal schools, then it may be concluded that the following classes of teachers were required:-

- (i) the generally trained primary teacher, with a specialist course for infant teachers, or, alternatively, teachers trained for higher and lower primary standards.
- (ii) the generally trained teacher for service in the lower forms of the secondary school, and particularly for the introductory year;
- (iii) non-graduate specialist teachers capable of implementing the policy of differentiation by contributing to the optional subjects;
- (iv) the graduate teacher for the academic stream, as well as for certain aspects of the Standard X course;
- (v) teachers specially trained in guidance work.

This seems to indicate clearly that the secondary school was no longer regarded as the preserve of the graduate teacher only.

(b) Natal:

It will be recalled that the Broome Report of 1937 had advocated a raising of the school leaving age to sixteen years.¹ The Commission also recommended that the second stage of education should last for at least four years and extend over the range of Standard V to Standard VIII with three differentiated courses, academic, practical and a composite course, superimposed above a two-year general orientation cycle comprising Standards V and VI. The first course would naturally lead to matriculation and higher education. As in the Transvaal, the influence of the thinking which had led to the Spens and Norwood Reports was clear. Indeed, it said of the practical course that it was designed for the pupil who "thinks with his hands".²

The Commission recognised that new types of teachers would be required for the new secondary schools. Beyond recording that graduates fresh from universities would not be particularly useful in implementing the new policy, and suggesting that teachers appointed in the first instance to primary schools should not be immobilised there for primary

¹ Implemented by the Consolidating Education Ordinance of 1942.

² Natal: Report of the Education Commission, 1937: p.17.

experience "should be regarded as a useful preparation for the teaching of older pupils.....in the subjects and methods required for the modern secondary schools"¹, little was said regarding the types of courses necessary.

The war period then intervened and little was done to modify the system of secondary education. A further committee to enquire into education was appointed in February 1946 under the chairmanship of Mr. E.C. Wilks, its report being presented in the same year.² This report carried the concept of the differentiated secondary school a stage further. It was recommended that four separate courses be offered which would be available in separate schools, or in a single multi-lateral school.³ It is significant, perhaps, that no suggestion of a comprehensive school was made, although certain fundamental comprehensive principles were mentioned in the Report.⁴ The four courses followed after Standard VI which was regarded as "a stage during which aptitudes and special abilities are noted, guidance given and decisions taken as to the best line to be followed to ensure two further years of congenial, fruitful, educational activity."⁵ The courses comprised an academically-biassed one, a commercial or technical course for boys with emphasis upon bookkeeping or geometrical drawing, and two general practical courses (pre-vocational) with the boys concentrating upon bookkeeping and trade theory, and the girls upon bookkeeping, shorthand, and typing. In each case the core of the curriculum comprised Religious Instruction, Health Education, Music, Art, Craft, the two official languages and Arithmetic.⁶

¹ Ibid: p.57.

² Natal: Report of the Provincial Education Committee, 1946 (Wilks Report).

³ Ibid: para 39, p.18.

⁴ For example, "in stating that there is a core of subjects common to all curricula, it is not intended that there should be uniformity" (para 161), "the reorganised secondary school.....will have to cater for ALL pupils" (para 278), and "unless the new courses are offered in circumstances which give them all an equal opportunity of obtaining public esteem, little success can be expected from the reforms proposed." (para 40). Here is the bugbear of parity of esteem which has been one of the factors in moving away from differentiated schools to the comprehensive school in England and Wales.

⁵ Ibid: para 278.

⁶ Ibid: paras 162 et seq.

Of the Wilks' proposals MacMillan says "The ideas.....were in line with the best thought of the day on the subject - no separate specialised high schools, but one school in which set multilateral courses were to be provided. Natal was far from ready for such a development, the emphasis in the schools being, at that time, and later, on academic education, which was strongly entrenched. Control over all full-time secondary education would.....have needed to be under the province if the scheme was to succeed. This the Committee recommended, but without result."¹

The official policy of differentiation in the secondary school system of Natal was based upon the report of the Director of Education on an overseas visit in 1961² and it was implemented by Departmental Circular in the following year.³ Two differentiated streams were to be provided within a single school, again built round a core of subjects, but these subjects were to be adapted to the ability levels and interest of pupils in the two streams. It was stated that while "in the more densely populated countries three streams are provided, it is felt that more than two streams would be impractical in Natal owing to the relatively small numbers of pupils." These two streams were to be applied after an exploratory year in Standard VI, largely on the basis of internal school examinations and tests⁴, together with consultation of parents' wishes. The Advanced Stream, into which it was estimated that 63% of pupils would go, was an academic course of the traditional type providing access to matriculation and higher education.⁵ The Ordinary Stream course, which was also a four-year course culminating in a lower grade Senior Certificate, provided a similar range of subjects with different syllabuses, but eliminated Greek, Latin, Physics, Chemistry, Botany and Additional Mathematics. More purely pre-vocational

¹ Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.137.

² Natal Education Department: Report of the Director of Education on an official visit to educational institutions in Great Britain and Europe, 1961 (unpublished).

³ Natal Education Department: Differentiation in Secondary Classes, Circular Minute No.109 of 1961.

⁴ The Standard VI examination was originally a 'controlled examination'. This has now fallen away.

⁵ The only 'non-academic' subjects included were Geometrical Drawing and Bookkeeping.

subjects could be taken by pupils in either stream and included Agriculture, Housecraft, Handicrafts, Typing and Office Routine, Shorthand and Typing, as well as an additional range of languages.

A Committee of Enquiry was established under the chairmanship of Professor R.E. Lighton in 1963 to enquire into the desirability and functioning of the differentiation of education in the Natal schools based upon the two-stream policy.¹ It agreed that there was need for differentiation, but felt that provision should be made for three streams as in the Transvaal. The Committee criticised the selection procedure used and stated that there was need for periodic review of the situation.

The progressive developments in the extension of the secondary school system in Natal have therefore posed the same problems with regard to the training and supply of teachers as have already been noted in the Transvaal. Obviously in the long term, the university graduate of the traditional type is going to be confined to a smaller, but extremely important, range of operation within the secondary school. For the others, the need is for better academically prepared college of education products than had been available pre-war, together with a growing body of specialists capable of handling the additional subjects being incorporated in the curriculum. At the same time the breadth of curriculum offerings in Natal was more restricted than that in the Transvaal.

3. The Development of Teacher Education in the Transvaal and Natal:

(a) Transvaal:

By the end of the war courses available in the Transvaal colleges of education were adapted fairly satisfactorily to the requirements resulting from the Nicol Report of 1939, i.e. for the training of graduate teachers for the high school, and for the general professionally trained primary school teacher while two courses sought to produce teachers for the junior high school. These were the three-year combined course, comprising one year of academic study in the university, and two

¹ Natal Education Department: Report of a Committee of Enquiry into the desirability of having differentiation in Natal Schools by the recent introduction of a twin-stream education system. (The Lighton Report): 1963.

years of professional training in the colleges thereafter, and the newer three-year professional course in which after two years of general professional training, a year was spent in a particular specialist field of study which was usually of a professional nature. There was in addition a two-year course for the Lower Diploma offered at Heidelberg.

The developing trend in the pattern of training was for the first of the three-year courses, the combined course to be replaced by the second.¹ A growing range of specialist options came to be offered in the third year of this course. These included Art and Craft, Junior Work², Librarianship, Physical Education, Handwork, and Domestic Science. Factors which led to the demise of the three-year combined course were those which had been apparent in the pre-war days, viz. difficulties of organisation, as well as the problem of first-year failure rates in the universities, which had been a particular issue in the Pretoria College of Education. The following table shows that failure rates in the four-year combined course continued to be a very significant factor:-

Table 12 : Pretoria College of Education : Enrolment of Degree Students³

Year	1st		2nd		3rd		4th		Total Graduate students in fourth year
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
1960	223	184	115	83	83	53	45	40	85
1961	258	150	100	111	86	69	53	43	96
1962	190	127	120	93	107	101	58	51	109
1963	188	114	107	97	90	80	72	92	164

¹ By 1947 the Johannesburg College of Education expressed doubt as to whether the three-year combined course should be continued. A single year's attendance at university was held to be of "questionable value".

² Junior Work refers to specialisation in the lower and sub-standards of the primary school. In England it would be referred to as Infant Teaching.

³ Abstracted from statistics supplied by the Rector, Pretoria College of Education, April, 1963.

- Note: (i) the drop out of students from first to second year (men 66%, women 50%), and a second wastage between third and fourth years;
- (ii) a steady decline in the numbers registering for the four-year combined course, and yet
- (iii) an increase during the four-year period of the numbers entering the final year of training.

A further factor was the growing popularity of the three-year professional course, particularly among women students. Consequently the three-year combined course disappeared in the mid-fifties.

A course of temporary nature and limited intake was that offered at the Johannesburg College of Education in the years immediately following the war. Shortened courses in which the four-year combined course was concentrated into two and a half years were offered to mature and experienced ex-volunteers discharged from the armed forces. In 1946 there were 139 applicants for the course and 101 were enrolled. In 1947 a further six students were admitted, and in 1949 the College reported that the course was then virtually completed.¹

At the same period a feature of development of the colleges was the number of refresher courses offered to teachers in service through the medium of vacation courses. For example, Pretoria reported in 1953 that it had been responsible for refresher courses in Science and Biology for high school teachers, in singing and in audio-visual education. These, of course, did not concern initial training and are mentioned to indicate developing spheres of operation of the colleges.

With regard to the organisation of colleges and courses, the Heidelberg College continued to find itself in a unique position among Transvaal colleges. It was remote from any university and an attempt had been made to overcome this in the pre-war period by enrolling its students in combined courses as external students of the University of South Africa. This arrangement was eventually discontinued because it presented grave difficulties of administration and teaching. In 1947 the Rector reported that new courses required to be developed for with no university connection the College was beginning to take an inferior position, and the lack of the combined four-year degree and diploma course resulted in few men being attracted to the College. Eventually an arrangement was entered into with the University of South Africa whereby selected lecturers in the College were appointed honorary lecturers in the University. Under this scheme the teaching of certain degree courses was started in 1952 in the Faculties of Arts and Commerce. This situation persisted until the late 'sixties when the new Randse Afrikaans Universiteit in association with the Goudstad College of Education was able to offer courses parallel to those in the other

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1947 and 49. Report of Johannesburg College of Education.

colleges. The Heidelberg College was then closed down.

From 1949 onwards there was a steady increase in the number of specialist courses offered by the colleges while existing courses were modified. During this period, despite teacher shortages, and in common with growing pressure in England and Wales for similar action, there was a steady demand for the rejection of all two-year training as inadequate. As a result from June 1962 all two-year courses were abolished, with the result that three-year training became the norm for all non-graduate courses. In that year the following courses were offered:

- (i) the four-year combined course leading to a degree and the Transvaal Teacher's Higher Diploma;
- (ii) the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma consisting of a two-year general professional course with specialisation courses in the third year offered as follows:-

Offered by all colleges:

Junior work, Senior Primary, Music for Primary Schools, Drama and Speech Training, School Librarianship.

Offered by all colleges with maximum and minimum numbers to be laid down by the Department of Education:

Commercial subjects, Physical Education, Music (for High Schools), Junior Secondary Course, Physical Education, Art, Home Economics.

Offered only at specific colleges:-

Industrial Arts: Pretoria, Johannesburg, Goudstad.

Teaching of mentally deviate children: Heidelberg.

- (iii) the Transvaal Lower Diploma would continue for a restricted period to be offered to candidates for the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma who had failed in a specialisation course.¹

It is to be noted therefore that by the early 'sixties:-

- (i) the relationship between the universities and the Colleges in the Transvaal had become very much less significant than it had been in the pre-war period;
- (ii) college courses had become more numerous and diversified particularly at secondary school level;

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1962.

- (iii) all three-year courses were specialisation courses;
- (iv) the academic content of courses, which had previously been the responsibility of the universities, with the exception of the four-year combined course, now became the responsibility of the colleges. From this stems the current problem of the colleges' function in providing both academic and professional training, the standard of the academic courses, and the status of qualifications awarded by the colleges;
- (v) Certain of the Transvaal universities, notably Pretoria and Potchefstroom, developed their own courses of training both initial and specialist, graduate and non-graduate, in addition to those offered by the colleges of education. From this practice has developed a certain conflict of interest between these universities and the provincial education authorities and colleges of education. Details of the initial courses offered will be found in Part Three. It is to be noted that the University of the Witwatersrand has until recently left initial teacher training courses to the Johannesburg College of Education. It has concentrated its energies on post-graduate studies in education and upon specialist courses. The Randse Afrikaans Universiteit appears to be developing similar relations with the Goudstad College of Education.

The Transvaal pattern of teacher education in the early 'sixties was one of rapidly expanding colleges of education which were moving towards self-sufficiency in both academic and professional fields of teacher training. The exception in this picture is the four-year combined course of training. There has been very considerable diversification of course offerings to cater particularly for the evolving secondary school as well as for the growing specialist requirements of the primary school. Alongside these very large colleges have developed very much smaller, but active departments and faculties of education at Pretoria and Potchefstroom each offering diversified courses of initial and specialist teacher preparation. This situation almost represents in microcosm the position throughout the nation, and the resolution of professional and administrative problems arising from this dichotomy is a legacy bequeathed to the 'seventies. It will be returned to in Part Four.

The rapid expansion of the Transvaal colleges of education took place in response to the phenomenal growth of population in the Province, and particularly in the Pretoria-Witwatersrand-Vereeniging complex. New industries and new towns meant new schools and new teachers and thus the colleges, as was the case in the United Kingdom and elsewhere, had to expand to meet the demand. It was a demand not only from more children, but from more children who remained at school longer than they had in the pre-war years, and required more diversified curricula at the upper levels.

It is significant that while the Afrikaans-medium colleges were able to maintain a satisfactory level of recruitment in general, although not in specific subjects, the Johannesburg College of Education found difficulty in securing sufficient students of the right calibre. The question of enrolment during the period of the Second World War has been referred to; although the numerical situation improved, the proportionate supply was inadequate. While the Rector of the Pretoria College of Education noted in 1947 that there had been "a steady improvement in candidates in recent years" despite some uncertainty about selection procedures, his counterpart in the Johannesburg College recorded that a "disturbing feature is the number of students who leave before completing their training."¹ A significant feature in this was that it applied more to women students than to men.

Alarmed at the shortage of permanent staff, the School Board Conference in 1948 set up a committee to investigate the position. It was found at the time that 25% of the teaching posts were filled by temporary teachers (married women teachers and pensioned staff). In 1949 the Rector of the Johannesburg College commented on the "distressing decrease" in the number of students entering teacher training courses.² Two years later the Director of Education noted that in 1950 587 teachers had resigned and only 434 had qualified at the colleges of education. For the first time in the history of the province, the number of married women in service exceeded the number of unmarried women. In view of this situation it was recommended, as an emergency measure, that the length of the training course for women teachers should be reduced.³ The Executive Committee

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education: Reports of the Colleges of Education, 1947.

² Ibid: Report on the Johannesburg College of Education, 1949.

³ Ibid: 1951.

appointed a professional committee under the chairmanship of J.A. Smuts, an Inspector of Education, to examine the practicability of introducing emergency measures. It reported, somewhat negatively, as follows on 7th June, 1951:-

- (i) the importation of teachers and teacher trainees was not recommended as it would not ease the situation to any appreciable extent;
- (ii) the appointment of married women teachers to the permanent staff was not recommended, a resolution which was backed by the teachers' associations; and
- (iii) recommended, with reluctance, and only as an emergency measure, that extra-mural training of teachers should take place on an experimental basis.¹

This last recommendation had a complicating effect upon the organisation of courses in the colleges of education. In general it was found necessary to extend the duration of the extra-mural part-time courses by six months.² Commenting on the new courses and the students in them in 1953, Professor R.E. Lighton, Rector of the Johannesburg College of Education, observed that "though these courses were an innovation, and a venture frowned upon by many, and by some condemned in advance, it appears that the fears are groundless. The men and women are, in comparison with the full-time student, older, more mature, more discerning, more determined and responsible."³

In the meantime an important step had been taken as a result of the application of the new Provincial Education Ordinance in 1953.⁴ Section 4 provided for the establishment by the Administrator of an Educational Advisory Council to advise on professional matters. It was expected that the new body would "act as a stabilising factor as well as

1 Ibid.

2 This situation was found still to be operative in the Transvaal Colleges during a first visit to them by the writer in 1963. Thus the part-time course for the Transvaal Teacher's Diploma was three and a half years in duration and that for the Transvaal Lower Teacher's Diploma was two and a half years. The Senior Primary Diploma was, however, extended by a whole year for part-time students.

3 Transvaal: Report of Director of Education, 1953.

4 Transvaal: Ordinance No.29 of 1953.

a progressive influence on education."¹ A further administrative innovation with regard to teacher education had been initiated in 1951 when a Courses Committee was established consisting of the rectors of the four colleges of education together with two senior officials of the Education Department. Almost the initial task of this body was to revise the "Regulations and Conditions for the Training of Teachers."²

With regard to the developing shortage of teachers, which it was hoped these two measures would help to arrest, the Director reported in 1955 that in the primary schools there were 3566 temporary posts of which 3213 were filled by women teachers. Of the position in secondary schools it was noted that there were sufficient qualified teachers available except in Mathematics, Science, Handwork and Commercial subjects. The position in urban schools was stated to have improved in general except in the English-medium schools in those subjects enumerated above in addition to English and Latin. It was stated that the position remained alarming in the Central and East Witwatersrand areas.³ Measures were proposed by the Department and the Advisory Council to ease the shortage. These included:-

- (i) Increasing the numbers of students in training.
- (ii) Improving conditions of service for temporary teachers.
- (iii) Raising the retiring age for men and women teachers to 65, and 60 years respectively.
- (iv) Improving recruiting, locally and abroad, and
- (v) Offering additional bursaries to attract students.

A further interesting proposal was one to appoint a quota of male assistants to posts in girls' high schools because of the shortage of suitable female staff. This situation was to change radically in the next decade and a half.

While a number of the measures proposed were purely palliative, the key proposals presupposed a considerable expansion of the training plant, which, in the Transvaal, means in the main, the colleges of education. An indication of the comparative scale of the effort made by the universities and colleges of education is given in 1955. In

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1953: p.16.

² Ibid: 1954.

³ Ibid: 1955.

that year the two universities in the province which undertook initial teacher training,¹ produced between them 111 qualified graduate teachers, while the total output of teachers for the province was of the order of 1000.² The accompanying table and graph shows the effect which these measures had upon enrolments in teacher training institutions over the eight-year period from 1955 to 1962.

Table 13 : Expansion of numbers of student teachers in training in the Transvaal, 1955-1962³

Year	Professional Non-graduate courses			Professional Graduate courses			Total Enrolment		
	M	W	Total	M	W	Total	M	W	Total
	1955	175	1174	1348	695	328	1023	870	1501
1956	186	1303	1489	798	417	1215	984	1720	2704
1957	246	1535	1781	874	489	1363	1120	2024	3144
1958	299	1713	2012	900	594	1494	1119	2307	3506
1959	383	1827	2210	981	723	1704	1364	2550	3914
1960	432	2055	2487	1111	835	1946	1543	2890	4433
1961	659	2276	2935	1142	857	1999	1801	3133	4934
1963	892	2710	3602	1047	896	1943	1939	3606	5545

In addition to showing the rapid growth of the numbers of students in training, some significant trends are revealed:

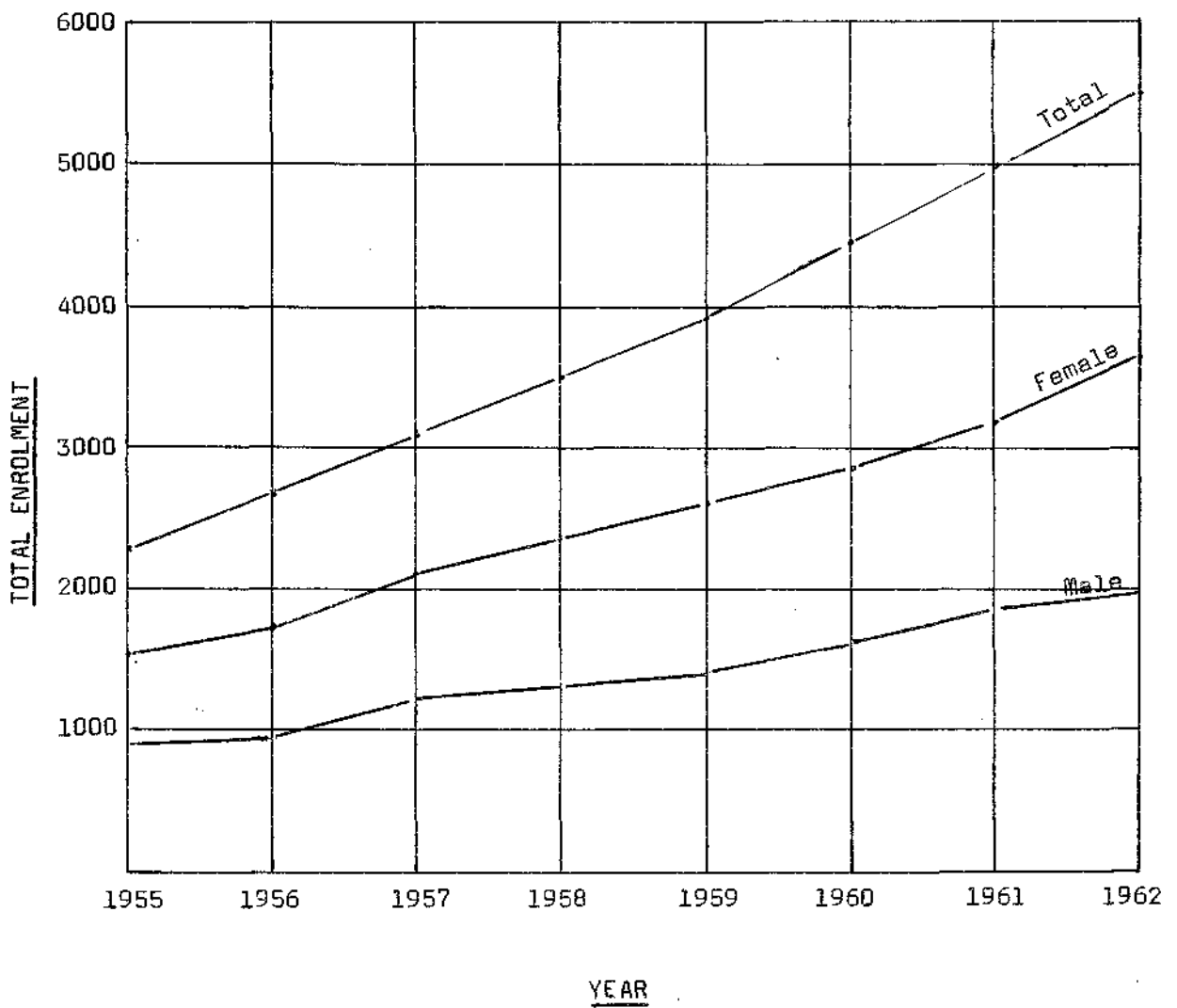
- (i) the more rapid growth of non-graduate as opposed to graduate courses;
- (ii) the larger proportionate growth of numbers of men students in these courses as compared with women students;
- (iii) the reverse phenomenon in the graduate courses.

The table and graph do not show the effect of failure rates in the two types of courses, but they do account for the development in the late 'fifties of the comparatively large colleges of education in the Transvaal,

¹ These were the universities of Pretoria and Potchefstroom. The Witwatersrand University did not undertake general initial teacher training.

² Ibid.

³ Ibid: obtained from the statistical sections of the relevant annual reports. It should be noted that the fifth college, Goudstad, admitted its first students in January, 1961.

FIGURE 1ENROLMENT IN TEACHER TRAINING COURSES:TRANSVAAL : 1955-1962

and for the rapid growth of the Goudstad College in the following decade.

A breakdown of the language medium of students in training at this time reveals the seriousness of the supply position for the English-medium schools in the province.

Table 14 : Enrolment of students by home language¹

Year	Course	Afrikaans	English	Both	Other	Total
1956	T.L.D.	717	66	4	5	792
	T.T.D.	495	188	4	5	692
	T.T.H.D.	846	335	6	12	1199
	Total	2079	589	14	22	2704
1958	T.L.D.	798	84	2	17	901
	T.T.D.	856	252	7	9	1064
	T.T.H.D.	1025	416	6	15	1462
	Total	2683	767	15	41	3506
1960	T.L.D.	995	61	24	12	1092
	T.T.D.	1002	352	52	21	1427
	T.T.H.D.	1396	441	31	22	1890
	Total	3398	870	109	56	4433
1962	T.L.D.	366	29	-	1	396
	T.T.D.	2530	628	33	15	3206
	T.T.H.D.	1371	502	25	18	1916
	Total	4312	1167	59	34	5572

Thus it is seen that overall the percentage of students with English as their home language is of the order of twenty five percent. This must mean that many English-speaking children in the province are being taught by teachers whose home language is not English. It was stated of the Johannesburg College of Education in 1957 that in order to provide a total of 300 qualified teachers annually for English-medium schools, it was necessary to maintain enrolment at the 1200 mark. The College had been unable to achieve this and in 1956 and 1957 was able to provide totals of only 179 and 178 teachers respectively. Of these

¹ Ibid: the discrepancies existing between enrolments in courses and totals is due to the fact that students in B Logopaedics courses are not shown separately, but are reflected in the annual totals.

it was said that nearly "one third would in all probability be more at home in Afrikaans-medium schools."¹

School expansion in the post-war Transvaal made demands in the preparation of teachers which were unique at the time in South Africa. Teacher education could no longer be handled in relative obscurity in small isolated colleges. It was necessary to examine teacher education, as a whole, to plan positively for school growth and to venture into new courses which would be aimed at the preparation of new types of teachers for new schools. The settling up of the Courses Committee in 1955, as well as the Advisory Council on Teacher Training in 1957 under the chairmanship of the Deputy Director of Education were signs of the realisation by the provincial authorities of the need to attack the problems of teacher supply on a concerted and rational basis. There is no doubt also that the subsequent creation of the Educational Bureau in the province has materially assisted in the investigation of related problems.

The growth of the large colleges raised two problems of a general nature to which it is desirable that brief reference should be made. These are, firstly, the organisation of teaching practice and secondly the examination of candidates for teacher's diplomas. The matter of the provision of adequate teaching practice facilities and opportunities is one which has concerned education authorities on a world-wide scale in the second half of the present century. It is today felt in every province of South Africa. What constitutes saturation of practice facilities was examined by the Conference of Institute Directors in England in 1963. The Transvaal became increasingly aware of the problem in the decade of the 'fifties.

The Johannesburg College of Education drew attention to some of the problems connected with the three-year professional course as early as 1953. At this stage teaching practice was being coalesced into one major period of a term's duration. With the growth in the numbers of students, it became necessary to place some at schools beyond the reach of the college staff. The need for expediency in a situation of keen demand was realised, but it was felt that the disadvantages and defects of the scheme were preponderant over the advantages gained. College authorities were particularly disturbed by their inability in some

¹ Transvaal: Report of the Director of Education, 1957.

instances to place students in a class in the range for which they were being trained.¹ Comments of a similar nature regarding difficulties encountered in teaching practice were expressed in departmental reports for the years 1957, 1958, 1959 and 1960.

It had always been the policy of the Johannesburg College of Education to give its students practice in both language media but, as the numbers of students in training increased, resulting in the establishment of an Afrikaans-medium college in Johannesburg² in 1960, this policy had to be terminated in the 'sixties to the detriment of the students. If the situation became difficult for the English-medium college, it was worse for the Afrikaans-medium ones, for it became necessary to adopt a scheme of geographical zoning to provide teaching practice places for students. Thus, students in the Pretoria College of Education, apart from the very considerable number of places available in that city, had to be posted to schools throughout the Northern Transvaal, as far afield as Messina. While there is no doubt that the best has been made of a difficult situation, there is equally no doubt that such expedients weaken the link between students and their tutors at a vital period of training. It is at this point that theory and practice in training come together and it is vital that there should be contact through the college tutor between these twin aspects of teacher preparation. Devices such as the appointment of members of the teaching staff of schools to have a responsibility for student teachers and their programmes and problems, undoubtedly help greatly, but they remain measures of expediency, no matter how much they are rationalised.

The second problem resulting from the large scale expansion of the teachers' colleges in the Transvaal lay in the matter of evaluation and assessment. It has been seen how, in the history of teacher education in South Africa, the emphasis in student assessment moved from external to internal examination, with the education authorities in all four provinces from the 'thirties onwards gradually allowing almost complete internal collegiate control of examinations and standards. Advances in educational thought, as well as the growing size of colleges, began to call in question the types of assessment and evaluation proper to teacher certification.

¹ Biennial Report of the Director of Education, 1953: published 1956: Report of the Rector, Johannesburg College of Education.

² Goudstad College of Education.

This problem, evident at the end of the 'fifties, was to occupy considerable attention in the Transvaal in the ensuing decade. A departmental committee of enquiry, the Griffith Committee, was established in 1961 and its report¹ incorporated largely in the Manual of Instruction re Credit and Examination Systems at Colleges of Education², issued in 1963, set the pattern of examinations in colleges of education in the Transvaal.

Conclusion:

It may be said in general of the decade and a half after the end of the Second World War, that teacher education in the Transvaal grew up from an infant section of the total educational effort of the province to a stature commensurate with its importance in the rapidly expanding provision of education, particularly at secondary level. The growth of large colleges and the introduction of new courses, as well as of new procedures for the control and administration of teacher education, resulted in a decline of university influence in this field, and the development of a strong and influential professional body charged with this responsibility directly under the control of the Transvaal Education Department. This issue, as well as others associated with organisms experiencing a period of phenomenal growth, has still not been resolved, will be referred to in Part Three, and will be carried forward into the decade of the 'seventies in Part Four.

(b) Natal:

As in the Transvaal, the growing realisation of the need for new forms of secondary education culminating in the introduction of a limited system of differentiation in 1962 led to a demand for changes in the courses of training for teachers. This situation was further hastened by shortages of teachers and the inadequacy of supply of recruits from the university for the growing secondary schools. Thus the functional overlap of the University Faculty of Education and the college (later colleges) of education increased during the period.

The report of the Wilks Committee³ was definite in its

¹ Transvaal Onderwys Departement Komitee Insake Krediet- en Eksamenstelsels aan Onderwyskolleges: Verslag 1961.

² Transvaal Education Department: Manual of Instruction, 1963.

³ Natal: Report of the Provincial Education Committee, 1946.

recommendations with regard to the preparation of teachers required to staff its proposed multi-lateral schools. In the first instance it was felt that the two-year course of training was inadequate, for it was found to be overloaded to the extent that there was either undue strain upon students or else there was to a certain extent a neglect of some important aspects of teacher training. With a declining number of students entering training courses, there was a noticeably lower academic standard amongst them. For this reason it was felt that the three university subjects included in the curriculum had become a burden out of proportion to their value. Accordingly it was proposed that "the basic course at the Natal Training College should be of three years' duration and should lead to the Natal Teacher's Diploma."¹

A radical departure was suggested with regard to course content. Although the Report did not wish to impose rigidity in prescription, it did suggest that "the first two years might be occupied with purely professional work, university subjects being excluded..... In the third year, the more academically minded students might be given the option of taking three university courses together with specialisation in one aspect of school work. The others,.....might specialise in two aspects of school work."² It was proposed that a wider choice of specialist aspects of training should be made available, including "handicrafts, physical education, deviate education, rural education, commercial education, religious education and nursery school training."³ It was further recommended that all third year curricula should include courses in sex education and social studies.

It was realised, however, that the new three-year course would not meet all the requirements of the schools. The Committee was of the opinion that "perhaps the most pressing need for the immediate future will be specialised fourth year courses in homecrafts and handicrafts, since these two subjects.....should shortly come to the forefront. Only slightly less urgently required are similar fourth year courses in commercial education and physical education, since experience tends to show that students who now take additional one year courses in these

1 Ibid: p.146.

2 Ibid: p.146 para 310.

3 Ibid.

subjects subsequent to the present two-year training are not sufficiently expert for the secondary school."¹ It was recommended that those successfully completing the fourth year course should be awarded the Natal Teacher's Higher Diploma.

Thus, plans were laid for the abolition of the old Teacher's Third Class Certificate. The proposal to extend basic training to three years was sound and in accordance with educational thought elsewhere. The structure of the course was, however, cumbersome and contained the awkward features of a bipartite structure to be found not only in the Transvaal, but also in England. The new Natal Teacher's Diploma course exhibited the Topsy-like feature of 'having growed' in response to educational expediency rather than being conceived as an original attempt to produce a well-balanced professional and academic course designed to produce the teachers for the new schools of the future.

If this criticism can be levelled at the 2 + 1 structure of the Natal Teacher's Diploma, how much more appropriate is it in the case of the Higher Diploma Course? While not wishing to decry the proposition that there should be a better supply of better trained specialist teachers, the fundamental thinking with regard to this course appears to be a little confused. On the one hand, because of the need for specialists, it had been proposed to extend the basic course from two to three years. And yet, because of the inadequacy of this one additional year for secondary school teachers, it was proposed that a further year should be added. The structure of training for the non-graduate secondary school specialist in, for example, homecrafts, handicrafts, commercial or physical education, was to be two years (general) + 1 year (specialist) + 1 year (specialist). It would seem obvious that it might have been better to propose an integrated four-year course of training for non-graduate specialist teachers for the secondary school. This would have resulted in a course structure very similar in concept to that introduced in the Transvaal colleges of education in 1967.

The Wilks Committee recognised the complexity of the problem of providing adequately trained secondary school teachers to meet the requirements of its proposed four stream differentiated curriculum, in which the school leaving age was to be increased to sixteen years. It

¹ Ibid: p.147, para 311.

was realised that it would be the function of the university to train academically-oriented teachers. These would find their niche in Course D, the academic course, preparing pupils for university entrance.¹ The question was raised as to the extent of the contribution which the university could make to the preparation of teachers for other courses. "It becomes apparent that if, as seems likely, the university is to continue to supply the majority of trained teachers for our secondary schools, some modifications of the present course are inevitable, and it will be necessary to establish close co-operation between the university authorities on the one hand, and the Education Department as the employing authority on the other."² To this end it was recommended that "an investigation should be undertaken forthwith into the possibilities of joint direction of the training of secondary teachers by the University and the Education Department."³

Having made this suggestion, the Committee went considerably further in suggesting an entirely new structure for the university training course. The Committee felt that the one-year post-graduate professional course leading to the U.E.D. was inadequate and proposed that the 'end-on' nature of academic and professional courses should be replaced by a five-year course in which there should be much greater integration of studies. Thus, year one would be a general introductory year similar in nature to that for the Natal Teacher's Diploma concentrating upon the practical aspects of professional work and including some extension of general education. Guidance was held to be a fundamental feature of this year, first as regards suitability for the teaching profession, and, secondly, as to suitability for the three-year diploma course or the five-year graduate course. It was foreseen that there would therefore have to be convertibility between college and university courses.

It was recommended that the second, third and fourth years would be occupied in the main with degree courses, but that in addition approximately two hours per day would be devoted to professional studies.

¹ The other courses proposed were: A: Practical course; B: Commercial course for girls; C: pre-vocational course mainly for boys with a professional career in mind.

² Natal: Report of the Provincial Education Committee, 1946: p.149 para 316.

³ Ibid.

It was felt that the extra load involved was not unduly heavy because students reading for a degree in commerce had a similarly extended curriculum. The fifth year was to be devoted to professional specialisation, while it was suggested that certain selected students might devote some time to working for the master's degree. The remaining students were to be required to specialise in one practical subject as for the Teacher's Diploma course.¹

The seriousness with which the Committee viewed the need for the reform of the university course can be judged from the fact that interim proposals were put forward pending the introduction of the five-year course. These included the offering of a one-year course in specialised training at the Natal Training College to four-year trained graduates, successful students being awarded the Natal Teacher's Higher Diploma; the Natal Training College to offer graduates a two-year course of professional training leading to the Natal Teacher's Diploma, and non-graduate diploma holders to be eligible for enrolment at the Training College for additional professional work.²

There is no doubt that the review of teacher education in Natal undertaken by the Wilks Committee was the most comprehensive one in the history of the province up to that time. There is no doubt also that it enunciated important points of principle that have been incorporated or are being considered with a view to incorporation into existing systems. These include the extension of the duration of basic training to three years, with increasing numbers of non-graduates receiving four-year training; the increase in the professional content of non-graduate courses; an integrated academic-professional course of preparation for graduate teachers, and the development of closer liaison between the university and the provincial education authorities. Its more detailed recommendations in regard to the implementation of these principles were at times rather naive.

It was clear, however, that no matter how desirable co-operation between training institutions was felt to be, it was a subject to be approached with caution particularly with regard to the transfer of

¹ These were homecrafts, handicrafts, physical education, commercial education, art, music or religious education.

² Natal: Report of the Provincial Education Committee, 1946: p.151, paras 319-20.

responsibility to any institution outside the provincial education department. "An effort should be made to bring about closer co-operation between the university authorities and the Education Department. The precise form of such co-operation and joint control should be a matter for consultation..... The Committee.....considers that the place of teacher training in the educational system should be more specifically defined in the Education Ordinance by laying it down that it should be competent for the administration to train teachers for all its own purposes."¹

The Wilks' Report has been dealt with in some detail, because it was a document which in effect promised a 'new deal' in education to Natal. In practice only limited long term value, as far as teacher education was concerned, flowed from it. The Natal Teacher's Diploma replaced the Third Class Certificate, the duration of basic training was extended to three years in the mid-'sixties, and there was a considerable increase in the offerings of specialist courses leading to the Natal Teacher's Senior Diploma, reflecting in a number of instances growing shortages of teachers of particular subjects especially at secondary school level.

Despite the long record of close contact between the Training College, the Natal Education Department and the University of Natal, the hoped-for increase in liaison and co-operation between them did not materialise. Instead, after a period of internal tension between the University and the Training College in the mid-'fifties, co-operation between them in the provision of academic and professional courses was terminated. Subsequently, however, with initiative provided by the Natal Education Department and the University, a Teacher Training Council was established representing the three interested parties and providing liaison with regard to matters of common interest. From this rather modest renaissance there grew particularly during the latter part of the 'sixties once again an excellent spirit of co-operation which bodes well for the successful implementation in the 'seventies of national policy with regard to teacher education.

The Wilks' Report enunciated important principles with regard to

¹ Ibid: p.157.

teacher education, even if its recommendations were never fully implemented. Further, it was a document which was of fundamental importance in focussing attention upon teacher education as the cornerstone of the educational edifice. Hitherto in Natal, as in many other parts of the world, teacher education had been regarded merely as ancilliary to the schools establishment. Indeed, there was at times a tendency to regard the training college as a special type of school, and its students as pupils. The Wilks Committee saw clearly and with true perspective when it stated that "more than all else, if a full measure of success is to be attained, the teacher training system will have to be so organised that teachers with requisite knowledge, possessing suitable qualities, and an understanding of the aims to be achieved, will be made available to the schools."¹ It is only really in the decade of the 'sixties that the central importance of teacher education has come to be fully realised. Significant in the proposals for the founding of the original National Advisory Education Council, in the early 'sixties, was the scant attention devoted to the preparation of teachers.

Having been given a clear lead by the Wilks Report, it is altogether regrettable that the Natal Education Department tended to lose sight of the fundamental importance of this aspect of educational provision. The annual reports of the Director of Education in the late 'forties and the 'fifties are frequently concerned with growing shortages of teaching staff, but little attention is devoted to considerations of teacher preparation other than the making good of these shortages.

This judgement is possibly a harsh one when one is confronted with the figures in Table 15. These show the annual recruitment and wastage of teaching staff in Natal for the ten-year period 1938 to 1947. In addition the total strength of the teaching force is given and the wastage expressed as a percentage of the total staff. Finally, recruitment and wastage are balanced and expressed as a favourable balance (+) or a deficit (-).

It is distressing to note the steady decline in output of teachers from the local training institutions, at a time when this should have been increasing steadily to meet the requirements of an

¹ Ibid: p.46, para 129.

Table 15 : Recruitment and wastage of teachers in Natal for the 10-year period, 1938-1947¹

Year	R e c r u i t m e n t				W a s t a g e			T o t a l			
	Natal	Other Provs.	Out-side S.A.	Total	Marr- iage	Other teaching posts	Other reasons	Total	Teaching strength ²	% Waste	+ -
1938	130	15	1	146	43	20	17	80	1892	4.2	+66
1939	136	25	2	163	56	23	23	102	1902	5.3	+61
1940	127	21	0	148	103	19	36	158	1854	7.5	-10
1941	115	35	1	151	70	13	36	119	1829	5.3	+32
1942	119	31	2	152	70	27	71	168	1940	8.9	-16
1943	91	24	0	115	87	31	35	153	1954	7.5	-38
1944	97	39	2	128	69	38	58	165	1895	8.9	-27
1945	92	20	0	112	107	63	98	268	2032	13.5	-156
1946	96	9	2	107	90	57	63	210	1948	10.5	-103
1947	80	35	20	135	71	55	65	191	2000	9.5	-56

expanding school system. Indeed, the total teaching strength grew very slowly during this period. One is aware of the importance of the Second World War as a retarding factor in the growth of teacher training output as well as of the school system. The large increase in the number of resignations due to marriage in 1945 is significant, as is the steadily increasing number of resignations for other reasons as well as to fill other teaching posts. This increase is out of proportion to the increase in total teaching strength. It is of fundamental importance to realise that at this time no Afrikaans-medium teachers' courses were provided in Natal. The bulk of those recruited from other provinces were thus Afrikaans-medium teachers, and Natal's supply in this connection was extremely precarious. It was only when the Durban Teachers' Training College was established that this weakness began to be compensated for.

The supply position was sufficiently serious in 1947 to warrant the despatch to the United Kingdom of a recruiting team to obtain teachers for the Natal schools. Some 1200 applicants were interviewed and as a result 100 teachers were offered posts in the province.³ In the following year,

¹ Abstracted from Annual Reports of the Director of Education, Natal.

² This is the total strength of the teaching force including both qualified and uncertificated teachers.

³ Natal: Annual Report of the Director Education, 1947.

it was recorded that improved recruitment compared with a static wastage rate had resulted in a net gain of 83 teachers. This was, however, offset by a considerable increase in school enrolment for this year.¹ Thus the teacher supply position was not materially eased nor the problem solved.

In order to stimulate local recruitment to training college and university courses, improvements were granted in loan conditions to students in 1950. The principle of a service contract replaced the old system of cash repayment, and this undoubtedly stimulated the flow of students towards teaching as a career.

In 1951 it was hoped that it would be possible to extend the duration of the basic training course to three years as from 1952. It was realised that both teacher shortage and the shortage of accommodation at the Natal Training College were factors inimical to this development.² Even though this hope was not realised at the time, there is no doubt that this was the beginning of an era of greatly increased provision for teacher education in the province. New courses on the basis of two years' general training followed by an optional one-year specialist course were introduced in 1954. Two years later it was noted that "a gratifying number of students are opting to proceed to third-year courses in 1957." Furthermore, it was stated that "the number of students making application for admission to a teacher training course warranted the institution in Durban at the beginning of the year of a class of fifteen student teachers. It is planned to erect a suitable building for a teachers' training college, and the students will form the nucleus of a Durban Training College."³

Subsequent annual reports are deficient in their record of the developments in teacher education in the province. Thus, in 1957, the report on the Training of Teachers occupies a scant five lines and merely states that the "total number of student teachers in both training colleges was the highest on record."⁴ There is no doubt that in the remaining

¹ Ibid: 1948: Average annual increases in school enrolment for the period 1939-1947 had been 538. In 1948 this increased to 1401.

² In fact, courses were only extended to three years in 1965.

³ Natal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1956.

⁴ Ibid: 1957: p.6.

years of the decade the primary concern in successive reports was with teacher shortage, more especially of teachers of particular subjects at secondary school level. Thus, the Director of Education notes in 1958 that "teachers from the training colleges holding the Natal Teacher's Diploma in Mathematics or Science, are proving of value in the teaching of these subjects in the lower secondary classes of the high schools."¹

Such was the situation as Natal approached the introduction of differentiated two-stream education at the beginning of 1962. Indeed, it was in that year that it was reported that "the shortage of secondary teachers affects not only Mathematics and the Sciences, but almost all the subjects of the curriculum. Third-year trainees of the training colleges have eased the position to a limited extent only. Some of these teachers have adapted themselves well to the demands made of them as teachers for the lower secondary classes, but others have found difficulty with this type of work. Owing to the lack of qualified graduates, several of these young teachers have been used to teach Senior Certificate classes."² Three years later the Director of Education, in reviewing the situation, said that "though it is in the interests of a liberal education that schools should provide a wide variety of courses, staffing conditions suggest that further restrictions on the number of subjects offered in schools, may become necessary. The dilemma is heightened by the realisation that to prepare pupils adequately for life, the trend should be to offer a greater choice of subjects to pupils."³

Conclusion:

By the start of the 'sixties, then, the new pattern of teacher education in Natal had crystallised. The University had continued to play its traditional rôle of providing a one-year professional post-graduate course, extended to small numbers of selected non-graduate students from within its ranks.⁴ New courses had been introduced into

¹ Ibid: 1958.

² Ibid: 1962.

³ Ibid: 1965.

⁴ It naturally also provided courses leading to the B.Ed. and to research degrees in Education.

the training colleges, with heavy emphasis being placed on academic specialist courses, particularly in Mathematics and Science. Thus both the University and the Colleges were concerned in the preparation of teachers for the secondary school. Despite the introduction of differentiated education, these teachers, whether from college or university, were destined to be concerned with a curriculum essentially academic in concept. There was, particularly during the last half of the 'fifties, all too little contact between the university and the colleges. This contact had to be patiently re-established during the 'sixties.

The Wilks' Report had indicated in broad outline the path that could with profit have been followed. That it was not followed was due to a variety of reasons: financial, academic/professional and administrative. The result was a developing strain on teaching and teacher training resources which is still being felt at the beginning of the 'seventies. What was at last, and perhaps painfully dispelled, was the impression that teacher education was the Cinderella of educational provision in the province.

4. Non-differentiated pre-vocationally streamed systems of education:

The factors which led to the introduction of greater or lesser differentiated systems of education based upon pupil ability in the Transvaal and Natal, as well as results for teacher education, having been examined in outline, it is now necessary to look at the opposite trend which led to the emergence of multi-lateral schools in the Cape Province and the Orange Free State.

Before doing so, however, it is necessary to introduce greater precision of definition into the terms involved, which have come to be interpreted somewhat loosely. It should be noted that within this work the Transvaal school system has been described as being differentiated and to have produced for its purpose multi-lateral schools. Now for the Cape Province and Orange Free State where it is stated that a non-differentiated school system has developed, it is also claimed that multi-lateral schools have evolved.

For the purpose of this study, a differentiated system of education is taken to mean a system in which differentiated or separate courses are made available to pupils of differing academic ability. These courses,

being found in a secondary school, would give rise to a multi-lateral structure, as, for example, in the Transvaal, A, B and C streams exist side by side. The non-differentiated school system is one in which pupils follow a common core of subjects supplemented in some cases by pre-vocationally-biassed subjects which orientate pupils, not necessarily by ability, towards certain general career opportunities, e.g. academic, commercial, technical, etc. This, in turn, would mean that a common secondary school could develop specific 'sides', academic, commercial, etc., and thus also become a multi-lateral school.¹

(a) The Cape Province:

Two main problems concerned educationists in the Cape Province at the end of the second World War. The first was the relatively static nature of school enrolments, while the second concerned the realisation of the inadequacy of the education offered to the youth of the province.

The first problem was a complex one, for the static nature of enrolments concealed evidence of a phenomenon which has become world-wide in the post-World War II era, viz. the expansion of secondary school enrolments. In commenting upon the enrolment statistics in the province from 1939 to 1945, during which time it had fluctuated from 156,579 in 1939 to 156,101 in 1945, the Superintendent-General of Education concluded that "our primary enrolment is definitely decreasing", while "our secondary enrolment is increasing due to the fact that the holding power of our schools is still increasing, and pupils stay at school longer."² In fact from 1934 to 1945 the holding power of the secondary school had increased at Standard VIII level from 39% to 56%, and at Standard X level from 20% to 27%.³

¹ It should perhaps be noted in this connection that the substance of the Wilks Report in Natal was to recommend the development of multi-lateral non-differentiated secondary schools, whereas from 1962 onwards bi-lateral ability differentiated schools have been established. The matter can be further complicated by restricting the choice of certain subjects to particular differentiated courses. Thus, the slower stream might be further sub-divided into commercial or homecraft/handicraft groups, linking ability grouping with course offerings.

² Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education: 1945-1946: p.19.

³ Ibid: p.21.

This situation obviously had important consequences for teacher education. Clearly there was a need to expand secondary teacher training immediately, while any expansion of primary teacher training should be geared to meet the requirements of an anticipated post-war population 'bulge', i.e. to provide additional primary school places from 1951 onwards.

From this factor of the change in emphasis in education provision, the first of the problems of the post-war educationist could be seen to impinge upon the second. With increasing emphasis upon secondary education for a broadening sector of the ability spectrum, it became clear that the traditional emphasis upon academic secondary education would have to be re-assessed. In recognising that part of the problem lay in the inadequacy of the period of compulsory schooling,¹ the Superintendent-General stated: "I believe that the amendment of our Educational Ordinance.....is overdue. We are at the present time lagging behind the other three provinces in this respect. Urgent reorganisation of our school system in order to adapt our schools to the needs of the pupils and the demands of our time cannot be undertaken unless this necessary extension of compulsion is effected. Our children stay in primary schools for too long a period. Our post-primary or secondary education must be extended by at least one year. Vocational guidance.....cannot be properly attended to under the present system."²

In 1946 he returned again to the attack, "If it is the true function and privilege of an education service to enable both boys and girls to bring to fruition the innate character and abilities with which they are.....endowed, then we must be spared the embarrassment of working against time in our efforts to discharge our important social duty..... In the conditions of modern society, the idea must now be dispelled that a pupil who has completed a primary course is 'educated'. He concluded, "whatever structural reforms your Administration may contemplate in the matter of education, they must necessarily aim at improving the content of education..... There can be no clarification of the purpose of the primary and secondary schools or any improvement of the quality of both

¹ The Consolidated Education Ordinance of the Cape Province (No.5 of 1921) limited compulsory school attendance to "all.....who have completed their seventh, but not their sixteenth year."

² Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education, 1941: p.23.

without a uniform lengthening of school life for all children."¹

A year later, in the development of the theme of the improvement of the quality of secondary education, the Superintendent-General blamed "an educational system which is very largely overshadowed by a traditional academic curriculum culminating in the Senior Certificate" for the wastage of pupils in the upper secondary school. He touched upon an important social attitude when he remarked "we have introduced a variety of optional subjects in an effort to broaden the examination syllabus and cater for the less academic candidate. But the old bookish requirements of the traditional curriculum still prevail, as is clear from the lack of support given to practical and general cultural subjects."²

He went on to express fundamental educational truths in the post-war world when he stated that "the time has now arrived to awaken the public conscience to the present unsatisfactory and obsolescent provision for the education of the vast majority of children - due mainly to the Department and the schools having to bow to an insistent demand on the part of the employers.....for academic certificates..... There are diversities of gifts, and for that reason there must be diversity of educational provision. The larger the number³ of children receiving post-primary education, the more essential is it that the education should not attempt to press different types of character and intelligence into the same mould, however excellent in itself it may be."⁴

A new school structure was accordingly proposed with a seven-year primary school extending from 5+ years to 12+ years, followed by a three-year junior secondary school until 15+ years with a final two-year senior secondary school. The Superintendent-General realised, however, that this would be nothing more than pipedreams for "no worthwhile solution to the problem of secondary education adapted to the individual needs of pupils can be arrived at until the overlapping between and the unworkable system of demarcation of the functions of Union and Provincial institutions of a secondary nature is done away with."⁵ It was, however,

1 Ibid: 1946: pp.23,24.

2 Ibid: 1947: p.11.

3 One may take exception to the use of the word 'number' in this context. Strictly 'percentage' would be more correct.

4 Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General, 1947: p.12.

5 Ibid: p.16.

to be two decades before this problem was resolved.

In the immediate post-war period, then, the Cape Education Department recognised its problems in the provision of educational reforms to meet the needs of the modern age. The raising of the school leaving age, the provision of a diversified (but not differentiated) curriculum, the reorganisation of the school system by reducing the length of primary schooling, and extending and dividing secondary schooling into two phases, while bringing to an end dual control of secondary education, represented a clear sighted, if ambitious, policy.

The first of these goals was achieved with the passage of the Education Amendment Ordinance¹ through the Provincial Council in 1951, which made school attendance compulsory up to sixteen years or to the end of Standard VIII. "The aim is to make provision for the non-academic as well as the academic type of pupil, and to give the pupil at this important stage of his development an opportunity of discovering his aptitude and of selecting the direction in which his natural ability can find full expression."²

In the meantime Departmental Committees had drawn up new courses for the primary and junior secondary schools, the former to be optional in 1951 and obligatory in 1952, while it was hoped to introduce the latter in 1953. The principles upon which the new junior secondary course (Standards VI, VII, VIII) were based were generally sound:-

1. the course was required to make provision for the educational needs of the junior adolescent;
2. it was to take into account the individual differences of the pupils in it;
3. it was in the first place to provide a continuation and extension of the basic general education of the primary school, and
4. it was to make provision for:
 - (a) the study of a third language, and
 - (b) the study of certain commercial subjects.

While one may register some disagreement with the details of the final requirement, the principle, viz. that some link should be established

¹ Cape Province: Ordinance No.9 of 1951.

² Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education, 1950-51.

with the senior secondary course, is nonetheless sound.

In order to implement these principles, a number of distinctive new features were to be introduced. These included:-

1. the general exploratory nature of the Standard VI year to discover pupil aptitudes and interests;
2. a minimum number of compulsory subjects was to be prescribed for all pupils, forming the core of the curriculum;
3. the course was to be so designed that the syllabuses could be completed by the average pupil in the prescribed time;
4. additional time available would allow each school to provide supplementary work of its own choice. This work would not be subject to examination for the purpose of issuing a certificate at the end of the course;
5. emphasis was to be laid on the general education of each pupil. This was most important as it meant that there was to be a general curriculum, rather than the development of a multi-lateral approach.
6. guidance services were to be provided; and
7. time was to be allowed for those subjects not specifically mentioned in the course, but which promote the education of the child.¹

It was realised that these fairly radical proposals would present schools with problems which would possibly make it difficult to introduce the new course as a whole into all schools. The main difficulties were seen to be the composition of school staffs, and the fact that fully qualified teachers might not be available for all subjects from the outset. Both of these threw an onus upon the training institutions to produce new kinds of teachers and/or to provide in-service/vacation training courses for teachers already in service.

The senior secondary course built on the foundations of the junior secondary course, came into operation in 1956 and was revised in 1961. Here, although the same principles are identifiable, there is naturally much greater emphasis upon examination requirements. The curriculum for the examination follows closely the pattern of other

¹ Ibid: p.54.

provincial Senior Certificate examinations. Six subjects are to be studied comprising the two official languages, a science subject and three additional subjects which are to be selected from a list of some fifty subjects which may be grouped into academic, handicrafts, housecraft, commercial and agricultural sections. A further requirement is that all curricula must include religious instruction, physical education, music and vocational guidance.

In summary, MacMillan states that "the Cape has not made any further progress in the differentiation of pupils, but the pattern evolved has shown a clear avoidance of the pre-vocational type of technical, commercial course. The pupils have a reasonable choice of subjects, the compulsory core absorbing over 50% of the school week. The course endeavours to ensure a good education while allowing for individual differences."¹ The developments in the field of secondary education in the Cape Province, while perhaps not being radical, obviously contained within them the common problem of educational expansion throughout the post-war world - that of teacher supply. This aspect of the provision of education in the Cape Province will be dealt with in section 5(a) of this chapter.

(b) The Orange Free State:

The growth of the educational system in the pre-war Orange Free State had, as in other provinces, particularly as a result of economic depression, been slow. The sociological and economic factors based upon urbanisation, industrialisation and the consequent development of a demand for extended secondary education were present here as in other parts of South Africa and in the wider world. A further factor in the Orange Free State, however, made even more imperative the review and the expansion of the educational system, particularly at secondary level. This was the opening up of the goldfield in the northwest of the province in the immediate post-war years. In 1949 the Director of Education observed that "the development on the Goldfields of Odendaalsrus and surroundings has gradually become an important factor which education has to take into account."² He reported in this year that "the total number

¹ Behr and MacMillan: op cit., p.152.

² Orange Free State: Report of the Director of Education, 1949, p.7.

of pupils enrolled in the schools of the Gold Area has grown to 1085, an increase of 645 on the school roll for 1948."¹ While the magnitude of these numbers might not be particularly impressive, what is significant is that they represent an increase in school population of 145% in a single year. Few educational systems are geared to cope with an expansion rate of this order, and it was obvious that both teacher and accommodation shortages would develop. "An influx of people from beyond the provincial borders can be expected during the next few years. The main stream will flow, of course, towards the Goldfields, stretching from Allanridge to Virginia, and to neighbouring areas like Kroonstad and Hennenman. A small but still considerable stream flows in the direction of Bloemfontein and a somewhat smaller stream in that of the Coalfields of Vierfontein and Viljoensdrift..... The natural increase of the population of the O.F.S. shows an upward tendency since 1941.....(and) ought to influence the school roll appreciably from now on. Meanwhile another process has been altering the pattern of our education since 1930..... Farm schools are slowly disappearing and.....more children are being concentrated in city and town schools. All these factors will intensify the difficulty of providing class accommodation and finding staff in future."² It was obvious that educational planners in the Orange Free State were to be called on to meet a number of challenges, with the supply of teachers being central to the exercise.

As a first step in this process, a Commission of Education under the chairmanship of Mr. W.J. Pretorius M.E.C., was appointed in 1950, to inquire into and make recommendations regarding the system of education in operation in the province. The Commission reported in 1951 and among its main proposals were the following:-

- (i) the inclusion of Standard VI in the secondary school;
- (ii) the creation of a middle school, comprising Standards VI, VII and VIII;
- (iii) the abolition of the junior certificate as an external examination;
- (iv) the provision of a more diversified secondary curriculum based on a multi-lateral school with courses with academic, commercial and technical biases built round a core of recommended subjects

¹ Ibid.

² Ibid.

which would include Religious Instruction, School Singing and Art Appreciation, Physical Education, languages, history, geography and arithmetic;

- (v) the Standard VI year was to be exploratory, offering a wide course and seeking to orientate the pupil towards the most appropriate stream;
- (vi) no school should offer more than two streams. It was felt that the academic and commercial streams would be the most common, with technical and agricultural courses being chosen by relative small numbers.

The re-organisation proposed by the Pretorius Commission can clearly be seen as the first phase of a development continued in the Report of the Wentzel Overseas Mission which was presented in 1963. This second report stressed the need for all secondary education to be under the control of the provinces to permit the provision of the four streams (as above) either in comprehensive or separate schools depending on rural or urban location. It stressed that the academic stream was appropriate for only 15 to 20% of pupils, with only 4 to 5% of them proceeding to university. It criticised the traditional control by the universities of academic education and advocated that all courses should commence with a practical bias, theory being built in at the more advanced stages. Towards this end it was advocated that the high school should extend over six years, the first three years being in the middle school, and the second three years in the high school proper. It was recommended that all four streams should lead on to continuative studies at tertiary level.

A similar organisation of curriculum to that put forward by the Pretorius Commission was recommended. The pre-vocationally biased sides were to be grouped round a core of common learnings which would include the official languages, history and civics, geography, physical education, music and religious instruction, with practically-biased mathematics appropriate to the particular stream being followed.

In addition the Overseas Mission recommended an extension of the principle of internal assessment backed by moderation by promotion committees up to and including the level of university admission.

These two reports, the Pretorius Commission and that of the Overseas Mission, separated by some twelve years in time, represent a

considerable advance in educational thought in the Orange Free State. Their hereditary link, in the advocacy of a multi-lateral diversification of secondary education round a common core of subjects, is clear. It is necessary now to examine the effect which these developments had upon the training and supply of teachers for the existing as well as the new schools and courses.

5. The education of teachers in the Cape Province and Orange Free State in the post-war period:

It is clear from the foregoing that in both these provinces there had been in the post-war period a revolution in educational thought and practice with regard particularly to the provision of secondary education. The steadily growing holding power of the secondary school had been reinforced by the raising of the upper age limit of compulsory schooling to sixteen years. With this came the realisation of the inadequacy and inappropriateness of secondary education based solely on a traditional academic pattern for an ever widening spectrum of pupil ability. This meant, as has been seen, the formulation of new patterns of education comprising new organisation, new courses and new subjects. It seems reasonable to suggest that new teachers, or, at least, teachers trained in methods appropriate to the new education, were necessary. In what ways did the system of teacher education evolve during this period?

(a) Cape Province:

The first post-war mention of teacher supply occurs in the annual report of the Superintendent-General in 1947 when the shortage of teachers is commented upon. In the same report is stressed the need to cut down on and centralise teacher training institutions, it being suggested that they be reduced from nine to six.¹ In the same report the Superintendent-General advocated the reorganisation of the school system² but it was obvious that little could be done until the problem of dual control of education had been resolved. However, it cannot be disputed that little thought was given at the time to the important

¹ Their number was, in fact, reduced to seven, with the Kingwilliamstown Training College being closed in 1949 and that at Steynsburg in the following year.

² See page 168.

problem of the provision of properly trained staff for the proposed new secondary schools. In the following year, the emphasis was once again upon the shortage of teachers. "It again happened in 1948 and 1949 that in certain districts vacancies were advertised from time to time without drawing a single applicant. The result was that once again the services of retired teachers and married women had to be requisitioned on a fairly large scale."¹ Thus, by the end of the 'forties, the problem in the Cape was particularly one of numbers. It was only in the next decade that the need for new kinds of teachers came to be more fully realised.

The new primary and junior secondary courses were introduced in 1951. There is no doubt that the new responsibilities devolving upon teachers in implementing these courses were realised. "It is hoped," it was stated, "that the new primary course will serve as a stimulus to teachers and will encourage them to adapt their teaching methods to the new spirit which the course endeavours to create in our schools for the benefit of our pupils."² "In the junior secondary course, it will not only be the content which will determine the value of the education received as a result of the reforms carried out, but to an even greater extent its success will depend upon the spirit shown in its application and in its interpretation."³ It is all very well to expect experienced teachers to adapt their teaching methods to meet new situations arising from curriculum reforms. It is something else to expect this of new teachers upon their first appointment.

The fundamental difficulty in the provision of new training methods in the preparation of teachers in the Cape Province (and elsewhere), appears to have been the trichotomy existing between authorities and institutions with the universities responsible for the preparation of academic secondary school teachers, the colleges of education and the provincial education department for primary school teachers, and the technical college for technical and commercial teachers. There would seem to have been singularly little dialogue between them with a view to co-ordination in the preparation of teachers to meet the requirements of training for the new courses. As much of the emphasis was upon the

1 Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education: 1948/9.

2 Ibid: 1950/51, p.52.

3 Ibid: p.55.

development of the junior secondary course, the brunt of the responsibility was that of the universities, and it must be recorded that they played an important rôle in the provision of new courses of a non-graduate nature, such as a junior secondary course, as well as specific specialist courses usually of one-year duration for secondary school teachers e.g. art, music, physical education, etc. The basic question remains, however, as to whether these courses were appropriate to the university. The absence of dialogue did little to ventilate the matter; it merely tended to confirm the existing pattern.

It was not until 1958 that a systematic review and revision of courses offered in the provincial colleges of education was undertaken. The existing pattern of a two-year basic course leading to the Primary Teacher's Certificate was retained, with a further optional specialist one-year course leading to the Primary Higher Certificate. The specialist courses provided for the latter certificate included physical education, needlework and art, as well as an infant teacher's course and a general academic course. Thus, the essential course structure was on the basis of 2 + 1 years, a pattern which has been noted elsewhere in South Africa. Perhaps the most important feature of the review carried out between 1958 and 1962 was the need to integrate practical and professional studies. "The subjects, Method, Psychology and History of Education which formerly were too often treated as unrelated fields of study, have been coalesced into one subject, Principles of Education and Administration. It is an integrated course which should make what is studied significant for the student. The emphasis is mainly on method, but the other components, Psychology and History, are enlisted to strengthen and enrich it."¹

No such systematic review was undertaken of secondary teacher training, for, as the Superintendent-General observed in 1961, "apart from the training of secondary teachers for Handwork and Physical Education undertaken at training colleges, teachers are trained also at technical colleges in these subjects, as well as in art and commercial subjects. By far, most secondary teachers are trained at universities."² Accordingly, he confines himself to commenting only upon the extent of the financial subsidy made available to secondary teachers in training.

¹ Ibid: 1958: p.12.

² Ibid: 1961: p.20.

It is emphasised that such subsidies are "given only to students taking approved courses at universities or technical colleges."¹ Similarly restricted comments are repeated in the reports for 1962 and 1963.

It should not be construed from this, however, that the authorities in the Cape were satisfied with the condition of teacher education in the province. The late 'fifties and early 'sixties were a period in which considerable thought was being given to the inadequacy of basic teacher preparatory courses. England and Wales moved to three-year training as basic early in the new decade. In South Africa the Transvaal and Natal followed suit before mid-decade. However, factors were operative in the Cape which slowed this development. "For many years the Department has felt the need for a radical improvement in the training of its teachers, and has looked forward to the day when three years' training could be required as a minimum for the certification of teachers. The demands of modern society make it imperative that the teachers of today be better equipped than were those of a generation ago. Two factors, however, made a forward step impossible, the first being an inadequate supply of teachers, and the second insufficient and unsatisfactory accommodation at the colleges and hostels attached to them."² In the following year (1963) it was reported that "a compulsory three year course could soon be started", for "more than 60% of the students who obtained the Primary Teacher's Certificate continue with a third year course.... After the institution of a compulsory three-year training period, there will be one year in which there will be no supply of these two-year qualified teachers. The Department is of opinion that such a year would not present any insurmountable problems, since there are enough married teachers who would be prepared to accept temporary appointments."³

It was not until 1968, however, that compulsory three-year training was achieved. In that year it was stated that:-

"(i) The training course for the Primary Teacher's Diploma is a three-year course which branches out after the first year

¹ Ibid: P.20.

² Ibid: 1962: p.17.

³ Ibid: 1963: p.17.

into:-

- (a) Junior School Work, with a view to infant school teaching, and
 - (b) Senior Primary Work with a view to teaching the senior primary standards.
- (ii) The training course for a Teacher's Diploma is a one-year course which follows on the Primary Teacher's Diploma course."¹

New school courses demanded a new approach to the education of teachers for them. A limited revision of the system of teacher education had been initiated by the start of the decade of the 'sixties. Almost a further decade was to elapse before new extended courses for the training of primary teachers were implemented. The main weakness, however, lay in the preparation of secondary school teachers, and the necessary co-ordination required for the rationalisation of teacher education at this level is a matter for urgent attention in the 'seventies.

(b) Orange Free State:

Although ideas in the Cape Province and the Orange Free State, particularly with regard to the development of secondary education, and the establishment of a junior secondary or middle school, were rather similar, conditions under which students were to receive their basic training as teachers were very different. In the Orange Free State "in consequence of an agreement between the Administration.....and the Council of the U.C.O.F.S., closer co-operation was brought about between the (training college and the university) from the beginning of 1945. The Normal College has developed into the Faculty of Education of U.C.O.F.S., and all teacher training, primary as well as secondary, has since that time been undertaken by the Faculty of Education."² Thus, the problems associated with institutional separation observable in the Cape Province, for example, were absent.

¹ Cape Education Department: Rules relating to the Training of and Examinations for White Teachers at Training Colleges: 1968, p.11.

² Orange Free State: Report of the Provincial Education Commission of Inquiry (Pretorius Commission), 1951: p.271, para 778(1).

The fundamental problem facing education authorities in the Orange Free State in the early post-war years, was that of teacher shortage resulting from the expansion of the secondary school, as well as the economic development of the province due to the exploitation of gold and other minerals in the north. Enrolment statistics in teachers' courses for the years 1941-1945, however, revealed a disquieting trend:-

- (i) over the five-year period there was an overall decline of 80 in the number of students registering to be trained as teachers. This represented a decline of 33 1/3%;
- (ii) in 1945 not a single man enrolled for the higher primary course, and only seven men for the lower primary course.

Commenting on this situation, the Rector of the College and Dean of the Faculty of Education at U.C.O.F.S., Dr. B.A. de Wet, stated "that these figures represent an alarming state of affairs in education in our province, no thoughtful person would deny. The disruption caused by the second World War is in itself no adequate explanation for this state of affairs..... The supply of teachers for the profession will become adequate only when the remuneration of teachers compares favourably with that which is offered in commerce, industry, etc. On all sides, even on the part of the authorities, it is averred that education is one of the most important services in any democratic country. We wholeheartedly agree with this statement, because a nation which does not ensure that the best facilities are provided for the education of its youth is a nation which is on the decline which must eventually lead to ruin. If, therefore, we wish to assure that the training and education of our youth shall be undertaken by the best elements from among our people, then the condition of service must be sufficiently enticing to attract the best elements."¹ An indication of how long it took to turn a deficit into a surplus in recruitment may be seen in the accompanying table.

The steady increase in the production of non-graduate teachers is offset by marked fluctuation in the training of graduate teachers in the University Education Diploma course. Fortunately this favourable situation recorded in 1956 and 1957 was maintained. In 1964 it is

¹ Orange Free State: Report of the Director of Education for the years 1941-1945. Report of the Rector of the Normal College, p.205.

Table 16 : Wastage and recruitment of teachers : O.F.S. 1947-1957¹

Year	Total wastage	Teachers from training institutions		
		Non-graduate	Graduate	Total
1947	158	108	21	129
1948	162	89	34	123
1949	204	86	22	108
1950	213	90	28	118
1951	189	95	42	137
1952	195	100	32	132
1953	209	109	40	149
1954	268	172	39	211
1955	Not available	158	36	194
1956	154	235	62	297
1957	202	244	31	275

recorded that while there was a wastage of 551 teachers from the service there were 691 students (including 92 U.E.D.) in their final year of training. This apparent surplus masks two feature characteristic of teacher supply in the late 'fifties and early 'sixties: first, a proportionately greater increase of non-graduate as opposed to graduate teachers, and secondly, a selective shortage of specialist teachers for the academic secondary school, affecting particularly the official languages, mathematics and the natural sciences.

A second problem apparent in the post-war teacher education pattern in the Orange Free State related to the courses of training offered. The Pretorius Commission in 1951, with its proposals to transfer Standard VI to the secondary school, and to create a new middle

¹ Figures for wastage and output of non-graduate teachers up to 1954 obtained from Annual Reports of the Director of Education. Output of non-graduate teachers, 1955-1957, and of graduate teachers obtained from Republic of South Africa: Statistical Yearbook, 1955: Government Printer, Pretoria.

² Orange Free State: Report of the Director of Education, 1960 reported that new specialisation courses were planned to meet particularly the needs of the middle school. The following year new courses were announced including English, Afrikaans, Mathematics and Science.

secondary school, advocated relatively revolutionary educational innovations. It also examined the question of teacher training and it is doubtful whether the resulting proposals accorded with the more far-reaching recommendations for schools. Basically the Commission proposed few changes; it was suggested that, for students preparing for the Lower Primary Teacher's Certificate, an alternative first year course "better suited to the standard attained by students at school and.....(to) serve as a better preparation for the requirements of the primary school"¹ be instituted. It was further recommended that

- (i) "basic training of all primary teachers be extended to three years as soon as normal conditions set in.....";
- (ii) "the Higher Primary Teacher's Certificate in its present form be abolished";
- (iii) "existing requirements for admission to the Primary Teacher's Diploma remain in force";
- (iv) "the University College.....be approached to institute an alternative course in the two official languages for pupils admitted to the Primary Teacher's Diploma Examination";
- (v) "elementary courses in vocational guidance, library organisation, film education, house management and mothercraft be included in the course of training";
- (vi) "courses be instituted in School Singing, Art and Art Appreciation";
- (vii) "provision be made for a three years' diploma course in Home Industry".²

These proposals while appropriate to the situation tend to be limited in effect. They do not appear to come to grips with the central themes inherent in the proposal for the new middle school. There is no mention of the psychological or sociological study of the educational needs of the adolescent, or, again, of the methods appropriate to the teaching of the less successful child in the secondary school. Indeed, it is not clear from the Commission's report whether it was envisaged if graduate

¹ Orange Free State: Report of the Provincial Commission of Inquiry into Education (the Pretorius Commission), p.286, para 820.

² Ibid: p.289, para 833.

or non-graduate teachers should be responsible for teaching the proposed middle school.

There is, in short, more than a hint of radical developments at the school level while the proposals for the revision of the system of teacher education appear to represent relatively minor amendments to the existing pattern.

Two year training long remained the basic pattern of training in the Orange Free State. The Director of Education announced in 1960 that the basic course for men was to be extended to three years. At the same time women students were to receive the Primary Teacher's Certificate, if they so desired, on the successful completion of the two-year basic course. This has consequently imposed a 2 + 1 year structure upon non-graduate courses in the Orange Free State. The one-year course has essentially been a specialisation course in a fairly wide range of subjects. In 1964 no fewer than 19 such one-year specialisation courses were offered.

A third and final feature of the system of teacher education in the Orange Free State which requires mention is the professional administrative relationship which permitted a provincial college of education to become an integrated part of what was to become an autonomous university. The Rector of the College observed in 1945 that "the agreement between the O.F.S. Administration and the Council of the U.C.O.F.S. terminates a conflict of several years duration and one which has had a retarding effect upon the training of primary teachers, and which adversely influenced relationships between students of the two institutions. The future will have to show whether the step taken is in the best interests of the training of teachers in our province. I believe it will lead not only to the bridging of the gap which has always existed between primary and secondary teachers, but also that by this step the possibility has been created of more effective co-ordination in the training of teachers in the O.F.S."¹

After a trial period, the agreement between the Provincial Administration and the University of the Orange Free State was renewed on 1st May, 1951. The training college under this agreement became known as the Teachers' College of the U.O.F.S. "This change of name.....

¹ Orange Free State: Report of the Director of Education for the years 1941-45. Report of the Rector of the Normal College: p.197.

is of more than passing importance, because it marks a stage in the evolution of teacher training in the Free State. On the one hand it signifies the consolidation of the University connection and of the University status; on the other hand it signifies the upholding of an independent identity and of a homogeneous student group conscious of its aim. The ideal of training all categories of teachers for service in the Free State under one roof has not yet been fully realised."¹ Ten years later, in 1961, the agreement was renewed and consolidated.

This was a most significant development in the history of teacher education in South Africa, and one which is of prime importance in terms of the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 which places responsibility for the training of teachers for the secondary school in the hands of the universities. The experience of the Orange Free State has shown that co-ordination can be made to work. The McNair Report² in England in 1943 formulated a type of co-operation and co-ordination which resulted in the establishment of Institutes of Education. Twenty years later the Robbins Committee³ recommended that the process be carried a step further with the creation of the School of Education between the university Departments of Education and associated colleges of education. It warned that such closer co-operation would involve concessions by the colleges, and their responsible authorities, as well as by the universities. Varying degrees of progress have been achieved in this direction in England.

While considerable success has been achieved in the Orange Free State in the matter of co-operation, it should not be imagined that all the experience has been positive. On the one hand, the university degree courses at first year level became part of the basic training of students. University lectures in History I, and in the Theory of Education were taking courses in the College in 1962.⁴ On the other hand the Report of the Overseas Mission in 1963 contains references which imply that the co-operation is not quite so widely accepted as it

¹ Ibid: 1951: p.93.

² Great Britain: Consultative Committee on Education: The Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders: 1943: H.M.S.O.

³ Great Britain: Committee on Higher Education: 1963: H.M.S.O.

⁴ Orange Free State: Annual Report of the Director of Education: 1962.

might seem on the surface. For example, the Report in dealing with the formulation of national education policy, accords very little place or importance to the universities. Furthermore, the Mission was frankly critical of the traditional university influence on academic secondary education with particular reference to methods, organisation and practice. Finally, despite proposing important changes with regard to differentiated education, and examining procedures, the Mission made no suggestion as to what implications these proposals had for teacher education.

It would seem that the integration of college and university department of education possesses the characteristics of a physical mixture, rather than those of a chemical compound. The individual constituents can still be recognised and are capable of separation.

6. General Conclusions:

The developments with regard to school education in the post-World War II world can be classified under the two headings of the growth of school systems and the provision of teachers for these systems. It would seem fundamental that the second might be considered to have priority over the first, for it seems manifestly impossible to introduce new educational ideas adequately unless the teachers are available to implement them. Unfortunately the priorities became confused in many parts of the world as a result of the urgent economic and social demand for increased education particularly at secondary school level. The world found itself confronted with the need to provide more schools and new courses for a population which not only was growing rapidly, but which demanded that its children should stay at school longer. The result was a chronic shortage of teachers, particularly at the secondary school level, and the urgent task of society through the training plant was to seek to produce teachers in sufficient numbers to meet the growing demand.

There is no doubt that the educational developments associated with the growth of school systems constituted a revolution. Basic to the new pattern was the general acceptance of the concept that secondary school education was the right of every citizen rather than the privilege of an elite. This meant in turn the acceptance of the fact that a traditionally narrowly based academic education was

inadequate for a steadily broadening spectrum of ability and interest. This, in turn, meant a re-examination of the organisation, nature and purpose of the secondary school. In England a long and protracted and still unresolved debate has centred round separate or comprehensive schools. In the United States the traditional community high school has always been a comprehensive school, but it has been required to expand and diversify its curricular offerings very considerably. In South Africa the question of comprehensive or differentiated courses was aggravated by the question which had plagued educationists since the formation of Union - the division of responsibility for education between central government and provincial authority.

The acceptance of the principle of differing needs of pupils and the provision of courses for this purpose, raised the further problem of the guidance of pupils towards and their selection of appropriate courses of study. England and Wales accepted the principle of selection at the end of primary school, but has since turned against it. In South Africa the trend has been to accept the eighth year of schooling as an orientation period at the commencement of secondary education, with a selector mechanism of varying type being imposed at the end of this orientation year.

Furthermore, the expansion of educational provision and opportunity has seriously called in question traditional forms of assessment and especially the external end examination. New methods of assessment which have steadily found favour have included continuous assessment on an internal basis with the application of some form of external moderation. This, in turn, has led to a growing disenchantment with the tendency for secondary education, because of traditional practice, to be dominated by a university approach to examinations.

The foregoing presupposes a much more diversified approach to education, especially in the secondary school with a considerably greater responsibility being transferred to the teacher for guidance, and assessment of pupils than was possible under the more rigid traditionally academic curriculum. This again means a new school organisation and teachers trained with new goals and purposes in mind. It is at this point that the main problems with regard to the implementation of the educational revolution in South Africa have been encountered.

Teacher training institutions in this country had not been clearly

recognised as being central to educational development. Rather they had tended to be looked upon as providing a necessary but essentially ancilliary service - that of providing teachers for a school system which was in essence the creation of the professional administrators within the educational service. Again, at this point, the matter of divided control of education obtruded itself and complicated the issue. It was impossible to determine what sort of teachers were required by the children of South Africa; one could merely assume that there were required to be primary and secondary school teachers, academic, commercial, technical and agricultural specialists. They were trained in differing institutions between which, with the exception of the Orange Free State, the link was tenuous, and even here it was not without its problems. The results of this were a tendency to polarisation as well as to duplication of functions in a variety of ways.

The fundamental need was clearly to resolve the central problem of education in South Africa - the professional and administrative control of secondary education. It was then necessary further to produce some rationalisation of the system of teacher education in order to implement the educational revolution which had been proposed for the school system. Indeed, it must be repeated, an educational revolution had been proposed for the country's schools without provision of the means for its implementation.

The need of the 'sixties was to deal with the problems of organisation, control, and the sort of courses necessary to produce the teachers for the schools. Some of these problems have in part been resolved, but the 'seventies open with the urgent need to consider the nature of institutions of teacher education, their administrative organisation and the relationships existing between them as well as between them and the developing school system. These matters will be dealt with in Parts Three and Four.

Chapter Seven: Towards the Co-Ordination of Teacher Education
in South Africa : 1910-1960

1. Introduction:

"States do not live isolated, bound up in themselves and jealously shut up behind walls. They are bathed.....in the vast international.....or intersocial environment which envelopes them. Each of them lives in a perpetual state of becoming and of decay; elements are continually being detached from it which go to increase neighbouring states; and, inversely, elements come from them which it absorbs in its turn and incorporates in itself..... There are actions and reactions: the same people who tend thus to resemble one another more and more every day, imitating one another, unconsciously influenced by one another, taking each other as a pattern, as a sort of subtle emanation, these same people are striving no less ardently, and no less actively, to separate themselves more every day from their neighbours, and by carefully cultivating their special gifts to accentuate as much as possible their characteristic features. There is no doubt that the conflict between these two tendencies is one of the dominating facts of history."¹

There is no doubt also that these two tendencies delineated by Febure can be applied to the four provinces which constituted first the Union of South Africa, and now the Republic. For as Marquard has said, "When South Africa became a Union, and for all practical purposes an independent state, she automatically became an empire whose colonial subjects lived within her borders. The problem of South Africa in 1910 was, as it still is: how to deal with her colonial subjects..... the question of relations between Boer and Briton, like that of relations between black and white, was in 1910, and still is, unresolved..... The twentieth century added problems of its own. These were not peculiar to South Africa, but they pressed more hardly on her, because they came upon a country that had not had time to develop its administrative services, and was politically divided..... All these hindrances to unity, whether their origin is in this century or that, interacted upon one another and complicated the tasks that faced the people of the Union of South Africa..... (They) made immeasurably more

¹ Lucien Febure: A Geographical Introduction to History, 1932: pp.314-315.

difficult the tasks with which all states have to deal. Industrial development, urbanization, housing, health, education, unemployment, war and defence, foreign affairs, communications, social and cultural amenities, sport, church organization - in the approach to none of these, was the Union of South Africa, in 1910, or since then, able to put forth a united effort backed by all its citizens."¹ There are signs that this situation has changed since the establishment of the Republic in 1961, and in the face of extraneous pressures.

Despite the constitutional, historical and social divisions within the state, significant references were made at various times between 1910 and 1960 to the need for educational reform in order to produce a co-ordinated and rational system of professional control. It was not until the last decade that these were to bear fruit, but it is necessary that they should be recorded.

2. The Gutsche Memorandum, 1924:

On the professional side of teacher education a significant contribution was made in 1924 by Dr. Hugo Gutsche in the Transvaal to which reference has already been made. The opening sentence of his paper is significant, "Intelligent inquiry into the larger problems of education is a national necessity." Regrettably there was no body within the Union which could undertake such an inquiry. Dr. Gutsche examined fundamental matters in his paper including:-

- "(1) the relation of university courses to professional training;
- (2) should matriculation be a pre-requisite for the Primary Training Course?;
- (3) practising schools and the initiating of students into the methods of different subjects;
- (4) the staffs of training colleges;
- (5) courses and certificates proposed;
- (6) the gradual elimination of untrained teachers."²

Such a list could, with the exception of the second and the last, form the agenda of a meeting of the National Education Council or of a regional joint advisory council at the present time, nearly half a century later.

¹ Marquard, L.: The Story of South Africa, 1954: pp.220-222.

² Transvaal: Report of the Director of Education, 1924.

3. The University Commission, 1928: (van der Horst Commission):

Four years later the van der Horst Commission in its investigation into the universities in South Africa examined in passing the general problems of education in South Africa arising from the policy of "dividing the indivisible". It noted that the Hofmeyr Commission opined that "the difficulties and confusions and conflicts spring solely from failure to agree upon a satisfactory interpretation of the worlds 'other than higher'. Do they not, asked the van der Horst commissioners, "spring from much deeper roots"? "What is meant by an "organic scheme of education" and what is the difference between "an organic scheme of education" and "a scheme for the co-ordination of all educational activities?"-----"In the case of our Union there have been.....numerous commissions and committees appointed by the Provincial Administrations, and conferences between the Union Government and the provinces, on the subject of education, and if by system is meant an orderly arrangement according to some common law or end, the system is still to seek. The truth seems to be that while the State has assumed the task of education, the nation is still groping for the meaning of education."¹

The University Commission dealt with four topics which are relevant to this work and to which reference must be made:-

1. "At Union the control of education was divided between the Union and the Provinces, and the alterations which have been made since then have not tended to obliterate the effects of the

¹ Union Government: Report of the University Commission: (van der Horst Commission). Government Printer, 1928: paras 14 and 16. Commenting on the possible establishment of a Board of Education as proposed by the Hofmeyr Commission, the report reflected that it might "resolve itself into an official answering with a little variation to Charles Buller's famous description of Mr. Mother Country: 'In some backroom ...you will find all the Board which really exercises supremacy, and really maintains connection with the large and widely-scattered Institutions of Higher Education. We know not his name, the history or the functions of the individual, into the narrow limits of whose person the Board has shrunk...he has a modest home in the outskirts of Pretoria, with an equally modest establishment, and the educationist who is on his road to the office, little imagines that it is the real ruler of the institutions, that he sees walking over the bridge on the Aapies River, or driving his two-seater, or riding cheek by jowl with him on the back of the tram, as he comes into town of a morning.'" (para 17). The Commissioners obviously had the gift of foresight in the matter of late-twentieth century bureaucracy!

division, rather to intensify them."¹

2. "The question of teachers' diplomas.....is one which demands wider investigation than fell within the scope of the Commission inquiry, but we wish to put on record our general impression that the training of all secondary school teachers should be a function of the universities alone. The desire to make such university training of teachers the means of giving them a wide and liberal view of life, as well as sound scientific training in the subjects they are to teach, should, however, not obscure the danger that their professional training at the university may become too theoretical and due attention should be given at the universities to the practical side of their equipment."²

3. "The Provincial Administration all have establishments for training teachers, and it would seem that the supply from these various sources is becoming greater than the demand. If the training of teachers, except perhaps for the lowest grade of schools and of instructions in vocational schools, were transferred entirely to the universities the danger of a redundancy would be lessened. This course would also make possible a considerable saving."³

While unable to accept the inferiority of training deemed necessary for "the lowest grade of schools" and the financial expediency as an inducement, the need for co-ordination and national planning was clearly recognised by the Commission at the time.

4. "There is no hardship in requiring any institution to satisfy the Minister of the need for aid in developing educational services required by the nation, and the Minister is the proper person to judge whether the need is truly national. It will be said that this (the block grant system to universities) reopens the door to political pressure, which the method of automatic increases was intended to close, but we know of no method of protecting a people against governments

¹ Ibid: para 23, p.8.

² Ibid: para 45, p.15.

³ Ibid: para 91, p.23.

of their own choice."¹

With a University Commission sitting in 1969, one cannot help but speculate as to whether such sentiments might not be construed as abrogating the concept of university autonomy. At the same time, precisely this situation is likely to be created in 1970 as the universities prepare to assume responsibility for secondary teacher training and come to request financial supplementation from the State for the purpose.

The views of the Commission with regard to the need for teacher training to become more closely associated with the universities were endorsed by the Secretary for Education in the same year (1928). "There is a strong concensus of opinion that.....(teacher) training should to an increasing extent be made a function of the universities and university colleges only, and that it should be placed on a national basis. If such a policy were embarked upon, existing anomalies and difficulties in the training, certification, employment and registration of teachers, which are now well-nigh baffling, might be approached with a fair prospect of satisfactory solution even under the present system of disjointed and many-headed educational control, and this advance would be possible without additional cost to the Government. Indeed, there is good reason to believe that nationalisation of teacher training would mean less expenditure for the Union Government..... (The) implications of such policy of nationalisation would be that the smaller university institutions would in effect become teachers' colleges and so obtain a strong *raison d'être*; that normal colleges situated in close proximity to university institutions would be merged into them, thus obviating the necessity of capital expenditure for additional buildings, and rendering further economy possible; that normal colleges in centres where there are no university institutions would have to be brought under Union control for the satisfactory co-ordination of their work with that of teachers' colleges and faculties of education."²

Without doubt by this time the need for a policy of co-ordination

¹ Ibid: para 111, p.27.

² Union Government: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, Union Education Department: 1928: p.8.

and rationalisation both at national and provincial level had been demonstrated. As has already been shown at a local level varying degrees of co-operation had been achieved in various provinces. In the Transvaal the colleges were responsible for professional training while the universities undertook the academic courses. In Natal a similar, though modified scheme was in operation between the Natal University College and the Natal Training College, the latter being responsible particularly for method and practical teaching. Co-operation existed between the training college in Bloemfontein and the University College of the Orange Free State. Was it too much to hope that some co-ordination might develop at a national level?

It seemed to be the obvious next step, but the report of the Secretary quoted above contained the seeds of further dissension and the putting off of a step which educationists deemed necessary. The word 'nationalisation' was one which the twenty year-old Union was not prepared to accept: acceptance would mean inevitably a whittling down of provincial autonomy. The suspicions of the provincial administrations were confirmed by an event which took place at the beginning of the 'thirties.

4. The First Report of the National Bureau of Education, 1930:

The report of the Secretary for Education for the year 1930 contains as an addendum the first report of the National Bureau of Education. This body, under the direction of Dr. E.G. Malherbe had been established in July, 1929 to collect and co-ordinate "statistics and other data concerning education as administered by the Departments of each of the four provinces and by the Union Department." It is a "liaison office between the various Education Departments" and it also keeps "in touch with educational movements and developments in other countries in so far as they are relevant to and may throw light upon South African problems." "The Bureau is to do research work in problems of an educational or social nature." "In short, the aim of the Bureau is to be a sort of clearing house where educational ideas, the results of educational experiments and researches, may be pooled, to be drawn from for the common good of the education of the whole nation."¹ It is obvious that this body supplied a professional need

¹ Union Government: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, Addendum 1: Report of the National Bureau of Education, p.28.

in the field of education in South Africa and was a worthy forerunner of such bodies as the National Bureau for Educational and Social Research and the Human Sciences Research Council.

Following on from previous annual reports of the Union Education Department it was not surprising that the initial work undertaken by the Bureau was in the field of teacher education, and the results of this formed the substance of its first Report. The Officer-in-charge did not mince words. After examining the conditions operative at the time (many of which are still applicable at the beginning of the 'seventies), he concludes that "looking at teacher training from a national point of view, the whole situation seems chaotic. While diversity of practice is not a bad thing in itself, there seems to be no unity of purpose about what is probably the most important task in the education of a nation - the training of its teachers."¹

After examining enrolment figures and per capita costs of training in the four provinces, the report states that "it would appearthat the provinces are receiving a higher subsidy from the Union Government than is really necessary for performing their part of the function of teacher training..... It would seem as if the provinces were to be commended for performing this function in such an economical way as to make a profit out of it."² The conclusion on the question of costs is interesting: "It does not make a difference to the taxpayer whether the State's money is spent by a Provincial authority or by a Union authority..... The important question for him is, whether the money is economically spent..... Is the State justified in maintaining a multiplicity of institutions and thereby paying at an exorbitant rate for a service which could just as, if not more efficiently be performed by a few, merely because it panders to vested interests?"²

Malherbe then went on to examine the selective power of institutions stating that "the question of economy though very important should, however, not be the sole factor determining the policy of teacher training..... If it should appear advisable from an economical point of view to centralise all teacher training in the university

1 Ibid: p.28.

2 Ibid: p.30.

3 Ibid: p.34.

institutions, such a course could only be embarked upon, if a radical change is brought about in the type of training offered at present by most of these institutions. Participating in the wide atmosphere of university life is a very valuable experience for the future teacher. Yet it may be found advisable to keep a few non-university training colleges in more or less rural surroundings to provide more directly for the training in rural activities which constitute such an important part of the work of many of South Africa's teachers."¹

The report concludes, inter alia, that "the universities attract a more intelligent type of student teacher than the training or normal colleges" which institutions are criticised for "the almost negligible proportion of students eliminated by the examinations conducted by the Provincial authorities." A very serious charge is made in the statement that "students who do not pass, cannot get a teaching job, and the Departments would be prevented from recovering the loans by deductions from salaries.....such an attitude becomes still less defensible when one remembers that the Union Treasury supplied the money for that training."²

The final conclusion touches upon fundamental matters and should be recorded: "The bulk of our teachers should be better trained. Modern life with its increasing complexity is making more and more exacting demands upon the school and upon the teacher. The economic and social problems which focus upon the school, call for a type of teacher that has had as much of an all-round training as possible in these problems. At present, our teachers, as a class, are not getting that preparation. Closer association with the universities may do a great deal towards giving that better training. But the question of teacher training is a very difficult one, and it will require much thought and sympathetic co-operation of all authorities concerned before the matter is placed upon a proper footing."³

The evidence of the Malherbe Report accorded well with the expressed views of the Secretary for Education and professionally many of the arguments put forward merited support. It is a pity, however,

¹ Ibid: p.34

² Ibid: p.35.

³ Ibid: p.36.

that the National Bureau so rejected the work of the training colleges that it advocated that only a few should be maintained for the training of rural teachers. Surely there are as good, possibly better, reasons for exposing intending rural teachers to the widening experience of the university than in the case of urban teachers? It is interesting, too, that although lip service is paid to the matter of co-operation, the intention is that training should be moved almost completely into the orbit of the universities. There seems to have been little or no consideration given to the concept which fifteen years later the McNair Report was to advocate for England and Wales, namely, the creation of "an organic unity of training institutions".¹

Finally, there is the question of the tactics employed in the preparation of this report and the strategic use of it at the time. Malherbe attacked with some justification, though perhaps financial grounds were hardly the most impressive reasons, "the vested interests" in education and their influence in teacher education. The Secretary included the report in his own annual report and referred to it in terms which were unlikely to secure from the provincial authorities the "co-operation" for which Malherbe had pleaded.

"Dr. Malherbe's report clearly reveals the need of dealing with the question of teacher training from a national point of view..... There is good reason to believe that if teacher training were placed under Union control, the State would benefit financially..... The question of teacher training does not necessarily form part of the larger Provincial question, and the solution.....indicated is not in conflict with the principle of Provincial autonomy as regards 'education other than higher'. The existing practice is, in fact, an infringement of the arrangement under which 'higher education' has been placed under Union control, for all European teacher-training is now on a post-matriculation standard. That it is also obviously a service, that should, in the interests of the nation and the teaching profession, be organised on a national basis, could hardly be questioned."²

These two reports drew rapid counter-battery fire from the Provinces. Two examples of this are cited:-

¹ Board of Education: Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders: H.M.S.O. 1943: (Chairman: Sir Arnold McNair).

² Union Government: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education: 1930: p.6.

(a) Cape Province: "The first report of the Bureau, on which the Secretary for Education largely bases his remarks on teacher training, is not flattering to the various Provincial Education Departments. In fact one is almost inclined to think that certain definite propositions were set up to be proved. These propositions may be briefly stated as follows:-

- (1) There is chaos in the Union as regards the training of teachers.
- (2) The Provincial training institutions are extravagantly conducted.
- (3) Transfer of teacher-training to university institutions would lead to qualitative improvement.

The Cape Education Department has never been averse to the universities training secondary teachers - indeed, it has willingly surrendered all secondary training work to the universities. When, however, the universities wished to do primary training work as well, it was urged by them that diversity of practice was a good thing. This argument was admitted by the Department; now we learn that chaos has resulted! And, further, the pertinent question that arises in our minds is whether in the training of secondary teachers which work is at present done by the universities under the Union Department of Education, there is any less 'chaos'.¹

With regard to the size of university training institutions and the economy of their operation, the Superintendent-General found that, excluding the universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch, "105 student teachers are being scattered among no less than six separate university institutions" in 1930.²

Accepting the fact that the universities "attract a more intelligent type of student teacher", the Cape authorities felt that the inference drawn by Malherbe from this was, to say the least, questionable. "For the door of the university will not then be more open to prospective teachers than it is now.... More or less the same number and the same type of students will be attracted to the teaching profession, and the universities will be called upon to accept also the less intelligent type of students that are today being trained by the Provincial authorities."³

¹ Cape of Good Hope: Annual Report of the Superintendent-General of Education for the year ended 31st December, 1931: p.10.

² Ibid: p.12.

³ Ibid: p.13 and 14.

"To base a general charge of inefficiency of teacher-training in the Union upon statistics of costs and the academic qualifications of the teaching profession seems somewhat puerile..... And the solution? 'Closer association with the universities.' If Dr. Malherbe had been a little less vague and a little more explicit with regard to the 'all-round training' that he has in mind, the Provincial institutions that are not associated with the universities might have been assisted in their earnest endeavours to improve their training of primary teachers."¹

With regard to the infringement of the 'higher education' clause, the Report states: "it is true that all European teacher-training is now on a post-matriculation standard, but it is also true that ever since Union came about in 1910 Provincial institutions have offered training to matriculated students and this has wisely been considered no infringement of the Act of Union; for it is difficult to realise the position where the authority that employs the teachers, supervises and inspects their work, is cut off from all share in the training of them... Where the Provincial authorities find that they are unable to obtain from the university institutions all the teacher-types that they require it should at least be possible for them to train the desired types themselves."²

(b) Orange Free State: In his annual report for 1931, the Director of Education prefaces his refutation of the charges made in the Union Education Department reports with the statement: "I have always been under the impression that, if the head of one department should go out of his way to criticise in his annual report the work of another Department, or another Administration, such an action would constitute a breach of professional etiquette."³

This report advances three main reasons for the Province's opposition to the proposal to transfer primary teacher training to the universities:

"I. The authority, which controls education and, consequently appoints and pays teachers, should have control, and, if

1 Ibid: p.15.

2 Ibid.

3 Orange Free State: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1931: p.30.

possible, complete control over the training of teachers, for, should the product of the training be unsatisfactory, there ought to be no obstacles in the way to affect drastic changes immediately. There are evidences already that one of the Provinces is dissatisfied with the practical training that secondary teachers receive in the courses for the Higher Education Diploma at our Universities, and the more so because it is not very easy to have improvements made to meet the case.

II. The professors and lecturers in the faculties of education at our Universities have in very few instances, an intimate knowledge of primary work, and are usually appointed on their academic qualifications and their degrees in the theory of pedagogy. At our Normal College, the first requirement for appointment as lecturer is six years of successful experience as a teacher.

III. In order to equip (primary teachers) properly during training, a training college, with its own teaching atmosphere, is much more effective than the busy life of a University."¹

The Director concludes that he "would very much regret it, if what has happened this year, and what happened last year as well, should become an annual habit..... It would certainly cause a very unwholesome state of affairs and might end in an estrangement between the Provincial Education Departments and the Department of Education for the Union."²

Although the Natal Education Department made no direct reference to the reports of the Secretary for Education and the National Board of Education, there can be no mistaking the meaning of the remarks of the Superintendent of Education in his report for 1929. "The schools require in the graduates whom we hope to get, not only that foundation of wide knowledge which will enable them to teach 'subjects' successfully, but ability also in life interest, which hitherto have been crowded out of our secondary schools and which the present University graduate

¹ Ibid: p.32.

² Ibid: p.34.

cannot teach in the primary schools..... If graduation for the teacher means the elimination of these necessities in an equipped teacher, then the Universities are not delivering the goods..... We want more skill, far more definitely useful training, than we are now getting, and if the professors want to control the training of teachers, they must come down out of the clouds of the Academe, and roll a little in the garden of the primary school, whence are to come, in due time, their successors whose heritage shall have been a generous ability to teach the complex foundation which modern times demand..... There is little wrong with the type of student coming forward; there must be a radical change in the concept of a teacher's panoply."¹

The issues raised by the various reports issued in 1930 have been recorded in considerable detail for a number of reasons:

1. the fundamental matter of the relations between the central government and the provinces with regard to teacher education had not been resolved after twenty years of Union. Indeed, today, even after the promulgation of the National Education Policy Amendment Act in 1969, there are signs that the last shots have not yet been fired, and perhaps certain parties may still be heating their shot;
2. as one looks back from the present, it seems that the obvious solution was some sort of co-ordination between authorities and institutions, rather than any suggestion of take-over by one and surrender by another. Significantly co-ordination and co-operation was taking place in various provinces as has already been indicated. Political pressures seemed to militate against any extension of this on a national basis.²
3. Both parties in the dispute appear to have confused the professional issues in their desire to bolster their case for

¹ Natal Education Department: Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1929: p.8.

² It is necessary to note that Dr. Malherbe had put forward a comprehensive scheme for the co-ordination of teacher education on a regional basis involving university-training college co-operation. Reference is made to this earlier. See Malherbe, E.G.: Education in South Africa, 1652-1922: Chapter XXI, and particularly p.465 et seq.

centralisation or devolution. For example, one of the fundamental arguments in the Malherbe document was the question of the cost of teacher education. This appears to be a very weak argument for advancing the advantage of university based training. Equally, the provincial authorities, or at least those of the Cape and the Orange Free State, as quoted above, resist the suggestion of transference of responsibility for training partially on the grounds that the employers of teachers must needs be the training and certifying authority as well. Both sides had valid arguments to support their cases but neither made the most of them.

4. The administrative, professional and political heat generated by this issue calls in question the strategy used in the presentation of the case particularly by the Union Education Department. One cannot but ponder the motive of the Secretary for Education, for it must have been obvious that there would be a strong reaction to the publication of the two reports. Experience of multi-authority and multi-institutional participation in an Institute of Education on the English model, prompts one to suggest that the cause might have been better served had the statistics of the National Board of Education been published, or even circulated privately, with a minimum of comment, as a necessary prelude to a widely representative conference on teacher education in which the Union Education Department could have taken the initiative with both provincial authorities and universities. Such a move, it is felt, would have stimulated, rather than inhibited co-operation in the field of teacher education. There is no doubt that the climate would have been satisfactory for such an undertaking as the success of the New Education Fellowship Conference in Cape Town and Johannesburg in 1934 was to show.
5. There is no doubt, however, that the action of the Union Education Department in this issue, however well intentioned it was, inhibited co-operation and co-ordination in the field of teacher education for a further three decades.

5. The Inter-Provincial Consultative Committee, 1934:

It is unquestioned that professionally there was an urgent need for review; it is a pity that the times and the approach militated against it. As McKerron wrote in 1934: "In matters affecting the teaching profession some measure of co-ordination between the provinces is urgently needed..... Though uniformity may be deadening, too great variety in a small population undoubtedly leads to weakness..... Not only do we tend to limit our appointments to South African teachers, but there is a distinct danger of each province being served mainly by teachers trained in that province, and of teachers remaining in the province in which they began their service. Can such a system promote vigorous growth?"¹

It is significant that the Secretary for Education continued to plead for co-operation. The report of Professor M.C. Botha for the years 1933 and 1934 states that "the need of more co-operation and co-ordination in the realm of education has often been felt..... Inter-departmental conferences have provided opportunities from time to time for the interchange of ideas, but no one who has taken part in these discussions will contend that much of a lasting nature has been brought about thereby."² In describing the formation of the Provincial Consultative Committee, he declares that "the ideal of a national council of education, which most educationists had cherished for years, has thereby been shattered, for the present at least. The autonomy of the provincial government was an insuperable stumbling block."³

By 1935 the Provincial Consultative Committee decided that the "heads of the four provincial and the Union education departments (should) form a standing committee to which educational matters would be referred..... The chief object of the Committee is to effect co-ordination in every phase of education."⁴ At the outset the Committee recommended that "regional co-ordinating bodies be set up by each provincial education

¹ McKerron, M.E.: A History of Education in South Africa, 1652-1932: p.153.

² Union Government: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 1933-34: p.7.

³ Ibid: p.7.

⁴ Union Government: Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 1936: p.7.

department, and that apart from the education department concerned, representation be given to university authorities and to the teaching profession in each province."¹ This recommendation bears a fairly close resemblance to that of the National Education Policy Amendment Act of 1969 in respect of the joint advisory council to be set up at provincial level. However, to judge by provincial and Union education departments reports at the time, the recommendation of the sub-committee was honoured more in the breach than the observance.²

During this decade, while the Union Education Department was pleading the case for co-operation, events were taking place in the life of the nation which were seriously to affect the recruitment, training and supply of teachers for many years to come. Indeed, it may perhaps be said that events which took place during this period did and still may continue to affect the attitude of parents to their children contemplating teaching as a career. The underlying factor in this chain of events was the economic depression of the early 'thirties which was a world-wide phenomenon and which was not only experienced in South Africa, but left a considerable after-effect upon the attitudes of young people towards teaching as a career.

As has been noted, all four provinces of the Union were deeply concerned at this time with the over-production of teachers: a quota system was introduced, smaller colleges were closed or a rough and ready method of selection was introduced. This invariably meant the achievement of a particular level of pass in the Senior Certificate or Matriculation examination as well as satisfying the school inspector of the particular district in a personal interview.

In each case the action taken was of the ad hoc variety applied by each provincial authority in turn to deal with a local situation of over-supply and consequent unemployment. This was a golden opportunity for the nation as a whole to take stock and, in planning for the future, to assess collectively, both in quantitative and qualitative terms, what its needs were in terms of teachers for its schools. It was in the late

¹ Ibid.

² The Annual Report of the Director of Education of the Orange Free State for 1936 records that such a regional committee was set up, while a similar committee had been established in the Transvaal in 1935.

'twenties that the Cape Province enforced for the first time a matriculation level of entry to teacher education courses and thus all four provinces had independently achieved a common level of entry. The way was open for a common professional approach to what had freely been admitted as a problem requiring urgent solution on a national basis.

Two factors, however, militated against such action. The first, that of provincial autonomy, has already been dealt with in some detail. The second was that of economic depression and the financial inability of the country at the time to embark upon schemes of educational expansion, particularly in a field where it was already being stressed by the authorities that there was considerable over-production. It must be recorded that an attempt was made at this time to review on a national basis the needs of education in terms of teachers, and the type of training such aspirant teachers should receive.

6. Education Conferences of the 'Thirties:

(a) Teacher Training Conference, Pretoria, 1933:

A conference on the training of teachers was convened by the Minister of Education with representatives from the Union Education Department, the four provincial departments, the universities and the Federation of Teachers' Associations.¹ It was held in the Union Buildings in Pretoria from 4th to 7th September, 1933. The basic recommendations adopted by the conference were as follows:

1. It deplored the invidious differences made between grades of teachers. It was felt that there should be one common teaching diploma issued to all students who qualified. It was stated that the diploma should indicate the level of academic training and the sphere of the school or the special subjects for which the holder was trained.
2. Professional subjects within the curriculum should not in general be studied concurrently with academic subjects leading to the Bachelor's Degree.

¹ See: Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1933. It is perhaps worth recording that some of these points were still being discussed at a meeting of a sub-committee of University Principals on teacher education held in the University of South Africa in October, 1969, thirty six years later: (No. 1 and 6).

3. The minimum period of preparation for a teacher's diploma should be three years after matriculation, of which at least two years should be devoted to professional training.
4. The matriculation examination or its equivalent was accepted as a pre-requisite for all primary teachers.
5. Undergraduates proceeding to a degree and wishing to qualify as teachers should be required to select their degree subjects in accordance with the requirements of the schools.
6. The Conference considered that a two-year post-graduate course of professional training is a necessary pre-requisite for teacher certification in secondary schools. It did not, however, consider that the time was ripe for abolishing the existing one-year post-graduate course.
7. The possession of an academic degree should be regarded as essential for all teachers qualifying for work in secondary schools.

This conference raised issues in teacher education which have concerned professional administrators and lecturers ever since. The short period of over-supply gave South Africa a chance of rationalisation and professionalisation of which it could not, or at least, did not, avail itself. Admittedly the 'thirties were a period when advanced planning was not developed to the extent that it is today, and consequently the chance was lost. It was not repeated for a further three decades, and it is sincerely to be hoped that it will not be allowed to slip through professional fingers once more.

That the period of over-supply was happily short-lived can be judged from the annual reports of the latter 'thirties as has already been recorded.

In the following decade came the full impact of the war, the return to full employment, industrial expansion and chronic manpower shortage. Never since the 'thirties has there been a general surplus of teachers, and the failure to exploit it at the time has meant an overlong delay in the national review of teacher education when it has been vitally necessary to meet the needs of the schools in the modern world. National co-operation was probably further away than it had been at the end of the 'twenties, and, in addition, there was a resentment in the minds of a generation of teachers at the way in which they had been treated. Some of this generation have undoubtedly influenced a

number of their charges against entering the teaching profession.

It is easy to state with all the advantages of over thirty years of hindsight that what was necessary in the 'thirties was to institute some system of inter-departmental and inter-institutional co-ordination and rationalisation, and amongst other things to increase the length of basic training of teachers from two to three years. It is at this point that one has to remember Michael Sadler's injunction to look at systems of education in terms of "the outcome of forgotten struggles and difficulties and of battles long ago."¹ In the 'thirties, co-ordination meant centralisation and 'take-over' by the Union Education Department. The concept of co-operation and co-ordination which has emerged from McNair's area training organisation and institutes of education was still nearly ten years away. Small wonder, then, that the educational administrators fought shy of the idea. However, an event did take place in South Africa in the 'thirties which undoubtedly helped to point the way in England, and, had it done so in South Africa, the development of teacher education might have been significantly different.

(b) The New Education Fellowship Conference: 1934:

In July 1934 a conference was held first in Capetown and latterly in Johannesburg under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship. The theme of the conference was "Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society."² Three papers of particular significance for teacher education were delivered at the conference and in each there was reference to the need for co-operation between institutions and co-ordination of training.

Sir John Adamson, retired Director of Education in the Transvaal, spoke on principles underlying the training of teachers. In making a plea for basing teacher training in the universities, he did not think "that the university course and the training college course are to be regarded as two species of the same genus. They are.....essential and complimentary elements of the whole training. The training college element ought to be elevated to the rank of a Demonstration and Research Department in the Faculty of Education. The Normal College belongs to

¹ Sadler, M.: How Far Can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?: 1900. Quoted by Hans, N.: Comparative Education, p.3.

² Malherbe, E.G. (ed.): Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society.

an age we have left behind. And training college has use and wont behind it. I suggest 'Institute of Education' which has dignity and would suit the wider function proposed."¹

Professor John Murray in describing "The Limitations of the Training (Normal) College" was of opinion that both universities and training colleges "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..... It will take the fullest efforts of the two groups working closely together."²

Dr. William Boyd, on the subject of the four-year integrated course of university training, was emphatic that "there should not..... be three separate trainings for the young teacher - one to give him culture, another to provide him with the content of the lessons he is to teach, and another bearing on the job of teaching..... That implies a single institution in which most of the teacher's preparation is made with a vitalising purpose and tradition and ordered programme of studies."³

At the end of the decade of the 'thirties no less than at the end of the 'twenties there was a professional awareness of the need for a general review of the systems of teacher education in South Africa. One could perhaps say that this awareness was, in fact, heightened at the professional level. However, the political climate had deteriorated and conditions, both political and economic, were not conducive to change. On top of this came the outbreak of the second World War and educational adaptation was shelved for the first half of the next decade.

7. The Problems of the 'Forties:

The following decade opened with the nation adapting itself politically, economically and socially to its somewhat hesitant entry to the war in September, 1939. Many issues which were not of a direct national emergency tended to be shelved and among these was the question of educational co-operation. Education other than higher and vocational was indisputably a provincial matter, and therefore the provinces faced

1 Ibid: pp.270-275.

2 Ibid: p.276.

3 Ibid: p.277 et seq.

the educational stresses and strains of war on a basis of separatism.

The two main educational issues of the decade which merited, in fact, demanded, a joint approach were first, the teacher shortage, and second, the education of the adolescent in view of the increased holding power of the secondary school and the steady move to the raising of the school leaving age. Both of these issues had important implications for teacher education, implications which regrettably tended to be overlooked. Let us look briefly at each in turn:

(a) Teacher Shortage: The easy days of supply of teachers experienced in the 'thirties were now a thing of the past on which educational administrators in general, and staffing officers, in particular, must have looked back with nostalgia. From 1941 onwards annual reports on education in all four provinces record a distinct shortage in the supply of permanent staff, inadequacy of numbers and quality of recruits coming forward to the training institutions, and the steadily growing need to make use of married women and other temporary teachers. As a balancing factor in this there is the record between 1942 and 1945 of the number of teachers released for active service with the South African forces. In the Transvaal this amounted to almost four hundred in 1942, while in Natal the number released was 150 in the same year. Significantly at the same time three provinces, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State and Natal commented on the decline in numbers and quality of candidates for teacher training. Also all four provinces were aware of steadily growing secondary enrolments and the need for a new kind of secondary education, if not for a new kind of teacher.

With regard to the shortage of teachers, alone, there was a need for a co-ordinated national policy in respect of

- (i) recruitment and selection of candidates;
- (ii) a review of courses with regard to their suitability particularly at secondary level;
- (iii) the need to provide shortened intensive courses for mature students returning from the forces.

Unfortunately this did not happen, although each province sought to devise its own means to alleviate the shortage in its own schools. The Transvaal was particularly active in this direction with the colleges all stepping up their intake of students, and the Johannesburg College of Education offering an intensive course in co-operation with the

University of the Witwatersrand for ex-volunteers in 1946, 1947 and 1948. This course permitted selected students to complete the four-year combined course of degree and professional diploma in two and a half years.¹ Other temporary expedients included one looked on with disfavour by the Rector of the Potchefstroom College of Education by which women students in the three-year course were allowed to leave with a teacher's certificate upon successful completion of two years of the course.² Natal attempted to obtain teachers from abroad by sending a recruiting mission to the United Kingdom in 1947. This resulted in a gain of 154 teachers to the province.³ It must be emphasised, however, that these were sporadic, piecemeal, ad hoc operations and the whole country suffered from a failure to realise the gravity of the situation and the need for co-ordinated and concerted action regarding the supply of teachers at the time.

(b) The Growth of the Secondary School: This phenomenon was not merely a result of the second World War, although undoubtedly the war and increasing economic prosperity exercised a significant influence upon it. The expansion of secondary education with the need for differentiated curricula for the adolescent has occupied much of the attention and energies of educationists in Europe over the last two decades, and the problems raised are by no means resolved as yet. In South Africa this complex problem has been beset by a further difficulty - that of divided control between the provinces and the central Government. The report of the Secretary for Education, Professor M.C. Botha, in 1933/34 is significant: "Secondary education should be looked on as a unity, and should link up as closely as possible with primary education, which, of course does not necessarily exclude a diversity of secondary educational institutions. This most essential linking up and adaptation have in the past been neglected in an uneducational manner - chiefly as a consequence of the dualism in educational control..... It would be an extremely difficult matter to convince an impartial observer of our educational system by means of well-founded arguments that it would not

¹ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1945.

² Ibid: A feature of the Transvaal reports of this period is that of the unfavourable differential in the supply of recruits to the Johannesburg College of Education compared with the Afrikaans-medium institutions.

³ Natal: Annual Reports of the Director of Education, 1947, 1948.

be desirable for the Union Government to hand over vocational training to the provinces and to subsidise it handsomely; and if the Union Government is to provide subsidies, that it would not be desirable to have financial control of the expenditure in a more direct manner, and to inspect the education given..... I have not the slightest fear that the development of education would be thereby impeded.....it appears..... to be a necessary condition for a great forward movement such as is clearly designed and envisaged by educationists as well as by the general public."¹

He returned to the same topic in 1935. "The whole area of a adolescent education should be 'rationalised' from a national point of view. Failure to do this must not.....be attributed to ill-will on the part of the provinces, but to financial incompetence. If this is a national concern.....the Union Government should be prepared to give an additional subsidy specifically earmarked for this type of education..... Some national co-ordination of the educational facilities will be needed, even though the provinces will be responsible for the administration of secondary education in all its phases..... This seems.....to be the only rational way out of the difficulties into which we have drifted by trying to divide the indivisible."²

Once again, then, the need for co-operation, co-ordination and rationalisation had long been recognised but this was not to be translated into reality until the setting up of the National Advisory Education Council in 1962, and, more specifically, until the acceptance of the National Education Policy Act of 1967.³ The provinces, however, were not inactive in the matter and in the Cape Province, for example, the Superintendent-General in commenting on the increased holding power of the secondary schools in his report for the years 1941-1945 stressed the need for the overhaul of the ordinance, and emphasised that schools

¹ Union Department of Education: Report of the Secretary for Education for the years 1933/34: p.7.

² Ibid: Report for 1935: pp.8,9.

³ Republic of South Africa: Act No.39 of 1967: In the interests of chronology, it must be recorded that the Union Government, in its concern for the improvement of technical and vocational education, set up a commission to enquire into these subjects in 1945. This Commission, the de Villiers Commission, reported in 1948. Its findings are fundamental to the advances made both in the 'fifties and in the 'sixties, and are therefore considered in some detail below.

required to be adapted to meet the needs of the pupils.¹ He concluded, however, that "no worthwhile solution of the problem of secondary education adapted to the individual needs of pupils can be arrived at until the overlapping between, and the unworkable system of demarcation of the functions of, Union and Provincial institutions of a secondary nature is done away with."²

The idea of a new differentiated secondary education was as novel in South Africa as it was in England. In this country its implementation was hampered by constitutional separation, and its acceptance by the feeling of the White minority of the population of the need for rigid adherence to traditional academic standards if it was to retain its position of authority in the land. This is well expressed by the Director of Education in the Orange Free State in his annual report for 1938. "It is too frequently forgotten that South Africa occupies a unique position among the civilised countries of the world in that its white population forms a minority group in the total population of the country, with the result that European boys and girls who leave school, cannot find employment as unskilled workers at a living wage, while on the other hand there are plenty of positions for educated people..... Parents are aware of this state of affairs and consequently demand that their children should persevere on the academic path and run the risk of dropping out rather than enter with open eyes upon a course which will eventually mean that they will either have to work for an inadequate wage or obtain no work."³ He might have added a third alternative of having to enter into competition with the non-white majority, thereby risking submergence of their culture.

At the end of the decade of the 'forties, therefore, the need for co-ordination and co-operation at all levels of education was much greater than it had been at the end of the previous decade. It was complicated by the growing realisation of a constitutional impasse in the implementation of the professional needs in the provision of more secondary

¹ Cape Province: Report of the Superintendent-General of Education for the years 1941-1945.

² Ibid: Report for 1947: p.16.

³ Orange Free State: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1938: p.11.

education of a diversified and differentiated nature to meet the requirements of all adolescents at least up to the age of sixteen years. It was realised that more teachers would be needed, but the nature of these teachers and the courses which would be required to produce them had not seriously been considered. The issues of differentiated secondary education as well as teacher supply therefore went forward as matters to be faced in the 'fifties, once again on a regional, or provincial, rather than on a national basis.

8. The Development of Technical and Vocational Education and its effect upon Differentiated Education:

The de Villiers Commission¹ which was established in 1945 was empowered to enquire into technical and vocational education in the Union with "special reference to the parts that should be played by the Union and Provincial Education Departments."² It thus had a considerably broader base to its enquiry than would be imagined from its title. "The Report outlines an entirely new system of education beginning with the nursery school and ending with the university."³

For the purpose of consideration of the question of co-ordination and co-operation of education authorities in South Africa, it makes three important recommendations:

- (a) the establishment of a national council for education by Act of Parliament in order to provide co-ordination of the various educational services;
- (b) the provision of "three years post-primary differentiated education" for all pupils between the ages of 12 and 15 years, so that pupils would receive effective vocational guidance;
- (c) the extension and improvement of vocational education.

The first recommendation was studied by the Department of Education, Arts and Science, and consultations were held with the provincial education

¹ Union Government: Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education: U.G. 65 of 1948: for a condensation of this report see Behr & MacMillan: Education in South Africa, p.188 and Annual Report of the Department of Education, Arts and Science for 1951: p.6.

² Union Government: Annual Report of the Department of Education, Arts and Science, 1951: p.6.

³ Ibid.

departments. The Committee of Heads of Education Departments finally agreed to recommend that a National Advisory Council for Education be appointed. Its proposed composition was interesting. There were to be two members appointed by each of the provincial authorities and five by the Minister of Education, Arts and Science of whom one was to be representative of the universities. Its functions included two headings under which teacher education might be considered:

- "(i) to deliberate on and make recommendations.....in respect of the broad principles of a general education policy for the Union and the general co-ordination of educational services;
- (ii) to report on all matters referred to it by the Government, Union or Provincial education authorities, or Parliament."¹

This proposal was shelved by the Cabinet for a decade as the result of lack of funds. However, it represented the most significant step forward since the creation of the Inter-provincial Consultative Committee in the 'thirties. Indeed it was much more important as what was in mind was a professional rather than an administrative body.

The second proposal of three years' post-primary differentiated education represented a further professional advance in secondary education. "These junior high schools will make provision for exploratory secondary education, and their curricula and methods will emphasise the guidance function of education. Each junior high school will thus act as a 'clearing house' from where pupils are to be distributed to various types of schools and colleges according to their individual purposes and needs."² This clearly placed the onus on the provincial education systems to introduce differentiated courses of general education which would lead on to education of a truly vocational nature at the age of about sixteen years. It meant also that the end of compulsory education would have to be raised to that age, and that there would have to be professional consultation and co-operation between educational authorities, particularly with regard to the secondary level. Finally, by implication, although it was not directly stated as such, there would have to be a review of teacher education courses to meet the new situation.

¹ Ibid: p.7.

² Union Government: Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education, 1948: para 616.

The final recommendation of concern to this study - the extension and improvement of vocational education - was implemented in the Vocational Education Act of 1955.¹ In the words of the Secretary for Education, Arts and Science, "the Act" in providing for the complete take-over of the technical colleges by the central government, "lays down a practical and educationally sound basis for a demarcation between differentiated education with a vocational bias on the one hand, and full technical, commercial and domestic science vocational education on the other. The demarcation duly observes the requirements of sound differentiation in the field of general formative education and at the same time obviates the possibility of vocational schools and technical colleges encroaching on the domain of the provincial schools."²

The eight-year period from 1948 to 1955 thus undoubtedly saw some significant moves in the direction of clarification of issues and the re-opening of the way to professional co-ordination of and co-operation in education. It seems today that the Secretary's claims for the Vocational Education Act were perhaps a little too sanguine; it was essentially a palliative measure, dual control still remained a problem. It appears that the Director of Education in the Transvaal reporting sixteen years before the Vocational Education Act was promulgated possibly put his finger on the central issue. In stating his province's willingness to consider the adoption of a comprehensive scheme of co-ordination of educational services, he remarked that "it is, however, strongly opposed to patchwork. Such patchwork will not strike at the root of the present day difficulties, but will tend rather to aggravate them by making the machine even more involved and cumbersome than it is today."³ In urging the return of vocational education to provincial control, he stated that "it is clear that before long such a step will have to be taken if the children concerned are to derive the full advantages offered by a system of differentiated education."⁴

¹ Union Government: Act No.70 of 1955.

² Union Government: Report of the Department of Education, Arts and Science for 1955, pp.8,10.

³ Transvaal: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1939: p.7.

⁴ Ibid: p.8.

If technical and vocational educational education was the vehicle whereby educational co-ordination and co-operation was once again brought to light, differentiated education for the rapidly expanding secondary schools was to be the means of enforcing it in the decade of the 'sixties. At the same time as the publication of the de Villiers Report in 1948, the provinces began an examination of the nature of secondary education as has already been recorded.

In their first attempts at providing the differentiated secondary education, the Cape and the Orange Free State sought to develop a multi-lateral school round a common core of basic subjects. The Transvaal and Natal, on the other hand, favoured the comprehensive high school with differentiated curricula based upon homogeneous ability groups. Two points should be noted about this:

- (a) each province developed its own type of secondary education with little or no discussion or consultation with its neighbours;
- (b) provincial efforts to achieve fully differentiated education were still hampered by the inhibiting fact of dual control of secondary education.

Of fundamental importance for the present work, is the fact that in all the moves made in the 'fifties, both by the central government and the provincial education authorities, to provide a more adequate and differentiated system of secondary education, remarkably little published attention was devoted to the question of co-ordination of the system of teacher education to achieve the desired results. Each province admittedly had introduced changes in courses of teacher training. When one looks back to the evidence of the 'thirties it is to be noted that teacher education is seen as being the core of educational advancement. This fact, regrettably, tended to be overlooked in the 'fifties. Indeed, it was only in the latter part of the 'sixties that its fundamental importance was once again recognised.

If technical and vocational educational education was the vehicle whereby educational co-ordination and co-operation was once again brought to light, differentiated education for the rapidly expanding secondary schools was to be the means of enforcing it in the decade of the 'sixties. At the same time as the publication of the de Villiers Report in 1948, the provinces began an examination of the nature of secondary education as has already been recorded.

In their first attempts at providing the differentiated secondary education, the Cape and the Orange Free State sought to develop a multi-lateral school round a common core of basic subjects. The Transvaal and Natal, on the other hand, favoured the comprehensive high school with differentiated curricula based upon homogeneous ability groups. Two points should be noted about this:

- (a) each province developed its own type of secondary education with little or no discussion or consultation with its neighbours;
- (b) provincial efforts to achieve fully differentiated education were still hampered by the inhibiting fact of dual control of secondary education.

Of fundamental importance for the present work, is the fact that in all the moves made in the 'fifties, both by the central government and the provincial education authorities, to provide a more adequate and differentiated system of secondary education, remarkably little published attention was devoted to the question of co-ordination of the system of teacher education to achieve the desired results. Each province admittedly had introduced changes in courses of teacher training. When one looks back to the evidence of the 'thirties it is to be noted that teacher education is seen as being the core of educational advancement. This fact, regrettably, tended to be overlooked in the 'fifties. Indeed, it was only in the latter part of the 'sixties that its fundamental importance was once again recognised.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

A Critical Study of Selected Aspects of its
Historical, Curricular and Administrative
Development

VOLUME II

JOHN MCGREGOR NIVEN

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
Department of Education,
University of Natal

Pietermaritzburg

1971

Table of ContentsVOLUME II

	<u>Page</u>
<u>Part Three : The Necessity for Rationalisation of Teacher Education</u>	215
<u>Chapter 8 : The Necessity for Rationalisation:</u>	215
1. Attitudes to the Preparation of Teachers	215
2. Aims of Teacher Education	220
3. The Qualities of the Teacher in the Modern World	224
<u>Chapter 9 : Demography and Teacher Education</u>	230
1. Growth of the White Population in the Republic	231
2. Developing School Enrolment Patterns in South Africa	241
3. The Teaching Force in South Africa	255
4. Demography and the Teacher Training Plant	258
5. Conclusions	275
<u>Chapter 10 : Constitutional Controls in Teacher Education</u>	278
<u>Chapter 11 : Institutions for Teacher Education and the Courses offered : (I) : The Colleges of Education</u>	285
1. Courses of Training and their Organisation	287
2. Developing Trends in the College of Education Courses	294
3. Non-Graduate Courses for Primary School Teachers	308
4. Structure and Weighting of Primary Courses	310
5. Outline of General Initial Non-Graduate Courses for the Preparation of Teachers at Primary and Secondary Level	315
(a) General Premises upon which course structures are based	315
(b) Initial course for teachers at primary school level	316
(c) Initial course for non-graduate teachers at secondary school level	321

	<u>Page</u>
<u>Chapter 12</u> : <u>Institutions for Teacher Education and the Courses offered : (II) : University Faculties and Departments of Education</u>	326
1. Initial Courses for the Preparation of Graduate Teachers	327
2. The Post-Graduate Training Course	334
3. Curriculum Design	340
(a) Professional and Main Subjects	343
(b) Common Additional Subjects in the Curriculum	346
(c) Additional Optional Subjects	347
(d) Practical Teaching Group	349
4. Summary of the Proposed Curriculum for a One-Year Post-Graduate Course	353
5. Organisation of the One-Year Professional Course	354
6. Educational Methodology: Microcosm of Initial Preparation of the Graduate Teacher	356
7. Aims in a Course of Educational Methodology	359
8. Proposed Syllabus in General Methodology	360
9. Initial Courses for the Preparation of Non-Graduate Teachers	371
10. General Conclusions regarding Non-Graduate Primary School Courses offered at University Level	375
11. The Present Situation with regard to Initial Teacher Preparation in the South African Universities	377
<u>Part Four</u> : <u>Rationalisation and Co-ordination in Teacher Education</u>	380
General Introduction	380
<u>Chapter 13</u> : <u>Educational Reform in the 'Sixties</u>	381
1. The Climate of Reform	381
2. The National Education Advisory Council Bill, 1962	383
3. The National Advisory Education Council and Educational Reform	386
4. The Programme of education Legislation in 1967	390
(a) The National Education Policy Act	390
(b) The Advanced Technical Education Act	393
(c) The Educational Services Act	394
5. Conclusions	395

	<u>Page</u>
<u>Chapter 14 : The Formulation of a National Policy for Teacher Education</u>	396
1. The Work of the National Advisory Education Council in association with the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research	396
2. The Teacher Training Bill, 1968	402
(a) Proposed Administration of Teacher Education	403
(b) Comment on the Proposed Pattern of Teacher Education	403
(c) Subsequent developments with regard to the Teacher Training Bill	407
3. The Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers	407
(a) The Basic Principles and Criteria in the design of a national system of teacher training	408
(b) The Gericke Commission: the majority recommendations	410
(c) The Gericke Commission: the minority recommendations	414
4. The National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969	418
(a) The National Plan for the Administration of Teacher Education	418
(b) Professional problems to which the Act gives rise	421
5. Conclusions	423
 <u>Chapter 15 : A Suggested Framework for the Development of Teacher Education in South Africa</u>	 425
1. The Fundamental Principles and Issues involved	425
2. The Basis of an Organisational Structure for Teacher Education	427
(a) A Comparative Study of Possible Structures	427
(i) The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	428
(ii) The United States of America	429
(iii) France	429
(iv) England and Wales	431
(v) The Federal German Republic	432
(b) Conclusions from the Comparative Study	433

	<u>Page</u>
(c) A Proposed Framework for Teacher Education	435
A. (i) The Functions of the Teacher Training Council	437
(ii) The Composition of the Council	438
B. (i) The Functions of the Regional Joint Advisory and co-ordinating Committees	439
(ii) The Composition of the Regional Committees	439
(d) Comment on the Proposed Framework	439
(e) Changes necessary for the implementation of the Proposed Scheme	442
(f) The Operation of the Regional Committee under the Proposed Scheme	443
3. Conclusions	448
 <u>Chapter 16 : The Initial Preparation of Teachers under the proposed Co-ordinated System of Teacher Education</u>	 450
1. Fundamental premises upon which courses might be based	450
2. National Policy for the Training of Teachers	451
(a) the duration of training	451
(b) the nomenclature of professional awards	453
(c) the registration and equivalence of initial courses	454
(d) criteria for the admission of students	454
(e) conditions for the award of bursaries, grants and loans	455
(f) registration of students and teachers	455
(g) recommendations regarding a national policy in respect of initial courses of teacher preparation	456
3. The Co-ordination of Initial Courses at Regional Level	457
(a) subject boards of studies	459
(b) sub-committee(s) on admissions, bursaries and loans	459
(c) examinations sub-committee or Board of Examiners	459
(d) research sub-committee	459
(e) information sub-committee	460

	<u>Page</u>
4. University Autonomy and Regional Co-ordination	460
5. Education Authorities and Regional Co-ordination	462
6. Initial training courses and their co-ordination	464
(a) Initiative in Course Design	464
(b) The function of the Board of Studies in Course Co-ordination	465
(c) The development of courses in terms of national education policy	467
(d) Integration of initial courses at regional level	470
7. Initial Courses for Teachers and Probationary Service	471
8. Conclusion	474
Bibliography	477

Tables included in the TextVOLUME II

<u>No.</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
Table 17:	Republic of South Africa: Growth of 0-4 year Age Group: 1951-1960	232
18:	Republic of South Africa: Projected Growth of 0-4 year Age Group: 1970-1990	232
19:	Republic of South Africa: Projected Growth of the White Population: 1965-1990	237
20:	Republic of South Africa: Projected Growth of the White Population of School-going Age	239
21:	Republic of South Africa: Projected Growth of School Entry Age Groups by Provinces: 1965-1990	241
22:	Estimated Total White School Population: Natal: 1967-1971	242
23:	Projected Percentage Distribution of School Population by Medium of Instruction: 1975	248
24:	School Population Structure by Percentage Enrolment	251
25:	Pupil enrolments : Provincial secondary schools in Natal : 1966-1970	252
26:	Numbers of teachers required	256
27:	Quantitative Comparison of First Degrees awarded by South African Universities	265
28:	First Degrees in Relation to Graduate Education Diplomas awarded by a sample of South African Universities	273
29:	Die Transvaalse Onderwyskolleges: Tydtoekenning per Vak	299/300
30:	Transvaal Colleges of Education: Study Areas in the four-year training courses	301
31:	Time Allocation in the Transvaal 4-year Secondary School Course	307
32:	Structure and Weighting of Primary School Teacher Training Courses: Transvaal	311

<u>No.</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
Table 33:	Analysis of Time Allocation in a proposed primary teacher training course	320
34:	Secondary School Course: Breakdown and Time Allocation	322
35:	Time Allocation in Initial Courses on a percentage basis	324
36:	Initial Courses for the Training of Teachers offered at South African Universities	335
37:	A Comparative Analysis of initial post-graduate courses of training at South African Universities	336
38:	The One-Year Professional Course: an attempted integrated pattern of graduate teacher preparation	369
39:	A Comparative Analysis of Higher Primary Teacher's Diploma Courses offered at South African Universities	373
40:	Administration of Teacher Education: Teacher Training Bill, 1968	404
41:	Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as proposed by the Gericke Commission (Majority Report)	412
42:	Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as proposed by the Gericke Commission (Minority Report)	416
43:	Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as set out in the National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969	419
44:	A Proposed Professional Structure for Teacher Education in South Africa	436
45:	Proposed Organisation of the Regional Committee	458

Figures included in the TextVOLUME II

	<u>Page</u>
2: South Africa: Growth of the Age Group entering school	233
3: South Africa: Population Growth Rate: Growth of 0-4 year age group by provinces	235
4: Predicted Percentage Growth Rate and Age Group	238
5: South Africa: School Enrolment Pattern and its Projection	244
6: South Africa: Enrolment Growth by Medium of Instruction	249
7: Pupil Enrolments: Provincial Secondary Schools in Natal : 1965-1970	253
8: Pupil Enrolments: Provincial Secondary Schools in Natal: Gross Enrolments by Standards : 1966-1970	254
9: South Africa: Teacher Training Enrolment in Colleges of Education and Colleges of Advanced Technical Education	260
10: Ratio of Men to Women Students in Colleges of Education	261
11: South African Universities: B.A./B.Sc. Degrees Awarded	264
12: South African Universities: B.A. Degrees Awarded	266
13: South African Universities: B.Sc. Degrees Awarded	267
14: South African Universities: Post-Graduate Education Diplomas Awarded	270
15: South African Universities: First Degrees in relation to Graduate Education Diplomas	271
16: First Degrees in Relation to Graduate Education Diplomas : A Selected Sample of South African Universities	274

Part Three: The Necessity for Rationalisation of Teacher Education:

Chapter Eight: The Necessity for Rationalisation

"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..... But, though we cannot see the end of the changes in which we are now involved, we can see enough of what is going on to realise that we are taking part in one of the important revolutions in educational development."¹

In making this statement on the subject of educational development in England and Wales, Jeffreys could with equal justification and truth have made it of almost every country, East or West, developed or developing. South Africa is certainly no exception. The previous section has outlined the development of the systems of teacher education in this country, less as a cohesive and concerted unity than as a series of regional opportunistic actions and reactions in response to the needs of the various school systems. The changes and challenges of educational development in the two decades since the end of the second World War demand that consideration be given to the problems of teacher education as a whole. It is surely imperative to assess in the modern world whether teacher education should not assume a more positive rôle in the leadership of educational advance, instead of continuing to accept the function which has traditionally been assigned to it in the past. What are the problems with which institutions for teacher education and those responsible for their professional administration are confronted today? Will a rationalisation and co-ordination of the work of these institutions lead to an improvement in the preparation of teachers for our schools?

1. Attitudes to the preparation of teachers:

It has been noted how, particularly during the present century, the levels of general education of students admitted to courses for the preparation of teachers had progressively risen. This has been responsible for changed attitudes to the students and to the content of

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: Revolution in Teacher Training: p.V.

the courses offered. 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.

"The record of the nineteenth century is of two contemporaneous efforts. 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 aim set before the training colleges by Kay-Shuttleworth was 'to reconcile a simplicity of life not remote from the habits of the humbler classes with such a proficiency in intellectual attainments, such a knowledge of method and such a skill in the art of teaching as would enable the students selected to become efficient masters of elementary schools. We hoped to inspire them with a large sympathy with their own class; to implant in their minds the thought that their chief honour would be to aid in rescuing that class from the misery of ignorance and its attendant vices; to wean them from the influence of that personal competition in a commercial society which leads to sordid aims; to place before them the unsatisfied want of the uneasy and distressed multitude, and to breathe into them the charity which seeks to heal its mental and moral diseases.'¹

"The second effort of the nineteenth century was to lift teaching out of the unskilled labour category into that of the skilled crafts. This is perhaps best seen in the pupil-teacher system whereby, until as recently as 1926, the 'indenturing' of 'apprentices' to 'master'-teachers provided one avenue not merely into teaching, but into qualified teacher status.²... Characteristic is 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."³

¹ Minutes: Committee of Council, 1841: First Report on the Training School at Battersea to the Poor Law Commissioners.

² At a meeting of school principals, training college and university staff held in Durban in 1966 to consider the problems of practice teaching, one delegate seriously advocated a return to the pupil-teacher system of training.

³ Bone, R.C.: Teacher Education and the Training Colleges in England and Wales, 1964: pp.2-3.

This situation marks also the development of teacher education in South Africa and helps to explain the cleavage in the profession between graduate and non-graduate teachers,¹ as well as general low esteem in which the teaching profession is held, particularly in countries which had their origin in the British Empire. It is only now, in the third quarter of the twentieth century, that this attitude to the teaching profession is slowly being overcome and the teacher accorded his rightful place in society.

Just as the attitudes of society to its teachers have changed slowly and at times almost imperceptibly, so too have the training courses changed slowly in aim and content. Commenting on the situation in England, and applied to what is also true in many instances in South Africa, Bone states "immediately but with growing cumulative force there built up the tensions which have been the characteristic - and the curse - of college training courses throughout the present century. Nothing that had been done to 'train' the teacher could automatically be discarded; yet time had to be found for the new and clearly time-consuming exercise of extending (the student's) education..... Only reluctantly was any reduction made in the number of subject courses required; and frequently the courses became so short in duration as to be totally ineffective."² Because of the autonomy of the institution as well as a result of a better educated entrant, the university departments have been better able to gear their courses to the professional needs of their students. That these courses have not always realised their aims cannot be denied and in a large measure this must be attributed to the short duration of the post-graduate professional course. This brevity has been responsible in a number of instances for courses becoming overloaded with sub-courses of short duration which have borne a close

¹ The difference in status between the graduate and the non-graduate teacher still exists in England and Wales where the graduate with no professional training is still accorded qualified teacher status. It is interesting to note that the tendency to follow this pattern by certain private schools in Natal was commented on in the Broome Report. [Report of the Education Commission, 1937.] It states that "apart from the exceptional case of specialists, the Commission is satisfied that the teacher without professional training has no place in a state educational system": para 251, p.51.

² Bone, op.cit., p.6: He quotes Miss M.V. Daniel as reporting "Most of the school subjects can be given at most half a term, and often only four weeks. It is impossible in this time to cover even sketchily both content and technique."

resemblance to some training college courses.

Society in the last two decades has set new educational goals for its members; they are required to spend longer within the formal system of education. Technological advances have led to a revolution in living standards; there is much greater social mobility as well as a marked increase of leisure time. This means that a new education must be offered and, in the area of greatest educational expansion, the secondary school, it requires to be differentiated in order to cater for differing aptitudes, interests and abilities. Thus more teachers must be prepared to meet the demands of society; they must be better educated and their preparation must equip them to meet the diversification to be encountered in schools.

The existing institutions which prepare teachers for the schools, the universities, the colleges of education and the technical colleges are thus being called upon urgently to meet this situation. It is in view of this demand made upon them that these institutions should play a greater rôle in the determination of the nature and the content of education than they have done hitherto. It is necessary for them to display educational leadership rather than merely seek to provide for the demands of a particular system.

The foregoing implies the necessity for the reassessment of the total situation of teacher education, for teacher education it must be, and not the former system of teacher training, implying as it does the preparation of teachers for a single static school system. The initial problem is to define the aims of teacher education, and having defined them to decide what constitutes an initial course both in the universities and in the colleges. This in turn raises questions of methods of teaching at these various levels, as well as problems of practice teaching, of assessment, evaluation and certification, of probationary service and acceptance as fully qualified and experienced professional teachers.

At the present time five education authorities and ten universities are concerned directly in the initial preparation of White teachers for service in South African schools.¹ It has been seen in the previous two sections of this work how these systems and institutions have developed as the result of historical evolution, as well as of Sir Michael Sadler's "battles long ago". The time is, however, ripe for the next step to be

¹ See Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: Chap. IX - and in particular pp.256,257.

taken in the production of the professional men and women who are capable of giving the necessary leadership in the educational revolution in which we are embroiled. It is imperative in taking this step that the cumulative wisdom of these institutions and systems be geared to national progress, and that encouragement be given to the growth from regional origins of a system which could ultimately become a national pattern of teacher education for South Africa. What must be guarded against is that a sectional or regional pattern be imposed on the country by executive action to the detriment of systems and patterns which have evolved to meet particular regional needs.

In this latter half of the twentieth century all institutions of teacher education in most parts of the world are moving more closely together. It has happened in the United States; the English School of Education is a move in this direction; the gradual disappearance of the pedagogical school and the concentration of training in the pedagogical institute is evidence of a similar trend in the USSR. This was made inevitable, particularly after the second World War, with the vast expansion of secondary education undertaken by the developed countries of the world, amongst which South Africa, in the provision of secondary education for the White group, was no laggard. There is no doubt that a further revolution in teacher education will take place in South Africa (as in the developing nations of the world) as full provision of secondary education for the Bantu comes to be undertaken. Certainly it has been the case in the development of Indian education in South Africa. These issues are, however, beyond the scope of this present study, though it is perhaps of significance that the experience of the needs of the White group and methods applied to them, will be of considerable advantage when applied to other ethnic groups.

Today we find universities, colleges of education and technical colleges all providing training for teachers at secondary school level. Each type of institution, indeed, each separate institution worthy of the name, has developed its own ethos, each has evolved to its own particular stage of development to meet the needs of the authorities and schools for which it provides teachers, each jealous of its own local autonomy and vaguely questioning, if not at times suspicious of, the practices of its neighbour. All, be it noted, are concerned in the production of teachers to cater for the age range of the secondary school pupil, from twelve plus to eighteen years of age. It seems that this alone presents a problem which would justify the examination of possible means of

rationalisation of training patterns.

2. Aims of Teacher Education:

What are the general aims of teacher education in the present situation? The universities clearly have an established, and traditional rôle to play in the production of graduate teachers concerned particularly with the academic band of the ability spectrum of the secondary school. Their aim must be to produce teachers with a high level of general education as well as a considerable subject specialism and with a sound professional training which will enable them to stimulate pupils within the academic forms of our high schools to meet and to measure up to the requirements of higher and further education in what has been termed "the knowledge explosion". This, it may be argued, is not the sole concern of an intellectual elite in the secondary school who are proceeding to tertiary level studies. "The requirements of the second Industrial Revolution (Mumford's neo-technic phase) are more exacting, presupposing much higher standards of proficiency as well as greater adaptability on the part of the many as well as of the few."¹ Thus the universities, traditionally the training ground for the teacher in the secondary level of grammar school type, and prior to 1940, the bulk of secondary education available, now find themselves responsible for the preparation of teachers for a proportionately shrinking portion of the total area covered by expanding and increasingly diversified and differentiated secondary education. Some South African universities continue to prepare teachers specifically for work in the upper primary range. One wonders if this is not an area of university operation which might be questioned in any scheme of rationalisation.

The training colleges, or colleges of education, have had an equally traditional rôle - the preparation of teachers, proficient, professionally-trained practitioners for the staffing of schools of the elementary level attended by the mass of the youth of the nation. This aim has, with the expansion of secondary education, undergone a radical change with increasing momentum until one finds today that the colleges may enrol as many students destined for service in the secondary schools

¹ Richmond, W. Kenneth: The Teaching Revolution: p.19

as they do for primary schools.¹ Aims of training and courses for these students have undergone review and revision and have evolved considerably. Has this evolution been sufficient to meet the educational demands of the present? It is obvious that what is required is a better educated teacher, a demand which had a marked influence upon the nature of college courses as outlined above. Work is done in the colleges of education today which twenty five years ago would more appropriately have been the function of the university. This has certainly been the case in England and Wales, and is part of the fundamental thinking behind the School of Education and the recognition by the universities of the new teacher's degree, the Bachelor of Education. The changing aims and rôles of the colleges of education provoke the question: Is the work done, or some of it, not more appropriate to the university and should it not be done there?

The technical colleges, which have now become colleges of advanced technical education, are also confronted in their teacher training departments with changing aims and objectives. Before the widespread expansion of secondary education, these institutions were required to produce small numbers of technical and commercial teachers to supply the requirements of the technical colleges, and apart from these, teachers of the artisan-instructor type for trades schools. The demand has now changed and the requirement is for an additional type of teacher - a better educated, professionally more highly-trained person who will take his place not only in the commercial and technical high schools but also on an equal footing with his colleague in the more traditional academic high school as they become increasingly comprehensive in character. Any developments in the field of differentiation of secondary school education as a result of the ending of divided constitutional control of education in 1968 are likely to accentuate rather than to minimise this demand. The problem which arises as a result is not whether the technical colleges can undertake the specialist training, but whether the professional training should not take place in concert with a college of education or with a university, thus reducing the duplication of required facilities and staff.

In all three institutions, then, there is a case to be made for a

¹ In 1967 only 25% of students enrolled at the Natal Training College in Pietermaritzburg opted for primary school training. The remainder were following secondary courses. It was stated that the percentage of students opting for primary training in Durban was slightly higher. Interview with the Principal of the Natal Training College, Mr. N.W. Bowden: 15th Sept. 1967.

new look at the aims and objectives of teacher education, not merely from the point of view of the teachers now required by schools of differing type. It is vitally necessary to assess the nature of the teacher required to staff our schools up to the beginning of the twenty-first century, to delineate the aims and objects of teacher education at least for this period and then to prescribe appropriate courses for institutions of the three kinds in order to produce these teachers. The need is no longer to follow traditional patterns of teacher education in order to provide teachers for rapidly evolving schools, but to undertake the more fundamental exercise of seeking to determine the future trends in education at primary and secondary level and then to endeavour to produce teachers who will be able to conform to these trends.

"Times of cultural ferment are inevitable in human history. Our own time is one of them; and to that extent it is beside the point to ask whether cultural ferment is good or bad. But we can say that cultural ferment is a good thing in so far as it is healthy to recognise a disturbance of traditional attitudes and values and unhealthy to shut our minds against changes with which we do not know how to deal."¹ The manifest need of society at all levels and through all its agencies is to seek to establish a coherent view and understanding of the nature of the ferment. The main agency of society with which we are concerned and which must adapt itself to give this view and to promote this understanding is education. Jeffreys sees two important points in the quest for an effectively coherent view of life. "One is an understanding of the relations between the different departments of thought and knowledge. This does not mean that we should be versed in all the arts and sciences. That is neither possible nor necessary. But it does mean that we should have some grasp of the kind of contribution which they severally make to the whole human outlook - what questions they ask and answer. We must be clear about the limitations, as well as the value, of the various branches of knowledge; there is no more fruitful source of confusion than the assumption that what lies outside the terms of reference of a particular branch of knowledge does not exist.

The second thing needed is a governing principle, or master idea,

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: *Personal Values in the Modern World*: p.85.

about which our thought and knowledge can cohere and which gives them meaning and purpose. In the present world, belief in the sacredness of human personality, has the best chance of acceptance as a common, uniting principle..... The sacredness of human personality is the ultimate foundation of good government, decent society and enlightened culture."¹

The formulation of a coherent view of life in times of unprecedented change, economic, social, political and technological, must be one of the fundamental aims of the leaders if not of all members of contemporary society. Where stands education and the schools in this formulation? Paul Woodring states that "in a society of free men, the proper aim of education is to prepare the individual to make wise decisions. All else is but contributory."² In development of this statement, he argues that "the aims of a free society must be chosen by the individuals who constitute it; they cannot be made by the schools or by its leaders. But though the aims of individuals differ, the aim of education is the same for all. All must choose, and the schools can assure that the choice is based upon adequate information and clear thinking. A sharp distinction must be made between education and propaganda for propaganda is designed to preclude the opportunity for true choice by selecting the evidence and distorting thinking."³ In an age of cultural ferment, then, civilisation, more than ever is a battle between the opposing forces of conservatism and change, and herein lies the essential difference between education today and what it was half a century ago. At the end of the nineteenth century and in the first part of the present century society saw education as a conservation and consolidation of those advances already made, and in this process training in skills played a dominant rôle. "Training, or the development of skills," Woodring reminds us, "becomes a legitimate activity of the schools only when it can be demonstrated that such skill is essential to the true aim of education."⁴

Progressive education has broken away from the conservative view

¹ Ibid: p.90.

² Woodring, Paul: A Fourth of a Nation: p.111.

³ Ibid: p.112.

⁴ Ibid: p.113.

of the essential need for continuity in the development of civilisation, and as a result civilisation has been in danger of losing its contact with the past. It is necessary, particularly at the present time, with the explosion of knowledge seeking to place its emphasis upon the present rather than the past, that society should seek to establish a balance between progressive and conservative forces. This does not mean advocating a return to dominance by conservative forces, for under such control social forms tend to crystallise and society itself to stagnate. It means that a system of education which prepares for change, but does not of itself necessarily lead the way, is the only type of education which can find favour among the democratic nations of the West.

Society then offers to its youth a much greater educational opportunity than at any time in the history of mankind, at a time when the frontiers of knowledge are expanding at an almost frightening rate. Old and accepted social and moral values are constantly being challenged and more and more obvious becomes the validity of Woodring's exhortation "to prepare the individual to make wise decisions". The emphasis in the modern curriculum has surely changed from the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake to a utilisation of knowledge in the right ordering of human life in the modern world. This is fundamental to the present study, for it means that the rôle of the teacher is undergoing a fundamental change which in turn requires basic recasting in the methods employed in his preparation.

3. The Qualities of the Teacher in the Modern World:

We must now ask what are the essential qualities to be looked for in the teacher in the modern world. What constitutes the 'ideal' teacher? Perhaps the answer to these questions is to be found in three quotations:-

- (a) "The whole child (emotional, social, moral, intellectual, etc.) reacts to an entire situation, which in a given case may include arithmetic problems, the teacher's attitude and actions, the temperature of the room, the attitudes of other pupils, and the like, confronting the pupil as a total stimulus pattern. In this sense, learning concerns the whole person and results in an entire reorganisation of the individual's patterns of behaviour. The guidance of learning thus is more effective when the pupil's

interests and attitudes, as well as his fundamental organic, personal and social needs are considered in determining the pattern of his learning experiences."¹

- (b) "Teaching is guiding children through their experiences so as to increase their ability to use better the process of achieving intelligent behaviour."²
- (c) "Whatever the future rôle of the teacher and of his teacher, men of imagination will be needed in the profession. It is these men who must help form new climates of opinion, uproot old stereotypes and establish new ones. The latter must be grounded in documented fact and appropriate to our times and needs."³

Clearly mere mastery of a subject as in the classical type of education is insufficient for the teacher in the modern school. While such mastery is of fundamental importance in the situation of vast knowledge expansion, it is clear that it must be balanced against an understanding and an appreciation of the totality of the learning situation in which the child is as important as the store of subject knowledge. Clearly, too, it is to be hoped that the teacher as a person of an advanced level of general education will be a person also of discerning judgement who will be increasingly called upon to interpret to youth the new values set by society for itself. As Holmes concludes, "all this implies among other things that our teacher education institutions must rid themselves of their traditional trade-school temper and become centres of ideas. Perhaps it is not too much to hope that in the present world of change and tension, (it will be fully realised by all that) teachers have a vital rôle to play. In order to discharge it fully, they need a rich and full education and a status commensurate with their responsibilities."⁴

Qualitatively, then, the need today is for a re-examination of our methods of preparation of teachers for our schools. We are required to provide for the education of teachers who are aware of the social

¹ Thorpe, L.P. and Schmuller, A.M.: Contemporary Theories of Learning: p.461.

² Hopkins, L.T.: Interaction: The Democratic Process: p.40.

³ Holmes, Brian: Teacher Education in a Changing World: Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.15.

⁴ Ibid: p.15.

responsibilities of the citizen and who will impart sound social values. These values must be general rather than sectional and must be those which can be manifestly demonstrated to be those of a free society. The teachers must also have an enlightened concern with the vocational requirements of the children they teach. This must be seen as part of the whole development of the individual and account must be taken of the whole range of human ability in this regard, so that the schools are capable of providing a truly adequately differentiated education particularly at the secondary level. With regard to the vocational requirements of youth it must be constantly borne in mind that employment opportunities are constantly changing and that many pupils at present in school will find employment in tasks which have not yet been defined with any precision. The education must be pre-vocational rather than vocational, and the emphasis must be on the development of flexibility of approach to demands of this changing world.

The changing nature of the world throws a further responsibility upon the teacher in tomorrow's schools. The reorganisation of the modern world consequent upon the revolution in technology and the increasing development of automation not only means a progressive reduction in the proportion of openings available to unskilled as compared with skilled workers, it also increases the leisure time of the whole population. Jeffreys touches on this important aspect of modern education when he emphasises the need for 'the education of feeling'. "An essential part of our job as educators is to help people to achieve depth and sincerity of feeling. There is an emotional shallowness which, in those who have never been deeply stirred in their personal experience, often goes with intellectual shallowness; and is fostered by habitual exposure to the secondhand feeling of mass entertainment."¹

Roger Thabault acknowledges the presence of these problems in France. "A general problem is apparent in France, as in all the countries of Europe, scientific and technical progress has completely changed living and working conditions. Automation is constantly creating new leisure time for men and women and increasing their resources. It demands long and difficult study before machines can be used properly or perfected. The countryside is being forsaken for the towns. Human relationships of every kind are becoming more

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: *Personal Values in the Modern World*: p.131.

numerous and more complicated; they are causing a multiplication of administrative posts, and this in turn demands a lengthening of school life."¹

What challenges are posed as a result for the teachers in today's and tomorrow's schools. Jean Floud, speaking generally, states that "We may say that secondary teachers tend to be ill-equipped by their social and educational history to cope with the tasks confronting them in the schools today. The majority of secondary teachers are in England college-trained non-graduates, successors of the nineteenth century teacher-missionaries with whom they retain close affinities. A small proportion of secondary school teachers, serving mainly in selective schools, descends from a different tradition - a tradition of being, not social missionaries, but guardians at the gateway into higher education and initiators into the national heritage of learning and culture. Neither group of teachers can be said, for different reasons in each case, to be adequately equipped to man the new national systems of secondary schools called forth by modern social, political and economic needs."² Apart from other considerations, this situation is a direct result of the mid-century movement for the expansion of secondary education throughout much of the Western world, and including South Africa. The teacher-missionary's task was to bring the light of culture to the first or elementary level of education, while the custodian of culture stood guard at the second level to prepare an elite of the population for entry to the third level of education. In the evolutionary process of educational development, teacher educators have sought to modify and adapt the existing pattern of training to the new demands of the schools. At first this was possible, where numbers of non-graduate teachers were required to offer a general education for one, two or three years beyond the elementary level of schooling. This led on to the recognition of new kinds of education necessary at the secondary level and to the recognition of the need for varying forms of differentiated education at this level. More children have to be educated in different ways, and the proportion of second level pupils preparing for entrance to higher education is increasing slowly when

¹ Thabault, R.: Professional Training in France: Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.249.

² Floud, Mrs. J.: Teaching in an Affluent Society. Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.388.

compared with the total numbers enrolled in the secondary schools. The need is obviously for more better educated, more highly professionally trained teachers than ever before. These teachers, moreover, must be capable of flexibility in their adaptation to the changing demands of society, as well as to the techniques of modern teaching. We cling, however, to our traditional training institutions with rôles but slightly modified in the last half century. The need is for a rationalisation of our whole approach to teacher education. To return to our original premise the need is to lift teacher education from a passive rôle of following the needs of the schools, to the assumption of a responsibility for determining educational needs of the society, and preparing teachers to meet those needs in advance.

"The fact is that the intellectual qualifications for teaching are bound both to rise and to become more uniform throughout the profession in the affluent society, and the case seems overwhelming for the acceptance of full responsibility by the universities for the education and training of teachers, and for the recognition of the fundamental importance of the social sciences to this enterprise..... Only if the universities will do for teaching what they already do, albeit imperfectly, for medicine, the law, the Church and the senior civil service can we hope to breach the ghastly 'united front of parents and teachers' which is central to the (educational problems) of the affluent society..... The attempts following the second World War to found a modern system of universal secondary schooling are making the universities dependent today as they never have been hitherto on the disposition and quality of whole school population, and it is difficult to conceive of a case against the adoption of teaching that does not rest on false grounds of misunderstanding and snobbery about education as a subject of study at university level, or mistaken grounds of expediency and temporary convenience of administration."¹

To sum up, then, the teacher of the future requires to have a better general education, developing the trend of the last fifty years. He requires to be more flexible and adaptable in his approach to his task, presupposing a professional education which concentrates upon knowledge and understanding rather than upon mere mastery of techniques.

¹ Ibid: p.389.

To do this he must have a keener awareness of the child as an individual at all levels of his development. He must be aware of sociological evolution and the changing values of society, able to interpret these to youth and to set before them those values which are worthwhile. He must be aware of the changing nature of the economy and the vocational opportunities offered to youth so that he can assist in their guidance to satisfactory and satisfying career choices. The teacher in possession of these qualities, and imbued with interest in youth and in learning, should go far towards the realisation of "the proper aim of education..... to prepare the individual to make wise decisions."

Existing courses and institutions for the preparation of teachers have developed by evolutionary processes from traditional patterns. If there is to be a qualitative improvement in the education of teachers, then the time appears to be ripe for a rationalisation and reassessment of current practices. It is clear that the universities have an important rôle to play in this process.

Chapter Nine: Demography and Teacher Education

Of fundamental importance, then, in the development of modern education is the qualitative improvement of the education offered to teachers. Were this the only demand to be made by society, the task of the teacher educator would be comparatively simple. However, this demand is made in the face of others which include extended education for a society of growing affluence, and the natural concomitant of this, the necessity to provide increasingly sophisticated forms of differentiated education particularly at the second level. Without doubt, though, the major and most pressing demands being made on our educational systems today arise from the growth of the population. This demand must, in turn, be viewed against a background of increased employment opportunities for skilled persons with trained minds. Thus, fewer recruits of the right calibre are attracted initially to the teaching profession, while greater temptations exist for those within the profession to forsake it, particularly in the years immediately after qualification.

"It must be appreciated.....that.....the (teaching) profession will have to accept a smaller proportion of people of outstanding talent than it has received in the past..... The professions, taken together, are absorbing a larger and larger proportion of the population, and..... the average standard of White pupils in Standard 10, and of White university students must inevitably be falling and must continue to fall. Teaching is competing more and more with other professions for available talent. It cannot hope to receive more than its fair share of this talent, and that fair share will fall as the total demand for this talent rises.

"It follows from this that the education systems will have to adapt themselves to a teaching force of relative lower average calibre. In consequence, great attention should be given to the development of new teaching methods, to the provision of the latest teaching aids, to keeping teachers up-to-date in their methods and knowledge, and to the provision of text books of the highest quality.

"Moreover, a greater burden than ever will have to be carried by those people of outstanding ability who.....will continue to be found among the teachers, as they have been in the past. If the average teacher is to be of lower calibre, it becomes all the more vital that the

teaching profession should succeed in attracting some people of outstanding ability to give a lead to the rest."¹

Sobering as this expression of opinion of a panel of distinguished educators, academics and economists is, one wonders whether it does in fact present the whole picture of the modern challenge of education. Elsewhere the Report states: "It is clear.....that as far as school education is concerned, the great period of expansion in White education is over. Universal education up to Standard 6 has been achieved....., universal education up to Standard 8 is not far off and.....the maximum practicable enrolment in Standard 10 is in sight. Thus there remains little need for, or possibility of the quantitative expansion of White education at the school level."² Accepting the stated facts of the provision of education at elementary and secondary levels, one is none the less confronted with a population growth rate of the order of two per cent per annum, together with the already mentioned problems of competition with the other professions in the upper levels of the pool of ability, and the potential danger of increasing wastage rates from the profession. It is not to be denied that serious inroads are being made into this stock of talent to provide leadership for other rapidly developing ethnic groups in the country. It appears to be an inescapable conclusion that the steady growth of the population together with these additional factors is likely to cause problems of teacher supply in the not-too-distant future. Indeed, certain subject areas are already experiencing a serious shortage of adequately trained personnel. It is necessary now to endeavour to examine quantitatively the magnitude of the problem.

1. Growth of the White Population in the Republic:

Statistics showing the past growth rate of any population group contain numerous factors which at times make them more appropriate as indicators of trends in national history and development than as predictors of the future growth of that population. For example, immigration and emigration within the last two decades have been vital factors in the growth of the White population in South Africa, reflecting

¹ The 1961 Education Panel: Second Report: Education and the South African Economy: 1966: pp.62-63.

² Ibid: p.46.

political and economic developments both at home and abroad. What will be the future trend in this regard is hazardous to predict.

Basing projections on the 1951 and 1960 Census statistics, (Tables 17 and 18), the following pattern emerges as is seen in Figure 2. This

Table 17 : Republic of South Africa: Growth of 0-4 year age group : 1951-1960

	1951			1960			% of 1 yr age gp. in 1960
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
<u>R.S.A.</u>	316497	161293	155204	354905	180129	174776	
Age gp. 1 year	63300	32259	31041	70981	36026	34955	100
<u>Cape Province</u>	105579	53890	51698	108459	55957	52502	
Age gp. 0-4yrs							30.6
Age gp. 1 year	21117	10778	10339	21692	11191	10501	
<u>Natal</u>	30353	15529	14824	36480	17918	18562	
Age gp. 0-4yrs							10.2
Age gp. 1 year	6071	3106	2965	7296	3584	3732	
<u>O.F.S.</u>	27275	13912	13363	35362	18051	17611	
Age gp. 0-4yrs							10.1
Age gp. 1 year	5455	2782	2673	7132	3610	3522	
<u>Transvaal</u>	153290	77962	75328	174304	88203	86101	
Age gp. 0-4yrs							49.2
Age gp. 1 year	30658	15592	15066	36861	17641	17220	

Source: R.S.A.: Bureau of Census and Statistics: 1961 Population Census Sample Tabulation No. 1: Table 2.1, p.24.

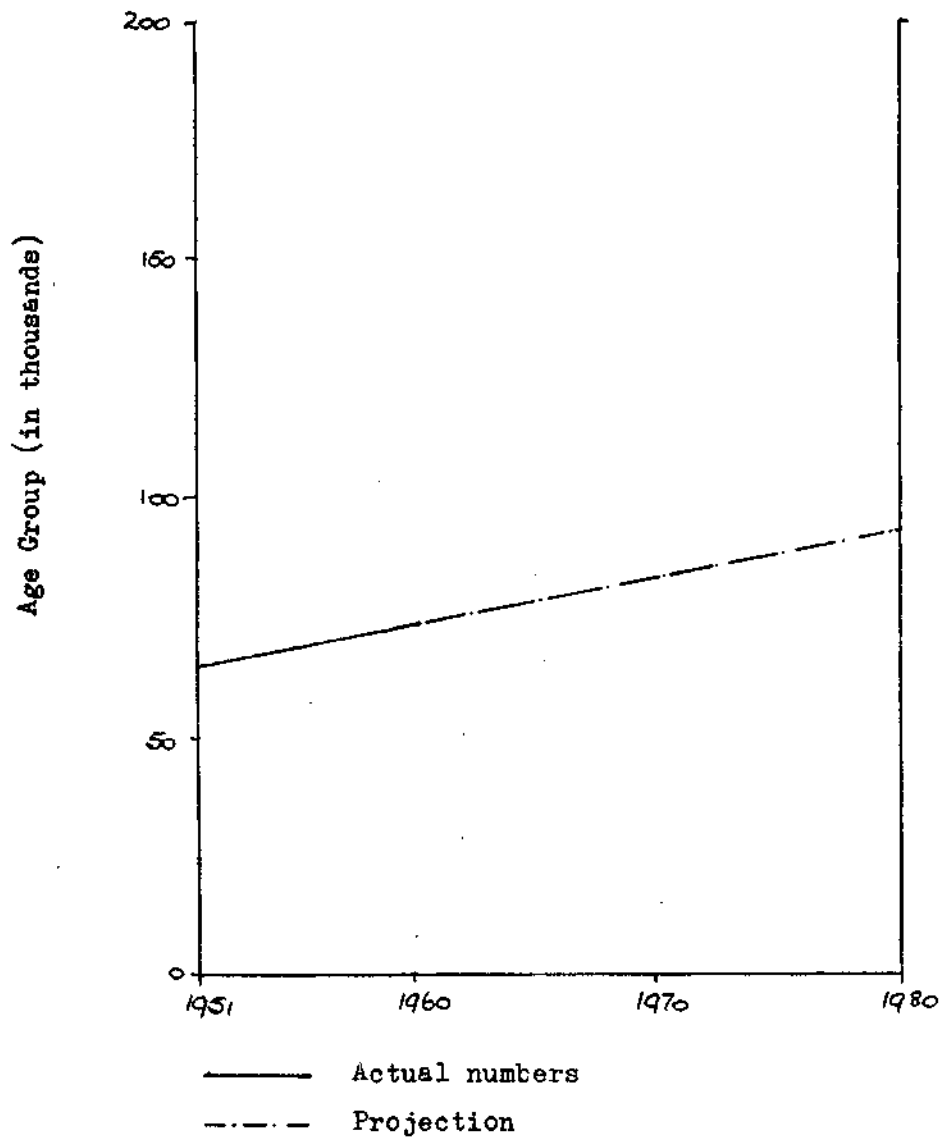
Table 18 : Republic of South Africa: Projected growth of single year age group in age range 0-4 years

(All figures in 1000's)

Year		1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
Total population	High		455	514	565	617	680
in 0-4yr group	Low	381	430	461	493	518	547
Total population	High		91	103	113	123	136
in single yr. age group	Low	76	86	92	99	104	109

Source: Ibid.

Figure 2: South Africa: Growth of the Age Group entering school



Statistical Source: Union of South Africa.
Department of Census and Statistics
1951/1960 Census.

graph is based upon the 0-4 year age groups in the two most recent census enumerations. These figures have been approximated to the individual year-age group by dividing the census totals by five. These points are recorded and the age-group population projected arithmetically by means of a straight line graph to the year 1990. Thus the age group population of 71000 in 1960 has grown to 105000 by 1990. Applying to this growth rate the formula $A = P(1 + \frac{r}{100})^n$

where A is the projected total age group population

P is the age group population in 1960

r is the percentage growth rate

and n is the elapsed time (i.e. 30 years),

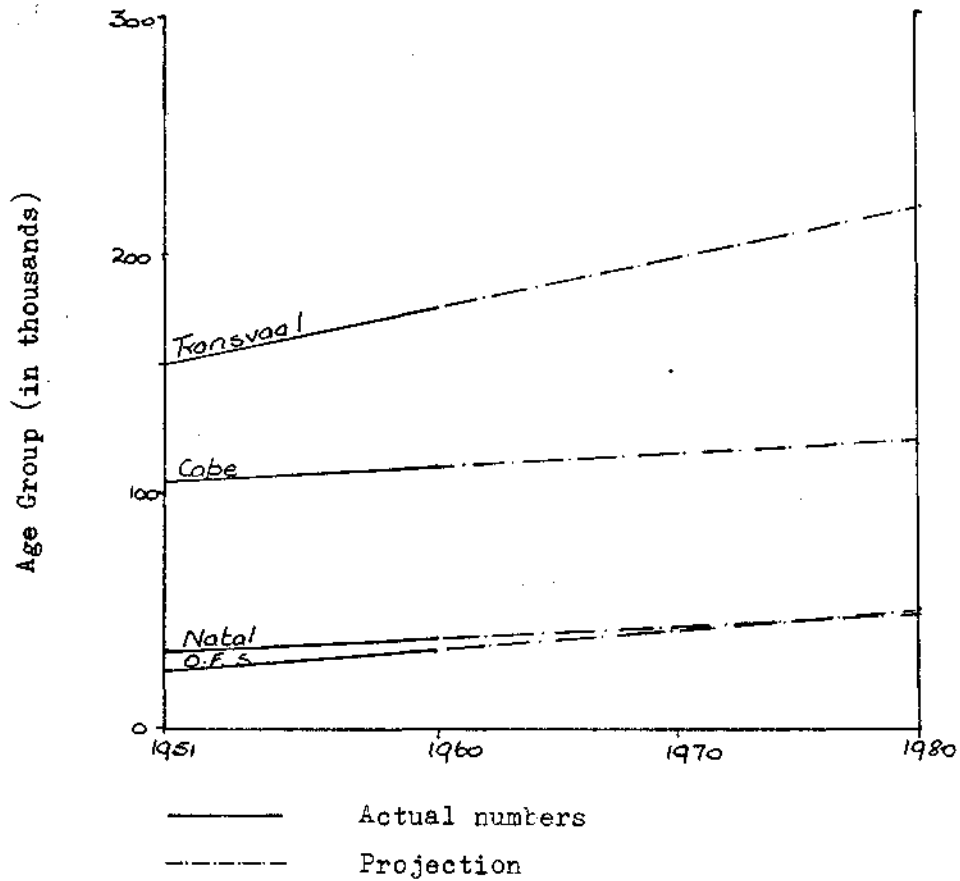
the annual percentage growth rate of the population is found to be of the order of 0.6%. This would appear to be an excessively conservative order of growth, reflecting unduly economic and political considerations pertaining in South Africa in these two significant census years.

Limited as this method is, it does show on a comparative basis the relative rates of growth of school age-group populations in the four provinces. Figure 3 is computed in the same way as Figure 2, the basic statistical data being obtained from the 1951 and 1960 census returns.

The following points appear to have particular significance:-

- (a) the rapid growth rate in the Transvaal as compared with the other three provinces. Making use of the same formula as above, the growth rate for this province is approximately 1.5%, or nearly three times as great as for South Africa as a whole. Again this reflects in particular the industrial and consequent population growth of the Transvaal in the decade of the 'fifties. It would appear that this relatively rapid rate of growth is likely to tail off towards the latter end of the forecast period; this is confirmed by:-
 - (i) the crucial problem of water supply as revealed by the severe drought of the mid-'sixties;
 - (ii) the declining production of the older Witwatersrand gold mines; and
 - (iii) the relatively rapid advance in the development of other areas of the Republic as a result of the exploitation of natural resources and the implementation of the Government's policy of separate development and the creation of border industries.

Figure 3: South Africa: Population Growth
Rate: Growth of 0-4 year age
group by provinces



Statistical Source: Union of South Africa
Department of Census and Statistics
1951/1960 Census.

These factors nonetheless do not detract from the importance of the fact that the most rapid immediate expansion in school enrolments is taking place in the Transvaal, with a consequently rapid expansion in the demand for teachers.

- (b) The slow rate of growth of age-group population in the Cape Province. While the gross number concerned is formidable, the expansion rate in no way compares with the rate of growth in the other three provinces.
- (c) The close correlation in population growth between Natal and the Orange Free State. It is significant that the projections show the Orange Free State overtaking Natal in the latter part of the present decade. Again, the danger of census projections is revealed, for the 1960s have been a period of rapid expansion in Natal both as a result of immigration and industrial development. The work of MacMillan and Prozesky on the prediction of the growth of school enrolments in Natal shows this to be true and stresses the inadequacy of the method of census projection.¹ This will be dealt with more fully below. A possible source of error in respect of the data employed here, is that Table 17 reveals that there are 18562 females in the 0-4 year age group in Natal in 1960. However, in a breakdown of the White population of Natal in 1960 undertaken by the Bureau of Census and Statistics, the numbers given in the 0-4 year age group are as follows:

males 17896; females 17282; total 35178.²

This indicates that in this particular age range, the population of the Orange Free State had exceeded that in Natal by 1960. While accepting that the figures in Table 17 upon which Figures 2 and 3 are based are derived from the Sample Tabulation of the 1960 Census, it is to be regretted that in this particular instance an error of the order of 3.7% appears to be revealed in official statistics.

¹ MacMillan, R.G. and Prozesky, M.N.: An Attempt at Forecasting the Future Need for Teachers in Natal: as yet unpublished research undertaken in the Faculty of Education, University of Natal, 1967.

² Bureau of Census and Statistics: Population Census, 1960. Breakdown into single ages and sexes of the White population of Natal - by special request.

Accepting, then, that the dangers and pitfalls to be found in this method of projecting population growth are excessive, is any other method likely to yield more valid results? The annual Statistical Yearbook of the Bureau of Census and Statistics quotes projections of the development of the White population of the Republic both in toto and in five-year groups until 1990. These statistics are reproduced in Tables 18 and 19. Applying to these figures the percentage

Table 19 : Republic of South Africa: Projected growth of the White population group : 1965-1990

(All figures in 1000's)

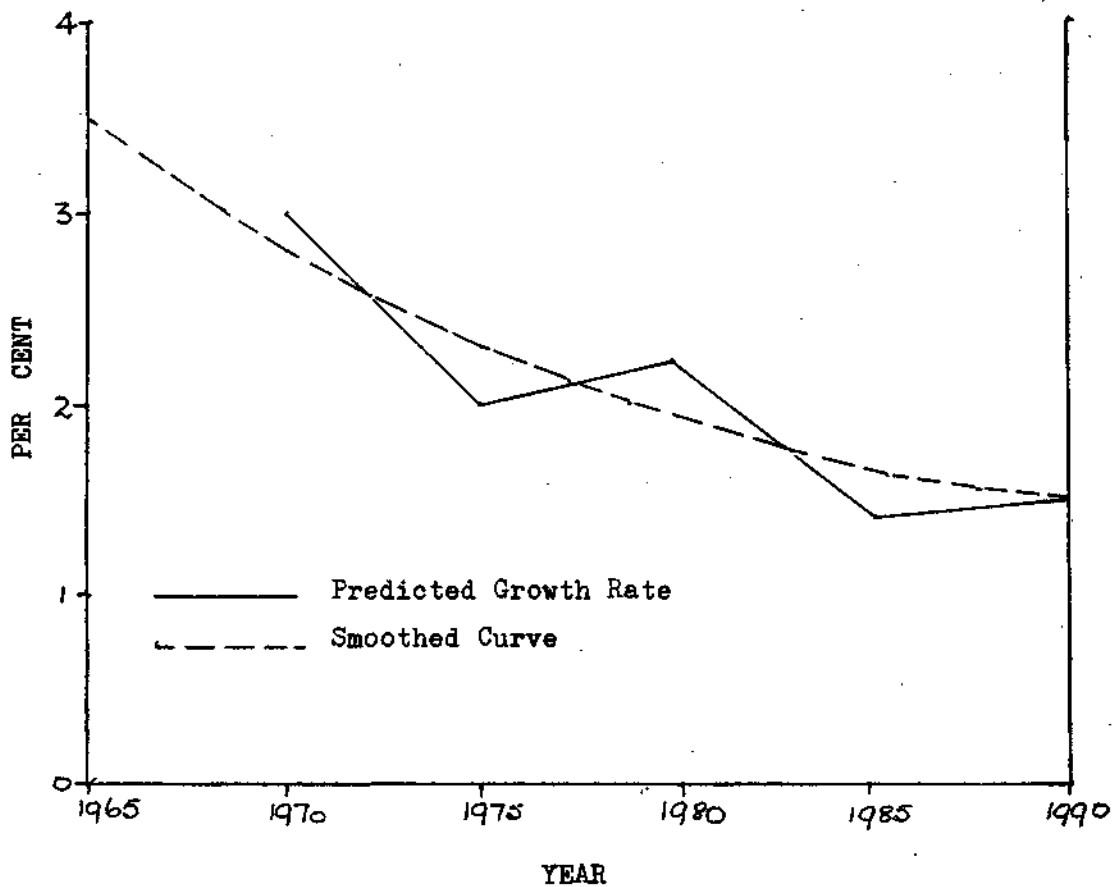
Year		1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
Total	High	3398	3808	4238	4704	5203	5747
	Low		3736	4071	4420	4780	5152
Male	High	1695	1911	2135	2376	2634	2914
	Low		1870	2040	2218	2400	2590
Female	High	1702	1897	2104	2328	2570	2833
	Low		1866	2031	2202	2379	2562

Source: R.S.A.: First Report on the Census of 6th Sept., 1960.

distribution of the age group to provinces as at the 1960 Census,¹ the projections of single year age-group population growth as revealed in Table 20 are obtained. Applying the formula $A = P(1 + \frac{r}{100})^n$ as before to each five-year interval in the prediction period, the annual growth rate of the age group is found to decrease from 3% in 1970 to 1.5% in 1990. The change in annual percentage growth of the age group is expressed graphically in Figure 4, and an attempt is made to smooth the growth rate curve resulting in an annual age-group population growth of 1.5 to 2% in 1990. This would appear to accord much more satisfactorily with observed conditions than the previous alternative. It does in fact accord well with the evidence of the 1961 Education Panel in their second report where projections are made up to 1980. They conclude that "the projection of the past rate of population growth which has

¹ See final column: Table 17.

Figure 4: Predicted Percentage Growth Rate and Age Group



Statistical Source: R.S.A.: Statistical Yearbooks, 1966, 1968
: Population Census, 1960

Table 20 : Republic of South Africa: Projected growth of the White population of school-going age

(All figures in 1000's)

Age group/Year	1 9 6 5			1 9 7 0			1 9 7 5			1 9 8 0			1 9 8 5			1 9 9 0			
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	
	Total Population	H.			1911	1897	3808	2135	2104	4239	2376	2328	4704	2634	2570	5204	2914	2833	5747
	L.	1695	1702	3397	1870	1866	3736	2040	2031	4071	2218	2202	4420	2400	2379	4779	2590	2562	5152
0-4 years	H.			233	222	455	263	251	514	289	276	565	316	301	617	348	332	680	
	L.	195	186	381	220	210	430	237	224	461	252	241	493	265	253	518	280	267	547
5-9 years	H.			200	190	390	236	225	461	265	253	518	292	278	570	318	303	621	
	L.	182	174	356	197	187	384	220	210	430	237	227	464	252	241	493	265	253	518
10-14 years	H.			186	178	364	202	192	394	239	227	466	268	255	523	295	281	576	
	L.	170	164	334	183	176	359	197	188	385	220	210	430	238	227	465	253	241	494
15-19 years	H.			173	166	339	188	179	367	205	194	399	241	229	470	270	257	527	
	L.	163	156	319	171	165	336	184	176	360	198	188	386	220	211	431	238	227	465

Source: R.S.A.: Statistical Yearbook, 1965: p.A13.

been very steady over many years, indicates that the population of South Africa in 1980 will be $24\frac{1}{2}$ million, of whom $4\frac{1}{2}$ million will be White, and the rest non-White. If a high rate of immigration is maintained, the number of Whites may be slightly increased, but the effect cannot be expected to be great. In 1963 there were 36,600 immigrants, which is the highest figure on record, and, as suggested by the Bureau of Economic Research of the University of Stellenbosch, this record of immigration can hardly be expected to be maintained. If a net average of 20,000 immigrants per year is received annually between 1960 and 1980, they will increase the population (allowing for normal wastage) by about 300,000 people, making up 6.7% of the White population..... The projection of past population trends takes into account the net immigration of the past. It seems, therefore, that the greatest increase above the projected figure from this source in the White population which can be predicted with confidence is about 250,000."¹ Using the same method as employed previously, this growth of the White population for the period 1960 to 1980 as predicted by the 1961 Education Panel is of the order of 1.5% per annum.

Long-term prediction of population growth is a task beset with imponderables. Existing statistics upon which projections may be made are prone to give emphasis to past trends, and yet they have the advantage in the long term of showing a remarkably constant growth rate. Present trends may be short-lived and in the medium-term range these may be accelerated or retarded. It is in this regard that political and economic factors, including population growth by net immigration are most important. However, assuming normal development (and it is a calculated risk that any development can be classified as 'normal' in the latter part of the twentieth century), it seems not unreasonable to assume that the single year age group in the age range 0 to 4 years will continue to expand at a rate of between 3 and 1.5% per annum between 1970 and 1990. This should give an average developmental rate of approximately 2% per annum. This is set out in Table 21.

Furthermore, on a provincial basis, it may be assumed that the most rapid rate of population expansion will take place, in the short-term future, in the Transvaal, though factors are even now evident which may

¹ 1961 Education Panel: Second Report: Education and the South African Economy: pp.17-19.

Table 21 : Republic of South Africa: Projected growth of school entry age groups by Provinces : 1965-1990

		Year						
Province		1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	
1.	Republic		91.0	103.0	113.0	123.0	136.0	H. ^{3.}
	(100%)	76	88.5	97.5	106.0	113.5	122.5	M.
2.			86.0	92.0	99.0	104.0	109.0	L.
	Cape Province		27.8	31.5	34.6	37.6	41.8	H.
	(30.6%)	23.2	27.0	29.8	32.5	34.7	37.6	M.
			26.3	28.1	30.3	31.8	33.4	L.
	Natal		9.3	10.6	11.4	12.5	13.9	H.
	(10.2%)	7.8	9.1	10.0	10.8	11.6	12.5	M.
			8.8	9.4	10.1	10.6	11.1	L.
	O.F.S.		9.2	10.4	11.4	12.4	13.8	H.
	(10.1%)	7.7	9.0	9.9	10.7	11.5	12.4	M.
			8.7	9.3	10.0	10.5	11.0	L.
	Transvaal		44.8	50.7	55.6	59.5	66.9	H.
	(49.2%)	37.6	43.7	48.1	52.2	55.4	60.4	M.
			42.5	45.4	48.8	51.2	53.6	L.

- Notes:**
1. Percentages from Table 17.
 2. Republic statistics derived from Table 20.
 3. Projections: H : High
M : Medium
L : Low.

retard this developmental rate from the late 'seventies onwards. The population growth rate in the Cape Province is slower, conforming more to the national average, and reflecting a very large agricultural and pastoral hinterland, with relatively confined centres of industrial expansion located on the southern coastal perimeter. Here is perhaps best seen the dichotomy of urban and rural South Africa. The Orange Free State and Natal show signs of remarkable parallelism in population development.

2. Developing School Enrolment Patterns in South Africa:

There is general agreement with the statement made in the second report of the 1961 Education Panel - "Education and the South African economy" (1966) - that White education in South Africa is coming to the end of its great period of expansion.¹ This is particularly true of

¹ Second Report of the 1961 Education Panel: p.46.

primary education, although secondary education with the introduction of new forms of differentiated courses, particularly in the Transvaal and Natal, is continuing to expand. Added to this in the decade of the 'sixties has been the factor of growth by immigration both on a national basis, as well as an enhanced flow across provincial boundaries as a result of industrial development in particular areas of the Republic. These conditions have increased the difficulty of prognosticating the growth of school populations although some important work has been done in this field.¹ All workers in this field in the Republic acknowledge the contribution of Jacoby in general enrolment prognostications of this type.² The importance of such studies as the basis of educational planning is to be seen in the contrast in school population figures derived by the Educational Fact Finding Commission in Natal,³ and those of MacMillan and Prozesky.⁴ These are contracted in Table 22 below.

Table 22 : Estimated total White school population :
Natal 1967-1971

Year	Education Fact Finding Commission	MacMillan and Prozesky	% Age Deviation
1967	73500	84432	14.9
1968	76000	85934	13.0
1969	78500	87108	10.9
1970	81000	88295	9.0
1971	83500	89515	7.2

The first study is based in the main on a growth rate in the school population of 3.3% per annum, and is the figure upon which the

¹ Kotzee, A.L.: Planning in Education with special reference to methods of forecasting the future School Population and the Future Need for Teachers in the province of the Transvaal: Education and Our Expanding Horizons: Proc. of the National Conference on Education, University of Natal, 1960: p.290

² Jacoby, E.G.: Methods of School Enrolment Projection - UNESCO.

³ Director: Town and Regional Planning, Natal: Educational Fact Finding Commission: 2nd Interim Report.

⁴ MacMillan, R.G. and Prozesky, M.W.: op cit.

Natal Education Department has based its planning. The second study, based on the work of Jacoby and Kotzee takes into account survival rates and immigration figures as well as the holding power of the schools, particularly at secondary level. The percentage deviations¹ resulting are interesting for they tend to show the dangers in planning of this type. In the short term there is the maximum discrepancy between the prognostications, but this progressively diminishes towards the end of the period. There are inherent dangers in planning of this nature, in that, in the first instance there is likely to be a shortage of educational provision, schools, equipment, and, most importantly teachers, in the short run. Furthermore, an education authority, confronted with discrepancies of this order, might be prone to over-correct, for example, in the admission of students to teacher training institutions, resulting in a consequent over-supply of teachers in the future. The disastrous consequences of errors in planning of this sort during the decade of the 'thirties have already been dealt with in the previous section.

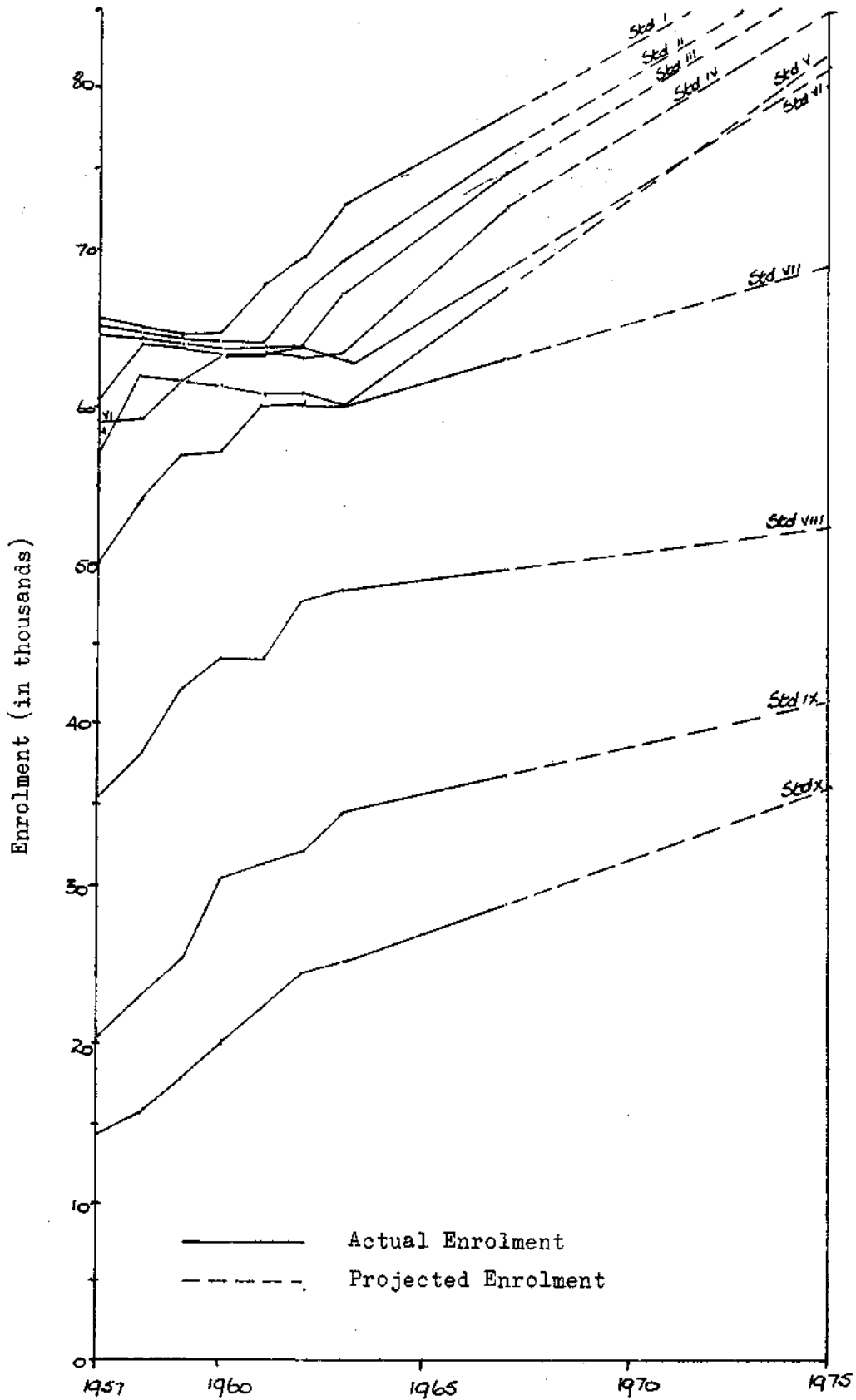
In reply to this, it may be argued that the work of MacMillan and Prozesky is unduly optimistic of school enrolment growth. However, based as it is on known principles of population forecasting and incorporating Kotzee's methods of enrolment prediction in the Transvaal which have proved practical, one inclines to the opinion that the work of these researchers in Natal tends to be slightly conservative, rather than optimistic. This aside, the main lesson to be derived from this work is the need for more careful and more meticulous educational planning throughout the Republic. The methods of Kotzee, MacMillan and Prozesky could, with advantage, be applied on a nation-wide basis.

Accepting, then, the problems and limitations of school enrolment estimates, it is necessary to try to establish the order of enrolment expansion in order that a measure of magnitude of teacher education output can be gauged. An attempt to do this is shown in Figure 5 - Projected School Enrolment Pattern, 1957-1975. This figure is based on actual enrolment figures for the years 1957-1967 abstracted from the 1966 and 1968 Statistical Yearbooks.² From 1967 onwards the enrolment growth is

¹ These deviations are calculated as a difference between the two prognostications and expressed as a percentage of the total estimated by the Educational Fact Finding Commission.

² Republic of South Africa: Director of Census and Statistics: Statistical Yearbooks, 1966, 1968.

Figure 5: South Africa: School Enrolment Pattern and its Projection



Statistical Source: R.S.A.: Statistical Yearbooks

projected in terms of

- (a) population growth in the primary standards recognising that at this level compulsory education has virtually been achieved. This has been stabilised at a growth rate of 2% per annum - see Figure 4.
- (b) an anticipated enhanced enrolment growth at secondary level as compulsory education to Standard VIII becomes a reality, and in terms of the growing holding power of the secondary school as a result of differentiated education at this level. Thus, at secondary school stage, the following enrolment growth rates have been used:-

Standard VII	-	2%
Standard VIII	-	2.5%
Standards IX, X	-	4.5%.

This last assumption follows the practice of the 1961 Education Panel.¹

The following points become significant in an examination of this figure:

- (a) the somewhat disturbed enrolment pattern in the primary classes particularly between the years 1957 and 1962. This is probably indicative of unsettled economic and political conditions in South Africa at the time. It is significant that this disturbance appears to resolve itself at the end of the period of actual enrolment figures, thus foreshadowing a rather more stable enrolment pattern in the 'sixties.
- (b) connected with the first point is a significant plateau in primary school enrolments from 1957 to 1962 indicating a static period of development which has subsequently ended.
- (c) a somewhat anomalous position developing between 1961 and 1963 regarding enrolments in Standards V, VI and VII. For example, from 1959 to 1963, the Standard VI enrolment is consistently greater than that in Standard V. A similar, though less marked, trend is discernible in the case of Standards V and VII in 1963. Two factors may be responsible for this situation:

¹ 1961 Education Panel - Second Report: Education and the South African Economy: Table 3iv: p.47.

- (i) immigration
- (ii) retardation of pupils at the end of primary school.

It is suggested that further work might be undertaken on this topic to determine with greater accuracy the nature and development of this feature of primary and lower secondary enrolment patterns. It is felt that if the second factor is the major one, an investigation into promotion policies in South African education authorities would be justified. The projection from 1967 to 1975 indicates that this feature may disappear.

- (d) The pattern of school leaving in South Africa. It is clear from the figure that compulsory schooling is virtually accomplished up to the end of Standard VII, and that Standard VIII shows a substantial drop-out between the sector of universal schooling and the more selective upper secondary element represented by Standards IX and X. It is clear, therefore, that the present school leaving age of sixteen years, while tending to correspond with the Standard VIII level, in actual fact is operating, particularly for the less successful group at some stage intermittent between Standards VII and VIII. It is obvious that the developing trends of differentiated secondary education will tend to make the end of Standard VIII the limit of compulsory schooling, rather than the attainment of the age of sixteen years. Indeed, this has already happened in the Transvaal with the 'C' stream designed to operate to a Standard VIII terminus. The same situation is observable in Natal, and there is a similar trend in the other two provinces.

Although a slightly accelerated enrolment expansion of 2.5% per annum in respect of Standard VIII is allowed for in Figure 5, this may prove to be somewhat conservative and the graph of Standard VIII enrolments may well close up to that of Standard VII much more rapidly than is indicated in this figure. This will depend upon provincial educational legislation within the next decade, which in turn will depend upon the supply of teachers available for such expansion. Indeed, it would be wise if this decision were set as a goal prior to the introduction of the necessary legislation in order that the necessary preparation could be undertaken by the teacher training plant.

It should be emphasised in passing that the preparation of teachers for this group should not be regarded merely as an extension of current training programmes, but should be designed to cope specifically with the pupils most likely to be included in such enrolment expansion, i.e. with pupils from the lower end of the ability scale whose education does not require to be of a specifically academic nature.

- (e) the projected pattern of enrolment growth in the 'sixties and 'seventies established at 2% per annum as described above should account for natural population growth, as well as an average factor for immigration.
- (f) the accelerated enrolment growth rates recorded in Figure 5 for Standards IX and X (4.5% per annum) reflect the effect of differentiated education. Already this is a definite trend in Natal, for example. In commenting on the conduct of the 1967 Senior Certificate Examination in that province, it was stated that "a feature of the results is the increasing number of European pupils at 'O' level¹ who are entering for the Senior Certificate examination at this grade..... The Deputy Director of Education said that without the creation of an 'O' stream of education, many of the candidates who had been successful at this level might never have studied as far as Standard X..... In the 'O' grade examination for European pupils, 768 of the 931 candidates (82%) were successful (in 1967). In 1966 923 candidates wrote the examination, and 745 (80%) passed. The figures for 1965, when the 'O' stream was introduced, were 792 entries and 602 passes (76%)."² This growing holding power of the schools as a result of the introduction of differentiated secondary education is once again obvious at this upper level, and this in turn poses a challenge to the teacher education establishment which will be dealt with more fully below.

¹ Natal Education Department: Circular Minute No.109/1961: Differentiation in Secondary Classes: 20th June, 1961.

² Extract from 'The Natal Mercury', Saturday, 6th January, 1968.

Having obtained a measure of the growth rate of the school population, it is also of vital importance in the planning of teacher education in a bilingual country such as South Africa to seek to establish some framework of reference regarding the medium of instruction of pupils. Statistics of enrolment by pupils' language medium show remarkably steady growth as is seen in Figure 6. The arrival of the post-war population 'bulge' in the schools can be seen in both language groups starting in 1951 and extending through to 1959/1960. Thus in 1964 the English-speaking element of the school population is found to constitute approximately 39.2%, while in 1960 it was 36.8%. It is doubtful if the last figure recorded for Afrikaans-medium pupils in 1964 can be indicative of an established trend, whereas the figures for English-speaking pupils in that year indicate a slight increase due to immigration of predominantly English-speaking settlers. It would seem satisfactory to stabilise the percentage of pupils in the two language groups as approximately Afrikaans-medium 62%, English-medium 38% for South Africa as a whole. Using this table to project these trends to 1975, the school population by language should vary as follows:-

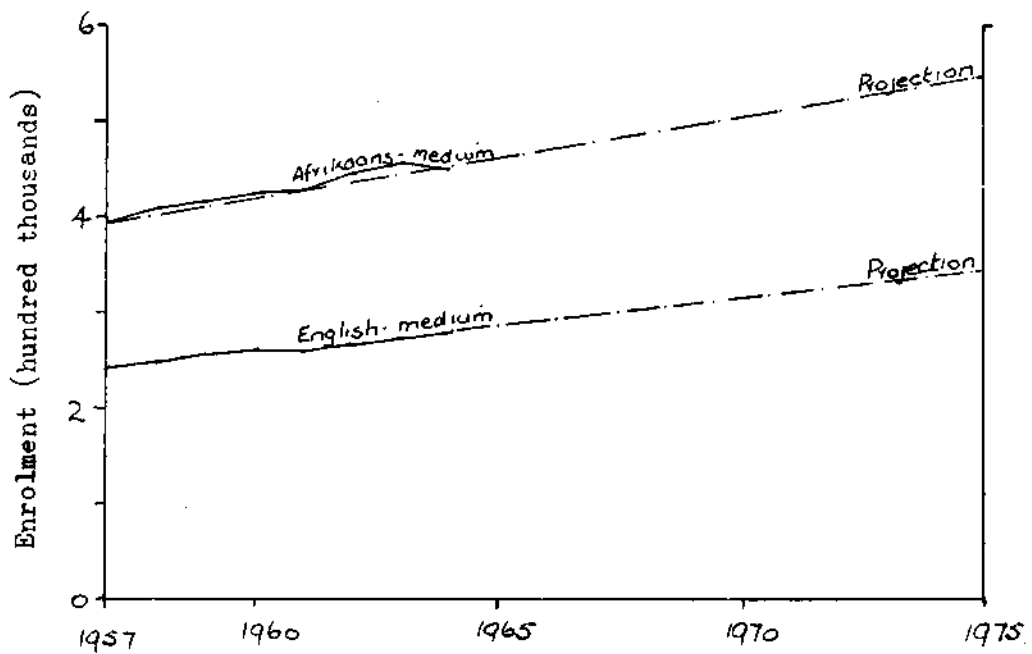
Table 23 : Projected percentage distribution of school population by medium of instruction : 1975

Medium	High estimate	Low estimate	Median
Afrikaans	62.9	60.9	61.9
English	39.1	37.1	38.1

It would seem that the figures suggested would give a satisfactory order of distribution for the next decade.

While it is most desirable, indeed, essential, that all teachers in the state school system in South Africa should be proficient in both official languages, training institutions are, in the main, divided on a linguistic basis, and therefore this projected distribution of pupils by language medium is of prime importance in educational planning for it must be borne in mind in the selection and recruitment of candidates for teacher education.

Figure 6: South Africa: Enrolment Growth
by Medium of Instruction



Statistical Sources: Republic of South Africa
Statistical year books

A further series of facts to be derived from Figure 5, which cannot be neglected in national planning of teacher education, are those connected with the relative growth of certain sections of the school population which find themselves in various levels of the school system which require certain specialised functions of the training plant in order to provide not only sufficient, but properly trained teachers. Thus, it is obvious, for example, that the training plant represented by universities, colleges of education and technical colleges must prepare teachers in adequate numbers for primary and secondary schools. Beyond this broad division into the two general stages of formal school education, it is necessary to break down the structure still further to ensure that adequate specialist training facilities are provided for the preparation of teachers. It becomes necessary, then, to examine the projected school population structure in terms of the following divisions:-

- (a) Infant: covering the first three years of the primary school;
- (b) Junior: Standards II to V;
- (c) Junior secondary: Standards VI to VIII; and
- (d) Senior secondary: Standards IX and X.

It is freely admitted that this is an arbitrary division and that in the middle-term future it may not be adequate for the diversification of education, particularly at secondary level. Indeed, the Plowman Report¹ has already suggested an alternative school structure for England and Wales, while the United States of America appears to be moving inexorably, if slowly, towards a 6 + 4 + 4 pattern of elementary and secondary schooling.²

At the present time, while these divisions accord satisfactorily with South African educational practice the new policy of differentiated education as announced by the Minister of National Education in the House of Assembly in June, 1971 has to be prepared for.³ Table 24 shows the percentage school population distributed through the standards

¹ Great Britain: Central Advisory Council on Education: Children and Their Primary Schools: (Plowman Report): Recommendations, 57,58.

² Hartford, E.F.: Education in These United States: p.166 et seq.

³ House of Assembly Debates: No.18, 7-11 June, 1971, Cols.8403/4. No provision has been made for this development as precise details are unknown at this stage.

from the infant classes to Standard X. In this table, percentages up to and including 1963 are based upon actual enrolment figures recorded in the Statistical Yearbook for 1966.

Table 24 : School population structure by percentage enrolment

Present System			Proposed System		
School	Level	Enrolment (%)	School	Level	Enrolment (%)
Infant	Infant classes	20.4	Lower primary	Infant classes	20.4
	I	9.9		I	9.9
	Total	30.3		Total	30.3
Junior	II	9.4	Higher primary	II	9.4
	III	9.3		III	9.3
	IV	9.0		IV	9.0
	V	8.9		Total	27.7
	Total	36.6		V	8.9
Junior secondary	VI	8.8	Junior secondary	VI	8.8
	VII	8.5		VII	8.5
	VIII	6.8		Total	26.2
	Total	24.1		VIII	6.8
Senior secondary	IX	5.1	Senior secondary	IX	5.1
	X	3.9		X	3.9
	Total	9.0		Total	15.8

Note: Percentage calculations based upon enrolment statistics for 1963.

From this information it now becomes possible to obtain some insight into the relative quantitative functions of the training institutions as far as the production of teachers is concerned. It is normally accepted as the exclusive natural function of the colleges of education to prepare teachers for the first two levels, that is, for the infant and junior schools. At the secondary school level the training function is divided between three institutions, the universities, the colleges of education¹ and the technical colleges. It can be argued that the first of these institutions should be exclusively responsible for the preparation of teachers at the upper school level. However, with developing differentiation in curricula, as well as the fact that

¹ This provision terminates in accordance with the National Education Policy Act (1967) and its amendment (1969), and regulations implementing them, at 31st December, 1971.

accelerated enrolment growth at this level, must mean the admission of a larger proportion of pupils for whom an exclusively academic type of curriculum is not suitable, it is inevitable that either the other two types of institution must play an increasing rôle in the preparation of teachers to meet these new demands or the university must make significant changes in its course offerings. This question is dealt with in a more appropriate context in Part Four.

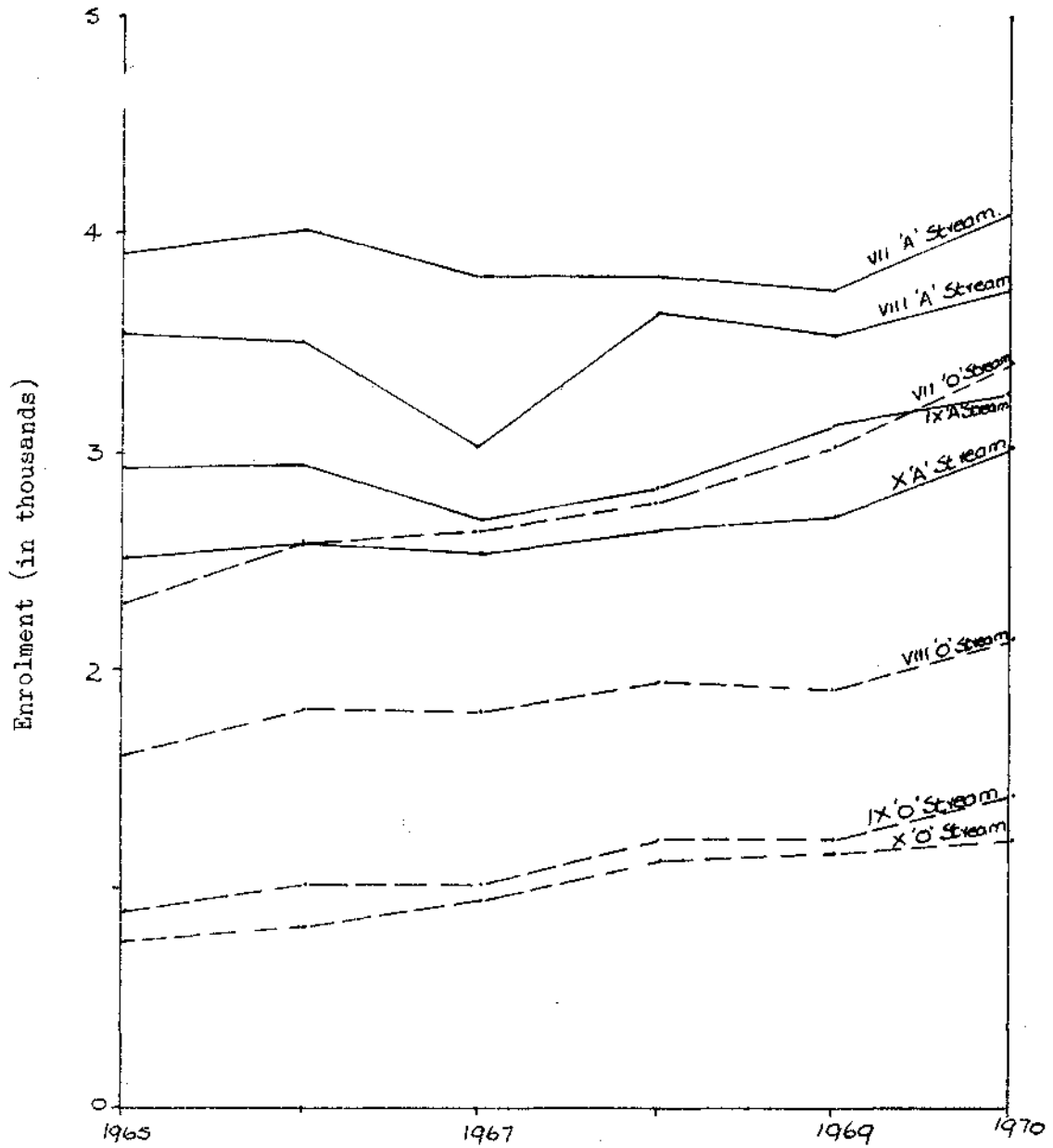
It has been stressed that the accelerated growth of secondary school enrolments will depend to some extent upon the introduction of differentiated education at this level. Reference to the effect of such education upon the Senior Certificate examination in Natal has already been made. That it is a factor of which account should be taken in planning may be seen from Figures 7 and 8. Secondary school enrolment statistics for the years 1965 to 1970 obtained from the Natal Education Department are recorded in Table 25. These are

Table 25 : Pupil enrolments : Provincial secondary schools in Natal : 1966-1970

Year	Stream	VII	VIII	IX	X
1966	A	3480	3133	2318	1912
	O	2385	1751	874	940
	Total	5865	4884	3192	2852
1967	A	3816	3041	2701	2580
	O	2629	1864	1066	935
	Total	6445	4905	3767	3515
1968	A	3816	3630	2850	2679
	O	2791	1963	1216	1113
	Total	6607	5593	4066	3792
1969	A	3751	3545	3182	2706
	O	3048	1914	1223	1192
	Total	6799	5459	4405	3898
1970	A	4097	3766	3268	3066
	O	3487	2197	1425	1217
	Total	7584	5963	4693	4283

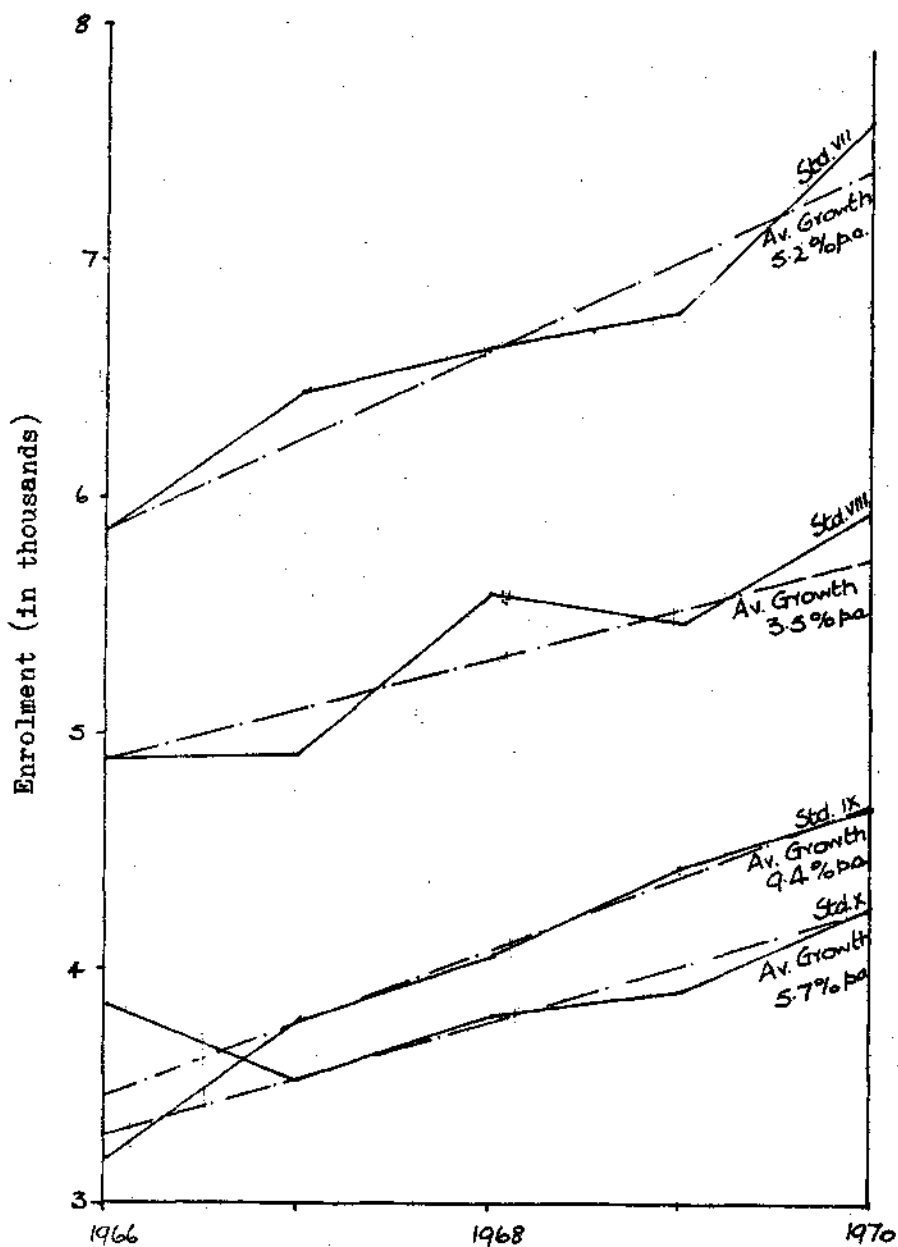
expressed graphically as total Advanced and Ordinary stream enrolments in Figure 7. Two points should perhaps be noted in respect of this figure:-

Figure 7: Pupil Enrolments: Provincial Secondary Schools in Natal, 1965-1970



Statistical Source: Natal Education Department.

Figure 8. Pupil Enrolments: Provincial Secondary Schools in Natal: Gross Enrolments by Standards 1966-1970



— — — — — Indicates smoothed enrolment growth
 Statistical Source: Natal Education Department

- (a) the significant increase of Standard VII 'O' stream enrolment. When this is compared with that for Standard VIII 'O' stream, it is clear that there is a marked drop-out at the end of the former year. This corresponds, as has been noted, with the attainment of the upper age limit of compulsory schooling.
- (b) the close parallelism in the enrolments for Standards IX and X in both the advanced and ordinary streams.

It is only when the gross enrolments in secondary schools are plotted as in Figure 8 that the significance of differentiated education in terms of school expansion is fully realised. Over a five-year period from 1966 to 1970 the average annual enrolment growth rate varies between 3.5% and 9.4%. This emphasises the conservative nature of predictions based on growth rates ranging from 2.0% to 4.5%. It must of course be stressed that the present figures for Natal contain a number of factors such as industrial expansion and immigration. The growth rate should statistically level off in the latter part of the prediction period, as has already been indicated.

This very definitely recognisable trend already apparent in Natal, and likely to be just as obvious in the Transvaal, is one which must be taken into account by educational planners in South Africa. Differentiated secondary education admittedly in relatively restricted form is already available to well over half the children in our secondary schools. World trends are towards increasingly diversified and differentiated forms of secondary education, with resultant increased holding power of the schools at the second level. If the developing trends are to continue, the result is likely to be an increasing demand for teachers equipped to undertake teaching to meet the requirements of the new more highly diverse curricula.

3. The Teaching Force in South Africa:

The annual reports of the Director of Education of the four provincial education systems and of the central government since the time of Union in 1910 have made constant reference either to a surplus or shortage in the supply of trained teachers for their schools. In the previous section it was made plain how the early 'thirties were a distressing period of over-production and consequent unemployment of teachers while in the two decades since the end of the second World War

and the start of the final phase of educational expansion at secondary level for the White group in South Africa, the chronic shortage of professionally-trained men and women has been an annual feature of these reports.

Any attempt at an examination of the demographic problems connected with teacher education must take account of the national stock of trained manpower available and the present and projected capacity of the training plant to produce the necessary teachers to permit of the desired rate of expansion of the nation's schools. In dealing with the first of these issues, it is not always easy to obtain complete or adequate statistics of teachers currently in employment in the four areas of the primary and secondary schools delineated above. However, it is possible to obtain details of those employed in primary and secondary schools, both state and private, throughout the country. Table 26 shows the present situation and a short-term projection of it for the Republic as a whole. The relatively rapid increase in the demand for secondary trained teachers compared with those for the

Table 26 : Numbers of teachers required

(All figures in 1000's)

Year	Secondary School			Primary School			Total		
	No wastage	5%	8½%	No wastage	5%	8½%	No wastage	5%	8½%
1963	12.5	13.1	13.5	16.3	17.1	17.7	28.8	30.2	31.2
1964	12.9	13.5	14.0	16.6	17.4	18.0	29.5	30.9	32.0
1965	13.3	14.0	14.4	17.0	17.9	18.4	30.2	31.9	32.8
1966	13.7	14.4	14.8	17.3	18.2	18.7	30.9	32.6	33.5
1967	14.1	14.8	15.3	17.6	18.5	19.1	31.7	33.3	34.4
1968	14.5	15.2	15.7	18.0	18.9	19.5	32.5	34.1	35.2
1969	14.9	15.6	16.1	18.3	19.2	19.8	33.3	34.8	35.9
1970	15.4	16.2	16.7	18.7	19.6	20.3	34.1	35.8	37.0
1971	15.8	16.6	17.1	19.1	20.1	20.7	34.9	36.7	37.8
1972	16.3	17.1	17.7	19.5	20.5	21.1	35.8	37.6	38.9
1973	16.8	17.6	18.2	19.9	20.9	21.6	36.7	38.5	39.8
1974	17.3	18.2	18.7	20.2	21.2	21.9	37.5	39.4	40.6
1975	17.7	18.6	19.2	20.6	21.6	22.4	38.4	40.2	41.6
1976	18.3	19.2	19.8	21.1	22.2	22.9	39.3	41.4	42.7
1977	18.8	19.7	20.4	21.5	22.6	23.3	40.3	42.3	43.7
1978	19.4	20.4	21.0	21.9	23.0	23.7	41.3	43.4	44.7

primary school is a noteworthy feature of this figure. It must be remembered that these projections are obtained by 'smoothed-curve' projections of existing trends. In order to obtain a measure of the adequacy of the stock it is also necessary to expand the teaching force in accordance with the estimated growth rate of school enrolments, which have already been arrived at and utilised in Figure 5. For this purpose it is assumed that teacher-pupil ratios should remain constant if there is to be no falling off in professional efficiency. Thus, the existing teaching force should expand at an estimated 2% per annum for primary teachers, and 3% for secondary teachers. It must be recorded that in South Africa the question of teacher-pupil ratios is complicated by the geographic distribution of population. It is held that if economy is to be achieved in the use of trained staff then some further degree of concentration or consolidation of schools is necessary particularly at secondary level.

An erroneous impression is gained by comparison of these figures for it appears that the existing rate of expansion of the teaching force shows a slightly favourable balance when compared with demographic expansion requirements. It must be remembered, however, that the demographic expansion rates applied to the teaching force make no allowance for the present crucial factor of wastage, both in training, and more particularly from employment. If it is difficult to obtain full and up-to-date statistics of teachers in employment, it is even more difficult to ascertain exact wastage rates from provincial or other educational systems. Few annual reports published today contain details of this loss from the teaching force. In the absence of such data, two estimated wastage rates at 5% per annum and at 8½% per annum have been calculated and appear in Table 26. These rates may be regarded as being too high, but it is held that, representing as they do, teaching lives of durations of twenty years and twelve years respectively, they are not unrealistic particularly at a time when the proportion of women to men teachers in service is increasing. It should be noted that the wastage rate among graduate teachers is likely to be considerably higher than among non-graduates, and this factor is likely to have a greater impact, therefore, upon the secondary school than upon the primary school.

It should also be noted that Natal was until recently the only province which sanctioned the appointment of married women teachers to the permanent staff. This is in itself a recognition of

wastage, particularly of married women, as an important factor in the staffing of schools. The fact that other provinces have had to consider similar action recognises that the married woman teacher can no longer be regarded merely as a temporary facet of the modern educational scene, either in this or any other country.

The result of the application of wastage rates transforms the picture of modest optimism to one of concern. The present rate of expansion noted up until 1963 from actual statistics is likely to fall short in the future projections. It would seem a fair conclusion, therefore, that, given even a relatively modest wastage rate from the teaching force, it will prove increasingly difficult to provide adequate staffing for schools allowing for a continued expansion of the teaching force at the present rate. It is obvious that solutions to this fundamental problem must be sought in the professional status of the teacher, as well as in a new methodology. It is the second of three possible solutions which comes within the orbit of the teacher educator.

4. Demography and the Teacher Training Plant:

Now that the order of magnitude of the problem of providing education for a steadily expanding White population in South Africa, is becoming more obvious, it is possible to examine the present and projected contributions which can be expected from the various institutions of teacher education in the country. As has already been stated, three main institutions are involved, viz. the universities, the colleges of education and the technical colleges, and therefore the problem of examination of present and future potential of these institutions to prepare teachers should not prove unduly difficult.

There are, however, additional factors which complicate the issue as was stated earlier in this chapter. It is obvious that one of the results to be expected from any rationalisation of teacher education in South Africa must be a clearer definition of rôles and functions particularly between the universities and colleges of education, particularly in the field of secondary education, and to a lesser extent in the preparation of primary school teachers especially in the Cape Province. These issues will be considered in more detail later, so that it is appropriate at the present moment to examine the gross productive capacity of the training establishments, together with a projection of future trends in this respect.

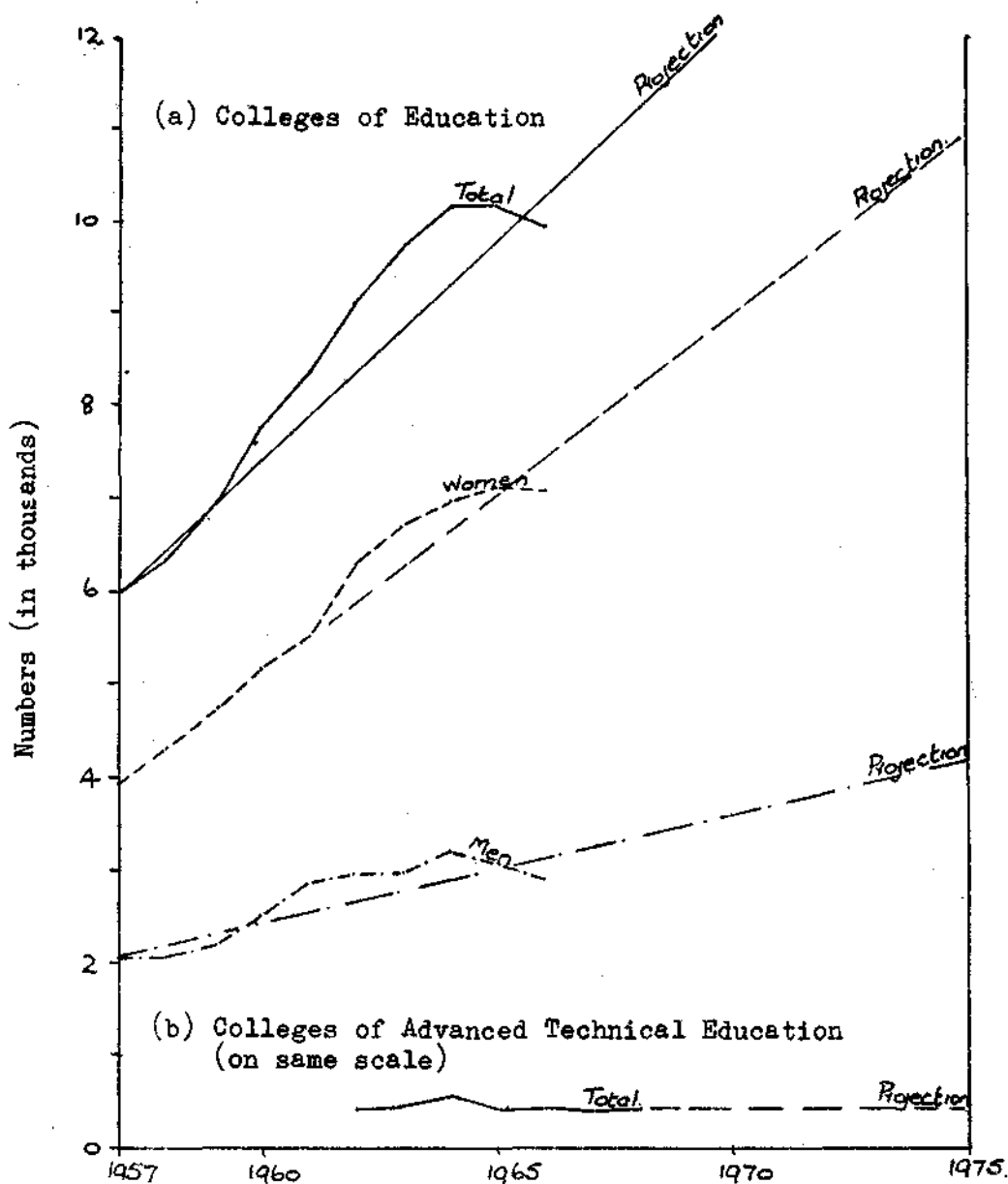
Figure 9 examines the situation in the colleges of education, as well as in the technical colleges. In this figure gross enrolments in the colleges of education are broken down according to sex, revealing the more rapid expansion of female enrolments in contrast to those of male students. These enrolments which show a steady increase are projected by means of smoothed curves to give a short-term view of the existing trends. In the current shortage of skilled manpower in South Africa, the national capacity to maintain this growth rate in these institutions is questioned. This possibility accentuates still further the demand already made above for a new methodology which will be as conservative of professional manpower as is consistent with efficiency for the maintenance of educational standards. It would seem appropriate, at the risk of tautology, to refer again at this point to the opinion expressed by the 1961 Education Panel in their second report.¹

"Education systems will have to adapt themselves to a teaching force of relatively lower average calibre," is not a cheering thought at the present time in the face of the demand for higher standards and the tremendous knowledge explosion which characterises the modern world of learning.

The slow but steady decline in enrolment of men students relative to women students in the colleges of education is shown in Figure 10 which has been derived arithmetically from the previous figure. A continuation of the existing trend reveals that it is possible that this situation may stabilise itself in the next decade. Two factors are seen as variables in this situation. Firstly, the esteem in which the teaching profession becomes regarded by the national community during this time, and, secondly, the demand for manpower and the competition between industry, commerce and the professions for available recruits. Any changes in these variables could upset the existing trends without warning.

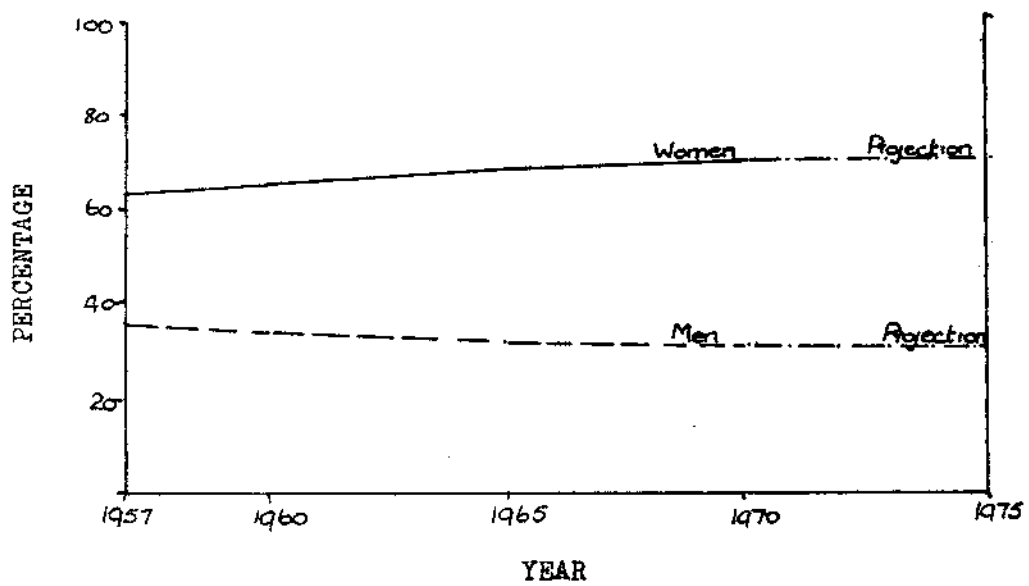
What is not revealed in these figures is the relative quality of male and female students in the colleges of education. It is an oft-repeated cry in the colleges of education for White students, not only in South Africa, but throughout Southern Africa, that the quality of male students does not measure up to that of the female students. This is, in part, the direct operation of the two variables mentioned above, together with the fact that in some instances families will strive to send sons of average ability to university, while daughters are not given this opportunity. Whatever the cause of the reduction in the

Figure 9: South Africa: Teacher Training Enrolment in Colleges of Education and Colleges of Advanced Technical Education



Sources: Statistical Yearbooks, Annual Reports of Directors of Education.

Figure 10: Ratio of Men to Women Students in Colleges of Education



numbers of men of good academic quality entering upon training for the teaching profession, the results of this trend are likely to be unfortunate in the steadily growing comprehensive high schools as well as in the upper standards of the primary schools of this country.

The lower portion of Figure 9 shows the enrolment pattern in the teacher training sections of the technical colleges. The first point to emerge is the comparatively recent development of this aspect of teacher education, according to available statistics. Secondly, is the scale upon which this teacher education is being undertaken. It would seem reasonable in any scheme for the rationalisation of teacher education, that this work might more effectively be undertaken as a joint operation between the technical colleges and the colleges of education or the universities. Hitherto the first has been impossible due to the divided control of education. The educational legislation enacted in 1967 would seem to offer an opportunity to permit such rationalisation while, subject to interpretation, that of 1969 appears to deny it. This topic is, however, beyond the scope of the present chapter, and it will be returned to later. What is of concern in this chapter, is that the scale upon which teachers of art, commerce, domestic science and technology are being prepared for the growing systems of differentiated secondary education in the country is far from adequate, and is in need of review. In such a review one finds that courses offered in the colleges of education include such subjects as fine art, industrial arts, etc., as minor specialisms, and again the need for rationalisation of the existing practices which are portrayed in Figure 9 stands revealed.

If the situation in the colleges of education and in the technical colleges is in need of examination which may lead to rationalisation, that in the third of the institutions mentioned above, the universities, is not without its problems. The immediate concern of the present chapter is the question of enrolment in Faculties and Departments of Education in relation to total enrolment in the faculties concerned with the education of undergraduates who are likely to enter the teaching profession, namely, those of Arts and Science. Patrick in a paper¹ on the expansion of South African universities, shows an overall growth

¹ Patrick, P.E.: The Student Population in South African Universities: p.3 and graph 5.

rate of some 7% per annum over long periods in a selected group of universities. This paper raises the interesting question of the continued expansion rate of South African universities for the White group in relation to population expansion and in terms of student population. Patrick postulates that the White population is expanding at the rate of 1.8% per annum, a valid, if slightly conservative assumption. With the general rate of university enrolment expansion of 7% per annum, and a student/population ratio of about 120/10000 in 1966, it seems obvious that the current rate of university enrolment expansion cannot be maintained indefinitely. Patrick concludes that his statistics "do at least indicate the approach towards saturation."¹

How does this overall expansion of the universities contrast with their output of graduate teachers? To arrive at a measure of comparison in this regard, output figures at first degree level and at graduate teacher's diploma level are a more reliable guide than mere gross enrolment figures. In the first instance the number of first degrees awarded annually has been plotted in order to determine relationship between enrolment growth and output growth. The gross number of B.A. and B.Sc. degrees awarded in nine South African universities have been recorded and projected as smoothed graphs in Figure 11.² This rapid growth rate accords well with the evidence of Patrick as regards gross enrolment. Notable in this figure are the following features:-

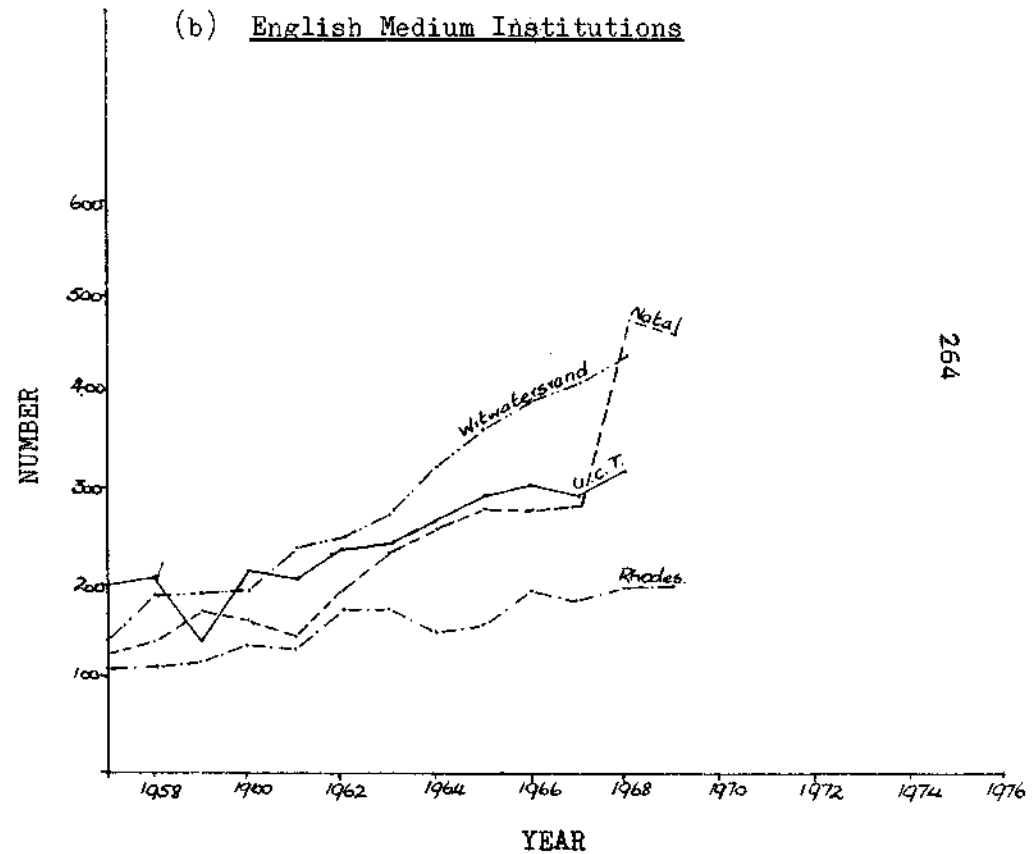
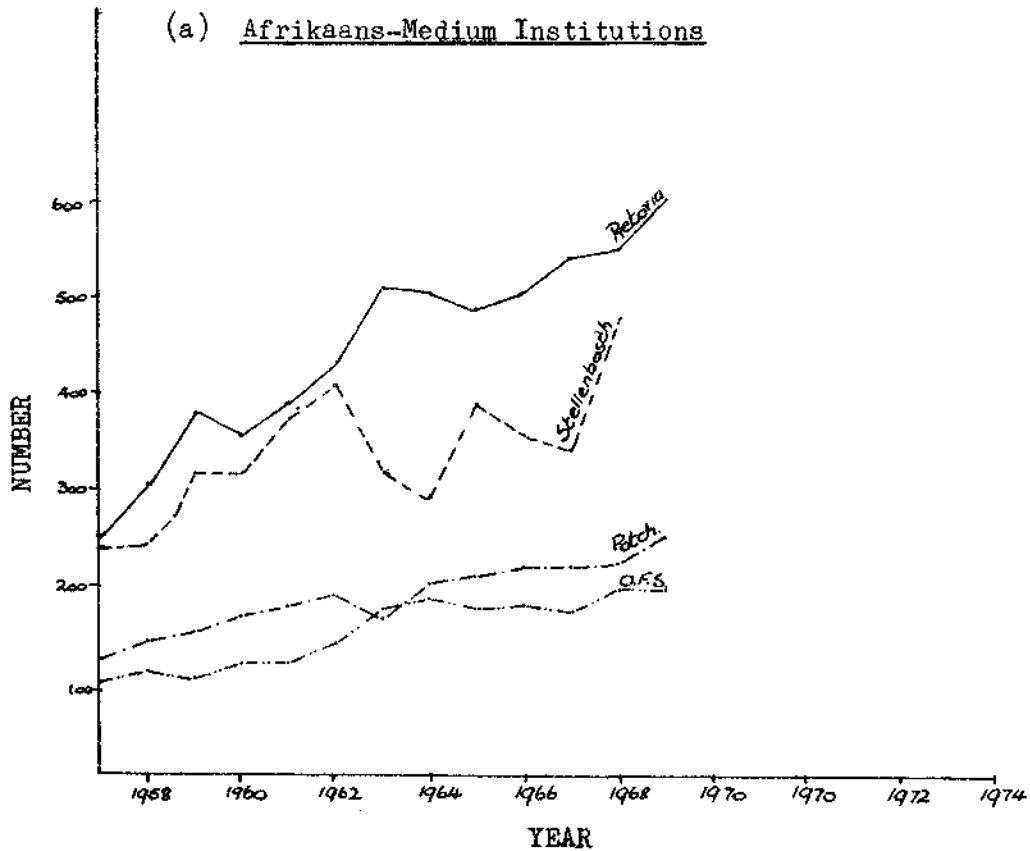
- (a) the rapid increase in degrees awarded at Pretoria;
- (b) the parallelism existing between Stellenbosch, Witwatersrand, Natal, Potchefstroom, Orange Free State and UNISA. Note that this is a parallelism of expansion and not an equivalence of output;
- (c) parallelism in expansion rate, but not output, between Rhodes and Capetown;
- (d) a significant falling-off in first degrees awarded at Stellenbosch and Rhodes in 1963 and 1964. It is felt that, in view of enrolment growth overall, this downward trend is likely to be arrested and to prove only a temporary feature.

More significant details and trends become evident when first

¹ Ibid: p.3.

² Port Elizabeth and R.A.U. have not been included.

Figure 11: South African Universities. B.A./B.Sc. Degrees Awarded



Statistical Sources: Annual Reports of Departments of Education, Arts and Science and Higher Education 1958-1970

degrees awarded are divided into those of Arts (Figure 12) and Science (Figure 13). These figures are plotted on graphs using similar scale in both for horizontal and vertical axes respectively, in order to allow a quantitative comparison to be made. These two figures should be examined together with Table 27. The following significant points

Table 27 : Quantitative comparison of first degrees awarded by South African universities¹

University	Degrees awarded				Percent increase in no. of degrees awarded		B.Sc. as percent of B.A.	
	1957		1964		B.A.	B.Sc.	1957	1964
	B.A.	B.Sc.	B.A.	B.Sc.				
Pretoria	198	74	345	158	74.2	104.0	37.3	45.8
Stellenbosch	164	74	211*	79*	28.6	8.0	45.1	37.4
Capetown	133	65	173	96	30.1	47.7	48.8	55.5
Natal	83	45	171	99	106.0	120.0	54.2	50.7
Witwatersrand	100	43	247	77	147.0	79.1	43.0	31.2
Rhodes	76	34	101	46†	33.0	35.3	44.7	45.5
Potchefstroom	98	30	129	70	31.6	133.3	30.6	54.3
D.F.S.	64	30	148	44	131.3	46.6	46.8	29.7
UNISA	115	5	172	12	49.5	140.0	4.3	7.0
Total/Mean	1031	400	1697	691	64.6	72.8	38.8	40.7

* Stellenbosch awarded 282 B.A's and 129 B.Sc's in 1962, giving a percentage increase of 72.0% for B.A., and 73.2% for B.Sc. in comparing this year with 1957

† Rhodes awarded 72 B.Sc's in 1962 giving a percentage increase of 111.8% when compared with 1957.

emerge:-

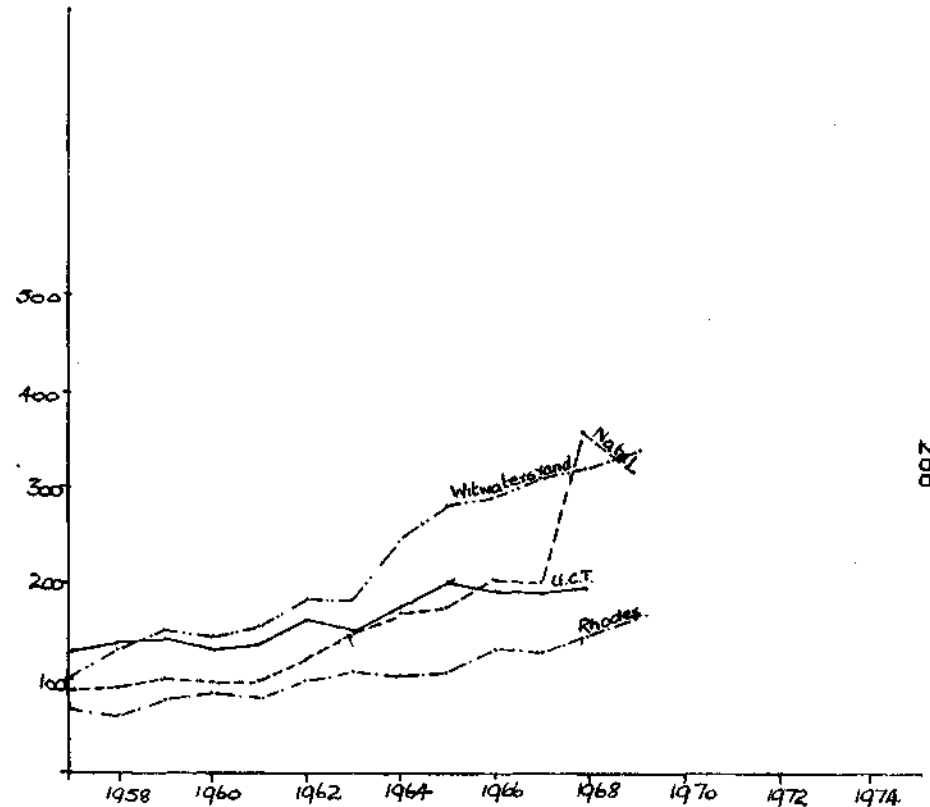
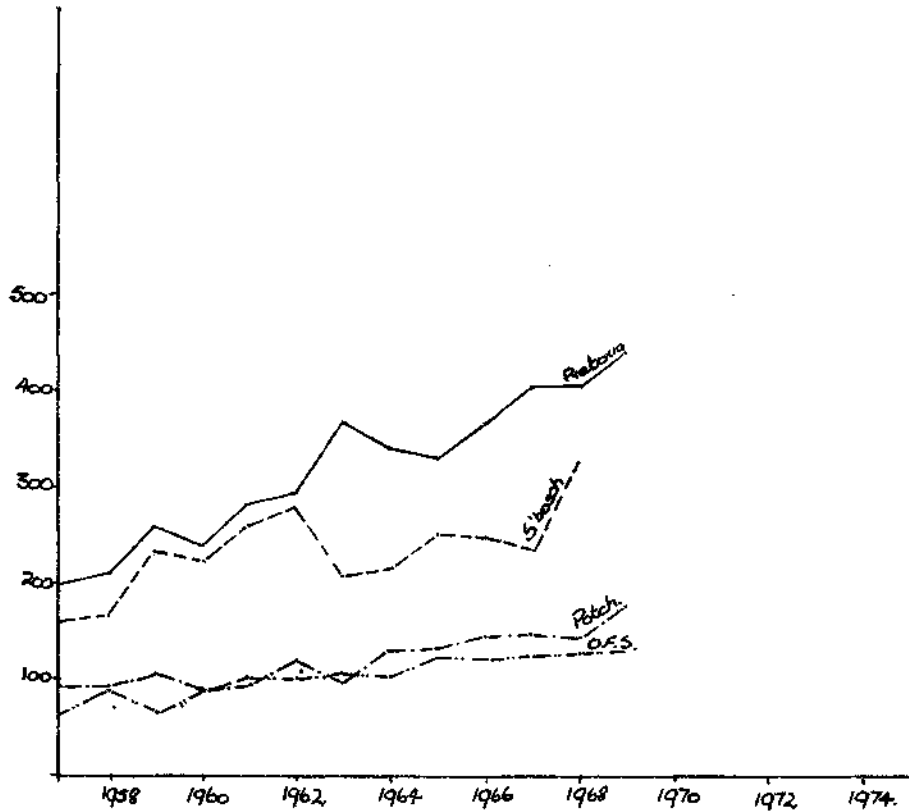
- (a) the quantitative comparison of first degrees awarded in Arts and Science remains relatively constant, although there is a slight trend in favour of Science over the period 1957 to 1964. In the former year B.Sc's awarded constituted 38.8% of B.A's while in the latter year the percentage had risen to 40.7;
- (b) the significant drop-off in Arts and Science degrees awarded

¹ Derived from a comparative survey of statistics of first degrees awarded, as revealed in Figures 12 and 13.

Figure 12: South African Universities: B.A. Degrees Awarded

(a) Afrikaans-medium Institutions

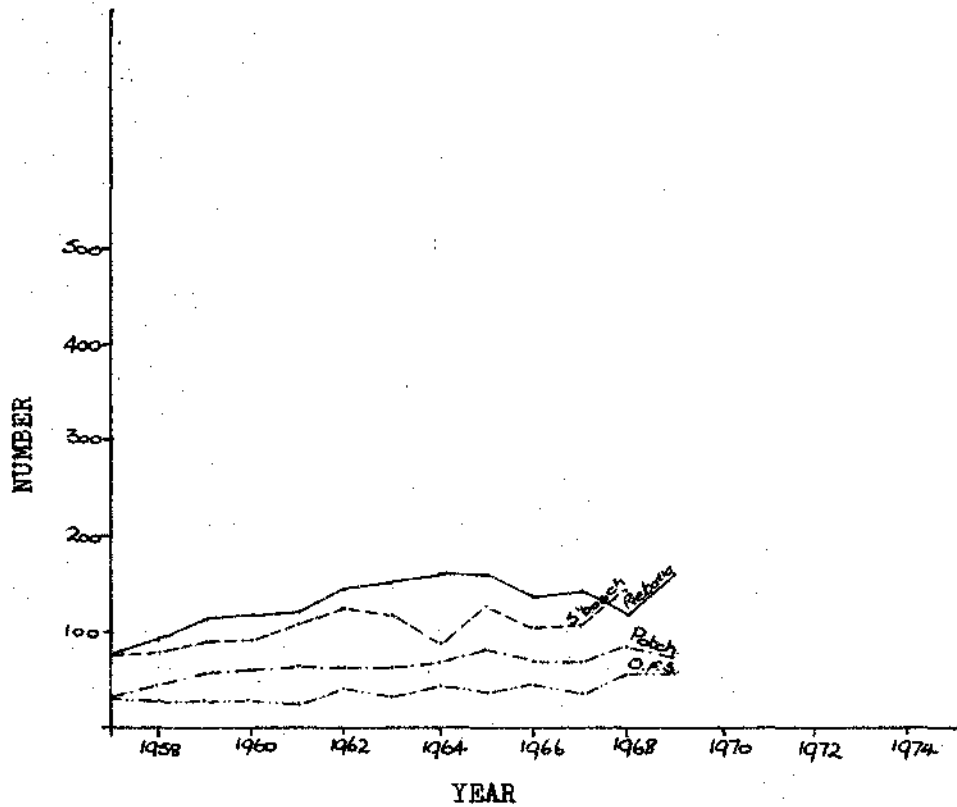
(b) English-medium Institutions



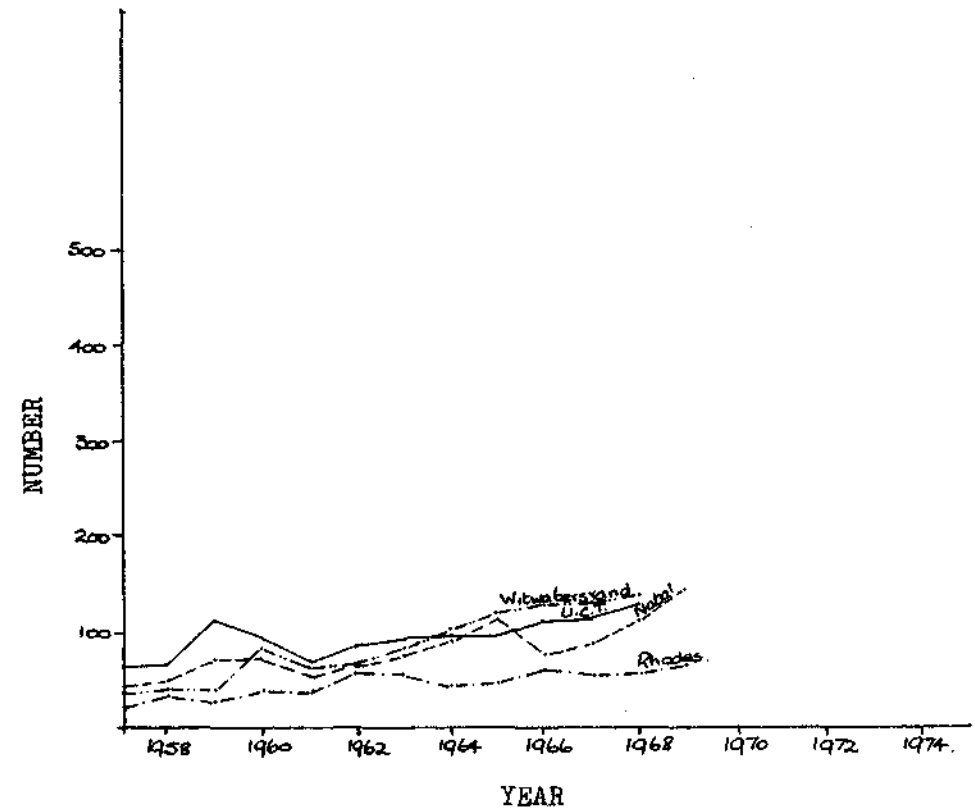
Statistical Sources: Annual Reports of the Departments of Education, Arts and Science and of Higher Education 1958-1970

Figure 13: South African Universities: B.Sc. Degrees Awarded

(a) Afrikaans-medium Institutions



(b) English-medium Institutions



Statistical Sources: As for Figure 12.

- at Stellenbosch and in Science degrees at Rhodes after 1962, as mentioned above;
- (c) the enormous growth in numbers of Arts and Science degrees awarded by Pretoria University, although the growth rates do not measure up to those of the University of Natal in either Arts or Science;
 - (d) the comparatively modest rate of increase of Arts degrees awarded by the University of Capetown;
 - (e) an almost mirror image of development as regards Arts and Science at Potchefstroom and the University of the Orange Free State, together with the phenomenal growth in B.Sc. degrees at Potchefstroom;
 - (f) the small numbers, because of the very nature of the courses, awarded Science degrees by the University of South Africa.

The foregoing examination of output of graduates from the South African universities and the projected output carried forward into the 'seventies reveals a most significant expansion, particularly in the last decade. The work of Patrick indicates that under present conditions this expansion rate must be approaching its maximum and that the next decade will probably not see the continuation of the present growth rate. There is a very significant disparity between the numbers of first degrees awarded in Arts and Science and if the present shortage of graduate teachers in the scientific field is to be arrested, let alone overcome, there will have to be a significant increase in the number of Science graduates relative to those in the humanities. This immediately raises the question of relative failure rates in the Arts and Science faculties. This is a topic which is beyond the scope of this study; beyond acknowledging that, in general, the failure rates in Faculties of Science are in some instances significantly higher than those in Arts, and stating that this position is likely to become aggravated by

- (a) general decline in standards of teaching of science and mathematics in the secondary schools of this country, and
- (b) progressive demand for higher standards by the universities as a result of the knowledge explosion,

it is not proposed to enter into an examination of this topic.

In noting that over the eight-year period 1957 to 1964, the number

of first degrees awarded in Arts increased by 64.6% and those in Science by 72.8%, or 8% and 9% per annum respectively, it is now pertinent to enquire whether there has been a corresponding increase in the number of graduate education diplomas awarded. The full statistics in this investigation are not readily available, for in the Transvaal, which trains over 50% of the teachers for South African schools, the professional training is very largely in the hands of the provincially-controlled colleges of education rather than in the universities. Thus, in examining university statistics it is necessary to exclude the Transvaal universities. In order to obtain a representative picture of the situation, a group of English- and Afrikaans-medium universities has been selected and compared in order to establish the overall trend, as well as to identify significant departures in the institutions of the two language groups. The universities included in the sample survey are:-

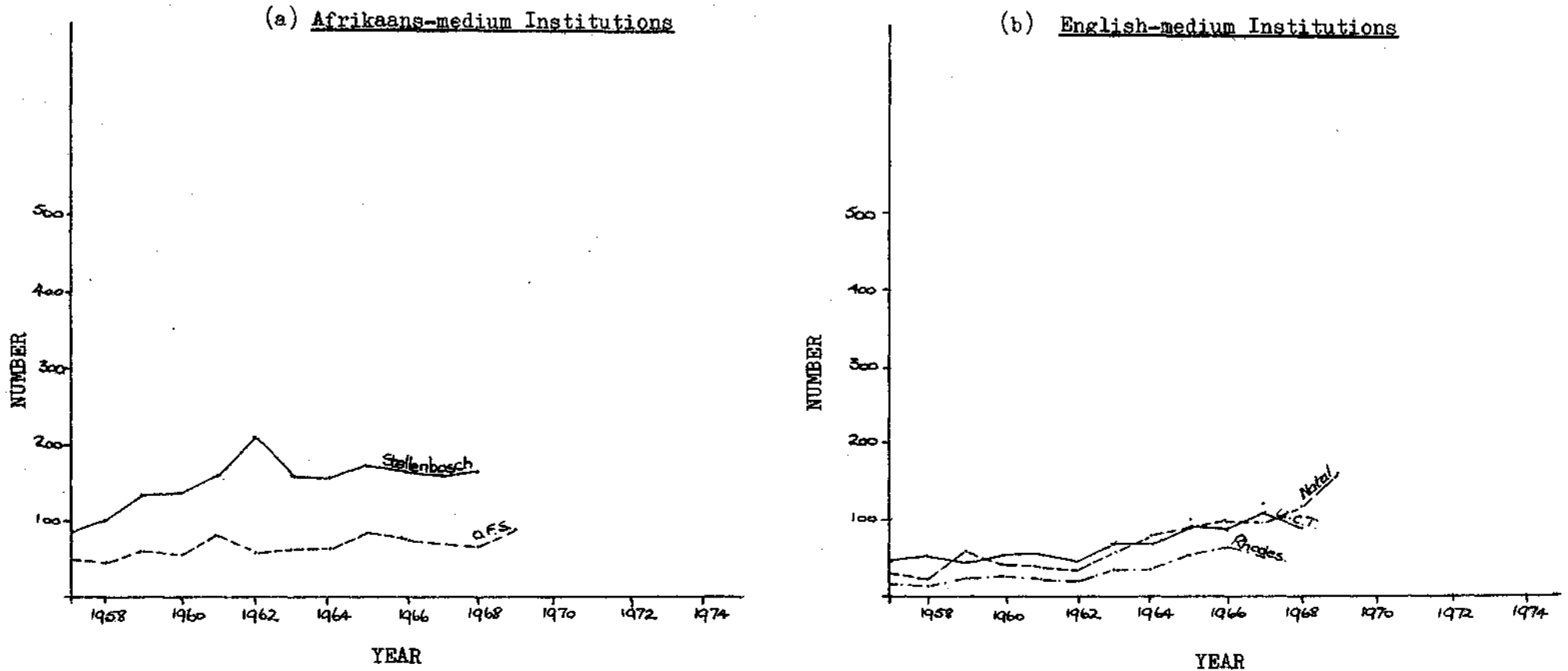
- (a) Afrikaans-medium: Universities of the Orange Free State and Stellenbosch.
- (b) English-medium: Capetown, Natal and Rhodes Universities.

In an attempt first to establish the order of growth of the education diploma groups in the five universities, the numbers of graduate diplomas awarded have been plotted in Figure 14 and smoothed projections carried forward into the next decade. Emerging significantly from this graph are the following points:-

- (a) the rapid growth of Stellenbosch showing the same trend, though on a much reduced numerical scale, as was seen in the examination of first degrees awarded. The same falling off is to be noted in 1963 and 1964;
- (b) marked growth of the Faculty of Education in the University of Natal, again corresponding closely in trend to the award of first degrees;
- (c) a close parallelism between Orange Free State, Rhodes and Capetown.

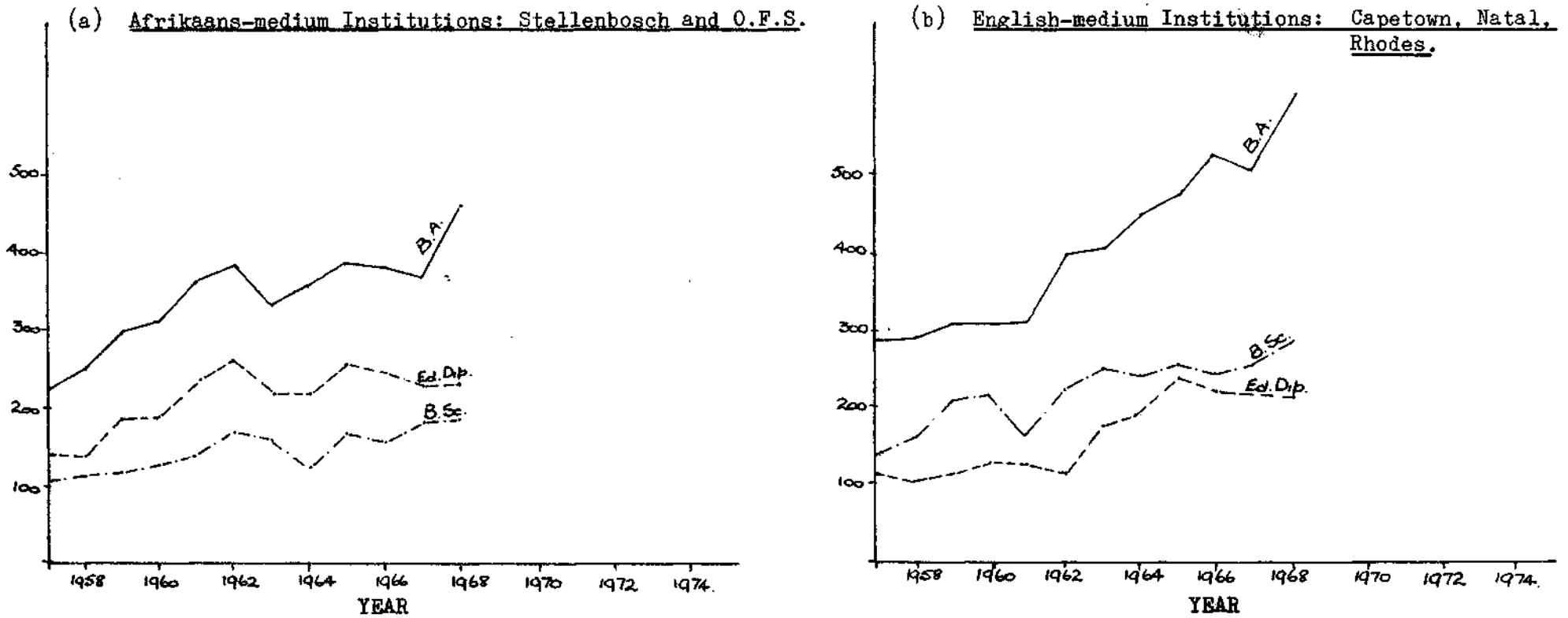
In Figure 15 the three groups, B.A., B.Sc., and graduate education diploma, are now compared on the basis of language medium. The figure shows a very close correspondence in the award of B.A. degrees, with the Afrikaans-medium degrees awarded growing at a slightly faster rate than those awarded by the three English-medium universities. Both the other two categories of awards, B.Sc. and education diplomas, show a significant

Figure 14: South African Universities: Post-Graduate Education Diplomas Awarded



Statistical Sources: Annual Reports: Departments of Education, Arts & Science and of Higher Education 1958-1970
 University Calendars, Student Records, University of Natal.

Figure 15: South African Universities: First Degrees in relation to Graduate Education Diplomas



Statistical Sources: As for Figure 14.

deviation in English- and Afrikaans-medium institutions. It is obvious that a larger proportion of students are awarded science degrees in this sample selection of English-medium universities, compared with the selected Afrikaans-medium ones. A second point is that proportionately many more education diplomas are awarded in the Afrikaans-medium universities - in fact, that the teaching profession enjoys a higher status and is more attractive to the Afrikaans-speaking community than to the English-speaking one. However, it is equally obvious that, despite larger proportionate numbers of Afrikaans-speaking graduate teachers coming forward, this group is going to contain only a small proportion of science graduates. On the English-speaking side, the total number of graduates coming forward is likely to be inadequate overall as well as inadequate in particular academic subjects, notably the sciences. It is significant that two decades ago almost the only outlet for the graduate in Arts was the teaching profession. Today this does not seem to be the case. The competition for manpower with skilled and trained minds is invading the humanities as well as the sciences, and in this competition, teaching as a career for the English-speaking South African in particular is losing out. It is no wonder that the 1961 Education Panel remarked in their second Report that "the profession will have to accept a smaller proportion of people of outstanding talent than it has received in the past."¹

Table 28 (First Degrees in Relation to Graduate Education Diplomas), upon which Figure 16 is based, shows the operation of this trend better in aggregate than in percentage proportion.

Figure 16 shows even more clearly the widening gulf between first degrees and graduate education diplomas awarded. Even though the percentage columns of Table 28 show that the percentage of education diplomas to first degrees awarded is remaining fairly constant at 30 to 35%, the fact is that the numbers of students in the Faculties of Education at the universities portrayed in Figure 16 are not expanding at the same rate as the number of students in the Arts and Science Faculties. This, in turn, means that a relatively inadequate number of these teachers are being produced to take their places in that section of the White educational systems where the greatest expansion is going on, viz.: upper secondary, and where there is the greatest need to keep

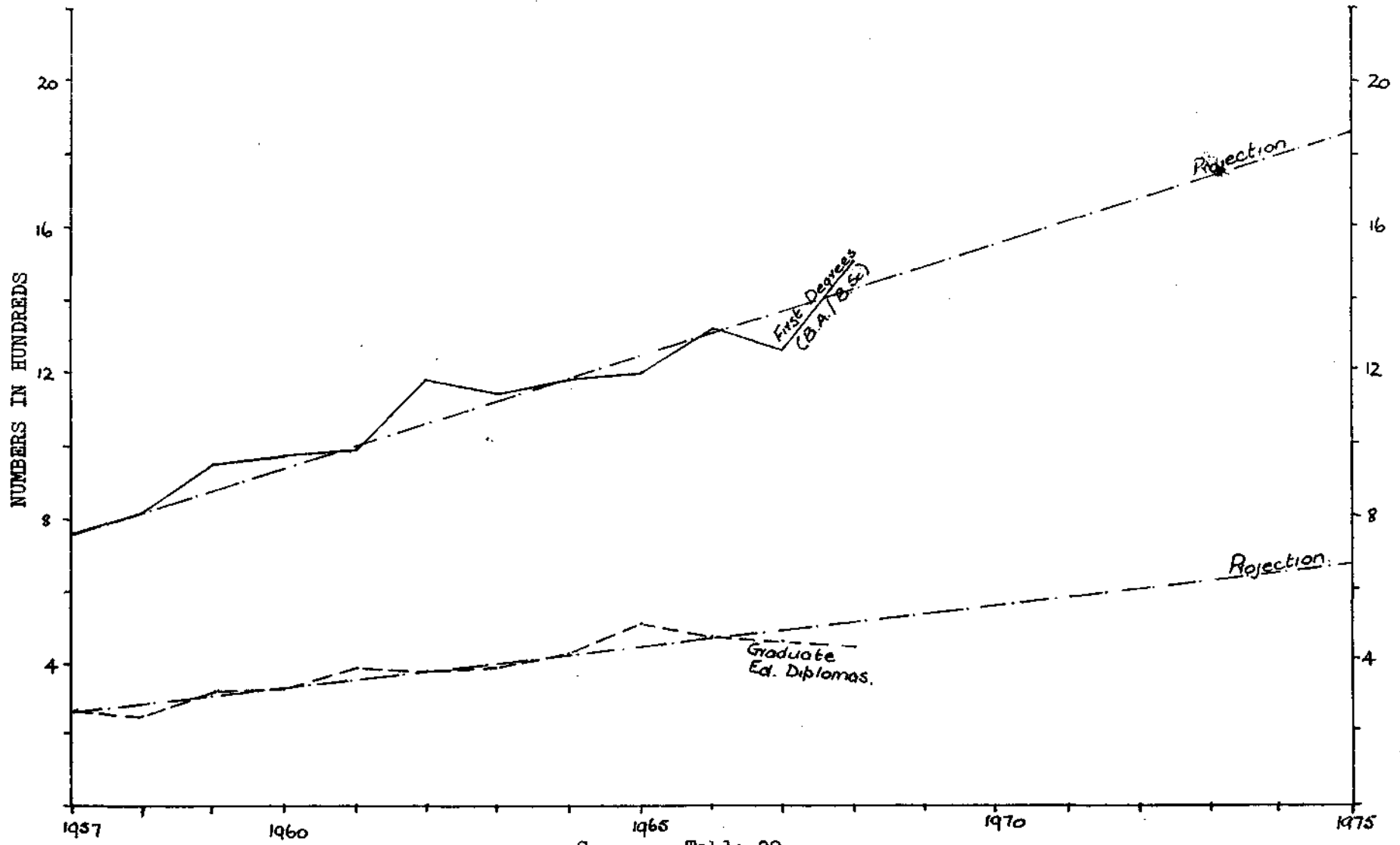
¹ 1961 Education Panel: Second Report: Education and the South African Economy, p.61.

Table 28 : First degrees in relation to graduate education diplomas awarded by a sample of South African Universities

Degrees/ Diplomas	Number awarded												Percentage											
	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
English medium																								
B.A.	294	294	327	314	324	400	405	450	477	527	508	609	67.5	65.0	62.3	58.6	65.3	63.5	62.1	65.2	65.1	68.2	66.8	67.7
B.Sc.	141	164	205	213	162	227	251	241	254	245	251	288	32.5	35.0	37.7	41.4	34.7	36.5	38.9	34.8	34.9	31.8	33.2	32.3
Total	435	458	532	527	486	627	656	691	731	772	759	897	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Education diplomas	121	105	131	139	135	126	172	194	243	228	-	217	27.5	25.0	24.5	26.5	28.3	20.7	25.7	28.8	32.9	29.7	-	24.4
Afrikaans medium																								
B.A.	230	253	300	318	363	388	336	359	284	476	365	467	70.0	69.5	71.4	71.8	70.6	69.6	69.2	74.9	62.2	75.4	72.3	69.0
B.Sc.	104	111	124	128	143	172	155	123	172	156	140	208	30.0	30.5	28.6	28.2	29.4	30.4	30.8	25.1	37.8	24.6	27.7	31.0
Total	334	364	424	446	506	560	491	482	456	632	505	675	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Education diplomas	141	142	187	188	235	259	218	219	259	244	-	225	42.4	38.9	45.2	42.2	47.1	46.4	44.9	44.2	56.5	40.0	-	33.3
Total degrees	769	822	956	973	992	1187	1147	1173	1187	1404	1264	1572	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total diplomas	262	247	318	327	390	385	390	413	502	472	-	442	33.7	30.5	33.3	34.1	39.3	35.0	32.2	36.7	42.2	33.6	-	28.0

Source: Annual Reports of the Departments of Education, Arts and Science and of Higher Education.

Figure 16: First Degrees in Relation to Graduate Education Diplomas:
A Selected Sample of South African Universities.



Source: Table 28.

down pupil-teacher ratios.

5. Conclusions:

In the foregoing chapter the issues of demography and educational provision have been dealt with at some length. It is felt that the result has been to make plain certain fundamental issues, for the solution of which an investigation of the problems of teacher education and their solution in a rationalised training pattern is essential. These can be briefly stated as follows:-

- (a) The total population is likely to go on growing at more or less the same rate, with immigration, which has been an important factor in the early and middle 'sixties, likely to become smaller, but still a regular component of population growth. The national growth rate, at present about 3% per annum, has been estimated to decline to something of the order of 1.5% per annum at the end of the century. Thus, for the purpose of this study, the growth rate has been stabilised at approximately 2% per annum.
- (b) The massive expansion of the White school population is largely over. Universal schooling is virtually complete up to the end of Standard VII. The school leaving age, being fixed in the main at sixteen years, precludes the implementation of compulsory schooling at the Standard VIII level. It would seem a logical development of educational policy in South Africa to raise the school leaving level to the end of Standard VIII, provided suitably differentiated curricula are introduced.
- (c) Proportionately the most rapidly expanding section of the school system is within the upper secondary forms (Standards IX and X). Here, again, the continued expansion is dependent upon the introduction and regular review of systems of differentiated education.
- (d) New differentiated curricula demand a new approach to the training of teachers which is dependent upon the rationalisation of rôles and functions of the existing training institutions.

- (e) The statistics of the existing teaching force show that they have been adequate to meet the increasing enrolments. Factors exist, such as wastage rates, and shortages of trained staff, in particular subjects which make these statistics reliable only on a quantitative basis. In addition it is doubtful if the teaching profession will in the future be able to attract and retain the same percentage of high quality professional material which it has done in the past.
- (f) Phenomenal enrolment expansion has been a feature of the colleges of education in the past two decades. It is queried as to whether the same rate of expansion can be long maintained without some qualitative concession.
- (g) There is urgent need for a review and expansion of technical and commercial teacher training.
- (h) The marked growth of enrolment and first degrees conferred by the universities is acknowledged. It is noted that the growth of education diplomas awarded has not quite kept pace with this. It is noted in particular that different patterns are to be found in Afrikaans- and English-medium universities, but that in both the numbers of science graduates is not satisfactory.
- (i) It is essential that a review be undertaken not only to be concerned with numbers of teachers produced, but also in view of declining quality of student material, which must inevitably follow upon large quantitative expansion, with modern educational methodology and technology in order that the most economic and effective use is made of trained professional manpower.
- (j) Such review must be concerned also with the rôles of the various types of training institutions. It is essential to guard against the situation where "the college-trained non-graduate teacher is ill-prepared intellectually, having snatched his personal education from a crowded course of professional training; whilst the graduate teacher, trained or untrained, is ill-equipped to understand the social dimensions of his work, even in the selective schools in

which he mainly serves."¹

Demographically, the success of the nation's educational efforts depends both upon the quality and the quantity of the teachers it prepares and supplies to the schools. Neither of these properties must be surrendered in favour of the other. If anything, quantity must give way to quality, but at the present time of world-wide shortage of professionally trained teachers it is necessary to strive to achieve a balance in order that the nation's schools may be staffed adequately. With this in mind it is essential that the present complex pattern should be reviewed, and in doing so it is necessary to provide the machinery for constant review of the nation's needs in respect of teacher education.

¹ Floud, Mrs. Jean: "Teaching in the Affluent Society": British Journal of Sociology XIII, No.4, p.304 and passim: Dec., 1962.

Chapter Ten: Constitutional Controls in Teacher Education

"Every nation has its own distinctive educational system, the emergence of which has many determinants. Though each national system is unique, it is nevertheless tied to some representative educational pattern. Each pattern has its dominant educational objective, and specific administrative organisation and institutional structure.

"The educational system of a country cannot be studied to some purpose, without due regard to the people and to the history that has helped to shape it."¹

These truisms of Behr are amply borne out in the evidence submitted in Part Two of this study, and are recognised by all who have worked particularly in the field of comparative education. Nevertheless, their restatement at this point is appropriate for it is very true that much of the present debate regarding administration and control of education in South Africa has its roots in the constitutional arrangements entered into from 1910 onwards.

At the turn of the twentieth century the four states which were to make up the Union of South Africa had all developed their own systems of education and in this period, marred as it was by war, each state found itself becoming more concerned with the provision of teachers to staff its schools. Early entrants into the field were, of course, the Cape Colony, with the Transvaal becoming aware of the need for internal teacher training in the last decade of the nineteenth century. Close on its heels came the Orange Free State, while Natal, apart from the functioning of a pupil-teacher system, preferred to recruit its teachers, particularly those engaged at secondary level, in the United Kingdom. However, by the time of Union in 1910, each state had established its own facilities for the training of teachers in the main for service in the elementary schools. We must see in this at least part of the reason for the emphasis upon provincialism in the structure of teacher education in particular and education in general in the union of the four states, which, while accepting a unitary constitution with some misgivings, particularly in Natal, were determined to preserve a semblance of the sovereign power, or power of self-government possessed before amalgamation. Education of their youth was from the outset accepted as one of the fundamental sovereign rights of the provinces.

¹ Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: p.1.

The constitutional arrangements for the allocation of responsibility for education in the Union of South Africa have been described in Part Two. It is of importance to realise that these arrangements raised doubts in the minds of educators and administrators from the outset.

Writing in 1922, Malherbe¹ states that "if it is true that education is one of the most important functions of society - being the effort made by a given generation of men to transmit their experience and culture to the next generation - then it follows that it demands the best brains of the nation to secure its development along sound lines. This is possible only by pooling the best of the nation's mental ability in the interests of education - something which is impossible under the present provincial system. The broader the view that prevails, and the less parochialism that is manifested, the sounder will be the policy. A centralised system will be more likely to guarantee this breadth of outlook, and counteract arbitrary and gratuitous interferences in educational administration of the parish pump and the party caucus.

"We do not advocate, however, a bureaucratic system of cast iron rigidity..... On the contrary, by making due allowance for the special requirements of a particular place or district, the community will be most effectively freed from the paralysing effects of bureaucracy."²

It is right that these words of Malherbe expressing the fundamental problem of South African education after little more than a decade in the life of the Union, should be pondered again more than forty years later and within the first decade of the life of the Republic of South Africa. He points clearly to the Scylla and Charybdis of educational effort in this country. It was during the first half century of development of the unified state, that the ship of state drifted perilously close to the Scylla of educational provincialism and parochialism. Now in the present

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: Education in South Africa, 1652-1922: p.462.

² This rigidity in education was commented on even at the time by the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Province: "The bane of our present system is the want of elasticity and the lack of freedom. The Codes of Instruction issued by the various departments have become a veritable bed of Procrustes, to which all pupils of town and country schools, boys and girls alike, must adapt their length. The result is that there is at present a good deal of overlapping and even ineffective work, due to a lack of proper co-ordination and continuity between various grades of schools and branches of education."
Dr. W.J. Viljoen: evidence before the Provincial Administration Commission, 1916.

era, the helmsman has sought to offset this by steering a passage close to the Charybdis of centralisation. It would be well for the captain and the navigating officer to realise that in fact and in mythology, the Charybdean whirlpool is an equally dangerous feature requiring expert navigation and considerable freedom to manoeuvre when the waters begin to become broken.

There is no doubt, however, that Malherbe more than forty years ago drew attention to a fundamental weakness in educational policy. "There are certain functions which a central body must exercise concerning which it must legislate - functions which it would be positively inexpedient to assign to the local body. Vice versa the same truth holds good. Thus, for example, the certification of teachers, the fixing of minimum standards of their conditions of service; the co-ordination of all services germane to education so as to prevent overlapping and waste of effort; and the equalisation of educational opportunity throughout the country - so that every child, apart from accidents of birth or locality, may be able to share in the resources of the country as a whole and realise his capacities to their fullest extent for the good of the whole, are national functions by their very nature. On the other hand, the determination of the details of the curriculum so as to suit local needs and aspirations, and the right to strike out into new fields of experimentation ought to be the functions of the localities."¹

Malherbe was not the only educationist at the time to point out the weaknesses in the constitutional pattern. Writing some ten years later, McKerron was concerned at the effects of the system on the preparation and effectiveness of teachers. "In matters affecting the teaching profession, some measure of co-ordination between the provinces is urgently needed..... Though uniformity may be deadening, too great variety in a small population undoubtedly leads to weakness..... Not only do we tend to limit our appointments to South African teachers, but there is a distinct danger of each province being served mainly by teachers trained in that province, and of teachers remaining in the province in which they began their service. Can such a system promote vigorous growth?"²

The emphasis of Malherbe upon the functions of central authority

¹ Malherbe, E.G.: Education in South Africa, 1652-1922: p.463.

² McKerron, M.E.: A History of Education in South Africa, 1952-1932: p.153.

and provincial government, and of McKerron upon the need for inter-provincial co-ordination do not state the full problem. 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 the co-ordination which McKerron writes is to be practical, all three institutions as well as governmental institutions must be represented. Furthermore to Malherbe's bi-lateral structure of central and provincial authorities, 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 education of teachers. Attention was drawn to this fact by Sir John Adamson in a paper to the New Education Fellowship Conference in 1934. Stressing the importance of the university function in the training of teachers, he stated that "there is no institution which can adequately train men and women for this profession save one of university rank. For their cultural studies they need the free academic atmosphere of the Arts and Sciences....." 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."¹

Adamson's views were supported at the same conference by Professor John Murray. "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 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

¹ Sir John Adamson: Principles underlying the training of teachers: from Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society: Malherbe, E.G. (ed.): p.270 et seq.

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."¹

It is interesting to note the evidence of these two leaders in their field, Adamson, in particular, presaging the development of the Institute of Education in England and Wales nearly a decade before the publication of the McNair Report.² This evidence is all the more significant in view of proposals for the rationalisation of teacher education in South Africa in 1968-9.

The weaknesses of the constitutional provision for the control of education thus soon became apparent after the formation of Union. Diverse authorities were responsible for different functions of education. Nowhere was this diversity or divided control more apparent than in the field of teacher education. An already complex situation was aggravated when, due to the financial stringency of the 'twenties, the provinces found themselves unable to continue to accept responsibility for technical and vocational education. As a result the central government took control of this area, and the third type of teacher training institution, the technical college, was added to the universities and colleges of education.

It was, however, only after the second World War and in the 'fifties that the full implications of divided control particularly in the field of teacher education came to be realised. Prior to 1939, it was possible to separate the rôles and functions of the three types of institutions according to the bodies which were constitutionally charged with responsibility for them. Thus, the provincial departments of education, responsible for the colleges of education, concentrated upon the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools which fell wholly within their orbit. The universities trained graduate teachers who staffed the then restricted and wholly academic secondary schools. The technical colleges were responsible for the secondary education of a small minority of pupils,

¹ Professor John Murray: The Limitations of the Training (Normal) College: Ibid: p.276.

² Great Britain: Consultative Committee: Board of Education: The Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, 1944.

and it was not until the 'sixties that their teacher preparatory function assumed formalised proportions, and even then the numbers are small compared with those enrolled in the other types of institution. Divided control in the early days, then, meant more than divided control - it provided separate control for separate institutions.

Educational expansion at secondary level in the post-war world has posed problems for teacher education on an international basis. 'Secondary education for all' could only be implemented on the basis of differentiated education, with the immediate result, particularly in England and in South Africa, to take but two examples, that the secondary school began to offer diversified curricula to cater for the entire range of intellectual ability, and, therefore, ceased to be the preserve of the graduate teacher. Educational practice, therefore, in South Africa, resulted in a clash of rôles of training institutions with both the provincially-controlled colleges of education and the largely centrally-financed universities becoming responsible for the education of teachers for the secondary schools. A third factor in the growing complexity of this situation is the increasing demand for technical and commercial education at the secondary level. Thus, all three institutions find themselves engaged in the preparation of teachers for service in the secondary schools. The need for a rationalisation of this situation was recognised by the educational legislation of 1967, a policy which was carried to its conclusion in subsequent legislation in 1969.¹ This new legislation and its resultant effects upon the institutions of teacher education is likely to be a dominant feature in higher education for the next decade. In exactly the same way we find that a rationalisation has had to be undertaken in England and Wales, and the McNair Report of 1944 finds its evolutionarily logical successor in the Robbins Report² on Higher Education in 1963.

The need for a rationalisation of the system of teacher education in South Africa having been realised, the next step is to translate it into reality. Legislation³ requires that the universities shall assume

¹ It is to be noted that the policy of differentiation in education of which the Minister of National Education gave formal notice in June 1971 is still to be implemented presumably in regulations to be promulgated in terms of existing legislation. It is accordingly not taken into account in this study.

² Great Britain: Committee on Higher Education: Higher Education, 1963.

³ South Africa: National Education Policy Amendment Act (Act No.73 of 1969).

responsibility for all secondary school teacher training and allows them to undertake courses for primary school teacher training. Provision is made for regional advisory and co-ordinating functions to be carried out between all authorities and institutions concerned, while a national education council advises the Minister. Teacher education for the secondary school level therefore becomes the sole responsibility of higher education, while that for the primary level remains within the control of the provincial authorities. 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. The legislators may be able to give substance to the reality, but practical expression can only be given by the professional interests at all levels learning to co-operate and to take from each type of institution involved its strengths, building them into a new co-ordinated pattern to serve the best interests of the youth of this country. The present requirement is for all concerned to find a modus vivendi in the newly emerging pattern. How this may possibly be done will be considered in some detail in Part Four.

Chapter Eleven: Institutions for Teacher Education and the Courses Offered (I)

Colleges of Education

Jeffreys has commented that the middle years of the present century will stand out as "a time of remarkably rapid and far-reaching change, not least in the field of teacher training."¹

This statement is repeated, for it is as true for teacher education in South Africa as it is for the United Kingdom. The second World War and the social changes wrought by it and through it, based as they were upon the uncertainties and instabilities of the 'thirties, represent major factors in the development of the world of the latter half of the twentieth century. "A century and more ago the heart of the educational problem was the rescue of the young child from ignorance, from squalor and from industrial exploitation. That great work has been done; and the focus has shifted to the adolescent. How to educate the young wage-earner, and the boys and girls who are about to become wage-earners, is a question to which all those concerned with the study of education and the training of teachers will have to address themselves seriously in the next ten years if we are to avoid social disaster."²

The expansion of education in the two post-war decades and the increasing holding power of the secondary schools, together with a rapid increase in the demand for high level manpower for a growing economy are all factors which have exercised their influence upon the pattern of teacher education both in England and in South Africa. At first the quantitative aspect of more teachers required for developing schools, resulted in the expansion of training facilities and the growth, particularly in the Transvaal, of very large colleges of education. Estimates of optimum size of training institutions both here and overseas have constantly had to be revised upwards, with new forms of internal organisation and administration to cope with the added demands of additional students. The universities, too, have had their fair share (some would say more than their fair share) of the effects of quantitative demands.

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: The Revolution in Teacher Training: p.v.

² Ibid: p.54.

The qualitative demand for better educated, better trained teachers for the new and large schools came somewhat later, both in England and in South Africa. Just as the first was the inevitable result of social change resulting from the second World War and the 1930s, so the second had to grow out of the first. More children at secondary school with a rising school leaving age meant the demand for more teachers with a higher level of personal education and greater professional expertise. The first evidence of this demand in both countries was the insistence upon extension of courses of training in the colleges of education first for teachers in the secondary schools and then more generally for all students undergoing non-graduate training in the colleges.

It is significant, however, that the new demands of the schools, while requiring changes in the structure of courses in the colleges of education and to a lesser extent the universities, have not resulted until recently in England, and now proposed in South Africa, revolutionary changes in the whole concept of teacher education. In fact, Behr, writing in 1965, was able to state "the study of contemporary trends in teacher training in South Africa, and abroad, indicates certain weaknesses in the South African system.

"The main weaknesses can be summarised as follows: There is a 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."¹

The reasons for these criticisms are to be found in the history of South African education; they are part of Michael Sadler's 'battles long ago',² and as such have briefly been dealt with in the previous sections of this study. A comparative study of education, if it teaches anything, stresses the evolutionary rather than the revolutionary nature of national

¹ Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: Chapter 9, p.266.

² Sadler, M.: How far can we learn anything of value from the study of foreign systems of education?: 1900.

systems of education. They are the product of what they are now, and all that they have been, and so the "time of rapid and far-reaching change" in the schools of which Jeffreys writes has been met by evolutionary change in the decade of the 'sixties and what promises in South Africa to be revolutionary change (one hopes that it will be characterised by Jeffreys 'deceptively undramatic manner' as in England) which is likely to burst upon us in the 'seventies, having commenced in the last year of the dying decade.

1. Courses of Training and their Organisation:

In Part Two of this study the manner in which existing courses under the provincial education departments, the Department of Education, Arts and Science, and in the universities have developed has been outlined. In order to set the stage for the next step in the development of teacher education it is necessary to generalise regarding this historical development and to endeavour by this means to throw into perspective the problems which beset the professional trainer of teachers, and the institutions within which he works. Thus it is necessary to examine in general the courses offered by the colleges of education, by the universities and by the colleges of advanced technical education to seek to determine trends which may be developed in plotting the course ahead.

Courses Offered by the Colleges of Education:

The pattern of development of courses offered 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 teacher's diploma course in the first instance for the training of students to serve in the secondary schools of that province, but with provision for the four-year course to be extended to all levels of non-graduate teacher education. It seems clear that this is a developing pattern which is likely to form the basis of national planning in the future.

The steps in which the non-graduate pattern of teacher education have evolved therefore become clear. The start point was an academic foundation of elementary education, together with a professional superstructure lasting two years to enable the student to return to the traditional pattern of elementary education. This was designed in the words of Jeffreys above to rescue "the young child from ignorance, from squalor and from industrial exploitation." It is interesting to note how this phase of educational development characteristic of western nations in the last half of the nineteenth century and the early years of the present century, has been taking place in a close parallel among the emerging nations of the world. It has certainly been the case in large parts of developing Africa.

With the achievement of universal elementary education and the increasing output of products from the secondary level, the next step resulted in the demand for higher standards of personal education on the part of those to be admitted to teacher training. Until the second World War, these products were seen to be those who would find employment in an elementary school system which was characterised by steadily increasing standards of personal education among its teachers. The two-year course of professional training remained a two-year course, and while greater emphasis was placed upon educational philosophy, and the psychological development of the child, the courses in structure remained very similar to what they had been previously. Here was the continuing application of practical training for a given situation in the elementary schools, rather than a development as such of a professional philosophical approach, or even an approach which sought to investigate methodological innovation or reform. This was the continuation of the "trade" training approach which could perhaps best be expressed by "learning the tricks of the trade". Experiments were made in Natal and the Transvaal in particular with three-year training, the third year being spent either in expanding the personal education of the student through university-based courses, or in giving a specific professional bias to the courses to produce semi-specialist teachers, for example, teachers for infant classes or of physical education.

The decade of the 'forties saw a widespread move towards reform of the school systems both in England and South Africa. The pattern now developed of the primary school as being the initial phase of the child's education, from which he should transfer at an earlier age (after six or seven years) to continuative education at the secondary level up to a

minimum school leaving age of fifteen or sixteen years. This decade in England saw the Hadow and Norwood Reports translated into reality by the 1944 Education Act. In South Africa, the reforms were presaged by the Nicol Commission Report of 1939, in the Transvaal, the Wilks Report in Natal in 1946, the de Villiers Report on technical and vocational education in 1948 and the Pretorius Report in the Orange Free State in 1951, and the van Wyk Report in the Transvaal in 1955. From these reports and their successors the current form of education in South Africa has grown. In essence, this provides for a secondary course of five years following upon an elementary course of seven years' duration with a compulsory school leaving age of sixteen years. These developments have profoundly changed the concept of the South Africa secondary school and have resulted in the adoption of differentiated schooling in Natal and the Transvaal with a move towards multi-lateralism in the Orange Free State. The Cape Province has based its practice upon a seven-year primary school, followed by a three-year junior secondary school, leading to a senior secondary course of two years. The junior secondary school provides the completion of compulsory education up to school leaving age, the curriculum being built round a common core of subjects with a reasonable optional choice, although there has been "a clear avoidance of the pre-vocational type of technical, commercial course."¹ This whole new pattern has been hampered in its development by the question of "divided control" which was referred to in the last chapter. This has been resolved by the National Education Policy Act and associated legislation enacted during the 1967 parliamentary session which became effective on 1st April, 1968.

This extension of secondary education has naturally had profound effects upon teacher education in both England and South Africa. It was clear that the universities would be unable to provide all the teachers required for the expanding secondary schools, but at the same time it was apparent that higher academic and professional standards would be required than in the past. Resulting from the McNair Report of 1944 England adopted a new method for the co-ordination and control of teacher education based on the Area Training Organisation from which has grown the pattern of Institutes of Education through which universities and colleges of education have been drawn more closely together. In South Africa, on

¹ Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: p.152.

the other hand, the separation of institutions and the confusion of rôles have been features which have persisted and have become in some cases even more deeply entrenched. As has already been indicated in the previous chapter this is an aspect of teacher education in this country which must be resolved as a matter of priority if the best interests of teacher education are to be served.

College of education courses can be classified into those for students wishing to teach at primary or secondary level. They are in the main non-graduate courses and of three years' duration,¹ although as has been stated above, the Transvaal instituted four-year non-graduate training courses at the start of 1967. This will be referred to in some detail in this chapter. To generalise further, courses are offered in the following main groups:-

- (a) secondary courses:
 - (i) with an academic bias to provide teachers particularly at junior secondary level in subjects where there is a particular shortage of teachers in the high schools e.g. English, Afrikaans, Mathematics, Physical Science
 - (ii) with a specialist bias to promote specialist teachers for the secondary schools e.g. Music, Art, Physical Education, Domestic Science, Commerce. The Transvaal has made considerable progress with the training of teachers in Industrial Arts in this category. Natal has moved in this direction and is training Handicraft teachers.
- (b) upper primary/lower secondary courses generally with an academic bias to contribute to the general education offered in schools at this level.
- (c) junior or primary school courses: these are subdivided into senior and junior primary (lower standards and infant school) courses to produce generally trained class teachers, as well as others which aim to produce specialist teachers e.g. in Music.

¹ For the purpose of this study the four-year course for the Transvaal Higher Education Diploma is regarded as of university level in common with the University Education Diploma courses provided elsewhere in South Africa.

The curriculum prescribed for each of these courses can be categorised into main areas of study. Thus all courses contain the following main divisions:-

- (a) Professional study of education including philosophy and methodology of education and introductory courses in child psychology.
- (b) Curriculum courses which include the official languages, arithmetic, the social studies, religious instruction, basic science, health education and blackboard work. Where specialist training is being undertaken, the number of these courses required is reduced.
- (c) Optional subjects e.g. physical education, art and craft, music, librarianship.
- (d) Specialist subjects: depending upon the nature of the specialisation, for example, academic courses for the junior secondary school includes the background knowledge and methodology of two academic subjects to the level of Standard VIII, or, in particular specialist subject training, this would be replaced by, for example, physical education, industrial arts, music, art, etc.

A further main section of all courses of training is naturally practical teaching. The pattern of practice teaching varies in the three-year course. In Natal 13 weeks are spent in the schools while in the Transvaal practice teaching occupies 24 weeks.¹

The foregoing generalisation serves to illustrate the similarity in courses existing between the South African colleges of education and their English counterparts. The general pattern of studies laid down by the Institutes of Education comprises four main sections, viz.:-

Section 1: Education: the professional study of education including the principles of education and child psychology.

Section 2: The Practice of Education: approximately 15 weeks is the usual prescription for school practice although in the three-year course, a considerably longer period is usually devoted to this aspect.

¹ This evidence was obtained by personal interview with rectors of Colleges of Education in the Transvaal in 1963 and 1967, and with the Principal of the Natal Training College, Pietermaritzburg in 1967.

Section 3: Main Subject courses or Special Fields of Study: one or two subjects pursued by the student as part of his or her personal education. These subjects may include methods of teaching where appropriate to the level of training being undertaken by the student.

Section 4: Curriculum and optional subjects which generally correspond to those subjects listed under (b) and (c) above.

As an example of the curriculum requirements in the three-year course in an English college, the course of the City of Leeds Training College, a constituent college of the University of Leeds Institute of Education, is cited:-

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, History, Mathematics, Music, Physical Education, Religious Knowledge and Science Subjects.¹

The contrast in curriculum content in college of education courses in South Africa and England has been set out in some detail for the following reasons:-

¹ University of Leeds, Institute of Education Handbook, 1963: Part II, pages 69 to 95.

- (a) to stress the common evolutionary patterns developed in the three-year courses in the two countries;
- (b) to indicate how in the main these courses, despite modernisation and upgrading, are in direct lineal descent from the training courses offered when the function was to provide adequately 'trained' teachers to operate in the elementary schools which provided the only education available to the majority of children;
- (c) 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 main subject studies in the English colleges and the specialist subjects in South African colleges are notable exceptions in this regard, but even the former must be regarded critically for their position in what are designed to be courses of professional training.

"Colleges 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. But more important, here is the very heart of the dichotomy - Is teaching a craft or is it a profession? If it is the former, it will attempt to prepare a student by systematically working him through all the ground that at one time or another as a teacher he might have to 'teach' and training him in all the techniques he might have to use. If it is the latter, it will attempt to equip him sufficiently thoroughly with fundamental principles, general skills, and, above all, with a sufficiently professional outlook to be able to develop the particular qualities to meet particular needs..... One needs to ask therefore which of the general courses are professional, and which are not; which are essential and which not, and which should be compulsory and which not."¹

¹ Bone, R.C.: Teacher Education and the Training Colleges in England and Wales, 1964: p.6.

One finds it difficult not to agree with Bone that it is time to review critically the nature and the content of the courses offered by the colleges of education in the light of the requirements of today's schools both here and in the United Kingdom.

2. Developing Trends in the College of Education Courses:

Post-war educational developments have, as we have seen, forced the colleges of education and the universities to become involved in a common area of teacher preparation - teachers for the secondary schools. Extending of the duration of courses, the revision of course content and the inclusion of depth studies in the college courses have served to bring the two institutions ever closer together in outlook, if not in physical contact.

This trend, however, is by no means new, for it was being advocated in South Africa before the second World War. It was only, however, after this war, some ten years later, that the McNair Report initiated a policy which gave practical expression to Adamson's concept of an Institute of Education in England and Wales. "Like most things English, no two Institutes of Education are identical..... At the one extreme is the kind of Institute where the University Department of Education is as fully committed as the training colleges, the students of the U.D.E. are examined by the Institute, and the staff of the U.D.E. are so much involved in Institute activities that no clear line can be drawn between Institute and U.D.E. At the other extreme, the U.D.E. virtually stands aside from Institute activities. Perhaps the most and usual pattern is one in which there is a clear distinction between Institute staff and U.D.E. staff, but there is fruitful co-operation between Institute and Department."¹ Thus there has grown up in England the practice of co-operation and co-ordination of training between the Universities and the Colleges, which has certainly been to the advantage of the latter. This will be referred to again in more detail in Part Four when Institute structure and organisation is considered. The point to be made at the present juncture is that the colleges have been drawn more closely into the university orbit, and in this process, have achieved a greater measure of freedom in curriculum development than might have been possible under local education authority direction.

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: Revolution in Teacher Training: p.11.

This trend in England and Wales has undoubtedly led to a raising of the general level of education of students. In examining this developing feature in higher education, the Robbins Committee noted that "the extension as from 1960 of the course in general colleges in England and Wales from two to three years (which has long been its duration in Scotland), and a steady rise in the effective standard of entry, have given them an educational opportunity for which they have long pressed. The teachers of the future will have had the opportunity to be better educated than their predecessors, who had to combine professional training with higher education in a mere two years. Yet the colleges feel a lack of public recognition of their standards of work. Both in England and Wales and in Scotland about 40 per cent of the students who enter have satisfied the minimum university entrance requirements. The work done over three years by many of them in their one or 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."¹ The acceptance of this problem and the resulting decision to recommend the award of a new degree, the Bachelor of Education, to selected students of the colleges of education working through a University School of Education has undoubtedly set the pattern of teacher education in the United Kingdom for the 'seventies.

The universities and the colleges will be drawn together ever more closely and will become jointly involved in the preparation of teachers. Whatever one may feel about the structure of the new degree proposed by the Robbins Committee, the important development is without doubt this closer liaison of institutions concerned in the preparation of teachers.

Despite Adamson's early recommendation of a moving together of colleges and universities in the preparation of teachers and his advocacy at a South African conference of the need for the establishment of an Institute of Education, this country has been slow to react, due probably in the main to the problems of differences of control. However, two significant developments in the pattern of teacher preparation have occurred in South Africa in recent years. The first of these has been a move in Natal, initiated by the Faculty of Education of the Natal University, to have selected college of education courses recognised by

¹ Great Britain: Committee on Higher Education: Higher Education Report: para 311, p.108.

the University for degree purposes. The procedure adopted in pursuance of this policy 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 and 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. In this way recognition has been accorded to English, as well as to Physical Science courses of the Natal Training College in Pietermaritzburg, and students who have completed these courses are able to claim partial exemption from university courses in working for degrees. Under normal circumstances, students who have completed a three-year training college course are entitled to claim exemption from the first-year university course. In the case of outstanding performance, however, it is possible to secure exemption from a second-year course also.

This development in the University of Natal marked a great step forward in the upgrading of college courses, and in the bringing together of university and training college as well as in the maintenance of academic standards. The danger in any move to recognise 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. In Natal, one great advantage is that the colleges themselves must feel that their own standards can measure up to those of the university before making application for their recognition. In turn, the university departments are required to satisfy themselves that standards will be maintained before any recognition is granted. Against this it may be argued that the process of gaining general recognition of college courses is unduly lengthy. It appears that in the long run, the safer course, as far as the maintenance of standards is concerned, may well be the slower one.

The second development in teacher education practice in South Africa stems not from university action, but from that of the Transvaal Education Department in extending all courses of training for secondary

school teachers in the colleges of education to four years in duration and in making the four-year course for primary teachers optional. This new policy was announced in November, 1966 and introduced in January, 1967.

"As it seemed impossible to increase greatly the intake of matriculants into combined university-college courses, the next best thing was to lengthen the college of education training course for secondary schools, and give it a strong academic foundation. At the same time, opportunity would be given to students following the three-year primary school courses to stay on for an additional year; in these courses, too, there would be a sound academic foundation. There can be no quarrel with the lengthened primary school courses, provided that the colleges are given reasonable discretion, and that interest and standards are maintained."¹

An investigation with regard to the introduction of four-year training courses, in the Transvaal and the implications of this for the teaching profession was undertaken in July, 1967. Interviews were held with senior officials of the Transvaal Education Department and with the rectors and vice-rectors of the Johannesburg and Goudstad Colleges of Education. An attitude was found 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. It was stated that the modern teacher requires a more thorough academic and professional training than his predecessor and for this a four-year training period was essential. In reply to the question as to whether or not four-year training should be the prerogative of the universities, it was stated that the universities were unable to supply the numbers of teachers required. Failure rates together with the attractiveness of other avenues of professional employment resulted in an unduly large erosion of useful talent from the schools. In addition, it was felt that the one year of professional training after the completion of the degree was an inadequate period in which to inculcate the correct professional attitudes in the young teacher. This could be much more effectively achieved through concurrent academic and professional

¹ Transvaal Education News: Nov./Dec., 1966: editorial, p.7.

courses in the colleges of education.

In the first instance the four-year courses are designed to produce teachers capable of handling their academic subject throughout the whole range of the secondary school. This is a tacit admission of the failure of the Junior Secondary courses in the Transvaal colleges. "A shortage of teachers in the rapidly expanding secondary system led to the institution of the Junior Secondary and High School specialisation courses at the colleges of education. Some of the latter courses qualified students to teach up to Standard X, while the former as its name implied, catered for the lower forms of high schools. High schools, with few exceptions were highly critical of the Junior Secondary course, although they had failed lamentably in persuading pupils, especially men, to take up the university teaching course..... Many of the junior secondary students found themselves in primary schools, untrained to cope with the special problems there."¹ Dr. A.L. Kotzee confirmed that the Junior Secondary courses were abandoned for they were creating a division in the secondary school, Standards VI, VII and VIII coming under the control of non-graduate teachers, while the graduates were responsible for Standards IX and X. The aim of the Department is therefore to produce teachers who are capable of teaching their subject from Standard VI to Standard X. It should be noted that in the first instance, the four-year courses are designed to meet certain specific subject deficiencies, viz. Afrikaans, English, Religious Education, Physical and Natural Sciences, and Mathematics. Thus, the 1967 final enrolment form of the Johannesburg College of Education for the four-year secondary course - high school academic - requires the student to select two subjects from the following: English, Afrikaans, Mathematics, Arithmetic, Religious Education, Botany and Zoology, Physics and Chemistry.²

While it is realised that the subjects offered in the first year of operation of the new courses are necessarily limited, it seems strange that no student desirous of undergoing training in the social studies for service in the secondary school can be admitted to the four-year course. It is confidently expected that this serious deficiency in the new planning will be rapidly rectified.

¹ Transvaal Educational News: Nov./Dec., 1966: editorial, p.7.

² Enrolment form obtained from the Johannesburg College of Education, July, 1967. Note that students are required to have obtained at least a D Symbol in Standard X in the subjects they choose.

Table 29 : Die Transvaalse Onderwyskolleges

Tydoekenning per vak

(Volgens 'n lesingweek van 40 periodes van 35 minute elk.)

Vakke	Jare	K u r s u s s e											
		Junior Werk				Senior Primêre Werk				Middelbare Kursus			
		1e	2e	3e	4e	1e	2e	3e	4e	1e	2e	3e	4e
Pedagogiek	op 2e jaar graadpeil na 3 jaar op 3e jaar graadpeil na 4 jaar	5(4)	5(3)	5(3)	10(6)	5(4)	5(3)	5(3)	10(6)	5(4)	5(3)	5(3)	10(6)
Opvoedkundige Sielkunde			3(2)	3(2)	5(4)		3(2)	3(2)	5(4)		3(2)	3(2)	5(4)
Kollege-Opening		1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)
Godsdiensonderwys		2(2)	2(2)	1(1)	2(1)	2(2)	3(2)	1(1)	2(1)	2(2)	3(2)		
Eerste Taal		5(4)	5(4)	5(3)		5(4)	5(4)	4(3)		5(4)	5(4)		
Tweede Taal		5(4)	5(4)	4(3)		5(4)	5(4)	4(3)		5(4)	5(3)		
Fundamentele wetenskap:		3(2)				3(2)				3(2)			
Elementêre Natuurwetenskap				3(2)				4(3)					
Gesondheidsopvoeding en Noodbeplanning				3(2)				4(3)				2(2)	
Fundamentele Wiskunde		4(3)				4(3)				4(3)			
Rekenkunde			4(3)	4(3)				4(3)	4(3)			4(3)	
Fundamentele Menswetenskappe		3(2)				3(2)				3(2)			
Omgewingsleer			4(3)										
Aardrykskunde				4(3)				4(3)					
Geskiedenis			4(3)					4(3)				4(3)	
Skrif- en Bordwerk		1½(1½)		1(1)		1(1)				1(1)			
Skoollibiblioteekwese (Inleidend)		½(½)				1(1)				1(1)			
Kunsvlyt (Mans en Dames)		2(2)				2(2)				2(2)			
Naaldwerk (Dames) Kunsvlyt (Mans)		2(2)				2(2)							
Musiek				2(2)									
Liggaamlike Opvoeding				2(2)									
Tik												2(2)	

Table 29 : continued

Vakke	Jare	K u r s u s s e											
		Junior Werk				Senior Primêre Werk				Middelbare Kursus			
		1e	2e	3e	4e	1e	2e	3e	4e	1e	2e	3e	4e
<u>L A E R S K O O L</u>													
Semi-spes. vir laerskool in Lig.Opv./Mu./Kuns - Kunsvlyt/Naaldw./Skoolbiblw./Drama		2(2)	2(2)	2(2)	10(10)	2(2)	5(5)	6(6)	10(10)				
					OF				OF				
Akad. vak op 1e jaar graadpeil (in 4e jaar i.p.v. semi-spes.)					10(5)				10(5)				
Akad. vak op 1e jaar graadpeil na 2 jaar		4(3)	5(3)			4(3)	5(3)						
Akad. vak op 2e jaar graadpeil na 4 jaar					12(5)				12(5)				
					OF				OF				
Akad. vak op 1e jaar graadpeil na 4 jaar					12(5)				12(5)				
<u>H O Ë R S K O O L</u>													
Hoërskool spes. in Lig.Opv./Mu./Kuns/Bedryfsk./Huisk./Skoolbiblw./Handel B										4(4)	5(5)	20(20)	18(18)
												OF	
Akad. hoofvak op 3e jaar of 2e jaar graadpeil na 4 jaar										4(3)	5(3)	20(10)	18(10)
												EN	
Akad. vak op 2e jaar graadpeil na 4 jaar										4(3)	5(3)	7(5)	6(5)
												OF	
Akad. vak op 1e jaar graadpeil na 2 jaar										4(3)	5(3)		
												EN	
Akad. vak op 1e jaar graadpeil aan einde van 4e jaar												7(5)	6(5)
<u>Totale getal periodes per week</u>		40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
<u>Totale getal werklike lesingperiodes</u>		(33)	(30)	(30)	(22)	(33)	(30)	(31)	(22)	(32)	(27)	(26)	(26)
					OF				OF	OF	OF	OF	OF
					(27)				(27)	(33)	(29)	(35)	(34)

N.B.

- (a) Die syfers wat nie in hakies staan nie dui die tydtoekenning per vak aan.
 (b) Die syfers wat in hakies staan dui die werklike getal lesingperiodes aan.
 (c) Die verskil tussen (a) en (b) is selfstandige studieperiodes.
 (d) Die bostaande tydtoekenning dui die maksimum tye vir die vakke aan maar mag ná lesingtye in die namiddag of aand met goedkeuring van die Rektor oorskry word by sekere kursusse wat baie praktiese werk het.

Source: Transvaal Education Department

Courses of four-year duration are also offered to students in training for the primary schools. At first, however, these are to be optional, three years being the compulsory requirement for training at this level. The Deputy Director of Education stressed that four-year courses for all teacher training were regarded as optimum and it was official policy to work towards this end.¹

As far as general course planning is concerned, the distribution of time allocated to sections of the course is according to Table 29. In order to contrast this more specifically with previous practice in the Transvaal and with the structure of the three-year courses in England and Wales, an abstract showing study areas within the courses has been made in Table 30.

Table 30 : Transvaal Colleges of Education

Study areas in the four-year training courses,
based upon 40 x 35 min.lecture periods per week

Subject area	Junior Course		Senior Primary		Secondary	
	1st year	4th year	1st year	4th year	1st year	4th year
Education, including Educational Psychology	5 ^{ppw} →	15	5 →	15	5 →	15
Academic	4 ^{ppw} →	12	4 →	12	8 →	24
Professional including Language	26 ^{ppw} →	28	32 →	Nil	24 →	Nil
Religious Instruction	3 ^{ppw} →	3	3 →	3	3 →	1
Specialisation Course						
(a) Primary	2 ^{ppw} →	10	2 →	10		Nil
(b) Secondary		Nil		Nil	4 →	18*

* High School Specialisation Courses (school music, industrial arts, home economics, physical education) only. This does not apply to the academic high school courses.

No allowance is made for practical teaching in this table.

¹ It is to be noted that these requirements with regard to duration of courses are in accordance with those stipulated in Act 73 of 1969 (National Education Policy Amendment Act).

Thus the structure of the courses can be seen to be built round a framework of four main pillars, viz.: Education (Theory), Education (practice), Special Fields of Study (academic or specialised), and professional or curriculum courses. The influence of the English course structure is thus very clear. In fact, in discussion, the Chief Planner, Teacher Training (Professor Jooste), acknowledged that these new four-year courses represented in thinking and planning, a combination of the English three-year courses with their emphasis upon main subject or special field courses and the new B.Ed. courses being established in implementation of the recommendations of the Robbins Committee. This contention is amply borne out by the instructions to syllabus committees in the Transvaal in 1967. These committees, 43 in number, involving some 420 members,¹ were set up in order to construct syllabuses for the new four-year courses. Heavy emphasis is laid upon academic content of courses and committees are enjoined to ensure that the content measures up to first, second and third year degree levels (graadpeil).² The intention is clear in the construction of the new courses: this is the ultimate creation of a new degree based on concurrent studies of an academic and professional nature, so that the colleges of education will train teachers for service throughout the secondary school range.

This concept raises numerous issues including selection and admission of students, recognition of courses and award of degrees which are dealt with elsewhere in this study.

It should also be noticed in examining Table 29 that an attempt is being made to introduce greater academic content into the three-year courses for the primary school, the aim here being to reach either first or second year degree levels at the end of second or fourth years.

An interesting contrast to the developments in the Transvaal is to be found in Natal. Here the same subject shortages of teachers is to be found, the same desire for academic recognition of courses is evident and

¹ These include representatives of the Education Department, colleges of education and the universities, as well as the teachers' associations.

² Transvaal Education Department: "Opdrag aan Sillabuskomitees", 1967, for example p.3: 3.2.2.6: Akademiese hoofvak op derdejaar graadpeil: In die derde en vierde studiejare moet daar 3 periodes elk uit die 20 en 18 totale periodes onderskeidelik.....afgestaan word vir die studie van die inhoud en metodiek van die hoërskoolsillabus in u vak van st. 6 tot 10."

the same prestige is attached to courses of training at the secondary level. The development of courses has, however, taken a different direction. No wholesale replanning exercise has been undertaken to upgrade the academic content of relevant courses. Rather, the University, the Education Department and the training colleges through the stimulus of the Advisory Council on Teacher Training, have co-operated in the securing of university recognition of courses offered in the colleges. This development has already been dealt with.

This practice is infinitely slower than the massive exercise which has been undertaken in the Transvaal. It appears, however, to provide a better safeguard of academic standards. One approaches with some trepidation the question of teaching degrees, in view of the debasing of academic standards which resulted in the United States of America from the introduction of courses of this nature. It is early yet to judge, but there is, no doubt, some concern on this issue in England and Wales over the introduction of the Bachelor of Education degree.

The introduction of the four-year courses for non-graduate teacher training is a move which must be regarded with some caution. This statement is made on three main grounds, viz.:

1. The evidence set out in Table 29 together with that from the document 'Opdrag aan Sillabuskomitees' with an emphasis on levels of degree equivalence seems to argue that the four-year course is designed to replace training of teachers under the auspices of the established universities and to localise all teacher education in the provincially-controlled colleges of education.
2. Subsequent developments in national education policy have removed the initiative for any training of secondary school teachers from the colleges of education. All such training is to be undertaken 'at a university'. It is a matter for debate as to whether 'at a university' could be interpreted as 'at a university or associated institution'. If the latter is to be accepted, then the way is open for the development of regional 'area training organisations' on the English model. It is significant that such a step might enhance the chances of recognition of a four-year integrated academic-professional course being accorded degree status. This issue will be returned to in Part Four.

3. The four-year course of training to be meaningful in terms of the quality of teachers produced for the schools, must be seen as an integrated entity, carefully constructed from first principles by professional educators who are aware of the needs of society and who consequently have synthesised the manner and programme whereby selected students are to be educated to become teachers exhibiting those qualities which society requires of its teachers. Thus the steps by which teacher education is to be improved must start from an assessment of the needs of teacher education in the present era, proceed through an investigation of the nature of courses which will meet these needs, with final arrival at the optimum length of course for the attainment of these goals.

Frequently, both here and abroad, the planning of teacher education in contemporary times has been approached from the opposite viewpoint. It was felt that teachers entering an educational service were inadequately prepared for the tasks demanded of them. It was concluded that this could largely be overcome by extending the length of the training course. With the extension of college courses to three years in England and Wales at the start of the present decade, the question immediately arose as to the course content of the additional year. Indeed, it was some years before the Institutes of Education and their associated colleges were able to provide a satisfactory fully integrated three-year course. The impression gained from a study of the courses provided at the time was one of 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.

An illustration of this in the evolution of teacher training courses is found in the example of the Natal Training College. In 1962 this College provided a two-year course of training leading to the Natal Teacher's Diploma. An optional third year course led to the award of the Natal Teacher's Senior Diploma.¹

The course structure for these two courses was as follows:-

¹ The Principal of the Natal Training College stated in an interview (14.8.62 and 16.8.62) at the time that the length of courses was under review by the Natal Education Department and the Executive Committee of the Provincial Council. The Education Department was strongly in favour of compulsory three-year training.

Natal Teacher's Diploma: English, Afrikaans, Social Studies/General Science, Art/Music/Needlework/Woodwork, Primary Methods, Practical Teaching, Principles of Education, Educational Psychology, Physical Education, Infant teaching and handwork, blackboard work. Thus eleven courses extended over the whole two-year period of training.

Natal Teacher's Senior Diploma: English, Afrikaans, Principles of Education, Educational Psychology, Special Study. This last course occupied more than 50% of the time of the course. The special studies offered were Art, Biology, Geography, History, Mathematics, Physical Science (for students entering high schools), Physical Education, Handicrafts, Housecraft and Infant Teaching. It should be noted that the special studies were directed to a specific age range. Thus in the high school subjects, detailed consideration was given to the Standard VII and VIII syllabuses in those subjects.

Here, then, in one province is the origin of the 2 yr (compulsory) + 1 yr (optional) courses from which the compulsory three-year course grew. The situation was not markedly different in other provinces e.g. Transvaal, nor in England or Wales.

By 1967 the three-year compulsory course in Natal had become well established and its first products were seeing service in the schools. The course itself had become modified, but the generic structure was still determinable.

First year: general studies including: English, Afrikaans, History, Geography, Biblical Studies, Physical Education, Art/Music/Needlework/Housecraft, General Methods, Infant Method, Arithmetic.

Second year: English, Afrikaans, Principles of Education and School Organisation, Educational Psychology, Arithmetic plus Special Study.

Third year: English, Afrikaans, Educational Psychology, and Special Study.¹

Here we see that the course had evolved from the 2 + 1 structure of 1962 to a 1 + 2 structure in 1967. The point is that at no time prior to 1971 has a professional review exercise been undertaken to determine precisely the requirements of an initial course of training for non-graduate teachers, at infant, junior or secondary school levels.

¹ Course details obtained during an interview with the Principal, Natal Training College on 15th September, 1967.

The course structure in 1967 reveals general dissatisfaction with specialist secondary training of one year's duration which was clearly inadequate. Therefore, this was to be corrected by reducing general training to one year and increasing specialist training to two years. There is no evidence of any fundamental re-thinking of courses having taken place.

The same type of evolution is to be discerned in the Transvaal colleges of education, with one important difference. The Transvaal was the first of the provinces to introduce compulsory three-year training this having taken place in 1961. It is interesting to note that courses for non-graduate junior high school teachers in that province contained subject specialisation in each of the three years from the introduction of the extended training. Thus, the specialist studies occupied 16 periods per week in the first year, 24 periods per week in the second year and 32 periods per week in the third year.¹ Again it is apparent that these courses contained a specialist element which had merely been grafted onto the pre-existing two-year course. The specialist academic element in these courses, as in Natal, consisted of a detailed study of syllabus content up to Standard VIII level. Of these courses, the Editor of the Transvaal Educational News was able to say in November/December, 1966, "In the Transvaal, a shortage of teachers in the rapidly expanding secondary system led to the institution of the junior secondary.....course at the colleges of education..... High schools, with few exceptions, were highly critical of the Junior Secondary course, although they had failed lamentably in persuading pupils, especially men, to take up the university teaching course."²

This statement highlights the reasons for the introduction of three year teacher training courses in 1961. Teacher shortage and failure of the universities to produce sufficient graduate teachers for service in the secondary schools, are the obvious main ones. Clearly, too, the necessary academic content could not be included in the already over-full two-year general course. Thus the three-year junior secondary course appeared to be a measure of expediency to help to solve a particular

¹ Lecture periods at this stage were normally of 35 mins. duration. This means that the weekly time allocation amounted to 9 hrs. 20 mins. in first year, 14 hrs. in second year, and 18 hrs. 40 mins. in third year. Information obtained during visits to Transvaal Colleges of Education in 1963.

² Transvaal Educational News: Vol.LXII, No.10, Nov./Dec., 1966: Editorial p.7.

difficulty of staffing, rather than a carefully conceived professional prescription to meet the requirements of basic teacher training. It was a measure designed to meet staffing requirements of the province rather than a response to the felt needs of teacher educators regarding the fundamental requirements of the initial course of training.

It is pertinent to inquire at the present stage to what extent the existing trends of the three-year courses of training have been extended to the new four-year courses in the Transvaal. The fundamental premises of training to meet specific staff shortages within the Education Department, as well as the inadequacies of the Junior Secondary Course have already been mentioned. For an analysis of the new course structure it is necessary to refer again to Table 29.¹ From this the following subject allocations may be deduced:-

Table 31 : Time allocation in the Transvaal four-year secondary school course

Year	Professional studies		Academic studies		Total	
	No. of periods	%	No. of periods	%	No. of periods	%
1	32	80	8	20	40	100
2	30	75	10	25	40	100
3	13	32.5	27	67.5	40	100
4	16	40	24	60	40	100
Average per year	22.75	56.875	17.25	43.125	40	100

It becomes clear that very considerable emphasis is to be laid upon professional studies in the first two years of the course, while at the same time only 1/5 to 1/4 of the time is devoted to academic studies. This is in essence a perpetuation of precisely the same practice as in the Junior Secondary Course. It seems also that one of the weaknesses of the four-year graduate course comprising three years of academic training followed by a single year of professional training, is perpetuated by a reversal of the procedure in the four-year non-graduate course.

¹ It is to be noted that there appears to be some variation with the subject allocations indicated in the 1968 prospectus of the Johannesburg College of Education: pp.28/29.

Professional studies are most heavily weighted in the first two years, representing 80% and 75% of the time allocation respectively. It may be questioned as to whether this order of priority in the development of the course is correct. The majority of students enter colleges of education today having achieved School Leaving Certificate standard. A smaller proportion have obtained Matriculation Exemption standard while a very small minority may be drawn by special selection procedures from the lower differentiated streams in Natal ('O' stream) and the Transvaal ('B' stream). Is it correct that for such students the preliminary emphasis should be on professional studies?

It has been the argument of the English colleges, and the experience has been the same in Rhodesia, that the need is to extend the personal education of the student on first admission. This not only enhances his general background knowledge, but contributes to the development of maturity, and assists materially in the development of the student as a student. These arguments are the justification for the inclusion of the Main Subject, or Special Field of Study courses in the curriculum of the English colleges of education. It would seem desirable, therefore, that more time should be devoted to academic studies, and less time to those of a professional nature during the first two years of the new four-year courses. It is argued that to overweight the courses too heavily with professional courses during the first two years is to put the cart before the horse in teacher education. A study of the selection procedures built into the new Transvaal courses reveals a possible reason for this course design. Students for the secondary course are to be selected on their performance at the end of the second year of study. Those who fail to gain selection for the secondary course at this stage will be deflected into other courses, unless they fail outright. It was proposed that students for admission to the secondary course should obtain a minimum mark of 60% in all subjects at the end of the second year. If they pass at the normal level (40%) but fail to obtain the higher level they will then be deflected into the Higher Primary Course.¹

3. Non-Graduate Courses for Primary School Teachers:

In an examination of the education of teachers for the primary

¹ Interview with senior officials of the Transvaal Education Department, Dr. A.L. Kotzee and Professor J. Jooste: 14.7.1967.

school a matter for concern with regard to the new courses in the Transvaal, is the discrimination in the length of college of education courses for teachers destined to teach in elementary and secondary schools. The Transvaal has made a four-year course obligatory for all students proposing to teach in the secondary school, but that training for the primary teacher may be of three- or four-years' duration with the ultimate provision that all courses shall be of four years' duration. The requirement contained in the National Education Policy Amendment Act is exactly the same - obligatory four-year training for secondary school teachers, but optional three- or four-year training for primary.

Dr. A.L. Kotzee has stressed that the modern teacher requires a more thorough professional and academic training than his predecessor.¹ With this argument there can be little dispute. The body of knowledge in all subjects is increasing at an amazing rate, the psychology of child behaviour and development is becoming more complex and we are on the threshold of a revolution in educational methodology and technology. All these factors and others demand a better educated teaching force. It must be stressed that this applies equally to all levels of teacher preparation. Indeed, the teacher being prepared for service in the primary school, and particularly at the infant or kindergarten level, bears an especially great responsibility in the establishment of communication skills upon which all subsequent education depends.

The proposal, therefore, that there should be a differentiation in the length of courses of training for primary and secondary teachers is unsupportable. If a four-year course is the necessary requirement for the training of a secondary teacher, then a primary teacher should receive a course training of similar duration. This raises again the argument enunciated above. The primary decision is without doubt the optimum length of course required for the initial preparation of the teacher based upon a professionally-constructed course, and eschewing all previously conceived notions regarding course content, as far as this can be done. Above all, the selection requirement that where a student fails to obtain a particular standard at the end of the second year of training, he is relegated to another course, usually for the preparation of teachers for the primary school, is professionally

¹ Interview with Dr. A.L. Kotzee: Transvaal Education Department: 24th July, 1967.

unsound and is not only likely to weaken the quality of teaching at the primary level, but is calculated to entrench further the two-tier status system in the teaching profession.

There seems in the Transvaal decision to adopt four-year training more than a suggestion that four-year courses are desirable because they represent the length of training undertaken by graduate teachers in the universities. There is no doubt that the universities have failed to produce, and, indeed, the schools to supply, sufficient candidates for preparation as secondary school teachers. This fundamentally has led to the extension of the rôle of the college of education into what was traditionally in the twentieth century been a university preserve. The debate now is to resolve the question of institutional rôles or to create new multi-purpose institutions which will take over from the existing ones. This question will be examined in Part Four of this study. It must, however, be stated emphatically that courses for the education of primary school teachers will not grow in stature where there is any tendency to regard such courses either as inferior, or as catering for inferior students. Such a policy would inevitably have an effect which will be transmitted throughout the teaching profession at primary school level.

4. Structure and Weighting of Primary Courses:

An examination of the structure of courses designed to prepare students to teach in the primary school reveals many of the features of those for the secondary school. For example, Table 32 shows the situation as far as the Transvaal courses are concerned.

The following points emerge from this analysis:

1. Overwhelming emphasis in the first three years of training is placed upon curriculum courses with particular stress being laid upon the official languages. For the purpose of the preparation of general teachers for service in the primary school, this policy is indeed the correct one. Emphasis upon communications studies for teachers working with young children is fundamental. It is felt however that the degree of weighting is a little excessive and that the time allocated to academic study should be stepped up slightly in the first and third years particularly, with a similar increase in emphasis on professional studies in the second and third years.

Table 32 : Structure and weighting of primary school teacher training courses : Transvaal¹

Area of studies	No. of periods per week				Percentage allocated			
	1	2	3	4 optional	1	2	3	4 optional
Professional studies	5	8	8	15	12.5	20	20	37.5
Curriculum studies	22	24	24	2	55	60	60	5
Art/Craft/Service courses	6	-	5	-	15	-	12½	-
Specialisation/Academic courses	6	7	2	22	15	17.5	5	55
College assembly	1	1	1	1	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Total	40	40	40	40	100	100	100	100

2. The aim of these courses is to provide better educated teachers for the modern school. Consideration must be given to the meaning of 'better educated' in terms of the teacher. Does it mean that the teacher must be better prepared in terms of existing methods and techniques, or does it mean that the teacher must be better educated in terms of independence of thought, of professional judgement, of ability to weigh, assess and select the most appropriate techniques and methods in terms of the developing offerings of the methodological revolution? Quite simply, the question is, are we concerned with producing a teacher for the schools of today, or is it our hope to produce a teacher who will have the professional initiative to meet the challenge of the schools of tomorrow. An examination of Table

¹ These figures are obtained from Figure 29 and relate in particular to the lower primary course. The pattern holds for the higher primary where curriculum courses account for 21 periods in second year and 25 periods in third year, and specialisation/academic courses which are allocated 10 periods per week in second year and six periods per week in third year. Groupings of courses are similar to those employed for the secondary school courses, viz.: professional studies include education and educational psychology; curriculum courses include religious instruction, languages, elementary science and hygiene, arithmetic/mathematics and the social studies; art/craft/service courses or practical skills include blackboard work, librarianship, art and craft, music, physical education.

32 suggests that the aim of the three-year course is to meet the requirements of the first definition. The fourth year is clearly necessary if we are to approach the second definition.

3. As long as four-year training is optional, how many young women, particularly, who form the vast majority of students in training for the primary school, will opt to undertake the further year? As a corollary to this, to what extent is it necessary in terms of the course as at present constituted to extend it over four years? It would seem possible that if a fundamental course reassessment were undertaken, a considerable amount of the valuable content both academic and professional, of the fourth year course could be included within the first three years. This, of course, would raise again the issues of 'parity of esteem' between courses of training for primary and secondary schools. The optional nature of four-year training means the preservation of a 3 + 1 course structure and effectively prevents the development of a fully integrated course.
4. The number of subjects prescribed particularly for Lower Primary seems to be excessive. 13 courses are laid down for first year, 10 for second year and again 13 in the third year. The Senior Primary has a better distribution with 13, 9 and 10 respectively. This distribution emphasises the criticism made by Bone of the subjects offered in the English College to which reference has already been made. 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 are felt to be more solid courses academically at least, for the preparation of non-graduate teachers for the secondary level. The four-year courses for secondary teachers in the Transvaal are subdivided as follows:- first year - 12, second - 10, third - 7 and fourth - 6. It is felt in general that the optional fourth year course for primary teachers with its requirement of five courses spread over education, educational psychology, religious instruction and the academic subjects or primary school semi-specialisms is one which offers considerable potential for student development.

5. The total number of periods per week extending over the four years including study periods amounts to 40. This allows for 33 teaching periods in first year, 30 in second and third years and 22 to 27 periods in the optional final year. It is felt that this lecture load is somewhat excessive and that the schedule of lectures should range from approximately 25 in first year to 18 to 20 in the final year.¹

This course structure re-emphasises the points already made regarding the way in which college of education courses have evolved and highlight the necessity for a fundamental reappraisal of the requirements of the initial course of teacher education for the primary school. This must be coupled with the reassessment of institutional rôles in the preparation of teachers for the secondary school.

Considerable attention has been devoted to an examination of the new courses introduced into the Transvaal in 1967. This does not imply any criticism of the Transvaal as such; rather, it is a critical assessment of the most recent trends in course development in South Africa. Other provinces are experiencing or have experienced precisely the same problems. In Natal, for example, serious criticism was levelled at the first year of the general course for primary teachers which contained thirteen sub-courses. This criticism found expression in the fact that in 1967 only 25% of students enrolled at the Natal Training College in Pietermaritzburg opted for the general course. The remaining 75% entered the secondary specialist courses.² The same trend was discernible at the Durban Training College, but was not so marked. The results of this was that the content of the general course was reviewed and the number of sub-courses reduced from 13 to 9. Such action was imperative in order to redress the imbalance of students in courses to provide for the requirements of the schools. Similar problems

¹ On this point, writing in the early 'fifties, McMagh put her finger on the issue: "So thorough is our employment of the students time, that he attends 33 lecture periods per week. (This applied to the two-year course then in operation)..... He emerges from all this as a competent classroom teacher with a blighted soul, a myopic view of his profession and aggrievance that his time at College was cruelly wasted": McMagh, P.G. "Some Recommendations with Reference to Teacher Training in the Transvaal in the light of the McNair Report", 1952: p.17.

² Interview with the Principal, Natal Training College: 15.9.67.

are to be found in other provinces as well.

In the Cape Province it is significant that three-year courses of training only became obligatory in the colleges of education in 1968. These courses were, of course, only for teachers being prepared for the primary school. It is interesting to note that 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% in the first year, 50% in the second, and 37.5% in the third in the junior primary course. In the professional subjects the allocation is 10%, 37.5% and 50% respectively, and in special subjects 15% are awarded in the first year, and 7.5% in each of the remaining two years. At the senior primary level the same principles of distribution are noted, viz. academic subjects 70%, 57.5%, 50-65% respectively; professional subjects 10%, 22.5% and 30%, and special subjects 15% in each of the three years. Religious Instruction accounts for 5% of the marks in each year of both courses.¹

This distribution 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. It should be noted that the first year course, apart from certain optional subjects in the specialist group, is a common one, thus giving the same 1 + 2 yr structure to courses as is evident in Natal.

The problem of course content reflects the problems referred to above, for the number of subjects in each course is as follows:

Junior primary: first year 13, second year 16, third year 15.
 Senior primary: " " 13, " " 12, " " 6.

This does not account for practice teaching for which the regulations lay down that "at least 250 hours must be given to teaching practice during the three-year course."² It would appear that in general the policy of reducing the number of subjects studied in the third year is to be commended in the promotion of self study and reflection on the part of the student.

³ Cape Province: Rules relating to the Training of and Examinations for White Teachers in Training Colleges: 1968: pp.12/13.

⁴ Ibid: p.23. In practice most colleges exceed this minimum. In practical terms this minimum requirement amounts to approximately 10 weeks.

5. Outline of General Initial Non-Graduate Courses for the Preparation of Teachers at Primary and Secondary Level:

The following is put forward in the light of study of courses currently being offered in colleges of education. These courses are planned to be of three years' duration.

(a) General Premises upon which course structures are based:

- (i) All courses should in the first instance be of three years' duration with an optional additional year in all courses which would only be offered to selected candidates. This might ultimately become the basis of a compulsory fourth year. This would depend upon the evolution of courses, as well as the professional requirements for teachers in the schools.
- (ii) All courses of an academic nature to set as high a standard as possible, this standard being submitted, when college departments are satisfied with it, to the regional university for recognition for degree purposes.
- (iii) The fourth year course in all cases to be regarded as Part II of the initial course of three years which would be complete in itself.
- (iv) All sub-courses in general to be not less than one semester (i.e. six months) in duration. The normal length of courses should be one year.
- (v) All major courses to comprise four main areas of study, and, ultimately, certification, viz.: theory of education, practice of education, academic courses, and curriculum/service courses.
- (vi) Consideration of the methods whereby syllabuses are to be recognised and examined will be considered in Part Four.
- (vii) In general, it is recognised that the main function of the college of education should be in the preparation and education of teachers for the primary school. In view of the current serious shortage of teachers at secondary level, it is recognised that the colleges have an important rôle to fulfil in this regard. This should be undertaken in liaison with the universities. Further consideration will be given to the organisation of this liaison in Part Four.

- (viii) One period per week is devoted to physical education throughout all courses, except where students are involved in teaching practice.
- (ix) The importance of Religious Instruction is acknowledged. There requires, however, to be a conscience clause in its application.

(b) Initial course for teachers at primary school level:

First Year: First Semester:

Academic Courses: two subjects to be undertaken, one chosen from the humanities, and one from the sciences.

Languages: both official languages to be studied at the appropriate level for the student. These courses are to be conceived on the basis of communications studies. Recourse to be had to the appropriate aids to learning including the language laboratory for the second language. These courses will be regarded as basic courses, tests to be undertaken at the commencement of the year to determine the student's point of entry to the course, and continuous assessment to be practised to determine if and when the student has satisfied the basic requirements of the course.

Number Work: numeracy as a communications skill to be determined and followed in a manner similar to that proposed for the Languages. It is stressed that the importance of this course is to develop the numerate concepts of the student, and not to impart the methodology of mathematics or arithmetic teaching. This will be done in the appropriate part of the course of methodology.

Environmental Studies: introductory courses in geography, history and biology to make the student a keen observer of his cultural and physical environment prior to his developing a similar attitude in the children he teaches.

Educational Handwork and new media: a comprehensive course covering the practical skills required by the teacher in the classroom. It would start with the simple, everyday skills - blackboard writing and illustration, and progress generally

through the principles of lesson illustration and practical handling of media involved and, ultimately, in the third year, becoming concerned with new media such as educational television. This course might be renamed Educational Technology.

First Year: Second Semester:

As for the first semester with the addition of:-

Educational Methodology: general basis of methodology with emphasis upon methods of language and number teaching.

Educational Psychology: child development in relation to theories of learning and the acquisition of skills in language and number.

Second Year: First Semester:

The first year is conceived as being a general introductory year involving on-going academic courses, together with a general introduction to practical skills and to children and their characteristics at the infant and junior school levels of development. Most students will have determined by the end of the first semester particularly after the initial experience in schools what age range they wish to teach. A final decision can be postponed until the end of the second semester when students have had further experience in schools as well as guidance from tutors and teachers in terms of student personality and temperament.

At the start of the second year students will definitely be launched into preparation for teaching in their chosen age range. However, it is important that they should not be exclusively concerned with working in this one particular field. Therefore, in courses where the opportunity presents itself, they will be encouraged to become involved in tutorial discussion with students from other groups so that there can be a cross-fertilisation of ideas as well as a developing awareness of the problems of other groups. In this way it is hoped that the essential continuity of the educative process will be brought home to students operating at all levels.

Subjects included:-

Education: general principles of education, school organisation and the features of an educational system.

Educational Psychology: the particular study of child development of the age range to be taught. This will be elaborated on upon the completion of the general picture of child development dealt with in first year.

Methodology: applicable to the particular range with which the student is concerned. Both general and specific methods will be dealt with, involving both general method and specialist subject lecturers.

Academic Course: one subject continued from first year and pursued to an advanced level.

Optional Subjects: one subject to be chosen from art, craft, music, needlework, librarianship, speech and drama.

Religious Instruction: this is aimed at developing a sympathy for and an interest in the presentation of non-denominational religious instruction. Clearly a conscience clause is necessary in the prescription of a course of this nature.

Second Year: Second Semester:

The subjects are the same as those outlined for the first semester, with the exception that Educational handwork and new media reappears with the main emphasis being on the second part.

Third Year: First Semester:

The same major subjects as proposed for the second year are to be continued in the third year permitting the achievement of greater depth as well as allowing some widening of syllabuses. The academic course is replaced by the second subject undertaken in first year, or, where possible, the second year course could be continued for a further course, or a new subject be undertaken as a one-year course. These options would depend upon the facilities available within a college.

As far as minor courses are concerned, the new media course would be pursued throughout the semester, while a one semester course on "Science for Beginners" would be offered in this half year.

Third Year: Second Semester:

With the final teaching practice taking place in the third term, there would be a concentration upon preparation for it. In the final term, the three main subjects: principles of education, educational psychology and the academic course only would be offered.

The final examinations for the compulsory three-year course would be held at the end of this semester, and a student's result in this examination together with the final teaching practice would determine whether or not he would be offered admission to the fourth year course.

Organisation of Teaching Practice:

This is a subject with which it is not proposed to deal in detail in this study for research in this field is at present in progress.¹

Optional Course in Fourth Year:

This course is to be regarded as an advanced course for students of considerable potential, and under no circumstances to be seen as an additional year in which weak students are allowed to develop. Such students should be required to reach an adequate standard in the three-year course by devoting more time to it, and not merely be passed hopefully onward. The fourth year course would also serve as a valuable additional year for teachers in-service, who wished to upgrade their qualifications or to pursue a course of study with a degree of specialisation in primary school work.

Subjects included:

1. one academic subject, which would either be an extension of studies already undertaken in the initial course, or an additional subject
2. sociology of education
3. comparative education
4. methodology, technology and psychology of education aimed at a specific type of child, and chosen from the gifted child, the normal child, the slow-learning child

¹ See van Eeden, J.H.: The Place of Practical Teaching in the Training Programme of Teachers: research for Ph.D. (UNISA) commenced 1966: H.S.R.C. Register of Research, 1969.

Teaching Practice:

The final term of the fourth year to be devoted to teaching practice, on a 'home-areas' basis, of classes approximating to the area of specialisation of the student. These students will have already completed the initial course of training and will therefore be certificated teachers. They should take charge of a class releasing normal class teachers to provide an opportunity for these teachers to become involved in in-service courses of training. The problem of school examinations in the final term (where these occur) would be overcome by the normal teacher setting the final examinations which would be administered and marked by the student. Such students should receive remuneration for their work, and should be visited by college tutors.

The time allocation analysis of this proposed course is set out in Table 33 below. This allocation is based on periods of 45 minutes each, as against the 35 minute periods in operation in the Transvaal colleges. It is felt that the shorter lecture period is to a certain extent wasteful of time in circulation of students as well as giving a very short time to lecturers for exposition. Thus, the 26 periods in first year in the proposed course gives a total of $19\frac{1}{2}$ hours of teaching as opposed to $19\frac{1}{4}$ hours in 33 periods as in the Transvaal at present.

Table 33 : Analysis of time allocation in a proposed primary teacher training course

Area of studies	Year	Periods per week			
		1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Academic studies		6	6	6	6
Professional studies		0/6	11	9	11
Curriculum courses		16/13	5	2	0
Service courses		4/1	1	3	1
Total		26	23	20	18
Teaching practice (weeks)		$3\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	8

It is claimed that this allocation which is based upon actual teaching periods has certain features to commend it, including:

1. a more reasonable allocation of teaching periods within which to encourage student maturity and development;
2. an emphasis upon curriculum courses at the start of the course with a rapid replacement of them with more truly professional courses as knowledge, experience and maturity develops. These curriculum courses, particularly as regards language studies and proficiency, are conceived as requiring the attainment of a satisfactory standard. Once this had been achieved the courses would be discontinued. Failure to achieve the required standard would result in students having to carry on with the courses until the requirements had been satisfied.
3. the aims of the course are through academic studies and curriculum courses to build up student maturity and to give the background of school subjects, coupled with both a practical and theoretical knowledge of developmental psychology to build up the professional education of the teacher. It is felt that the course allows for this through the changing emphasis as it develops.

(c) Initial Course for Non-Graduate Teachers at Secondary School level:

The general aims and principles enunciated for the preparation of teachers for the primary school are valid for those for the secondary school, with some obvious but not fundamental differences:-

- (i) Academic subjects must play a greater part in the curriculum. These should be planned to broaden and deepen subject knowledge as well as to embrace the requisite methodology. University recognition should be sought for these courses in particular.
- (ii) Professional studies should develop progressively throughout the course as is the case in the primary school course. Particular stress must be laid in the developmental psychology as well as in methodology on the adolescent.
- (iii) The curriculum courses must be reduced in number but must include basic courses in languages (at the appropriate levels), number and religious instruction.

- (iv) Service courses are also reduced to a minimum and include educational handwork and new media, physical education and one optional subject of a cultural nature to be determined in accordance with the main academic subjects being studied.
- (v) Teaching practice arrangements are as for the primary school course with the exception that students are placed in secondary schools. In the first group practice, however, they must have experience of junior school classes and organisation.
- (vi) It is re-emphasised that the duration of the course is the same length as for the primary school - that is, a compulsory three-year course, followed by a one-year optional course for selected students.
- (vii) The basis of selection for primary and secondary courses is to be on aptitude, interest and attainment in the academic subjects and is to be made as a result of continuous assessment at the end of the first semester. This decision could be postponed until the end of the first year in certain circumstances.

The subject breakdown and time allocation is set out in Table 34:

Table 34 : Secondary school course : Breakdown and Time Allocation

Subject Year area	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Academic studies	2 Academic subjects (6)	2 Academic subjects(10)	2 Academic subjects(10)	2 Academic subjects(10)
Professional studies	Nil in first semester Methodology(3) Psychology (3)	Principles (4) Psychology (4)	Principles(3) Psychology(3) Subject method (2)	Education (4) Method (2) Psychology (2)
Curriculum courses	Languages 2 (6) Arithmetic/ Mathematics(4)	Religious Instruction(2) Options course (2)	-	-
Service/option courses	Phys.Educ. (1) Educational Handwork (2) 1st and 3rd terms	Physical Education(1)	Physical Education(1) Educational Handwork/ New Media(2)	Physical Education(1)
Total	25	23	21	19
Teaching Practice (weeks)	3½	6	6	8

This course structure integrates reasonably well with that proposed for the primary school, both professionally and administratively. Approximately the same balance of teaching periods per week has been maintained for each year. The first year can be regarded administratively as a common year, permitting the operation of key selection procedures. At the same time there is a flexibility which permits the differentiated training to operate fully from the end of the first semester. Academic courses are given prominence throughout and roughly balance the professional and service courses. These academic courses could be organised with some flexibility permitting the study of two major subjects throughout the course, or allowing of one major and two minor courses. This organisation would depend upon the resources of the college. The professional courses in the fourth year would be modelled on the same pattern as the primary course - they would be directed to the study of the normal child or the slow-learning child at the adolescent level. Teaching practice is distributed in precisely the same way as in the primary school course. As already noted, the first group practice should be undertaken in the primary school. The follow-up 'home areas' practice would then be based on the acquisition of experience in Standard VI. Subsequent practices would be within the range of Standards VI to VIII with practice being obtained throughout the whole range of differentiation provided.

The basic courses outlined in this chapter are intended as general courses, and do not include specialisms as are provided for in a number of college courses at the present time. These include art, industrial arts, physical education, music, commerce, etc. In essence these courses will conform to the general pattern of basic courses. Thus, where specialisms are being provided for, the specialism will replace the academic content of the basic general courses. The nature of the professional courses will depend upon the level for which the specialisms are designed. Thus, for example, industrial arts will be incorporated in secondary courses, while physical education would be offered at both primary and secondary levels.

A notable omission from both these courses as outlined is speech training and therapy. It is intended that this aspect will first receive attention in the language courses, be followed up in the group

teaching practice and thereafter be kept in mind in tutorial sessions and subsequent teaching practices. Students having particular weakness would be referred to speech therapists for assistance.

Table 35 shows the time allocation in both these initial courses expressed on a percentage basis which tends to bring out more clearly the emphasis placed on each study area of the two courses. In addition, teaching practice has been included on a comparative basis by expressing the period spent in schools in each year as a percentage of the whole year. For this purpose, the academic year is estimated to have a duration of 33 weeks in all.

Table 35 : Time allocation in initial courses on a percentage basis¹

Course \ Year	P r i m a r y				S e c o n d a r y			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Subject area								
Academic	23	26	30	33	24	43	48	53
Professional	0/23	48	45	61	24	35	38	42
Curriculum	62/50	22	10	0	40	18	0	0
Service	15/4	4	15	6	12	4	14	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Teaching practice	10.5	18	18	24	10.5	18	18	24

It appears from this table and the contrast with existing course structures that some of the criticisms of the latter are met to a certain extent by these proposals. Firstly, the dichotomy of existing course

¹ These calculations are based on actual time allocations as set out in Tables 33 and 34. They should be examined together with the percentage distributions as set out in Tables 31 and 32. Care must be exercised in contrasting Table 31 and Table 35. To obtain a true comparison of time allocated to professional studies in the latter, professional, curriculum and service courses must be added together, giving over the four-year primary course, 77% in first year, 74% in second, 70% in third and 67% in fourth. In the secondary course, these totals are respectively 76%, 57%, 52% and 47%.

structures has been overcome. It may be argued that the optional fourth year course inevitably confers a 3 + 1 type arrangement on the courses. This is undeniable, but the generic 2 + 1 or 1 + 2 features have been avoided. Additionally, the optional final year provides not only for advanced training for selected students, but can be utilised as a means of upgrading the qualifications of teachers already in service.

The proposed courses represent an attempt to ensure that logical and rational emphasis operates throughout the four years. Thus, academic courses develop steadily throughout, while basic curriculum subjects are provided in the main at the start of the courses in order that students may have the basic equipment with which to enter schools, upon which practical experience the proper professional courses are built in second and subsequent years. This should contribute in turn to a proper balance of professional and practical content.

Criticisms will no doubt be advanced that these courses represent a radical departure from existing ones. This is acknowledged in that a number of short courses of a traditional character have been sacrificed in the interests of the integration and professionalising of teacher education. The need at the present time, not only in South Africa, but elsewhere, is for controlled experimentation in the evolution of courses for the preparation of teachers. As has already been stated, it is necessary to undertake a critical re-examination of traditional curriculum content; these proposals are an attempt to do this.

It must be emphasised that this is a suggestion only. There should be no attempt at the present time to formulate a single curriculum design for application on a national basis. What is necessary is that each institution, or group of institutions, however these are linked, should work towards the evolution of courses which meet the requirements of modern education based upon sound principles of teacher education applied in the circumstances of a particular area or region. It is possible that such courses might move towards a common basis with interchange of ideas between groups of institutions on a regional or national basis. The first stage to be reached on a national basis would be agreement on the fundamental principles of curriculum design rather than the details of course and subject content. This aspect of teacher education will be more fully developed in Part Four.

Chapter Twelve: Institutions for Teacher Education and the
Courses offered (II)

University Faculties and Departments of Education

The manner in which the universities came to be involved in the pattern of teacher education in South Africa and the steps by which first Departments and subsequently Faculties of Education were built up have already been dealt with. The necessity for a professional training after the three-year degree course came to be realised in the first two decades of the century and thus it is now some fifty years since the typical university pattern of a professional course following upon the general degree in which were included a varying proportion of "school" or "teaching" subjects was introduced. There were at the time, and still are both here and overseas, those who argue that the necessary preparation for the graduate teacher is to be found in his undergraduate studies. It was, in fact, the Broome Report of 1937 in Natal which noted that the private schools in that province did not consider that professional training of the graduate was necessary. It should be stated, however, that the Broome Commission dissociated itself from this opinion.¹ The situation in England and Wales is that although qualified teacher status is still accorded graduates, increasing emphasis is being placed by local education authorities upon professional training.

Thus, by the 1920s the pattern of four-year training for graduates within the universities, as opposed to two-year non-graduate training in the teachers' colleges had come to be recognised as a normal requirement for secondary school teachers. It is to be noted, en passant, that these schools at the time catered for an academic curriculum only and, therefore, the secondary school was automatically and exclusively, the preserve of the graduate. It is only since the second World War that this situation has altered radically, requiring a diversification in training methods and techniques to cater for differentiated secondary curricula. This has resulted, as has become obvious, in both the universities and the colleges undertaking operations which in a sense

¹ Province of Natal: Report of the Provincial Education Commission, 1937, (Broome Report), para 251: p.51.

cover common ground. It is this coming together of interests which presents an argument in favour of rationalisation and co-ordination of efforts in the field; this topic will be returned to in Part Four.

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. Although the length of training is similar to that in Engineering, 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. Thus, the similarity to the situation in Law is even closer. The question of desirability of 'end-on' as opposed to concurrent academic and professional studies is a question exercising the universities. It is interesting to note that a similar situation has in a sense arisen in Law Departments and Faculties with the institution of the B. Juris Degree in a number of South African universities in recent years.¹

1. Initial Courses for the Preparation of Graduate Teachers:

"All the universities in South Africa have concerned themselves with providing post-graduate degree courses in education..... Generally speaking the universities have catered more specifically for secondary school teachers. Nevertheless, the majority have in recent years provided training for primary school teachers and for specialist teachers of certain subjects in the primary and secondary school."² The broad generalisation of this statement conceals the manner in which the university contribution to the education of teachers has developed in this country, as well as the structure of initial courses within the university. It is to this that it is important that attention should now be given.

¹ Recognised by the University of Cape Town in 1967 and debated by the Senate of the University of Natal in 1968, this degree is recognised by the Courts and Law Societies as providing legal training in 1970.

² Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: pp.263-4.

To do this it is necessary to trace the present University Education, Higher Education Diploma or Secondary Teacher's Diploma from its origin in the First Class Teacher's Certificate awarded before the formation of Union. In the Report of the Director of Education of the Transvaal Colony in 1906 the following regulation is laid down:

"Head and assistant teachers of secondary schools, and head teachers of elementary schools who have taught successfully for six years in the service of the Department and are holders of the Second Class Certificate, will be granted by the Director of Education a First Class Certificate after presenting an original thesis of approved merit in some professional subject, and travelling for one year in one or more foreign countries, with a view to additional study in the subject of their thesis, and presenting a report on such travel approved by the Director of Education."¹

In the following year Mr. Adamson (later Sir John Adamson) reported on regulations proposed by him to a meeting of Directors of Education held to consider the question of the certification of teachers. His proposal for a new South African First Class Teacher's Certificate included the following points:-

1. Age at which professional examination to be taken: 25 years.
2. Professional experience: 5 years as a pupil teacher.
3. Method of training:
 - (a) as a student of a training institution;
 - OR (b) as a private student.
4. Requirements:
 - (a) academic:
 - (i) a university degree;
 - OR (ii) the completion of an extended course of reading and study to the satisfaction of a South African Board.
 - (b) professional:
 - (i) careful study of the principle ends of education and teaching, with Logic and Ethics included;
 - (ii) study of the history of educational ideas;
 - (iii) study of the system of one or more educationalists;

¹ Transvaal Colony: Report of the Director of Education, 1906.

- (iv) a comparative study of South African systems and at least one extra-African system of education;
- (v) a study of the general principles of method and school organisation;
- (vi) success in the practice of teaching.¹

Here we see in embryo the basic principles of the one-year post-graduate professional course for the preparation of teachers in the South African universities, the first four of which were in operation. Also evident between the reports of 1906 and 1907 were the germs of dispute regarding the purpose of the First Class Certificate - to reward the promising experienced teacher or to set the seal upon the professional studies of the graduate.

In 1912, the Under-Secretary of the Union Education Department reported: "Bepalingen voor de opleiding van en toekenning van diploma's aan, onderwijzers aan het eksamen voor de onderwijzersakte van de eerste klas, werden bekend gemaakt in de Staatskoerant van de 29ste Oktober, 1912 en zijn ter tafel van beide Huizen van het Parlement geligd. Leergangen zijn sedert uitgegwen en kursussen ingericht aan de volgende Universiteitskolleges:

Het Zuid-Afrikaanse Kollege
 Het Victoria Kollege
 Het Grey Universiteitskollege
 Het Transvaal Universiteitskollege

.....Voorts sal worden opgemerkt dat alleen gegraduëerden en bezitters van diploma's die gelijkstaande geacht worden met het B.A. diploma, tot die kursus toegelaten word.....

Het hoofdoel van het Departement is om door middel van deze kursus en het eksamen, onderwijzers voor het middelbaar onderwijs en toekomstige skoolhoofden te leweren en over het algemeen de akademiese en professionele status van de onderwijzer te verhogen."²

In his report of the same year Adamson commented somewhat

¹ Abstracted from Transvaal Colony: Report of the Director of Education, 1907.

² Unie van Zuid Afrika: Rapport van de Ondersekretaris van Onderwijs over de Twee Jaren geëindigd op de 31st Desember, 1912: p.5.

critically upon the proposed new type of First Class Certificate.

"It is in every sense desirable that the university colleges should take up the work of training teachers. The supply is woefully short, and, moreover, we want to get hold of the young graduate and attract him to the schools. Very grave dissatisfaction is, however, likely to be caused in the ranks of teachers already in the service of the Provinces if the highest teaching diploma, the first-class certificate, is awarded to these young recruits who have never gone through the mill of the third and second class courses, while a particularly insurmountable obstacle in the shape of a degree will prevent many capable and experienced veterans in the service from obtaining it..... A first class certificate should aim at raising the professional standing of the whole body of teachers, rather than at providing for a special few."¹

This criticism was taken up by the Secretary for Education in his report for 1913. "The object is to supply subject teachers for the secondary school and, after successful experience, principals of schools; nor is it claimed that 'a young graduate necessarily of relative inexperience on the professional side' should be preferred to capable veterans in the service who do not hold a first class certificate, but it is held that, after having had several years of successful experience, he should be entitled to full consideration on account of his attainments as evidenced by his certificate." It is subsequently stated in the same report that "it is desirable that the training of teachers (at least for the two higher certificates) should be carried on in the University Colleges."²

The Report of the 1914 University Commission indicated that the last word had been spoken as to the nature of the First Class Certificate when it stated that this "is now confined to graduates of the University who have gone through an approved course and passed an examination conducted by the Union Department of Education. It consists of two parts of which the second will be held for the first time in the present year. It is understood that in future none but the holders of such certificates are to be regarded as eligible in the ordinary course, for

¹ Transvaal Education Department: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1912: pp.47-49.

² Union of South Africa: Annual Report of the Secretary of Education, 1913: p.10.

the position of Principals of High Schools."¹

The Laurance Commission stressed the need for co-ordination of and co-operation in the training of students at this level. "The University and the Departments should co-operate by means of a systematised correlation of academical and experimental work. The teachers of youth should be inspired with high aims and fortified with high example; he.....should be steeped in the literature of the subject; they should be keen and alert to study modern developments, such as the problems of experimental psychology; at the same time the student should be learning how to handle a class, to cultivate heuristic methods, to awaken interest, stimulate intelligence and inspire thought. Above all, the teacher should always remember that, if his teaching is to be fruitful, he must never cease to be a learner."² These sentiments find greater acceptance than the grammatical constructions by which they are given expression.

The post-graduate concept of the First Class Teacher's Certificate was given its final form as a joint operation between the universities and the Union Education Department in Amended Regulations in May 1918. These regulations laid down, inter alia, that:

- "2. There shall be a course of training for the First Class Certificate at such University Colleges as may be recognised by the Minister;
8. Courses shall extend over 18 months and shall commence in February of each year;
9. The course shall provide instruction, inter alia, in the theory and practice of teaching and education, with such branches of science and philosophy as are pertinent thereto, together with the history of education;
10. No students shall be admitted to the course who have not obtained the B.A. degree of a University of the Union of

¹ Union of South Africa: Report of the University Commission (the Laurance Commission), 1914, pp.16-17. An interesting point which is still the subject of educational debate is raised in this report: "It is a question whether the professional training should come after the completion of the academic course, or run concurrently with it. We cannot doubt that the two should be kept apart, and that we should aim at a two years' professional course following upon graduation or its equivalent for all secondary teachers." Quoted in the Laurance Report (p.17) from the Report of the Fremantle Commission.

² Ibid: p.18.

- of South Africa, or do not possess qualifications deemed by the Minister to be equivalent thereto;
11. There shall be an examination which shall be taken in two parts;
26. The course of study shall comprise:
- Blackboard work, including drawing;
 - School hygiene and physical training;
 - Vocal music or instrumental music or bookkeeping and typing;
 - Manual training: woodwork for men and needlework for women;
 - Theory and practice of education;
 - History of Education;
 - Scientific and philosophical bases of education;
 - Language: English and Dutch (or Afrikaans) or other modern languages;
 - Methods of teaching of two secondary school subjects."¹

This matter of the introduction of post-graduate university courses for the preparation of teachers has been dealt with in some detail, for it is felt that in these initial arrangements are contained the problems both of organisation and of course content which still exercise an influence over the university courses up to the present time. At first the operation was seen as a joint one with the university in the rôle of the teacher and the Union Education Department as the examiner. This has gradually changed with the growth of independent status of the universities to the point at which they rightly discharge both functions. With regard to course content, the influence of the 1918 Amended Regulations are to be seen in certain modern courses which still seek to continue the dichotomy of training for a craft as well as providing for the professional education of the student.

One other feature of the modern system of university courses for the preparation of teachers which has been inherited from the second decade of the present century is the matter of constitutional provision for education at higher level. The Act of Union laid down that all education other than higher education should be the responsibility of

¹ Union of South Africa: Union Education Department: Amended Regulations of the Teacher's First Class Certificate, and for Certain Special Courses, May, 1918.

the provincial authorities. Teacher training at a post-matriculation level, which rapidly came to be the accepted norm in the decade of the 'twenties, was seen by the Union Education Department and the universities to be 'higher education'. At the same time the provinces argued that since they had responsibility for primary and secondary education, this must also be taken to include responsibility for the preparation of teachers for these schools. Thus, the anomalous position has arisen, which is only being resolved in the 'seventies. Both the provincial authorities and the universities established the right to prepare teachers in colleges of education and universities through numerous and differing courses for service in both primary and secondary schools. It is this situation which has in turn led to the confusion of a multiplicity of teacher's certificates and diplomas being awarded in South Africa.

Joint control over the highest teacher's diploma award has long since disappeared, the certificate is no longer designated the Teacher's First Class Certificate, but instead is known as the University Education Diploma, the Secondary Teacher's Diploma or the Higher Education Diploma, and it is awarded variously by Universities or by the Provincial Education authority, as is the case in the Transvaal. The course itself is now generally one year in duration after graduation, although new devices for concurrent studies are being experimented with. It is interesting to record that in 1927 the Principal of the Johannesburg Normal College advocated the removal of secondary teacher training from the college to the university. "When the responsible educational authorities review the whole system of teacher training, it is hoped that the universities will be asked to take the whole responsibility for the training of (graduate) teachers upon their own shoulders, because the university already provides practical training for students in other professions. When such a system of control is in operation, the young teacher will be freed from the present unfortunate position in which he finds himself, subject to external criticism resulting in difficult situations arising from his earnest attempts to serve faithfully the two institutions."¹ In fact, what has subsequently happened in the Transvaal

¹ Transvaal Education Department: Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1927: Report on the Normal Colleges.

is that in a number of instances all initial secondary teacher preparation courses have been moved into the colleges of education rather than into the universities.

Accepting, then, the basis upon which teacher training courses were established in the South African universities, it is not surprising to find that the present pattern is a complex one. Table 36 gives an indication of the courses currently available. An examination of this table reveals two basic courses of initial training for the general practitioner:

1. The University Education Diploma, the Secondary Teacher's Diploma or the Higher Education Diploma is offered in the main at graduate level. This post-graduate course of one year's duration is in direct line of descent from the Teacher's First Class Certificate outlined above. A non-graduate variant of this for secondary school teachers is offered by five universities, the curriculum being 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 Teacher's Diploma.
2. The Higher Primary Teacher's 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. Four universities offer this course of training while four offer a graduate alternative to this course for graduates wishing to teach at primary school level.

To assess the contribution being made to teacher education by the universities it is necessary to examine these two basic courses in some detail.

2. The Post-Graduate Training Course:

An analysis of the curricula of these courses is to be found in Table 37. An examination of this table reveals that the number of subjects studied varies between eight and fourteen within the three main curriculum areas of professional or main subjects, additional subjects of

Table 36 : Initial Courses for the Training of Teachers offered at South African Universities

Course Institution	School Level of Courses	University of Capetown	University of Natal	University of Orange Free State	University of Port Elizabeth	University of Pitchef- stroom	University of Pretoria	Randse Afrikaanse Universi- teit	Rhodes University	University of Stellen- bosch	University of Witwaters- rand	University of South Africa	
Post-Graduate Courses	Secondary school	Secondary Teachers Diploma	University Education Diploma (graduate)	University Education Diploma (graduate)	Secondary Teachers Diploma	Higher Education Diploma	Higher Education Diploma	Initial training courses undertaken at the Goudstad College of Education	University Education Diploma (graduate)	Secondary Teachers Diploma	Initial training courses undertaken at the Johannes- burg College of Education	University Education Diploma	
	Primary School	Post- Graduate Primary Teachers Diploma				Higher Primary Graduate Diploma	Post- Graduate Diploma in Infant Education			Higher Primary Teachers Diploma (graduate)			Not initial training - upgrading of Professional Certificate *
	Specialised Courses	Diploma for Special Teachers	Certificate in Remedial Education				H.E.D. with special- isation in 1.Guidance 2.School Music 3.Physical Education						
Non-Graduate Courses	Secondary School		University Education Diploma (non- graduate)		Lower Secondary Teachers Diploma	Higher Education Diploma (non- graduate)		Initial training courses undertaken at the Goudstad College of Education	U.E.D. (non- graduate) University Art Teachers Certificate Lower Second- ary Teachers Diploma Univ. Diploma for Teachers of Music	Lower Secondary Teachers Diploma	Initial training courses undertaken at the Johannes- burg College of Education		
	Primary School	Higher Primary Teachers Diploma 1.General 2.Speech 3.Drama 4.Art 5.Music		Non- Graduate training done in associa- tion with the College of Education			Higher Primary Teachers Diploma Diploma in Infant Education			Higher Primary Teachers Diploma (non- graduate)			
	Specialised Courses	Certificates for Teachers of Problem Children H.P.T.D. endorsement for 1.Special Class 2.Handicap- ped in Speech & Hearing	Certificate in Remedial Education				Diploma in Musical Education Diploma in Domestic Science		Diploma in Special Education 1.Logopedics 2.Deaf 3.Poor sight Diploma in: 1.Physio- therapy 2.Occup- ational therapy			Primary Teachers Certificate in Art	Teachers Diploma in 1.Domestic Science & Needlework 2.Physical Education Diploma for 1.Art Teachers 2.Teachers of Special Classes
Language Medium of Institution		ENGLISH	ENGLISH	AFRIKAANS	AFRIKAANS /ENGLISH	AFRIKAANS	AFRIKAANS	AFRIKAANS	ENGLISH	AFRIKAANS	ENGLISH	AFRIKAANS /ENGLISH	

Sources: 1967/68 Handbooks and Calendars of South African Universities.

* Subsequently
modified

Table 37 : A Comparative Analysis of Initial Post-Graduate Courses of Training at South African Universities

Institution Curriculum Area	University of Capetown	University of Natal	University of Orange Free State	University of Port Elizabeth	University of Potchefstroom	University of Pretoria	Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit	Rhodes University	University of Stellenbosch	University of the Witwatersrand	University of South Africa
Philosophical and Main Subjects	Theory of education History of education (incl. education in South Africa) Educational psychology General methods Methods of secondary subjects	Principles of education South African education Educational psychology General methods Methods of secondary subjects Sociology of education or Comparative education	Philosophy of education History of education Educational psychology Educational administration Methods of secondary subjects	Philosophy of education History of education Educational psychology General didactics Didactic philosophy Social pedagogy Introduction to Orthopedagogy Educational administration	Theory of education Empirical education History of education Practical education	Philosophy of education Historical pedagogy Educational psychology Educational sociology General didactics Methods of secondary subjects	Initial training undertaken at Goudstad College of Education	Principles & History of education General educational method Educational psychology Methods of secondary subjects	Philosophy of education Educational administration & History of education in South Africa Educational psychology Didactics Methods of secondary subjects	Initial training undertaken at the Johannesburg College of Education	Philosophy of education History of education Empirical education Method and administration Methods of secondary subjects
Additional Subjects	Religious instruction or Vocational guidance	One of: School librarianship School drama Games coaching	One of: Speech Music and appreciation Art history and appreciation Physical education Youth work	One of: Youth work School music Games coaching	Introductory course on: Principles & methods of primary school Course on: Principles & methods of secondary education Methods of secondary subjects	Methods of primary subjects Religious instruction Physical education Hygiene and Physiology		One of: School art Music appreciation Games coaching Play production Woodwork/Needlework Shorthand Typing Librarianship Religious instruction or Advanced Shorthand & Typing or Craftwork	One of: Religious instruction Art appreciation School music Youth leadership Librarianship Typing Industrial arts Speech and Drama Special physical education Clinical educational psychology		
Practical and Curriculum Subjects	Speech: English Afrikaans Specialised teaching a) Lesson preparation b) Blackboard work Hygiene and First Aid	Speech Language media: English Afrikaans New media	Practical auxiliary subjects in one group: Audio-visual & Blackboard Hygiene Librarianship Language media: English Afrikaans	Speech: English Afrikaans Audio-visual education	Language media: Afrikaans English School hygiene Educational aids School librarianship One or two of: Physical education Industrial arts Speech Typing	Blackboard work Speech Educational aids One of: Music Needlework/ Woodwork Art Librarianship Language media		Language media Speech training School hygiene	Language media Practical teaching -Audio-visual -Blackboard		Speech Training* Blackboard work School librarianship School hygiene Language media
Practice teaching	2 half days per week in 3 half terms Continuous practice in fourth term	Preliminary 2 week course 7/8 weeks in second term	Minimum of 50 criticism lessons during teaching practice throughout the year	2 weeks prior to registration Teaching practice in each of two semesters	Teaching practice throughout the year	3 weeks prior to registration At least 8 weeks in school during year		Not less than 35 school days	2 weeks prior to registration: 1st 3 weeks of 3rd quarter: 1 day per week in first semester		Practical teaching tests

Source: 1967/68 Calendars and Handbooks of South African Universities

*These subjects depend on admission level

a professional or practical nature offered usually as an optional choice, and a group of basic practical subjects. It is to be noted that in some universities the basic unit of study is the semester course e.g. Port Elizabeth whereas in others subject courses extend over the whole year. Between these two extremes there are a number of variations, e.g. Natal offers some courses extending over the whole year and others arranged as intensive single semester courses applied at the stage most appropriate to student development. The first group of professional or main subject courses vary in number from five to eight and can therefore be seen to constitute the centre of study. Additional courses of an optional nature vary between one and three, while the basic practical subjects range between two and five. Practical teaching is common in all courses. There is, then, a common basic structure to the post-graduate course consisting of three main pillars:-

1. the philosophical and methodological basis of education;
2. a practical side promoting the growth of the student as a classroom practitioner; and
3. practical teaching which seeks to blend the first two to promote the development of the student as a professional teacher and to facilitate his entry into the school situation.

The provision of additional studies is seen as being complementary to one and two above by providing optional courses to develop student interests which have a relevance in the secondary school situation. This explains the optional choice offered in this area of study.

Professional Subjects Studied:

What subjects are included in each of the three curriculum areas? In the main or professional subject area there is, not surprisingly, a large measure of agreement. All the universities include philosophy (under a variety of names), educational psychology, history of education or aspects of South African education, and methods of teaching usually divided into general methods and specific methods of school subjects in which the student has 'majored' for his degree. This means a further division of the main subject area into philosophical and methodological components. Further subjects offered within this area but not common to all universities include Educational Administration, Educational Sociology, Comparative Education and a course introductory to Remedial Education. It is felt that in some courses Educational Administration

will be dealt with in varying degrees of detail within the context of Philosophy, Methodology and South African Education. It is obviously important that all students should have had some introduction to the subject and that it must be included in the course. A case can be made for the inclusion of both Sociology and Comparative Education, the former having a stronger claim at the level of initial training. An introduction to remedial education is not felt to be justified for inclusion in an initial course of training, for such study must follow upon the student's successful experience with the normal or 'average' child.

Within the additional subject range the following subjects are offered: School Librarianship, Games Coaching or Physical Education, Music, Art and Craft, Religious Instruction, School Drama, Youth Work or Leadership, and Guidance. All these subjects have a relevance and, therefore, their inclusion in the initial course of training can be justified. At secondary school level, however, it is customary for Music, and Art and Craft to be undertaken by specialist teachers. Youth work and youth leadership within the context of the present sociological revolution must assume an increasing importance and therefore there is increasing justification for its inclusion, but only with extreme caution because of the danger of indoctrination inherent in both these subjects. Guidance is a subject which is also of increasing importance and for which some provision should be made in the training of secondary teachers. The system of semi-specialised training in guidance as offered by the University of Stellenbosch commends itself. In this case a student who has successfully completed two courses of Psychology for degree purposes is permitted to take a course in Guidance in lieu of a secondary school method subject. It is interesting to note that a student who has completed three years of Psychology is permitted to undertake a one-year course in clinical educational psychology. This would, however, remove Guidance from the list of additional offerings and place it in the methodological group within the main subject category.

In the area of basic practical studies, two subjects are widely accepted, viz.: Audio-Visual Education (known by a variety of names), and School Hygiene, Physiology or First Aid. It seems that the first of these courses is fundamental in any curriculum for the preparation of teachers. The revolution in methodology is closely involved in technology and students must be made aware of the limitations as well as the potentialities of the new devices and their application in new and

varied classroom techniques. For this reason this course must have two characteristics:-

1. it must deal with new devices such as language laboratories, closed circuit television and the like, and not merely with the simpler projectors and tape recorders, which are no longer to be regarded as new media;
2. it must be closely concerned with the integration of the new teaching machines in the present and developing classroom situation. Thus there requires to be a very close co-ordination with the course in general methods of teaching.

Hygiene or one of its variants is undoubtedly of importance for the teacher. It is felt, however, that a general course on physiology or hygiene is more appropriate in the training of general class teachers for the primary school. What is essential is that the secondary school teacher should have an awareness of the problems of defective hearing and vision as they affect the performance of the pupil, and of first aid with particular reference to laboratory practice and to injuries sustained in the school playing fields. It is considered that these aspects could perhaps best be dealt with in such courses as secondary method courses in the sciences, (laboratory first-aid), and in the games coaching course, rather than in a separate course which is compulsory for all students. The importance of first-aid is, however, not to be minimised and all teachers should be encouraged officially to take the courses offered by such organisations as the Red Cross and St. John's Ambulance Brigade. It is felt that these organisation are better fitted to undertake such work than the majority of university departments of education.

Of the other courses offered in this group, shorthand and/or typing and specialised teaching courses which include blackboard work and lesson preparation are the most common. Facility in shorthand and typing is undoubtedly of great advantage to the secondary school teacher. A question of priorities, however, arises here for the issue quite clearly is what is to be included in the limited scope of a one-year course. If it can be argued that the professional and curriculum studies have been adequately catered for, then there is justification for the inclusion of this subject in the initial course of training. If this is not the case and a professional or practical subject has to be excluded or reduced in time because of it, then its inclusion in the

course is much more difficult to justify. In the matter of the subjects included within the framework of the course in specialised teaching, viz. blackboard work and lesson preparation, it is felt that this is properly the field of general method and it should not be included as a separate subject.

The remaining subjects which figure in this group are not widely offered, occurring in less than three instances each. They include industrial arts and the option of woodwork and needlework for male and female students respectively. Again, the opinion must be expressed that the inclusion of such courses in the crowded curriculum of the one-year specialist graduate course is open to question. These courses are more properly the function of a college of education where, in the main, better provision can be made for them than in the academic environment of the modern university. The final subject offered in this group is a highly specialised one available at Stellenbosch University for students who have completed three courses of Psychology. This is in Clinical Psychology, to which reference has already been made.

3. Curriculum Design:

From this brief survey of the one-year initial courses for graduate teachers provided at the South African universities, one fundamental question emerges: what subjects should be included in the initial course of training for graduates? To answer this question with any hope of objectivity we have to consider first the matter of aims in teacher education. It was Leonard Calvert in a paper on "New Experiments in Teacher Education" who said that "the common aim is to achieve quality education for school children in the face of a shortage of teachers on the one hand and of an explosion of knowledge on the other."¹ Few will take exception to this definition in the face of our present situation in South Africa. It is necessary, however, to add a rider: 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 secondary school in the post-war world. Calvert thus implies that for the modern school the need is for a teacher who must at once be:

- (a) better professionally prepared for a task which must become

¹ Calvert, Leonard: New Experiments in Education: Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.476.

- 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.

In the case of the graduate teacher the third of these requirements is fulfilled in large measure by 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 the schools and of society. Curriculum content must not be retained on a criterion of tradition. It is for this reason that the claim of certain subjects for inclusion in courses offered in South Africa has been questioned.

It should be stated at once that such practice is not confined to this country. Courses on a world-wide basis must be constantly reviewed if the quality of suitability of the educational offerings of a nation's schools is to be maintained and preserved. Dangers have been pointed to elsewhere. Writing of the situation in the United States of America, King states: "Non-Americans feel they must look behind the label to see 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 nauseam. 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 rich insights and a sense of experimental orientation. No pedant, no crisp exponent of expertise, no glassy-eyed devotee of any orthodoxy can so qualify. Therefore, despite the traditional links with ancient learning, Churches, and the minor rôles of early industrialization, the proper teacher today must be one who sees himself as contributing momentously to unprecedented evolution. 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."¹

If the teacher is to "contribute momentously to unprecedented evolution" it follows that he must be well prepared academically and professionally for the task. He must 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 of a groove which is likely to become as entrenched as the tracks in the loess plains of North West China. Admittedly, more and more graduate teachers are being attracted back into the universities to undertake further advanced studies, and the provincial education authorities are providing more in the way of short-term restricted-aim in-service and vacation courses for teachers. The truth is, however, that for the majority the one-year post-graduate professional course is the only exposure they have to professional studies and it must suffice to support and encourage them until retirement. This is a serious situation which will have to be faced in the immediate future. In the present context the need is for a rigorous year of study in which the main emphasis must be upon truly professional studies with the skills associated with a mere 'training' approach to teaching, as to a trade, reduced to an irreducible minimum.

If the above dicta are accepted, then some progress can be made in deciding what subjects should find a place in the professional course. It has been noted that the courses offered in South Africa contain between eight and fourteen subjects. The more subjects that are included the

¹ King, E.J.: The Curriculum of British Teacher Training Courses: Analysis and Critique: Chap.5. Yearbook of Education, 1963: pp.109,110.

less time can be devoted to each and the more emasculated each becomes. This is one of the problems of the courses offered by colleges of education, particularly in England, and was in part, at least, responsible both there and in this country for the extension of these courses from two to three years. A criticism is at times expressed of the one-year course by graduate students who complain of its 'bittiness' after the intense and concentrated efforts involved in the final year of their degree studies. This is particularly so in the case of science graduates. For these reasons it is felt that the number of subjects included in the course should be closer to the lower limit of eight than the upper limit of fourteen.

The basic division of the course into professional and main subjects, additional subjects on an option-choice basis and practical courses is accepted as a sound framework for the construction of the curriculum. What subjects can now be justified for inclusion in each of these areas? -

(a) Professional and Main Subjects:

This area can be further divided, as has already been noted, into philosophical and methodological subdivisions. It should be stressed that while such subdivisions can and do exist, they should not be overstressed for, when they are, the initial danger regarding the essential unity of the course is encountered. The philosophical component which is narrowly philosophical in content and divorced from practice is just as inimical to the success of the course as the methodological or didactical aspect which has a narrowly practical relevance to the situation in schools at the present time, and fails to relate the developing practice of education to its philosophical and psychological bases. The plea being made here is for a recognition of the unity of this main area of the curriculum, indeed, for the whole curriculum of training, through diverse portions of the course which collectively contribute to the total professional growth of the aspirant graduate teacher.

Within this first area, then, must be included a course on the philosophy of education or theory of education or principles of education. This must not be conceived as a purely philosophical course nor as one concerned purely with theory relating to today's schools and their problems. The need is 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. In other words, one is seeking through a philosophical examination of general educational problems to establish principles upon which to proceed. For this reason it is proposed that such a course should properly be designated Principles of Education. It is inherent in the organisation of such a subject that it should be seen as providing the central philosophical theme of the course, and that its content should bring students to a better understanding of educational psychology, methodology and administration as well as any other subjects offered in this area. Furthermore, the very nature of the suggestion involving delineation of problems, the consideration of their origins and the establishment of principles demands that both general lecture and small group discussion techniques be employed in the handling of the subject.

Educational psychology is the second fundamental base upon which the philosophical side of the course must be founded. This should have two main aims, viz.: the normal child together with the problems of adolescence. Obviously much is to be gained from a study of subnormality as well as giftedness and excursions must be made into these fields, but it is held to be desirable that the teacher be concerned in the main with that group which is likely to form the bulk of his clientele. He should be concerned with the theories of learning and of behaviour as well as the measurement of ability and achievement. Clearly this subject again should not, must not, be seen in isolation but in direct relationship to principles of education, to methodology, to sociology and to administration with a practical expression of its theories in the practical teaching component of the course. Again the need is not only for theory, but for practice, not only for large group instruction but for small group discussion and experimentation.

The third key subject within this area is General Method or Didactics.¹ The problem here again is one of co-ordination and integration. It is necessary that methodology be seen against its philosophical and psychological backgrounds; it is necessary that general didactical principles be integrated with the specific principles which are enunciated in the secondary school subject method courses. The problem for the

¹ The modern trend towards the title Education Technology should be noted.

'methodist', then, is to reach for the philosophical stars while giving attention to the minutiae of detail with regard to classroom organisation and practice. These problems of co-ordination are complicated by the necessity for programmes in method, principles and psychology as the basic trinity of subjects to be integrated, where possible, in such a way that common areas of concern are being dealt with at approximately the same time. A logical development of this integration would be an interdisciplinary approach to problems in education where the philosopher, the psychologist and the 'methodist' would be involved in the consideration of a particular area. It is felt that once understanding between the various subject lecturers is established a move might profitably be made in the direction of a problem-centred curriculum. The requirement would not be for the scrapping of the subject-centred approach, but rather to introduce one or two problem areas for interdisciplinary treatment. Such a pilot scheme would have the advantage of determining how rapidly such an experience could proceed, and at the same time of establishing those areas of the curriculum which lend themselves most readily to this type of treatment. This is, of course, the first step on the road to the establishment of a school of education rather than a department or 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.

Other subjects of a philosophical nature could with advantage be added to these basic ones, but it is felt that the main effort is to be made in these. Thus, within a one-year course the other subjects should be offered as options to one another, the student being required to make a study of one only. Were the duration of the course to be extended, or concurrent courses to replace the existing arrangement, then it is felt that more than one subject might well be undertaken. It is felt that in this area three subjects in particular commend themselves. These are Sociology of Education, Comparative Education and Education in Southern Africa. It is felt that the first of these subjects probably has a greater relevance in an initial course of training for students, than has Comparative Education. There are those who would claim that neither of the first two subjects is truly suited to a first course of teacher training, while the third should be a compulsory subject in any course. The problem here is twofold:-

- (a) If one considers the first course as not only preparatory to service in schools, but preparatory to the second or academic part of the Bachelor of Education degree, then there is a need to include subjects which provide springboards to that later study. Comparative Education is just such a subject.
- (b) Southern African Education is a course designed to make the student aware of the problems of education in the countries adjoining the Republic and South of the Congo. There is an argument in favour of including this as a one semester course in the second part of the year, following upon a single semester course on South African Education which would include Educational Administration in the first portion of the year. This means, in effect, adding additionally South African/Southern African Education to the three subjects already prescribed, with Comparative Education and Sociology offered as options and therefore constituting a fifth professional/academic subject. This topic will be returned to when the organisation of the course is considered.

(b) Common Additional Subjects in the Curriculum:

An additional subject which is offered in some institutions is Remedial Education. There is no doubt that this is a field of vital importance in modern education, and one to which increasing attention will have to be given in the future. It is questioned, however, as to whether it should find a place in an initial course of teacher preparation. It is held that it is necessary for the student to develop an awareness of the needs of the normal child, both in theory and practice, before he can really come to grips with the problems of remedial education. It may happen that a particular university has a strong department or sub-department of remedial education and that the talents of highly qualified lecturers are available in this field. If this is the case, then there may be some justification for the inclusion of such a course in initial training, but it should only be offered to restricted numbers, as for example to those who have completed three courses of Psychology in their degree curricula. Even in this case it is contended that such students, who still lack practical experience, would be more profitably concerned with a course in Guidance.

It is in this area of professional and main subjects that the

secondary school subject method courses must find a place and should form a link between the academic departments and the department or faculty of education on the one hand and the practice of education in the schools on the other. This is an area of training which requires co-operation of teaching staff working in different departments, and even institutions, which is perhaps best achieved through the sympathetic yet active co-ordination of the head of the university department of education. It is felt that while one such subject is a necessary prescription in regulations, students should be encouraged to take two, except in those school subjects like the physical and natural sciences, which, by their very nature, embrace two academic disciplines, viz.: Physics and Chemistry, and Botany and Zoology.

Additional subjects related both to student's undergraduate studies and to the work of the modern high school must find a place in these studies. It is becoming increasingly common to find students entering into their professional studies who have completed three courses in a 'teaching' subject and three courses in Psychology. With guidance playing an increasingly important rôle in the secondary school, it would be advantageous to offer such students courses in vocational or school guidance. It is noted that this is done at the University of Stellenbosch where students who have completed two courses in Psychology can register for a course in guidance, while those who have majored in Psychology over three years are eligible for a course in Clinical Educational Psychology. It should be noted that this particular university is well equipped to provide such courses through its Department of Educational Psychology.

(c) Additional Optional Subjects:

The courses offered in this area, as stated above, should include 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.

Care must be exercised as to the nature and content of such

courses. Within the scope of a one-year course, their content must necessarily be circumscribed. It is obvious that such courses cannot expect a time allocation much in excess of 1-2 hours per week, and, therefore, what can be covered in the space of an academic year of some 20-25 weeks' duration (and, in addition, making allowance for full-time teaching practice) is limited. To make allowance for this, students should be guided in the direction of those optional subjects of which they have a reasonable background of knowledge and experience, thus allowing the courses to develop along the lines of professional application of academic knowledge or personal interest which the students already have.

If this is not so, there is a danger that the nature and function of these courses may be misinterpreted by employing authorities, and students consequently placed in positions of embarrassment upon first appointment. For example, it is usual for the names of all courses passed to be endorsed upon the professional certificate awarded to the successful student. It may happen, indeed, has happened, that a student with no background knowledge of psychology, and only a passing interest in pupil development, will opt on the basis of an elimination of option choices, for a course in Vocational Guidance as the least of the evils of the options offered. Upon successful completion of the limited course possible in the time available, such a student, with the appropriate endorsement upon his certificate, may be required to assume responsibility for school guidance in a large high school, which his training could not possibly have equipped him to do.

Thus, in this area, the need is to (i) offer as wide a range of optional subjects as possible to cater for a diverse range of abilities and interests;

(ii) exercise some guidance in assisting students in their selection of optional courses;

(iii) ensure that such courses seek to develop professionally the knowledge and experience of students in the fields offered; and

(iv) ensure that employing authorities are aware of the scope and intention of such optional courses, to endeavour to develop further the interests and abilities of students when first appointed as teachers.

With these criteria in mind, the following subjects, among others,

commend themselves for inclusion: Games Organisation and Coaching; Organisation of Extramural activities, other than games; Youth Work and Leadership, School Drama, Resource Centre administration, School administration. This last subject may not be regarded as suitable for inclusion in an optional group, but should be regarded as an obligatory portion of the courses in Methodology or South African Education. It is envisaged that such an optional course would be additional to those aspects of school administration included in the main professional subject group. It would cover such aspects of school administration as time table construction and examination organisation, and would be designed for students whose training in logic, and particularly mathematical logic, frequently involves them in such organisational tasks from early on in their teaching career.

The subjects listed above are not intended to be exhaustive. They are, however, broadly based and are capable of further subdivision, as required, permitting a considerable range and flexibility in the organisation of optional courses, depending upon the capacity to offer such courses and the demand for them.

(d) Practical Teaching Group:

It should be noted that practice teaching, a most important component of all initial courses of teacher education, is not included in this examination of course content. This topic as already mentioned is the subject of current research and therefore it is not proposed to enlarge upon it in this study.

The fundamental courses in the practical group are naturally language media, and it is regarded as obligatory that all students should be qualified to teach in both official media, with a minimum qualification of one language on the higher grade and the second on the lower grade. These courses 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. It is desirable that students should be able to communicate clearly in the classroom and for this purpose they should undertake a course of speech training, mainly on a remedial basis of correcting faults in voice production. Written comprehension exercises at a level appropriate to the school situation should be given in order to develop the student's powers of linguistic comprehension, and it is regarded as axiomatic that linguistic ability will

normally be tested during the practice teaching period. Candidates, whose linguistic performance in the classroom is doubtful, would be referred for further instruction and testing during the year.

It should be noted that the ability of the student to communicate with pupils is the primary practical requirement of every teacher. When, in the opinion of his tutors, the student has developed the necessary facility, then there is no need for the course to continue further. Thus, courses in language media and in speech proficiency should inevitably differ from all others in structure and content. Firstly, it is not necessary for all students to undertake such courses. Those who have passed academic courses in the university in the languages concerned should be exempted from them. Secondly, those who are not so exempted, should attend courses which are specifically designed to improve their ability to comprehend and to communicate. Thirdly, such courses should consist in the main of tutorial work sessions interspersed with regular tests. Fourthly, upon attaining the desired standard, students should be exempted from the remainder of the course. Finally, by the same token, if it was felt by a tutor that a student's command of language was inadequate, particularly during teacher practice, that student should be referred for additional work in the language concerned.

This means that the task of the tutors responsible for media whether they be drawn from the Faculty of Education or the academic departments of the university, is no sinecure. They must preserve allegiance to accepted standards of the language in use, while being fully aware that the standards required are not so much those of the university departments, as of the schools in which the students are to operate. Furthermore, these tutors must be skilled linguists who are able to understand the nature of the errors made by students and how to correct them, as well as skilled teachers who, by their example, are capable of encouraging and stimulating their students to greater linguistic efforts.

Selection of material for comprehension in these courses is of prime importance. It is here that the dangers of a pedantic approach are most obvious. The literary inclined tutor will favour the use of passages of noble language, prose or verse, or of literary criticism. It is obvious that the scientist, unpractised in this type of comprehension, would be almost as stupefied by such an experience as would the literary student when confronted by the terse scientific prose

which would be entirely understood by the scientist. It seems that what is needed for this purpose is the type of comprehension exercise of varying types included in the General Paper of the English Higher Schools Certificate Examination, or in the use of English Paper of the Advanced Level of the General Certificate of Education. Here a wide range of topics is set, and the candidate is able to express himself in a field at least related to his own particular studies.

Language media course are fundamental as has been stated, but to be successful they must encourage the student to communicate confidently and effectively at that level, and in those subjects in which he will be involved in the schools.

The second subject included in this group may be collectively termed Audio-Visual Education. With the rapid advances in technology in the post-war world, what were new media ten years ago are stereotyped run-of-the-mill classroom aids and we find ourselves reaching forward to a host of new devices which are likely to make their appearance in the classroom with increasing speed within the next decade. As a result of this audio-visual education is making a very serious claim to be considered as a department in its own right within the corpus of education. At the same time it is stressed that it is a department which contributes to the advancement and improvement of the learning process and as such must be closely allied within the general study of education to the fields of psychology and methodology. If this is not the case, then, simply stated, there is a danger that audio-visual education may become a cancerous growth which flourishes upon its host but does nothing to promote the true growth of it. Rather, as a result of a lack of co-ordination, it tends to weaken the bonds which must be developed between the various components which comprise a faculty of education. Of this situation Bruner remarks: "The teacher's task as communicator, model and identification figure can be supported by a wise use of a variety of devices that expand experience, clarify it, and give it personal significance. There need be no conflict between the teacher and the aids to teaching. There will be no conflict if the development of aids takes into account the aims and the requirements of teaching. The film or television show as gimmick, the television system without substance or style in its programs, the pictographically vivid portrayal of the trivial - these will help neither the teacher nor the student..... The intelligent use.....resources now available will

depend upon how well we are able to integrate the technique of the film maker or the program producer with the technique and wisdom of the skilful teacher."¹

With what is an introductory course in Audio-Visual Education or Educational Technology concerned? To answer this adequately it is necessary to establish aims for such a course. It is felt that among them should be:-

- (i) an awareness of the rôle of audio-visual media in the learning process, and, therefore, a willingness to become familiar with new devices as they become available;
- (ii) the development of a critical faculty in the assessment of the value and potential of new media in education. It is necessary, particularly in audio-visual education, to guard against the gimmick and it is therefore essential that students learn to evaluate educational rather than technical potential and not merely to accept change for the sake either of change or of novelty;
- (iii) to be thoroughly familiar with the techniques of operation and the methods of incorporation of existing audio-visual equipment in the class situation; and
- (iv) to be aware of developing trends in audio-visual education with particular reference to the subject area or areas within which they will be operating.

These aims mean, in turn, that it is necessary to base any course of audio-visual education upon two premises:-

- (i) present-day audio-visual technology, and
- (ii) developments in audio-visual education.

This results in a two-phased course, in which the first portion would precede the main teaching practice period, and the second would follow it.

It is stressed that audio-visual education is essentially a practical course, and, therefore, the need, as in the case of language media, is not so much for lectures as for practical small group workshop or laboratory sessions coupled, if possible, with the ability to try out techniques in a class situation or a simulated class situation.

¹ Bruner, J.S.: The Process of Education: pp.91-92.

4. Summary of the Proposed Curriculum for a One-Year Post-Graduate Course:

From the foregoing the distribution of courses is as follows:-

Group 1: Professional and Main Subjects:

1. Principles of Education
2. Educational Psychology
3. Educational Methodology:
 - (a) general
 - (b) secondary school subject method
4. One of:
 - (a) Sociology of Education
 - (b) Comparative Education
 - (c) Education in Southern Africa.

Group 2: Optional Subjects:

5. One of:
 - (a) Games Organisation and Coaching
 - (b) Organisation of Extramural activities other than games
 - (c) Youth Work and Leadership
 - (d) School Drama
 - (e) School Administration (additional).

Group 3: Practical Subjects:

6. Language Media and Speech
7. Audio-visual technology

This means that the total commitment of the student allowing for the inclusion of two secondary school subject method courses, and both official language media is ten subject courses. With exemptions for efficiency in language media this will be reduced to eight for the majority of students during the year. A further reduction is possible if a semester organisation is adopted in respect of certain key subjects as will be detailed below:

It will be noted that certain subjects of unquestioned value, and mainly of a practical nature, e.g. typing and first aid, have been

omitted. This has been done deliberately for two reasons:

- (a) there is heavy pressure upon time in a one-year course, and it is therefore felt that the need as far as possible is to 'professionalise' the curriculum;
- (b) in a course of professional training, it is necessary to concentrate upon professional subjects. It is doubtful if 'typing' would figure in the curriculum of medical, legal or engineering schools.

On the other hand, students should be actively encouraged to become familiar with both the essentials of typing and of first aid, but not at the expense of other important professional subjects.

5. Organisation of the One-Year Professional Course:

Certain fundamental concepts have been established above with regard to the nature of a one-year professional course. It must be a professional course rather than a mere 'training' course; the numbers of subjects must be limited in order to balance breadth of coverage against the real necessity for professional depth in selected fields; and it must seek to provide an adequate springboard not only to initial success in the classroom, but to further professional studies for the development of the teacher as a professional person. How can this be done in the space of a one-year course?

Traditionally the one-year course for the education diploma has been one in which a considerable number of subjects considered essential for the development of the teacher have been prescribed to be followed throughout the year. In view of the pressure upon time as well as the steps by which the student develops, it is necessary to assess the rôle of each course within the curriculum in terms of its function in student development. It is also essential that the sequential planning of the curriculum be done against the background of teaching practice provision. For the purpose of the present exercise it will be assumed that pre-course introductory experience will be supplemented with a period of a complete school term of full-time teaching practice in the middle of the year. This means, then, that the academic year falls naturally into three units of roughly equivalent length, viz.: pre-teaching practice course, teaching practice period and post-teaching practice course. It will be argued that such a structure is not always either desirable nor possible. As a counter argument it can be claimed that no arrangement

of practice teaching which has to take into account the claims of the schools as well as those of other institutions of teacher education can be ideal. The tripartite course structure referred to above has been in operation in the University of Natal for some ten years and has been found to produce a reasonably satisfactory balance in the course.

From this point it is desirable that the courses within the curriculum be divided into groups to accord with the tripartite nature of it, viz.: courses which should continue throughout the year; those which are most appropriate in the pre-teaching practice period, and those which should follow after some experience in the school system. In the first group it is obvious that the main professional studies, philosophy or principles of education, educational psychology and methodology should find a place. The position of methodology will be dealt with more fully below as it is felt that this subject occupies an important linking position between the practice and the theory of education. In the second group it is necessary to include those courses which will enable the student to become a reasonable practitioner within the classroom during the ensuing teaching practice period; methodology is, of course, important in this context, as is language media and speech, the optional course selected from Group 2, and a basic course in audio-visual education. Thus, the curriculum in the first phase would include Principles of Education, Educational Psychology, General Method of Teaching, secondary school subject method, South African Education, language media and speech, audio-visual education, and the optional subject. The object should be to equip the student to participate effectively in school practice. As far as possible these subjects should be concluded within this phase with the exception of those subjects which are to continue throughout the year. Thus, Part I of General Method, South African Education, the basic course in audio-visual education, that part of the secondary school subject courses which pertain to classroom procedures, and, for as many as possible, language media and speech should be concluded within the first ten weeks.

Upon this follows the period of practice teaching wherein the principles established during the first phase are to be tested in practice. In addition to this it is necessary to direct the student's attention to particular aspects of present educational practice which will form a link with the more intensively professional course in the latter part of the year.

The third phase of the course will include those subjects which

continue throughout the year together with an intensive course in the Sociology of Education, Comparative Education or Education in Southern Africa. Remaining course commitments such as language media and speech will be completed in this period.

The organisational pattern outlined above, it is felt, provides, albeit in limited time, first for the creation of mind and the acquisition of limited skill for the student to enter the classroom, there to gain some experience of the practice and problems of the present-day secondary school. This in turn leads him on to a professional consideration of modern education which, with further practice will, it is hoped, lead him on to a further professional study of education. It is felt that the organisation of the initial course is vital in encouraging this attitude of interest in education as a professional study, and at the same time overcoming an antipathy towards the education diploma course which has on occasion characterised graduate students.

It has been found that the course in Educational Methodology, or General Methods of Teaching is one subject in which this whole development can be seen in microcosm, and from this point of view it is proposed to examine the structure and content of this subject as a means of illustrating the desirability for co-ordination and progression within the curriculum of the diploma.

6. Educational Methodology: Microcosm of Initial Preparation of the Graduate Teacher:

Probably no area of the curriculum for the preparation of teachers has been more hotly debated than that of methodology. The academic and professional subjects of philosophy, and to an ever-increasing extent, psychology, are accepted as being not only fitting, but fundamental, to the preparation of any teacher. Similarly, knowledge of content of subjects to be taught either in the elementary or secondary school are also regarded as essential. Between these two poles lies an area which is often vague and shadowy - this is the area of method. As has already been stated, methodology can be divided into two areas, general and specific. The second of these areas is more readily accepted by the supporters of the subject content school. It is claimed that special subject method is inherent in the acquisition of the knowledge of the particular subject and that it must be related to it and is properly the

function of this subject and its teachers. General method, on the other hand, does not find such ready support. Conant states that "the general methods course assumes the existence of a body of predictive generalisations valid wherever a teaching-learning situation exists. It follows from this assumption that these generalisations are not dependent upon variables inhering in the specific material to be taught, or on the characteristics of a particular body of students..... I fail to see where such generalisations would differ from those developed by psychologists concerned with the study of classroom learning, and taught in the general psychology course, or in a basic course in educational psychology. I conclude, therefore, that such general methods courses are unnecessary and duplicate material already studied."¹

He does, however, qualify this damning onslaught on general method by stating: "The most realistic alternative that has come to my attention is the 'clinical professor of education', prepared by training to understand what the other specialists have to say, and inclined to listen to them, and prepared by continuing experience in the elementary or secondary school, to demonstrate in concrete teaching situations the implications of expert judgment."² This concession is in turn qualified by the statement that "at the moment the potential teacher most needs all the useful knowledge he can get; that is, when the teacher actually begins to teach, the clinical professor must make that knowledge available through the special methods course."³ Thus Conant finally supports special methods rather than general methods courses.

Counterbalancing this, Forbes Adam, in a report of the London Institute of Education on "The Scope and Content of a Three-Year Course of Teacher Training", states "in all subjects there is an accumulated experience of the teaching methods adapted to their respective circumstances. It is essential that this methodology should be firmly grounded on sound principles in order that the student may realise the great variety of good teaching methods and the importance of choosing in each situation, the method most likely to succeed in his hands, and the one best suited to the needs of his individual pupils. Failure in these respects is apt to leave the teacher tied to a rule of thumb interpretation

¹ Conant, J.B.: The Education of American Teachers, p.138.

² Ibid: p.140.

³ Ibid: p.140.

of the methods favoured by his tutors, and slow to experiment with new methods he may find in operation in a school to which he is appointed."¹

For teacher preparation at university level, Beresford sees two main justifications: "One of the jobs of the training year is to get men and women fresh from the study of their different specialisms to do some thinking about big questions. The year must be a humanising one. Its function is mainly restorative, bringing them back from being specialists to being everyday humans..... The second justification for the training year is that it can do much to open the mind of the student to sound possible methods of teaching which otherwise he might never encounter."² While some university teachers would perhaps cavil at the use of the word 'restorative' there can be little doubt that methodology should find a place in the curriculum of professional course within the university.

It is Jeffreys who advances a significant argument in favour of the inclusion of general methods courses for the initial preparation of secondary school teachers whether this is to take place in universities or in colleges of education. He refers specifically to the situation in England and Wales, but, with developing differentiation in the secondary systems of this country, his arguments are equally valid here, particularly in view of the increased holding power of the secondary school. "Teachers belong to the minority of people who can intellectualise their experiences, and use abstract ideas in thinking. The great majority of people.....find great difficulty in using abstract ideas and also in detaching themselves from their own experience in order to look at it from the outside. Their experience is none the less significant and important for all that. It is of course right and proper that the self-conscious formulation of ideas should be practised by those who are capable of it; and teachers certainly ought to be capable of it. But teachers also ought to know what life looks like when seen through the eyes of the kind of person who thinks concretely and does not intellectualise his experience. It is at least open to question whether the accepted kind of academic education does not neglect those levels of feeling at which people of very different I.Q.'s can

¹ University of London Institute of Education: The Scope and Content of a Three-Year Course of Teacher Training: p.8.

² Beresford, H.B.: A critical study of some aspects of Teacher Training in the Commonwealth: pp.80,81.

meet on a common ground..... It may be that in educating the most intelligent members of the community, we are still developing their intellectual processes out of proportion to their emotional responses... A century and more ago the heart of the educational problem was the rescue of the young child from ignorance, from squalor, and from industrial exploitation. That great work has been done; and the focus has shifted to the adolescent."¹

Herein is a twofold educational problem - psychological and methodological. The need for the first as a component of the curriculum has never been in doubt; the need for the second becomes more evident. Having understood the needs of gifted and average children it is an obvious requirement that consideration must be given to methods by which this is to be achieved.

Bone concludes that, in the context of training college courses, "any specific methods courses undertaken must be constructed in conformity with the principles of a professional training. This means that the concern must be not with the particular but the general. Students should become familiar, for example, with the scientific method, not the method of teaching science. They should become acquainted with whatever is best in the methods of language teaching - and whatever is best should be equally relevant to the teaching of mathematics as of English..... This is no suggestion that there should be a return to the old 'Masters of Method' nor that 'Methods' should be dealt with on a plane of generality so remote from the teaching situation as to be incapable of application. Indeed, the crucial point is that whatever is handled must be seen to be relevant, and must be experienced in the reality of the teaching situation."²

7. Aims in a Course of Educational Methodology:

In terms of the foregoing it is felt that the general aims of such a course can be fairly succinctly stated. These are:-

- (a) to seek to provide the student with the necessary equipment to undertake his work as a classroom practitioner in one or more specialist subject fields;

¹ Jeffreys, M.V.C.: Revolution in Teacher Training: pp.53/54.

² Bone, R.C.: Teacher Education and the Training Colleges in England and Wales, 1964: p.12.

- (b) to endeavour, in so doing, to provide a link between the theory and practice of education, and thereby to enable the student, through further experience, to formulate his own philosophy of education; and
- (c) to develop within the student a professionally inquiring mind which will assist him in his approach to the problems of the modern school and its adolescent pupils, as well as to educational innovation and its assessment in terms of practice.

Inherent in the realisation of these aims are three fundamental premises round which the course in methodology evolves. The first stems from (a) and requires that there should be co-ordination between the general and specialised elements of the course in methodology. Indeed, this is carried over into (b) where it is essential that co-ordination must exist between the main professional courses of the curriculum, viz.: Principles or Philosophy of Education, Educational Psychology and Methodology. The second premise concerns the essential requirement that methodology be based on practice. Bone's "whatever is handled must be seen to be relevant, and must be experienced in the reality of the teaching situation" - for methods courses conceived of as abstractions and not based in the reality of practice, must be meaningless and, therefore, valueless. The third premise stems from the development of the inquiring mind, and requires that the course should have a relevance for the school situation, of the present, (or it would be impossible to implement the first aim), while at the same time an objective look must be taken by both tutor and student at the revolutionary trends in methodology and technology as they are likely to affect the teacher in, say, the first decade of his professional career.

Co-ordination of a practical and forward-looking nature, then, is the kernel of the requirements required to be built into the syllabus of the course in general methods.

8. Proposed Syllabus in General Methodology:

This is based upon a tripartite calendar organisation, the first semester being approximately ten weeks in duration and occurring before the main period of practice teaching in the middle of the year. The second semester follows the teaching practice period and is also of some

ten weeks' duration.

First Semester: Section A: Primary Method:

1. The child on entry to formal education as the determinant of teaching method.
2. The organisation of the primary school.
3. The curriculum of the primary school - the importance of communications studies in language and number.
4. Methods used in the primary school: class group, smaller homogeneous ability groups, individual instruction. Application of these methods in the secondary school.
5. The pupil on entry to the secondary school as the determinant of teaching methods and organisational techniques.

Section B: Secondary Method:

Part 1: The Organisation of Learning:

- (a) The lesson: preparation and presentation - general considerations.
- (b) Types of lessons: the relation to educational psychology and the psychology of learning:-
 - (i) factual presentation in the 'content' subjects - perceptualisation in the classroom situation - use of audio-visual techniques in perceptualisation;
 - (ii) problem solving lessons - the formation of concepts -
 - inductive method
 - deductive method
 - heuristic method
 - project method.

Implications of the use of these methods for the teacher and for school organisation.
 - (iii) emotive learning: the development of attitudes, attributes and values - the growth of the child as a social being;
 - (iv) acquisition of skills, including language, number and practical mechanical skills.

Part 2: The Climate of Learning:

- (a) School organisation:

- (i) the teacher as a classroom practitioner and guide;
- (ii) the teacher as a subject specialist.

(b) Rewards and Punishment.

Part 3: The Evaluation of Learning:

- (a) Tests and examinations
- (b) Continuous assessment.

This syllabus for the first semester represents an outline statement of content only. Details such as schemes of work, departmental organisation, records, etc., would obviously be fitted in in the appropriate section.

Part 4: Practical Teaching Observation:

(a) General:

- (i) how to observe a lesson effectively;
- (ii) general classroom technique - 'content' subject;
- (iii) use of audio-visual media within the classroom situation;
- (iv) problem solving: mathematics, science;
- (v) emotive learning: literature, religious instruction, art appreciation;
- (vi) student experience with small groups: use of micro-teaching, both with and without educational television in this situation.

(b) Secondary School Subject Method:

Through contact with departments in selected high schools, students observe lessons in their particular disciplines given by competent exponents of the subject, and participate in small group work.

It should be noted that courses in secondary school subject method would proceed concurrently with the course in general method. For this purpose it is essential that there be close co-operation between the tutors in the general and subject method courses and the latter might well participate directly in the practical teaching observation set out in Part 4(b) above. In these courses attention is given to particular

methods applicable to individual subjects. This includes consideration of the syllabus, schemes of work, methods of teaching, audio-visual aids, testing and evaluation of pupil performance, and departmental administration including equipment and consumable stock. From the point of view of content it is perhaps desirable that such a course be handled by a competent subject teacher who has had considerable experience.

It is clear that the syllabus outlined above for the first semester caters for the student prior to the main teaching practice period. It deals in the main with the present situation in schools; the work is handled on the basis of formal presentation in lectures, of participation through observation as well as directly on a limited scale. The course has a recurring theme of practice behind it; at the same time it is conceived in units which have direct bearing on the philosophy and psychology of education. Indeed, this course organisation, it is submitted, possesses an advantage of flexibility which could well be exploited should it be decided to embark upon a topic approach to the curriculum. For example, if one was to take Section B, Part 3: The Evaluation of Learning, this could be undertaken on a team teaching basis involving the philosopher, the psychologist, the sociologist, the 'methodist', and the comparative educationist, with lectures, tutorials and seminars in which all would participate.

In practice it has been found in the University of Natal that this semester course can be covered in 8-10 weeks on a time table allocation of three lecture periods per week with, initially, two lectures per week devoted to Section A, and one lecture to Section B. This changes to three lectures per week in Section B as Section A is completed. Additionally, one morning per week is devoted to lesson observation. This is organised as either

1. (a) demonstration lesson, followed by
 - (b) discussion on particular issues with the teacher, followed by
 - (c) smaller group tutorial discussion on general principles of method with a university tutor;
- or 2. (a) observation in a 'contact' school working in a particular department;
- (b) observation of normal lessons within the department and assisting in daily routine;

- (c) attending a demonstration lesson by an experienced teacher or tutor;
- (d) tutorial discussion with staff and subject method tutors.

The possibility of improving the practical side of observation and participation through the medium of micro-teaching and the use of education television requires to be explored. It is envisaged that with the co-operation of neighbouring schools groups of children might be brought into the college or university department for half a morning. The time available would be divided into short periods with small groups being taught by individual students. The camera would be operated by students taking particular note of two aspects of the lessons taught:-

- (a) teacher performance, and
- (b) pupil attitudes and reactions.

These would be recorded on a video-tape recorder for discussion in tutorial groups.

Second Semester:

The aims of the course in the second semester are, firstly, to consolidate and amplify as a result of practical experience in the schools, the first two general aims enunciated above; and, secondly, to examine critically, on the basis of optional choice, new teaching methods related to the particular areas of study of students, and thus to encourage the development of a professionally critical attitude towards educational innovation. It is emphasised that such an attitude must be constructive and must be based upon personal assessment of a practical nature, rather than upon the opinions and findings of others.

In order to provide a link through the practice teaching period with the first semester course, the approach is based on an assignment set during the practice period which requires students in their main teaching subject to make a study of the syllabus in that subject for a particular year in the range from Standard VII to Standard X. They are required to draw up and motivate a scheme of work for the year according to the organisation of the school year (i.e. either in three or four terms), and to write notes on the methods to be used in the presentation of this syllabus, including the audio-visual aids to be incorporated. In this way a double purpose is served, for it helps

to co-ordinate both general and subject method. Finally, they are required to provide an example of a short test which might be set, as well as the drawing up of a half-yearly examination or test together with a marking memorandum for it. This exercise serves to consolidate the theory of the first semester course with the practice which follows it. The link through the practice teaching period is further strengthened by requiring students to complete a short anonymous questionnaire on the problems which they have encountered in the schools. This provides a considerable amount of material, some of which is inevitably frivolous, but which in the main focusses attention upon organisational, curricular and methodological problems of present practice. An analysis of these questionnaires has been found to be most useful in providing from student observation the material for introductory lectures and discussion of new methods of teaching.

Replies over a four-year period (1965-1968) have revealed the following as being the main problems of students at the conclusion of the teaching practice period:-

1. Differentiation and the teaching of the less successful child with specific reference to problems of language, literature, mathematics and science.
2. Teaching method with reference to:-
 - (a) organisation of group work in the secondary school;
 - (b) motivation as a factor in successful teaching;
 - (c) specific problems of class control;
 - (d) examinations: preparation for them and the follow-up thereafter;
 - (e) progressive development of skill in notemaking by pupils.
3. The teacher in the school:-
 - (a) school organisation with particular reference to the movement of classes to teachers, or teachers to classes;
 - (b) school assembly and the registration period;
 - (c) responsibilities of heads of departments.
4. More specifically subject issues, including:-
 - (a) use of the direct method in second language teaching;
 - (b) laboratory organisation and the control of laboratory/practical work.

Once again it is obvious that both general and subject method lecturers must work in close co-operation in dealing with these problems. They

do, however, provide approaches to new methods.

At the start of the second semester course, or, preferably, during the teaching practice period, students are asked to state their first and second choices of the optional courses available. In the University of Natal in the Pietermaritzburg centre in an experimental approach in 1968 the following options were offered: courses in advanced Audio-Visual Technology, programmed learning, team teaching and the language laboratory. It was found that this selection permitted a reasonable choice to students in the humanities and the sciences and with only six exceptions out of a total of 62 students were allocated to subjects of their first choice.

The courses themselves were based upon the aims set out above, the object being, not the production of audio-visual technicians, programmers or language laboratory controllers, but rather general practitioners with an awareness of the advantages and disadvantages of the new methods becoming available. Thus, after an introduction in which the methodological, psychological and technological backgrounds were covered in lectures, students were required to produce programmes making use of apparatus, including the language laboratory in the University. Those concerned with team teaching worked as teaching teams in the theoretical atmosphere of a school of size and organisation such as they had experienced, and were required as a team to produce the detailed plans for a year's work in a particular standard.

Finally, programmes were discussed in small groups, difficulties recognised and attempts made to solve them, resulting in the amending or rewriting of programmes. This follow-up is essential in developing a critical appreciation of the validity of programmes. In fact, two further steps are necessary in this direction. First, it is essential that discussion take place under tutorial guidance among each optional group to discuss the most effective ways in which the new method may be employed in the classroom and the consequential problems raised. The second necessity is for a final rounding off wherein all groups contribute to a symposium on the 'school of the future' thus consolidating the ideas gained by each group. It is desirable that, where possible, worthwhile material prepared by students be made available for all to examine. Ideally, the most outstanding work should be duplicated and distributed. In subsequent years the device of the methods options courses has been repeated and extended, a course on Closed Circuit

Television having been added in 1971. The institution of a final seminar and exhibition in which methods employed and their problems, as well as the opportunity to examine materials will be organised for the first time in this session.

Teaching Methods:

Inherent in the above course outline is the possibility of the use of four main teaching methods within the university:

- (a) lectures: for the presentation of matter of a nature applicable to all students. These should not aim to be encyclopaedic in their coverage of the course, but rather to be regarded as stimulus points to be backed up by specific reading, and by the other methods outlined below:
- (b) demonstration and observation facilities both within the university and adjacent schools. In the same way that medical students are required to observe operative techniques, so the teacher in training should regard the classroom as his operating theatre with which he should be thoroughly familiar through sound training and practice of observation. This requires, of course, the building-up of a tradition of such practice as well as the welding of a team of demonstrators. Such demonstrators should be accorded some recognition by the university. This method of presentation requires to be flexible in organisation to permit not only of the introduction of new techniques, but also to allow students to participate on a limited scale.
- (c) discussion methods in medium sized and small groups. It is essential that observation of clinical practice as well as participation, not only in lectures of a generalised nature, but in highly specialised work as in the optional courses of the second semester, should be backed by adequate opportunity for discussion of particular issues.
- (d) simulation and the workshop approach: learning by doing in small groups is vital in the practical skills involved in the course such as audio-visual method, as well as in the practice of new methods such as language laboratory work, team teaching and programmed learning. Such a workshop approach

requires that students should not only have the technical equipment to hand, but should also have readily available reference material of a practical nature.

These four methods require that course organisation be sufficiently flexible to permit their employment under conditions appropriate to them. This means that additional complexities in the form of subject groupings are introduced into the time table.

The course in Educational Methodology was described as 'a microcosm of the initial preparation of the graduate teacher'. It is quite obvious that this work must not be seen in isolation but rather as being complementary to work being done in other courses, or as practice resulting from theory and philosophy being enunciated elsewhere in the course. Thus, methodology can be seen not only as the establishment of a set of principles upon which successful teaching can be based, but also as a means of demonstration of the success in the classroom of principles founded in theory and as a means whereby the problems of the modern school can be studied in a variety of different contexts from which possible solutions may be drawn for application in practice. The need is, therefore, to endeavour to achieve a positive and practical integration of subjects within the one-year post-graduate course. If this is not done, there is grave danger in such a course of duplication with a consequent feeling of frustration and boredom on the part of students. It was partly with this in mind that a series of staff discussions were held in the Department of Education of the University of Natal in November, 1967. These discussions were termed "The Anatomy of the U.E.D." by the head of the Department, Professor R.G. MacMillan. From the evidence presented it was obvious that steps could be taken to consolidate courses to a certain extent by integration, and at the same time to make the total curriculum more effective by grouping subjects or part thereof after the manner that has been suggested above.

Following on from this an attempt has now been made on an experimental basis for this work to synthesise an integrated curriculum in which are included the main or professional subjects. This is set out in Table 38. It is felt that this curricula organisation includes certain advantages.

1. Each subject can be regarded as a separate entity within the total curriculum, in which case the subject would be approached vertically, working downwards in each subject column.
2. Integration, either total or partial, can be achieved by working horizontally across the table, thus building up an inter-disciplinary approach to the study of education.
3. The proposed curriculum allows for a combination of both approaches, so that it could be decided on an experimental basis, for example, that the area of evaluation and assessment be taken as an inter-disciplinary theme. This would then proceed as set out, while the remainder of course syllabuses would be dealt with on the vertical pattern.
4. The place of teaching practice as central to the whole curriculum is clearly established. More than this, though, the work is shown to build up towards the practice teaching period, and then for there to be a follow-through into a period of the consolidation of philosophical studies on the basis of practice.

It should be noted that the syllabuses are conceived in broad general terms. This in itself allows for flexibility. What, in essence, is being suggested in this proposal is that there should be a team teaching approach to the U.E.D. curriculum, not exclusively to begin with, but rather on an experimental basis. Inherent in this is the requirement of all team teaching organisation - full discussion at the planning and preparation stages by all team members, as well as the physical conditions which permit of the necessary flexibility in group organisation.

The one-year professional post-graduate course of teacher preparation has been dealt with fully for it is held to be the heart of the university's contribution to initial teacher preparation in terms of present organisation of courses. It is not, however, held to be the only possible contribution which the university should make in this field. Other forms of course structure, either of greater duration, or of a concurrent, rather than an 'end-on' nature, are regarded as having considerable merit.

9. Initial Courses for the Preparation of Non-Graduate Teachers:

These courses can be divided into two groups:-

1. courses for students who have almost completed studies for the award of a degree. These courses are in effect similar to the graduate diploma course, and the 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.
2. courses for teachers who have little intention of completing the requirements of a degree. Such courses are based upon certain academic requirements provided by the academic departments in the Faculties of Arts and Science, together with a professional course provided by the Faculty of Education. Reference to Table 36: Initial Courses for the Training of Teachers at South African Universities, shows that where such courses are designed for the secondary school, they are intended in the main to provide specialist teachers, e.g. in Art, Music, etc., or general teachers for the lower secondary school. Specialised courses are also provided either mainly for particular subjects, e.g. Domestic Science, primary school art, music, needlework or physical education, or for the education of the handicapped, such as problem children, handicapped in speech and hearing, poor sight, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, remedial education, where use is made of particular facilities within the particular university for training in that field.

A further type of course is offered within this group specifically for the general training of primary school teachers at four South African universities: Capetown, Pretoria, Rhodes and Stellenbosch. All courses in this second group are invariably of three years' duration.

An examination of the syllabuses of courses included in this second group reveals an important common denominator of professional courses, education, psychology, methods, etc., with the variable content comprising academic and specialist subjects. For this reason a survey has been made of the course content of the Higher Primary Teacher's Diplomas offered

by the South African universities. This is to be found in Table 39.

Examination of the structure of these courses shows that the subject groupings are very similar to those to be found in the courses of the colleges of education examined in the previous chapter. For the sake of convenience these have been divided into three areas: professional, academic and curriculum. This is acknowledged to be somewhat arbitrary as it is seen that the academic subjects listed in the second year of training at Capetown include methodological studies and the same appears to pertain to the first, second and third courses offered in Pretoria. Teaching practice naturally has been listed as an essential section of the curriculum.

While noting the similarity of course structure to those of the colleges of education, there are certain fundamental differences which are worthy of note. Firstly, the emphasis upon the area of training from the start of the course right through to the end is the reverse of the situation in the Transvaal colleges of education, where the initial emphasis is upon professional and curriculum studies. Here the initial emphasis is upon a continuing academic education closely bound up with the first year courses offered at undergraduate level. This is held to be important, for the student continues his academic studies of a general nature, is not irrevocably committed to professional studies in his first year, and is undertaking studies of a recognised university level upon which he can subsequently build further credits towards the completion of degree requirements, thereby providing him with an avenue for the advancement of his professional status. From this early emphasis upon academic studies the bias swings steadily to professional studies in the third year. The debate on the desirability of the continuance of personal education of the student on a non-professional basis has been dealt with in the preceding chapter. It is reiterated at this point, however, that the recognition of college-based courses as giving exemption for part of the university degree requirements is a policy whereby the problem of routes to a degree for the non-graduate teacher is partially overcome, or, at least, ameliorated.

A further advantage of students undertaking academic courses within the university, is that they are involved in courses of a general nature in which are heterogeneous groupings of students reading for different degrees and preparing to enter different professions. It is

Table 39 : A Comparative Analysis of Higher Primary Teacher's Diploma Courses Offered at South African Universities

Year of Training	Curriculum Area	CAPETOWN	PRETORIA	RHODES	STELLENBOSCH
First Year	Professional Subjects			School Method I	Introduction to Education, Educational Psychology I
	Academic Subjects	3 First year degree courses	Four first year subjects for B.A., or Three first year subjects for B.Sc.	3 Subjects selected from:- Special English, Afrikaans I, History I, Geography I	Afrikaans I, English I, Arithmetic I, General Science I, History I, Geography I, Religious Instruction I
	Curriculum/ Practical Subjects	Speech and Drama, or Music, or A fourth academic course at first year level	Afrikaans or English	Physical Education	Speech and Drama I, One of: School Music, Special Physical Education, Woodwork or Needlework, Industrial Arts, School Art
Second Year	Professional Subjects	General Methods of Teaching	History of Education, Theory of Education I, Educational Psychology I, Primary School Method I	Educational Psychology I, School Method II	Educational Psychology II, School Method I
	Academic Subjects	English, including Method Afrikaans, " " Nature Study, " " Geography and Environmental Studies History and Social Studies		A fourth subject chosen from the first year list	Afrikaans II, English II, Arithmetic II, General Science II, History II, Geography II, Religious Instruction II
	Curriculum/ Practical Subjects	Specialised Teaching: Lesson Preparation and Blackboard Techniques Speech Training: English and Afrikaans Needlework, Games Coaching and 2 of Art/Craft, Music, Physical Education, or Speech and Drama, or Art and Craft, or Music	Afrikaans Method, English Method, Religious Instruction Method (Optional) Speech Training, Blackboard Work	Language Media, School Art, School Music (Optional) Needlework or Woodwork, Speech Training	Practical Education I (Blackboard Work) One of: Continuation of first year subject in this group, or: Speech and Drama II, Audio-Visual Education
Third Year	Professional Subjects	Educational Psychology, Theory of Education, General Methods	Theory of Education II, Educational Psychology II, Educational Sociology II, School Organisation and Administration, Primary School Method II	Principles and History of Education, Educational Psychology II, Primary School Method	Educational Psychology III, Method II, Philosophy of Education, Administration of Education
	Academic Subjects	English, Afrikaans, Arithmetic, Religious Instruction, Hygiene and First Aid			Afrikaans III, English III, Religious Instruction III, One of: Arithmetic III, General Science III, History III, Geography III
	Curriculum/ Practical Subjects	Speech Training Needlework, Games Coaching and one of Art, Music, Physical Education, or Speech and Drama, or Art and Craft, or Music	Industrial Arts, or Music, or Needlework, Physical Education	School Hygiene, Needlework or Woodwork, Language Media, Speech, School Art, School Music (Optional), Nature Study, Content and Method of Religious Instruction, or another approved course	Practical Education II, One of: 2nd year subject in this group continued, or: Speech and Drama (Advanced) Audio-Visual Education
Over Whole Course	Teaching Practice	First term of third year	2nd year: 8 weeks; 3 before start of Academic year 3rd year: 9 weeks; 3 before start of Academic year	1st year: 3 weeks 2nd year: 4 weeks before start of Academic year; thereafter 4 periods per week 3rd year: 4 weeks before start of Academic year; thereafter half-day per week	2nd year: 2 weeks before start of year in lower primary 3 weeks at end of the first semester 3rd year: 3 weeks before start of year in higher primary 3 weeks at beginning of the second semester

obvious that membership of and participation in such groups must have both a broadening and a maturing effect upon the non-graduate student, which is sometimes more difficult to achieve in the relatively cloistered atmosphere of the college of education, where aims are more highly specialised. The resultant heterogeneous groupings where the non-graduate student is admitted with either matriculation exemption or a school leaving certificate, raise a number of issues. Firstly, it is possible that the non-graduate will tend to be overshadowed by his undergraduate colleague, or, secondly, that certain departments may tend to become unduly weighted by non-graduate elements in first year courses to the detriment of the more academically able student. Should neither of these problems arise, then it seems that the necessity for the present matriculation exemption for admission to first year courses might be called in question, a suggestion which is likely to be strenuously opposed by the universities.

The other two groups of subjects are related to one another in that they are concerned with the theory and practice of education. Curriculum subjects are spread throughout the three years, but with a concentration in the second and third. There tends to be a profusion of subjects offered in this area, and it is questioned as to whether some of these courses, such as Industrial Arts and School Hygiene, for example, are properly the function of the university. Certainly they are unlikely to be the responsibility of departments other than education and this means that the activities of the education department must be extended over a very broad field which must tend to affect the depth of studies and research within these departments.

The more philosophical subjects of the professional group occur mainly in the latter part of the course with particular concentration in the third year, although a certain number are included in second year. It would appear that there again there is a tendency for the university departments to assume a very heavy teaching load where separate professional courses for graduate and non-graduate students are provided. Where graduates and non-graduates are grouped together in common courses there is another danger. As in the case of the academic subjects mentioned earlier, while such an arrangement is likely to benefit the non-graduate student by extending him, the graduate is exposed to a greater danger of boredom and frustration. Further, unless such courses are very carefully adjusted, there is a possibility that the aims set are

too modest resulting in a lack of professional growth, or alternatively they may be too ambitious which would result in the frustration of the non-graduate student.

10. General Conclusions regarding Non-Graduate Primary School

Courses offered at University Level:

- (a) Non-graduate teacher preparation in the universities undoubtedly makes for the extension of the student, particularly in the academic studies. It is possible, therefore, that the personal education which the student experiences may be more demanding than that offered by a college of education, where the academic courses are more likely to be geared to the requirements of a particular secondary school subject syllabus.
- (b) By undertaking first year courses in the university the student is able to gain subject credits towards the degree which he would be able to complete subsequently to his teacher training.
- (c) The non-graduate student is likely to gain in maturity through his membership of the wider society of the university than in the more confined and specialised atmosphere of the college of education. It has been argued by some authorities¹ that the university is the wrong environment to which to expose young teachers in their formative years. Teachers, however, as leaders of society must surely arrive at their values and standards as a result of argument and discussion which is the characteristic of university life. If this is not so, if values and standards are to be imposed by a limited exposure to free discussion, then a mere acceptance of established values results with little challenge to the teachers of the future.
- (d) Where non-graduate and undergraduate students take common first year courses, groups are likely to have a wide range of academic ability. This may lead either to growing maturity or frustration on the part of the non-graduate student with resulting effects upon the first year courses within the university.
- (e) Common courses to which students are admitted with either

¹ This was suggested to the writer in discussion with senior officials of the Transvaal Education Department in July, 1967.

matriculation or school leaving certificate level of achievement must ultimately call in question the validity of the matriculation level for university entrance. This is a question which could profoundly affect the future development of South African universities, and is likely to be regarded with extreme suspicion by them.

- (f) The course structures are generally sound and provide an answer to the criticism which has been levelled at certain college of education courses. It is felt desirable that the concentration upon academic courses should precede the commitment to professional courses.
- (g) Certain courses appear to be rather full and in particular that of Stellenbosch University with 11 courses in first year, 12 in second year, and 11 in the final year. This must mean that students have little opportunity through reading, discussion and reflection to develop as mature students for the commitment to lecture courses is very heavy.
- (h) A wide range of subject offerings in studies which are clearly not of an essentially academic nature obviously throws a strain upon the teaching staff of departments of education and would seem to militate against the research and depth studies which are the life blood of any university department. It would seem that certain of these courses are more appropriate to colleges of education than to universities.
- (i) The non-graduate university courses are of three years' duration, the Transvaal colleges of education are unable any longer to offer four-year courses. The universities require to re-plan their courses and the question must quickly arise as to whether they are to offer four-year non-graduate courses, or restrict themselves to graduate training only.
- (j) This organisation of four-year non-graduate courses is likely to become even more complex if and when the four-year graduate programme is converted to one of the concurrent academic and professional studies as is happening at Stellenbosch University.

To sum up, then, certain South African universities have since education was accepted as a university discipline, and as a result of

confusion as to the rôle of the provincial authorities with regard to teacher education, provided general and specialised courses for the preparation of non-graduate teachers. These courses have, in the main, been well structured and have offered a sound preparation for teachers for primary and lower secondary schools. These courses have, at the same time, presented difficulties in organisation, difficulties which are likely to increase rather than be resolved. Universities have undoubtedly assumed responsibility for functions of teacher preparation which, both here and abroad, have largely been the direct concern of colleges of education. It is felt that at the present time with the promise of a new and significant step forward in teacher education in South Africa, the non-graduate primary school courses in the universities should be examined with a view to their rationalisation within the total pattern of teacher education in this country.

11. The Present Situation with regard to Initial Teacher Preparation in the South African Universities:

An attempt has been made in this chapter to outline the development of courses for the training of teachers in university institutions. From this survey certain generalisations can be made with regard to such courses at tertiary level.

- (a) As a result of an historical constitutional confusion arising within the first decade of the life of the Union of South Africa, the concept of the Teacher's First Class Certificate was changed and became the certificate or diploma awarded to teachers of graduate status trained within developing departments of education within the universities. Thus, South Africa came to develop the same pattern of graduate training as developed in the United Kingdom and other Western nations. The constitutional confusion was never finally resolved, and the situation, like Topsy, 'just grewed' with confusion and duplication of effort increasing as the universities moved into the area of non-graduate teacher education and the provincial education authorities, conversely, through their colleges of education, have moved into the sphere of academic secondary teacher preparation.
- (b) The one-year course of training for the graduate teacher has

been accepted here, as in England and Wales, as a professional course following upon a three-year academic course leading to the degree. 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, like its counterpart in the college of education, 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. The present need is, as long as the one-year course is accepted as the medium of professional preparation, for a critical reassessment of course structure and content with a view to producing a carefully integrated curriculum in which the professional growth of the student teacher is accepted as being of the first priority. It is emphasised that the need is not for a national curriculum as such, but rather that each university department should be encouraged regularly to examine its curriculum content. Research and investigation in such a field should be made available to all institutions so that courses should be developed as vital entities attuned to the professional requirements of the education situation in the nation.

- (c) In the provision for the professional development of the student it is necessary that effective practical experience related to theory be organised. This means that co-ordination of training both internally within the university and externally with education authorities and the schools is essential. The first area is provided for through the faculty structure of the university. The second must be developed through active liaison with state departments and with schools. The 'organic unity of training institutions' which the McNair Report advocated for England and Wales, is seen as a vital factor in the effective growth of this liaison.
- (d) Alternatives to the one-year professional course require to be explored. The possibility of extending it to two years or alternatively of developing concurrent academic and professional courses are alternatives which have received support in various

quarters. With the growing need for better educated and better professionally equipped teachers for the high schools of the future, experimentation on these lines and the making available of results of such experimentation becomes urgent.

- (e) As has already been stated, the universities have undertaken work in the field of teacher education which is normally the function of colleges of education, and vice versa. With any rationalisation of training patterns, this situation must be critically reviewed on a co-operative basis so that the strengths of each system be retained in the new pattern which evolves. Again it is stressed that different patterns exist in different parts of the country; the pattern of the Transvaal is very different from that of the Cape. Thus the requirement is for a regional approach to the development of a rationalised pattern. It is important that such regional planning be made available to all regions, so that progress can be made in evolving the best approach. A unified approach for the sake of the development of centralised control should not be seen as being an urgent priority.
- (f) The need appears to be then for the creation of liaison and co-ordinating bodies at regional level which will be required to examine the training pattern for that region. In addition there should be a co-ordinating committee at the centre to encourage of free interchange of ideas regarding teacher education. This organisational pattern will be developed in Part Four.

Part Four: Rationalisation and Co-ordination in Teacher Education

General Introduction

The previous sections of this study have pointed to the developing urgency for rationalisation and co-ordination of teacher education for the White group in South Africa. Part Two was concerned with constitutional control and professional administration of teacher education, while in Part Three an attempt has been made, through an examination of some existing courses, to delineate problem areas in the content of courses and methods of preparation of teachers.

The aim of the present section is to consolidate these two aspects - constitutional control and professional provision - and to formulate, in terms of the existing situation and legislation, a modus operandi for the development of teacher education in the 'seventies. The method used is to examine the restructuring of South African education, and particularly teacher education, in the 'reform period' of the 'sixties, and, thereafter, to consolidate with recommendations for control and course development in the 'seventies.

Chapter Thirteen: Educational Reform in the 'Sixties

1. The Climate of Reform:

If one accepts the fact that the need for reform in the constitutional and professional control of teacher education has been established in Parts Two and Three and that this was intimately connected with the dualism which had developed in educational control in South Africa, it is necessary to look briefly at the situation in which this reform was to take place in the decade of the 'sixties.

Education authorities, both provincial and at central government level had deplored the situation in which it was impossible for the school system, particularly at secondary level, to develop in accordance with the needs of the child as well as of the community. It was, however, one thing to say professionally that what was needed was a national policy with regard to education, and another, very different, and infinitely more involved matter to say the same thing from a political standpoint. The problem immediately arose as to where the initiative was to come from in making the first move. For the provinces to do so meant the danger either of localising the movement in a single province, or, worse, of instituting moves which might ultimately result in the erosion, or even disappearance, of provincial control of education. In its turn, the central government, through the Department of Education, Arts and Science, with its responsibility for higher and further education, had to tread warily in respect of any review of pre-Standard X level education. This was likely, indeed guaranteed, to raise very much wider issues of constitutional responsibility and the division of powers and functions between the central and provincial governments at an inconvenient time in the political development of South Africa.

On the other hand both the de Villiers Report of 1948 and the Vocational Education Act of 1955, initiated by the central authority, had emphasised the need for a review of education and the development of a national education policy. The de Villiers Commission had, in fact, recommended the establishment of a National Council for Education of some 17 members, broadly representative, which would determine the general principles of education policy for the nation as a whole. The Vocational Education Act had, by implication, drawn attention to the need for rationalisation in the field of secondary education.

While the professional evidence, therefore, pointed to the desirability of centrally-initiated review and reform of education, it was fully recognised that such a move would raise dangers and problems in South Africa at the time. The country was seriously divided politically with a tendency for that division to crystallise in the main along the linguistic division between the two White groups. Grave misgiving and opposition had been expressed at the government's legislative programme which had significantly transferred power during the 'fifties from the legislature and the judiciary to the executive. A centrally inspired review of education was, therefore, likely to be construed as a means of bringing local autonomy and the remaining constitutional safeguards under attack by a government which favoured the strengthening of central controls at the expense of the provincial system.

Furthermore, educationists, who, for the sake of professional efficiency, had advocated review and reform, viewed with suspicion any attempt at review which might possibly have as an undeclared aim excessive centralisation of control leading to educational uniformity. The spectre of political indoctrination through centralised control of education was a very real fear in the minds of many. On the other hand, there were many people who held that educational and national progress was seriously affected where there was no central policy in education, and where the provincial authorities which drew heavily on the national exchequer for funds, owed no responsibility to the nation for what was done with those funds.

An additional factor which exerted an influence on educational change was the situation vis-a-vis the wider world in which South Africa found herself at the start of the decade. It was not long since internal dissensions on racial lines had resulted in very severe criticism of South Africa by the international community. Her membership of the Commonwealth as an independent republic was due to be discussed at a forthcoming Imperial Conference. It was obviously hardly an opportune time to initiate investigations which might aggravate internal relationships within the country.

It must be recorded, however, that it was as an outcome of the Imperial Conference that South Africa withdrew from the British Commonwealth and became an independent republic in 1961. The dramatic developments which followed this event, including the return of confidence which resulted in a marked upsurge in the economic growth rate, and a

steady increase in the flow of immigrants to the Republic, notably during the first half of the decade particularly from newly independent former British colonies in Southern and East Africa, did much to create a favourable environment for educational reform.

2. The National Education Advisory Council Bill : 1962:¹

As the first step in what was destined to become the most comprehensive review into education ever undertaken in South Africa, the Minister of Education, Arts and Science, introduced the National Education Advisory Council Bill in Parliament in the 1961 session. The bill was originally designed to establish a Union Council, but with the legislative programme associated with the establishment of the Republic, consideration of the Bill was delayed until the following session (1962), when the word 'National' replaced 'Union' in the title.

The Bill provided for the establishment of an advisory council to assist the Minister in regard to educational policy, to consult with the Department of Education, Arts and Science on "broad fundamental principles of sound education" for the country, and to promote co-operation and co-ordination generally in educational matters. It was proposed that the Minister should appoint a full-time council of 7 to 12 members, the educational interests of each province being represented by one member. The council was to be appointed for five years. It was further proposed that the council should, with the Minister's approval, appoint sub-committees as necessary to investigate such matters as the Minister deemed fit. It was stated that such sub-committees should include at least one member of the Council. These sub-committees were to be empowered to visit any school in the execution of their investigations. Finally, the Minister was to be empowered to make such regulations as to any matter in respect of which he considered it necessary or expedient to make regulations in order to give effect to the provisions of the Bill.

Predictably, reactions from Parliament and from the country were instantaneous. They ranged from statements to the effect that here was the situation of which the country had long been warned - uniformity and indoctrination in the education of youth² - to opinions such as one that

¹ South Africa: AB 7 of 1962.

² Dr. E.J. Malherbe, the 1961 Education Panel and others were emphatic with regard to the dangers of excessive uniformity.

the Council "should not seek to be conciliatory towards possibly conflicting regional, provincial or sectional interest, but (must)..... formulate a policy which will be of the greatest advantage to all interest groups."¹ The Interkerklike Komitee vir Opvoeding en Onderwys prayed that "understanding and strength may be bestowed upon you (the Minister of Education, Arts and Science) so that in the hour of decision of great things in our country, also as regards education, you will follow the road to the establishment of a National Advisory Council which will unquestionably lead to the nationalisation of our education."²

As a result of the reaction, the Bill was referred to a Parliamentary Select Committee which took evidence from a wide range of educational and other interests between February and May, 1962. Despite the submission of some excellent professional evidence from educational authorities, for the amendment of the Bill, the Select Committee divided on party political lines and the result was that minimal changes were recommended. The Bill was re-titled the National Education Council Bill, and it was proposed that a full-time executive committee should provide for continuity between meetings of the Council.

The amended Bill was then re-submitted to Parliament as the National Advisory Education Council Bill,³ taken through all its stages and enacted in the 1962 parliamentary session.⁴

The powers and functions of the new Council included:-

- (a) advising the Minister generally in regard to education, and through him other education authorities in South Africa;
- (b) the tendering of advice on matters referred to it, as well as those "to which the Council considers it necessary to advise the Minister." In this way, the procedure to be followed was precisely similar to that laid down by the 1944 Education Act for England and Wales with regard to the functions of the Central Advisory Councils on Education;

¹ Evidence of the Afrikaanse Calvinistiese Beweging to the Parliamentary Select Committee on the Bill: R.S.A.: Report of the Select Committee on the subject of the N.A.E.C. Bill: House of Assembly, May, 1962, p.354.

² Ibid: p.67 et seq.

³ R.S.A.: AB 79 of 1962.

⁴ R.S.A.: Act No. 86 of 1962.

- (c) determining, in consultation with all bodies and persons concerned with education, the broad fundamental principles of sound education for the country as a whole, to promote co-operation in the field of education, and generally to co-ordinate education policy "with a view to adapting the educational system to the needs of the country.....with due regard to the advisability of maintaining such diversity as circumstances may demand";
- (d) promoting the prestige of the teaching profession; and
- (e) provision of co-ordination in the undertaking of research in education.¹

With regard to the operation of the Council, the view that it should be a fairly large body meeting on a part-time basis and representing a fairly wide range of educational interest fortunately prevailed.² To carry on the work of the Council between its meetings, an Executive Committee was appointed, consisting of the Chairman, two Vice-Chairmen, and two additional full-time members appointed by the Minister.

The trend of which this Act was an outward expression is clearly recognisable. "There is clearly in South Africa a strong trend towards centralisation of education in terms of ethnic groups. Higher education, vocational and special education, Bantu education, Asiatic education and Coloured education, are each and separately under a central department of education, which is part of a state department under a Minister. White education (primary and general secondary only)³ is provincial, but falls under the advisory functions of the National Advisory Education Council. If the pattern is to be consistent, then the Council should, in time, either assume the executive powers of a central board, or purpose the creation of such a board, which it would continue to advise."⁴

¹ Ibid: Section 7.

² The Council was to comprise a minimum of 15 members. It grew to have a total of 29 members by 1967.

³ This was written in 1966, before the National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967) appeared on the Statute Book.

⁴ Behr, A.L. and MacMillan, R.G.: Education in South Africa: p.19.

The creation of the National Advisory Education Council has been dealt with in some detail because it was the fundamental step in the review and reform of the South African systems of education which took place in the 'sixties and is to be completed in the 'seventies. At no stage of the draft or final versions of the legislation was reference made to teacher training, preparation, or education as such. Significantly, however, the powers of the Council, as in England, were to advise the Minister generally in regard to education. That teacher education was to figure prominently in such advice was indicated in the original debates. "As early as 6th June, 1962, in the House of Assembly during the second reading of the National Advisory Education Bill, the Minister of National Education¹ made it very clear that an investigation of teacher training would be one of the greatest and most essential tasks with which the future National Advisory Education Council would be faced."² The work undertaken by the Council in this regard will be dealt with in a later chapter.

3. The National Advisory Education Council and Educational Reform:

While it was obvious that major issues concerning education in South Africa confronted the new Advisory Council, care had to be exercised in its approach to them. Disparate controlling bodies had to be drawn into dialogue regarding them with a minimum display of the executive power entrusted to the Minister of Education, Arts and Science in terms of the new Act. Significantly the work of the Council began with interviews with provincial administrators in order to determine:-

- (a) the problems of each education department in respect of its future planning, and
- (b) views on the co-ordination of educational policy in the establishment of a national pattern.³

The various education authorities undertook to submit memoranda to the Council on these matters.

¹ Formerly the Minister of Education, Arts and Science. The new designation was conferred by the National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967).

² R.S.A.: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers (Gericke Report): RP. 29/1969: p.2.

³ R.S.A.: Report of the National Advisory Education Council: RP. 41/1964: paras 15-20, p.2.

This approach established clearly that the fundamental problems confronting education in South Africa were, firstly, those associated with the divided control of secondary education, and, secondly, the necessity for co-operation on the part of all authorities concerned with education. The Council recognised that co-ordination was necessary in the matter of basic syllabuses and curricula and to this end the Committee of Heads of Education Departments was requested to act as the agency of co-ordination. In accepting this task the Committee expressed the view that "secondary education is essentially differentiated education. Differentiated education at this level is an education wholly determined by (i) the capacities, aptitudes and interests of pupils, and (ii) the requirements of the national economy."¹

In ratifying the work of the Executive Committee, the Council at its second meeting requested "the Executive Committee to review the education of the Republic of South Africa and to draw up a draft education system for the Republic in which attention is given to all questions they consider to be of importance."² As a matter of priority the Executive Committee was invited to submit recommendations with regard to the divided control of education, and was instructed to hold regular discussions with the Committee of Heads of Education Departments. It was felt that "the proposed discussion will bring to a head one of the greatest and most important educational issues since Union was established in 1910. In the interests of the country as a whole and in the interests of the training and optimum utilisation of its future citizens.....the Council is determined to initiate the proposed discussions as early as possible in 1964."³

By this early action the National Advisory Education Council established its modus operandi; specific tasks allocated to its Executive Committee and to specialist committees established for a variety of purposes, and co-ordination, co-operation and consultation to be provided for through contact with the Committee of Heads of Education Departments. In this way, in addition to its major work on "the Teacher" to be undertaken jointly by four sub-committees and the National Bureau of Educational

¹ Ibid: para 26, p.3.

² Ibid: para 31, p.4.

³ Ibid: p.5.

and Social Research,¹ the Council directed attention to the following topics in 1964:

- (a) distribution of manpower and manpower potential;
- (b) the system of differentiated education;
- (c) measuring techniques as instruments for classifying pupils;
- (d) vocational guidance;
- (e) technical training for girls;
- (f) differentiated primary education as a basis for secondary education.²

From this beginning the work of the National Advisory Education Council became established in set lines. These included:-

- (a) vocationally directed education for boys and girls at school level as well as at post-school (non-university) level. From this developed a very large investigation into differentiated education and guidance of pupils.³
- (b) the method of determination and implementation of national education policy. This work was undertaken by the Executive Committee of the Council in close co-operation with the Committee of Heads of Education Departments. This group was officially constituted and known as the Contact Body.⁴ The work of this body terminated in the drawing up of draft legislation on national education policy which was approved by the Council and submitted to the Minister of Education, Arts and Science in 1966.⁵ This was to be the primary function of the first National Advisory Education Council during its life from 1962 to 1967.
- (c) Associated with both (a) and (b) was the whole survey of the problem of divided control in secondary education. The

¹ See Chapter Fourteen.

² R.S.A.: Report of the N.A.E.C. for 1963: para 42.

³ The publication of this report is eagerly awaited at the present time. In 1965 the Contact Body established a Reconnaissance Committee on Differentiated Education and Guidance to plan systems of education and guidance.

⁴ R.S.A.: Report of the N.A.E.C. for 1964: para 5, p.15.

⁵ This became the National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967).

Council worked steadily in conjunction with the Committee of Heads of Education Departments towards the removal of anomalies in this regard. This resulted in further legislation in 1967 which rationalised the control of secondary education.¹

- (d) A further matter was referred to the Council by Cabinet directive in 1964.² This involved the creation of a liaison body to investigate the co-ordination of school syllabuses, the co-ordination of education and training in line with the changing demands of the economy, as well as the extension of technical training for people of all races. The important point in this work was that while the Council was charged with consideration of education for the White group only, the new liaison body was to have a multi-racial responsibility. The report of the Council for the following year stated: "Questions of differentiated education and guidance are of the utmost importance in order to ensure that every sector of the educational system - including technical education - will receive its rightful quota of pupils, gifted pupils as well, so that every sector of the economy will, as far as possible, receive the trained manpower it needs."³

The outcome of this Cabinet injunction was the establishment of the Permanent Inter-departmental Committee on the Co-ordination of Educational Services for all Races (PICCOR) in 1968.⁴ The terms of reference given to this Committee were as follows:-

- (i) the co-ordination of syllabuses in the four provinces, South West Africa and the Department of Higher Education;
- (ii) the adaptation of education and training to the changing needs of the economy, as well as the improvement

¹ Acts No. 40 and 41 of 1967.

² R.S.A.: Annual Report of the N.A.E.C. for the year 1964: p.3.

³ Ibid: 1965: para 16.1, p.5.

⁴ Ibid: 1968: p.16.

- of facilities for technical training for all races;
- (iii) the provision for educational guidance for all White children as early as possible before they leave school;
- (iv) the making of recommendations on matters referred to it, or on which it wishes to make recommendations;
- (v) to report biennially.

It may be argued that this last matter of the liaison body deviates from the main aim and purposes of the National Advisory Education Council, and that its terms of reference raise problems of overlapping with other work undertaken by the Council. This is, indeed, true. The fundamental importance of PICCCR, however, is that it provides for some sort of educational co-ordination on a multi-racial basis. This is surely a necessary step in the development of a national system of education for the Republic as a whole. In this connection, the third term of reference seems to be somewhat irrelevant in the way in which it is phrased.

4. The Programme of Education Legislation in 1967:

From the foregoing it is obvious that, apart from the wider issue of teacher preparation, the two main issues to be resolved on a priority basis were the development of the machinery to permit national planning and co-ordination of education through the resolution of the problem of divided control, and, secondly, the consequential provision for the control of vocational education. It was obvious that changes of constitutional control arising from the first would be likely to invalidate, or, at least, affect the operation of the Vocational Education Act of 1955, and it would be necessary, therefore, to consider the introduction of amending legislation to regularise the position.

In fact, three measures were introduced into Parliament in the 1967 session, all of which received approval and were placed upon the Statute Book in that year. These new acts will be considered briefly seriatim.

(a) The National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967):

This Act represents the core of the educational reform of the

'sixties and provides procedures and machinery for the resolution of problems and difficulties with regard to the control of education which have been noted so frequently in this study. Inevitably, however, the solution of these longstanding problems brought some new dangers in its wake, and the measure was greeted with a certain degree of reservation in respect of both increasing centralisation and direction of educational policy and a consequent erosion of provincial autonomy. These dangers will be returned to.

The main provisions of the Act included:-

- (i) the Minister determines the general policy which is to be pursued in respect of education in schools.¹ A framework of principles was laid down regarding this general policy, viz.: of a Christian and broadly national character, the mother tongue as the medium of instruction; uniform conditions as regards compulsory education; education to be free and in accordance with the ability, aptitude and interests of pupils, with syllabuses and examinations co-ordinated on a national basis; and with the parents given a place in the system of education;
- (ii) a re-constituted National Advisory Education Council to advise the Minister of Education, Arts and Science with regard to national educational policy;²
- (iii) the Committee of Education Heads became a statutory body responsible for the submission of "recommendations to the Minister, and to the Administrators in regard to the manner in which the national education policy can be carried out on a co-ordinated basis";³
- (iv) the Minister's right "after consultation with and notification to the Administrator concerned, (to) cause an inspection to be made of a school or an office in any province in order to ascertain to what extent the national education policy has been, or is being carried out".⁴

¹ R.S.A.: Act No. 39 of 1967: para 2.1.

² Act No. 86 of 1962 which set up the original N.A.E.C. was repealed by the new Act.

³ Ibid: para 6(2).

⁴ Ibid: para 7.

The effect of the Act, and one of the main sources of concern with regard to its implementation, was that initiative for educational policy was now to be lodged solely in the hands of the responsible Minister. Admittedly safeguards were written in to the Act with regard to consultation with and advice given by professional bodies, but the situation was none the less startlingly clear. Executive power in respect of the professional control of education, about which there were widely diverging views within the nation, was lodged in political hands. This for once and for all ended the power of the provincial authorities in the initiation of educational change. In fact, the terms of the new Act were not unlike those of the 1944 Education Act in England and Wales, where it was stated that the new Minister of Education had a duty "to promote the education of the people.....and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by Local Education Authorities under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area."¹ While there were misgivings in the United Kingdom concerning executive power in the control of education, there were no basic and fundamental cleavages within the population with regard to the purposes, objectives and methods of education. In South Africa these cleavages were broad and deep.

The corollary to the transfer of power to the Minister was the weakening of the authority and initiative of the provincial departments of education. The National Advisory Education Council was to be the professional body at the apex of the educational administration pyramid. Provincial representation on this body is ensured through its legal constitution, but Directors of Education are not members of it. Instead, the Committee of Heads of Education Departments tended to be relegated to the somewhat subordinate rôle of implementers and co-ordinators of national policy. The subordinate nature of this rôle was underlined in the minds of some critics in the right of inspection of provincial institutions granted to the Minister by the Act. Again, one notices a similarity to the situation in England and Wales where the Minister of Education may "make an order, declaring the Authority, or managers or governors to be in default.....and giving such directions for the purpose

¹ Great Britain: Education Act of 1944.

of enforcing the execution thereof as appear to the Minister to be expedient, and any such directions shall be enforceable by mandamus.¹ Furthermore, he may cause a local enquiry to be held "for the purpose of the exercise of any of his functions under this Act."² Perhaps the summing up by Pedley has a relevance to the situation in South Africa. This does not "show that the Minister is exercising a baleful influence over the educational system - on the contrary, his impact on the schools is always marked by care and discretion - but rather to emphasise that the 1944 Act marked an important turning point in the history of education in this country..... What must be emphasised is that the controlling voice of the Minister speaks with increasing volume and authority, particularly when dealing with overall standards and the provision of facilities..... A national system; an insistence on national, not local, standards, a national arbiter in case of trouble - all these are written into the Act."³

(b) The Advanced Technical Education Act: (No. 40 of 1967):

This Act must be read in conjunction with the third one, the Educational Services Act, as the legislative readjustment necessary resulting from the passage of the National Education Policy Act and its effect upon the Vocational Education Act of 1955.⁴ Its main provision was to elevate certain colleges to be places of higher education under the Higher Education Act of 1923.⁵ In particular, "the Cape Technical College, Natal Technical College, Pretoria Technical College and the Witwatersrand Technical College (were) declared to be places of higher education.....(and) deemed to be colleges of advanced technical education established under this Act."⁶

¹ Ibid: Section 99.

² Ibid: Section 93.

³ Pedley, F.H.: The Educational System in England and Wales: p.69.

⁴ Union Government: Act No. 70 of 1955.

⁵ South Africa: Act No. 30 of 1923.

⁶ R.S.A.: Advanced Technical Education Act: No.40 of 1967: para 4(1). The M.L. Sultan Technical College for Indians was also raised to this status.

The provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1955 ceased to apply to these institutions which were expressly forbidden to register any student "unless he has obtained.....the matriculation certificate issued by the Matriculation Board.....(or) any qualificationrecognised by the Minister as a qualification entitling a person to such registration."¹

This Act therefore created the embryos of technological universities in South Africa and removed from them any students undertaking technical and vocational courses of training at a pre-matriculation level.

(c) The Educational Services Act: (No. 41 of 1967):

This final Act in the educational legislation programme of 1967 was designed to regulate and amend the control of vocational education at the secondary school level, thus ending divided control and permitting the development of a differentiated system of education at secondary level as part of the national policy of education. This was to be done in two ways:-

- (i) by permitting the Minister to establish, maintain, and manage schools established under the Special Education Act (No. 9 of 1948), and vocational schools established under the Vocational Education Act (No. 70 of 1955).²
- (ii) by permitting the Minister, in consultation with the Administrator concerned, to "transfer the rights, powers and duties.....in respect of any particular school.....which provides vocational education on a full-time basis up to a standard not higher than Standard X.....to such Administrator,"³

By this means, therefore, the Department of Education, Arts and Science (or of Higher Education, as it became) retained control of special and vocational schools and technical colleges, other than those referred to in the previous Act, while provincial education authorities assumed responsibility for technical and commercial high schools.

¹ Ibid: para 12, p.10.

² R.S.A.: Act No. 41 of 1967: para 2, p.6.

³ Ibid: para 9, p.12.

5. Conclusions:

The work of the first National Advisory Education Council terminated with the passage of the Acts. Starting from a basis of dispute and suspicion, the Council had achieved a significant measure of progress in the development of South African education:

- (a) dual control, the crux of professional criticism for half a century, had been terminated, and provision made for the formulation of a broad national policy in education;
- (b) it was now possible to undertake rational planning of secondary education on a differentiated basis;
- (c) advanced level technical education had taken a major step forward to meet the needs of the economy.

On the other hand political fears were aroused rather than allayed in the matter of the strengthening of the executive at the expense of provincial autonomy. On the part of educationists this fear was translated into that of excessive centralisation of educational control, manifested in standardised syllabuses and courses which might very easily stifle local and individual initiative. It was seen that, despite the very real advantages achieved in the matter of co-ordination, such practices might result in a deadening uniformity bordering upon indoctrination. Thus, the fears expressed at the time of the establishment of the first National Education Advisory Council, while to some extent allayed, had not entirely disappeared.

Along with the development of the basis for the new national education policy had gone a major effort by the Council to assess the rôle of the teacher in the education system. This led to proposals for the reform of the whole system of teacher education which will be considered in the next chapter.

Chapter Fourteen : The Formulation of a National Policy for Teacher Education

The major function of the National Advisory Education Council to which little reference has been made, and which was lacking in the educational legislation of 1967 was the matter of the initial preparation of teachers. This is a feature of thesis organisation, rather than of omission or oversight by the Council. It was clear to all concerned with the planning and provision of education in South Africa that the review of education inherent in the proposals to formulate a national policy could neither be complete nor effective unless an investigation into the systems of teacher training in operation was to take place.

1. The Work of the National Advisory Education Council in association with the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research:

In its second report (1964) the National Advisory Education Council reported on the operation of an ad hoc committee which had been established to enquire into and report on "The Teacher".¹ This investigation was to be undertaken by four sub-committees which were required to report on:-

- (a) recruitment, selection and wastage of teachers;
- (b) conditions of service of teachers;
- (c) status and prestige of teachers; and
- (d) training and certification of teachers.

The first, second and last of these investigations was to be undertaken in conjunction with the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research, while in the remaining one evidence was to be sought from the Federal Council of Teachers' Associations in South Africa. Thus a comprehensive survey of the existing situation in regard to the preparation of teachers was commenced. It seems significant that in none of these areas was the total demand for teachers for the schools of the Republic investigated.

The sub-committees concerned over the three-year period from 1964 to 1967 undertook careful research into their designated aspects. This

¹ R.S.A.: Annual Report of the N.A.E.C., 1964.

research tended in the main to be of the survey type of investigation into existing practices.¹ A much clearer indication of the nature of the problem with respect to specific subjects and subject areas was revealed in two research works undertaken for the National Bureau concerning the training of teachers. In the first of these Haasbroek examined the teaching of science at South African High Schools. This study reported that "the shortage of 249 teachers (16.1%) required to fill some of the 1546 posts in the sciences as a specific group of subjects.....demands serious consideration."² With regard to the training of science teachers at universities, Haasbroek was far from complimentary. "There are only a few departmental heads who appreciate the importance of science teaching at high schools and who make some attempt to promote better science teaching among future teachers during their academic training and to make them more acquainted with the actual presentation of sciences at the high schools."³ This criticism presented in 1964 presents the case for science education within the universities. This need is no less today than it was in 1964.

The second study referred to was that of Dr. A.J. van Rooy on the teaching of mathematics and allied subjects in South Africa. From statistical evidence he concluded that about one quarter (25.9%) of mathematics teachers are qualified in mathematics and have been trained at university. In respect of training at colleges of education he found that not more than four out of 13 lecturers had more than a Bachelor's degree in mathematics. He concludes: "to have an Honour's degree in Mathematics is of great importance to the lecturers in the method of teaching mathematics. Fundamentals of the subject are generally dealt with for the first time in the Honours degree for mathematics and it is these fundamentals which are so very important..... It is clear that the great majority of these lecturers do not have

¹ See: Department of Education, Arts and Science: N.B.E.S.R. Research Series No. 7: A Comparative Study of the Training of Teachers in South Africa.
 No.29: Die Werwing van Sekondêre Skoolleerlinge vir die Onderwysberoep (A.J. Venter).
 No.30: Die Keuring van Voornemende Onderwysstudente (P.G. van Z. Spies).

² Department of Education, Arts and Science: N.B.E.S.R. Research Series No.25: Haasbroek, J.B.: The Teaching of Science at S.A. High Schools: 1964: p.74.

³ Ibid: p.92

adequate qualifications."¹ This may seem a harsh judgement in the face of extreme shortage and of devoted lecturers giving of their best in the training of teachers. It is, however, a phenomenon not restricted to the 'scarce' subjects, nor to this country. In a similar study on the teaching of psychology in English colleges of education, the conclusion was reached that "a good deal (39%) of the responsibility for teaching psychology is in the hands of lecturers not formally qualified in the subject."²

The work of the ad hoc committee on the Teacher and the researchers undertaken by the National Bureau were reported on regularly in the annual reports of the National Advisory Education Council. In 1965 the belief was expressed that "the success of any education system is more dependent on its teachers than on any other single factor."³ This, in effect, placed teacher education at the forefront of the priorities of the Council. There were, however, difficulties in exploring this situation and the Council had to operate with circumspection lest it should exceed its terms of reference. "Although university training of teachers.....falls outside the sphere of the N.A.E.C's direct responsibility, the Council decided that the question of teacher training and its co-ordination is so important that an attempt should be made to obtain the co-operation of the universities. The Council appreciates the co-operation of the universities, each of which appointed a representative on a committee called the 'Joint Committee on Teacher Training' in response to its invitation."⁴ The universities submitted to the new Joint Committee memoranda setting out their attitudes to the question of teacher training and to co-operation with the education authorities at provincial and national levels. This was the first move aimed at involving all authorities concerned in a review of teacher education within the country.

1 Department of Education, Arts and Science: N.B.E.S.R.: Research Series No. 24, van Rooy, A.J.: The Teaching of Mathematical Subjects in South Africa: 1965: p.265.

2 Joint Working Party of the British Psychological Society and the A.T.C.D.E.: "Teaching Educational Psychology in Training Colleges", Br. Psychological Society: 1962: p.15.

3 R.S.A.: Annual Report of the National Advisory Education Council, 1965: para 8.2, p.2.

4 Ibid: para 8.3.

The following year the ad hoc committee of the National Advisory Education Council gave consideration to the desirability or otherwise of establishing a Teachers' Council, or Registration Council, and of defining its functions and activities. This work, which seemed to be of only passing interest at the time, was most important in the light of subsequent recommendations made with regard to the control of professional standards of teachers, and the prestige and status of the profession.¹

The year 1967 was, as has already been described, a significant one for educational legislation in South Africa. The effect of the introduction of the legislation described in the previous chapter was to allow the National Advisory Education Council to devote its concentrated energies to the problems of teacher training. Reports from the sub-committees investigating various aspects of the teaching profession were at or nearing completion and the annual report of the Council made reference to three aspects of teacher preparation which it considered of urgency. These were:-

- (a) the uniformity of teachers' certificates and diplomas;
- (b) the training of secondary school teachers should extend over four years; and
- (c) the training of such teachers should take place at or in close co-operation with the universities.²

These three matters were to be the fundamental issues upon which review and reform was to be based. With regard to the urgency with which this was to be done, the report referred to speech by the Minister of Education, Arts and Science in Parliament in support of the National Education Policy Bill: "If the child forms a foundation stone for sound and effective education, the teacher is assuredly a cornerstone." It is necessary "to succeed in finding a solution for the remaining problem, that is, the training of teachers, before the end of 1967. I am firmly resolved to rectify this matter next year by means of legislation."³

¹ Ibid: 1966: para 6.3, p.4.

² Ibid: 1967: para 9.4.4., pp.2-3.

³ Ibid: p.3.

Thus a time table was established for the completion of the review of South African education which was initiated by the introduction of the National Education Advisory Council Bill in 1962. This was also seen as the final step in the contribution to be made by the Senator the Hon. J. de Klerk as Minister of Education, Arts and Science (subsequently Higher Education).¹

Towards this end the National Education Advisory Council reported on the concept of an Institute for Teacher Training in which "an attempt was made to embody a system of control that would be acceptable to all parties concerned."² This recommendation was based upon the Report of the sub-committee on the training and certification of teachers which had been presented to the Council in May, 1967. The sub-committee had proposed that initial courses for teachers should be of four years' duration, that a "teacher's degree" should be instituted and that a joint system of provincial, central government and university control of teacher education should be developed. Towards these ends, and particularly the last, it was suggested that legislation should be directed.

With regard to the co-ordination of control, the sub-committee proposed that an institute of education should be established by agreement between provincial and national education authorities and the university in a particular region. It was recommended that this 'teaching' institute for initial preparation of teachers, as opposed to the Faculty of Education which was to concern itself with further advanced studies and degrees, should be under the control of a Professor Director and subject to the control of a Joint Advisory Committee of the controlling body, i.e. the university and education authorities concerned.

This report was discussed by the National Advisory Education Council, and its Contact Body and was then submitted to the Committee of University Principals for discussion. The Faculty of Education of the

¹ As a result of the enactment of the National Education Policy Act (Act 39 of 1967), the Department of Education, Arts and Science was replaced by the Department of Higher Education and Cultural Affairs. In November, 1970 a further change was made when the Department of Higher Education became the Department of National Education.

² Annual Report of the N.A.E.C.: 1967: para 9.4.6, p.3 (presumably universities and education authorities).

University of Natal prepared a memorandum which was adopted by the University as its official attitude to the Report and this was submitted to the Committee of University Principals for consideration.¹

In this memorandum serious misgivings were expressed on five main issues:-

- (a) the organisational structure which, it was claimed, fell between the stools of clear definition and vague non-definition;
- (b) the structure proposed represented too set and rigid a pattern, the keynote of which, it was felt, should be flexibility;
- (c) the place of the university was seen to be a weakened one despite assertions to the contrary;
- (d) the proposed Institute of Education concept with its peculiar Professor Director was revolutionary; it was asked to do very much more than what was regarded as its legitimate functions in the academic and professional fields;
- (e) the Minister's control over admission of students to courses of training in the universities.

From this the Executive Committee of the Council "prepared a draft bill for the purpose of further discussion after the provincial heads of education departments had consulted with their Administrators. Further amendments were made after discussions in the Contact Body, and with principals of the universities..... The Committee of Principals of Universities informed the Council on 20 October, 1967 that on the previous day they had decided as follows:-

'After full discussion it was agreed -

- (a) that the ideal method of training of all teachers but at least secondary school teachers, was by the universities;
- (b) that the proposed scheme of training at institutes be introduced gradually;
- (c) that a measure of diversity be permissible whilst the training be co-ordinated nationally;
- (d) that the autonomy of the universities be guaranteed, and that the responsibility of education departments be recognised;

¹ University of Natal: Memorandum on the Training of Teachers for Presentation to the Committee of University Principals (unpublished Memorandum).

(e) that full details be worked out."¹

Under these terms and conditions, the National Advisory Education Council sought to prepare draft legislation which would be acceptable to all parties concerned, and which would at the same time rationalise the system of teacher education in South Africa, with the universities drawn much more closely into the pattern than had previously been the case. The draft bill was introduced into Parliament in 1968 and will be considered below.

2. The Teacher Training Bill: 1968:²

The Teacher Training Bill referred to above was read for the first time in the House of Assembly on 23rd April, 1968. It was thereafter referred to a parliamentary Select Committee. The National Advisory Education Council said of the Bill that it "attempts to embody the salient features of an empowering measure as a framework within which.....a national teacher-training policy can be determined..... Provision is included for flexibility which in itself is desirable in education, particularly at university level..... There can be unity without uniformity. This belief is implicit in the draft Bill..... There does not appear to be any obstacle in the existing situation to hinder the creation of institutes of education at universities after agreement has been reached with education departments."³

These sentiments of the National Advisory Education Council found ready support from all those concerned with teacher education in the country, although a number of the practical proposals embodied in the Bill caused some educationists concern as to whether they could possibly implement the declared policy of the Council. The Bill itself tended to be couched in terms giving an impression, as in other legislation, of the extension of executive power without necessarily keeping in mind the professional/academic relationships and interchange, a delicate mechanism compounded of tradition, practice and growth which is an educational system, and particularly that part of it which is concerned with the preparation of teachers.

1 Ibid: para 9.4.8.

2 AB 68 of 1968.

3 Annual Report of the N.A.E.C.: 1967: para 9.4.12, p.4.

Such statements as "teacher training shall be co-ordinated throughout the Republic",¹ "the Controlling Body shall take such steps as may be necessary to carry into effect the policy determined by the Minister in terms of sub-section (1)",² and "all training of persons as teachers for employment by education departments for Whites in the Republic.....shall, after the expiry of a period of twelve months commencing from the date of the commencement of this Act, be provided at an institute at a university";³ gave cause for concern. This seemed to represent a very heavy hand of executive control in an educational field in which constitutional issues had not been resolved, and in which it is usually necessary for co-ordination and co-operation to grow out of mutual association and confidence between authorities and institutions operating at a number of different levels.

(a) Proposed Administration of Teacher Education:

The Teacher Training Bill proposed as its central feature the creation of Institutes of Education by the universities in agreement and co-ordination with the appropriate education authorities. The administrative pattern is summarised in Table 40.

(b) Comment on the Proposed Pattern of Teacher Education:

The following are points arising from the consideration of the proposals contained in the Bill:-

(i) the executive power of the Minister of National Education. In addition to the power set down in the table, the Minister had certain powers of selection of students for training for institutions falling under his direct control.⁴ This could be interpreted as giving the Minister very wide powers of control not only over the proposed Institute of Education, but also over undergraduate courses, particularly in the Faculties of Arts, Commerce and Science in the universities.

(ii) the rather anomalous position of the National Advisory Education Council. This body which was the closest approach to a national co-ordinating body in education, had no powers

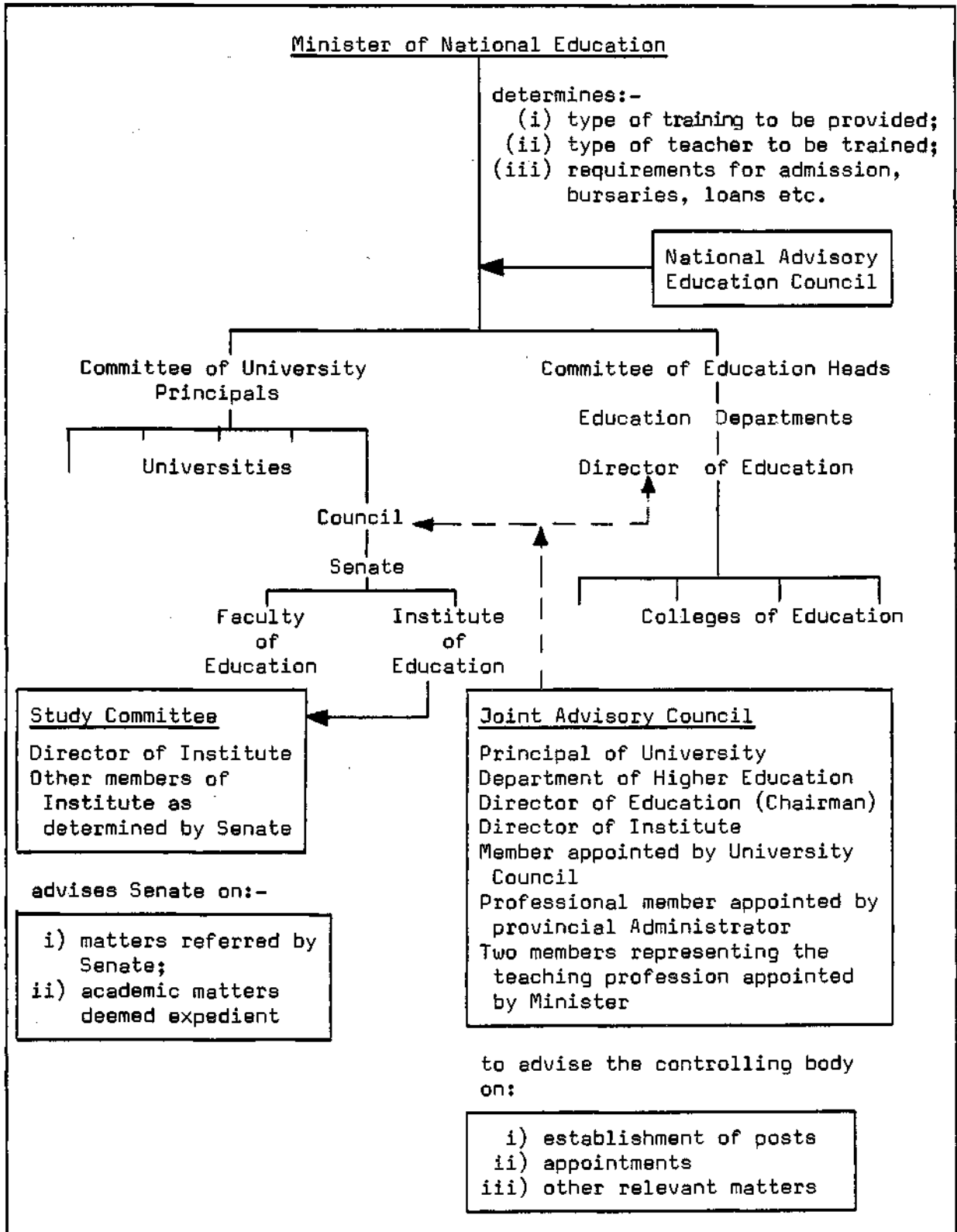
¹ AB 68 of 1968: Clause 2(1)(a).

² Ibid: Clause 2(2).

³ Ibid: Clause 3(2)(a).

⁴ Ibid: Clause 9 provided that this control was to be shared between the Minister and the appropriate Administrator depending upon the type of school for which the student was to be trained.

Table 40 : Administration of Teacher Education : Teacher Training Bill, 1968



- over higher education. It could not provide a forum in which national policy with regard to teacher education could be formulated. Indeed, even if it could, it was by definition an advisory body without co-ordinating, controlling or executive powers. Thus, having attempted to create a co-ordinating body at regional level, the Bill effectively neglected to provide machinery for the formulation of national policy;
- (iii) the position of the Institute of Education and the Joint Advisory Council with respect to the University as a whole was peculiarly revolutionary. The students to be admitted to the Institute were to be selected by outside agency, the appointment of staff was subject to external joint control and not apparently to be subject to review or control of the Senate, but rather of Council, while the courses offered by staff over whom it had no control, were to be approved or otherwise by the Senate on the recommendation of the Study Committee. Further, it was by no means clear as to who was to be responsible for the appointment of the Director of the Institute.
- (iv) regional co-ordination was to be provided by a Joint Advisory Council representative of all concerned in teacher education for those students who were to receive their training in the Institute of Education. Clause 10(1) of the Bill stated that "all training of White persons as teachers shall.....be provided at an institute or faculty of education at a university." Provision was made for exceptions to this clause, but clearly such exemption was regarded as of a temporary nature.¹ This appeared to represent a radical change which raises the query whether, had the Bill become law, there might have been the threat of dislocation in the system of teacher education at a crucial time in the development of education in the country.
- (v) arising out of the foregoing the desire of the authorities, in this case the National Advisory Education Council, to raise standards of teacher education and, therefore, of the profession, by associating it closely with the universities, is understandable. But the question must be asked whether all types of

¹ Ibid: Clause 10(2) "The Minister may.....for such period and such conditions as he may.....determine, grant exemption.....in respect of any such training which is provided at colleges in a particular province."

teacher training can most appropriately be carried out in the universities. Where, for example, are teachers of technical and commercial subjects to receive the most appropriate training?

- (vi) the Joint Advisory Council was specifically directed to advise the 'controlling body' of the Institute of Education¹, i.e. of ~~the~~ university concerned. By definition the 'controlling body' "in relation to a university, means the council of that university and the Administrator of the province in which the seat of that university is situated, acting in consultation with each other."² This could be construed as a diminution of the autonomy guaranteed to the various independent universities of the Republic of South Africa by their charters.
- (vii) it was not clear, although provision was made for teacher training to take place in universities, whether training could continue to take place in existing colleges of education. Provision was made in the Bill for the transfer of staff and buildings from provincial education authority to university control, but the concept of the teaching institute was only vaguely defined.

Very considerable discussion was provoked by the publication of the Bill. Some of the universities felt that, while responsibility for teacher education 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 their 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. "The concept of the 'Institute' as proposed by the Minister has about it the touch of the iconoclast, and much that is good in the present situation and has evolved over many years appears to be about to be rejected, or to be in jeopardy - progressive continuity, (and) regional diversity and endeavour."³

¹ Ibid: Clause 5(5)

² Ibid: Clause 1(vi)

³ Personal opinion of Dr. G.A. Hosking, Deputy Director of Education, Natal Education Department, expressed to the writer.

The university faculties and departments of education were by no means unanimous in their acceptance of responsibility for all teacher education, while staffs of colleges of education were unsettled as to their future positions and status. The primary concern was, however, with a continuity of output of teachers to staff the schools. "The need to gear more adequately the training of teachers to the exacting demand of our times is obvious. We not only require more teachers, but we require teachers who can respond to a higher academic (standard) and a more rigorous training. This requirement immediately places us in a dilemma since a more careful screening to ensure that aspirant teachers can in fact respond to higher academic demands and a more rigorous training will tend to reduce the number of teachers."¹

(c) Subsequent developments with regard to the Teacher Training Bill:

As has already been indicated, the Bill was referred to a Parliamentary Select Committee immediately after the first reading. There appear to have been two reasons which prompted the Minister to adopt this course: first to allow a wide expression of opinion on a measure which was basic to the reform of the South African educational system, and, secondly, realisation that the measure was contentious and was likely to arouse heated debate in provincial and university circles. In fact the Annual Report of the National Advisory Education Council for 1968 refers to the measure as "The Contentious Bill" and continues "After the select Committee had.....heard three sets of witnesses, the end of the parliamentary session was in sight, and the Prime Minister announced that the State President would appoint a commission of inquiry into teacher training on 28 June, 1968."²

3. The Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers:

The State President's proclamation establishing the Commission was, in fact, dated 14th June, 1968, and it was required to report to the State President not later than the 30th November of the same year. Thus the very limited period of five months was allocated for this important educational review. It is obvious that the Minister wished

¹ Ibid.

² R.S.A.: Report of the N.A.E.C. for 1968: p.4.

to proceed with the existing Bill or introduce a new measure at the commencement of the 1969 parliamentary session. The Commission comprised eight members (excluding the Secretary) under the chairmanship of Dr. J.S. Gericke, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Stellenbosch and Moderator of the General Synod of the Nederduitse Gereformeerde Kerk.¹ Strong representation was given to the universities, while provincial education departments and the organised teacher profession were also represented.

The Commission was instructed to make "recommendations on an acceptable practicable policy and a system for the training of White persons in the Republic of South Africa as teachers."² It was necessary for any recommendations made to be in line with the National Educational Policy Act and the Educational Services Act,³ in such a manner that:

- (i) teacher training would be co-ordinated and elaborated on a nation-wide basis;
 - (ii) new circumstances and requirements would be complied with and teacher training kept abreast of modern trends of thought and practice;
 - (iii) the prestige of the teaching profession would be maintained and promoted; and
 - (iv) the adverse results of overlapping would be eliminated.⁴
- (a) The Basic Principles and Criteria in the design of a national system of teacher training:⁵

In establishing a framework of guiding principles for its recommendations, the Commission wisely heeded many of the criticisms which had been levelled at the Teacher Training Bill, which had given rise to its appointment. The basic principles upon which it proposed to act were laid down by the Commission as follows:-

¹ This is an indication of the Church's interest and involvement in the matter of teacher education.

² R.S.A.: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers: (Gericke Commission): RP 29/1969, p.62.

³ Acts 39 and 41 of 1967 respectively.

⁴ The Commission received written submissions and heard oral evidence in Pretoria, Cape Town, Durban and Bloemfontein.

⁵ Report of the Gericke Commission: Chap.3, p.18.

- (i) Irrespective of pressures, quality of teaching staff being trained should not be sacrificed to quantity, although it was recognised that the training plant within the Republic should produce a satisfactory number of good quality teaching staff for the schools.
- (ii) It was necessary to eliminate existing diversity but at the same time ensuring "a viable and workable unity in diversity",¹ to which end it was necessary to co-ordinate teacher training on a national basis. This co-ordination was seen to extend to admission requirements, duration and nature of training, basic requirements regarding curricula and syllabuses, as well as certification.
- (iii) The training offered must be equivalent throughout the country. Accepting the concept of differentiated training for different classes of teachers, this did not mean identical training. It did mean, however, that training institutions would have to have comparable status.
- (iv) Students undertaking courses of training should be treated equally throughout the country.
- (v) Detrimental overlapping in training should be eliminated with a view to saving manpower.
- (vi) The minimum desirable duration for courses of training was held to be four years, but with the existing shortage of teachers a three-year course for primary school teachers was deemed satisfactory. Under ideal conditions it was considered that the training of secondary school teachers should extend over five years. It was considered that all courses should be of a combined academic-professional nature.

In terms of these basic principles for a national system of teacher training, certain fundamental criteria were established. These included:-

- (i) Through the development of unity in teacher training, the promotion of the status of the teaching profession and the prestige of its members.
- (ii) There should be "no sudden unnecessary and radical changes in the existing system of training", but rather a policy "to enlist institutions that have trained teachers in the past as

¹ Ibid: para 46(b).

partners in the new system of training."¹

- (iii) All parties concerned in teacher education would have to make concessions, although such changes should be seen as evolutionary rather than revolutionary. However, it was recognised that the necessity was to take the initial steps which would promote gradual development.
- (iv) The problem of constitutional control was recognised. The training of teachers had been declared to be a function of higher education.² However, it was fundamental that the provinces should retain a significant say in teacher training, and therefore a partnership of all concerned was seen to be desirable.
- (v) It was held that centralised control of teacher education together with a prescribed uniform implementation of practice was not educationally or constitutionally sound. It was therefore felt that what was necessary was a general national policy with decentralised control of the teacher training system.
- (vi) The teaching profession should have a reasonable say in the system of teacher education.
- (vii) The controlling machinery of teacher training should be as simple and foolproof as possible.

Fundamental educationally sound premises are stated in these principles and criteria. Emphasis upon unity in diversity, the maintenance of standards, the recognition of the part played by existing institutions, a partnership of training institutions, gradualism in the evolution of a new system and the eschewing of rigidly enforced centralised control was generally welcomed by all concerned in teacher education. The question arose as to how such premises were to be translated into "an acceptable practicable policy". It was on this rock that the Commission split, submitting majority and minority reports which must now be considered.

(b) The Gericke Commission: the majority recommendations:

The core of the recommendations of the Commission was to be found

¹ Ibid: para 49.

² Act No. 41 of 1967: Clause 44.

in its proposal to establish a South African Professional Council for the Training of White Persons as Teachers. This was to be a statutory body composed of professional experts. At the regional level the Commission advocated the establishment of a joint advisory and co-ordinating committee for teacher training in the centre or region. In this the Commission recognised that, while secondary training in general should be more closely linked with the universities, there were "subjects for which the universities do not, cannot or cannot adequately provide."¹ In respect of these subjects the Commission recommended that colleges of advanced technical education, and provincial colleges of education, should continue to provide training. This aspect of the Commission's findings made imperative a partnership of training institutions. The administrative pattern of the organisation and partnership is set out in Table 41.

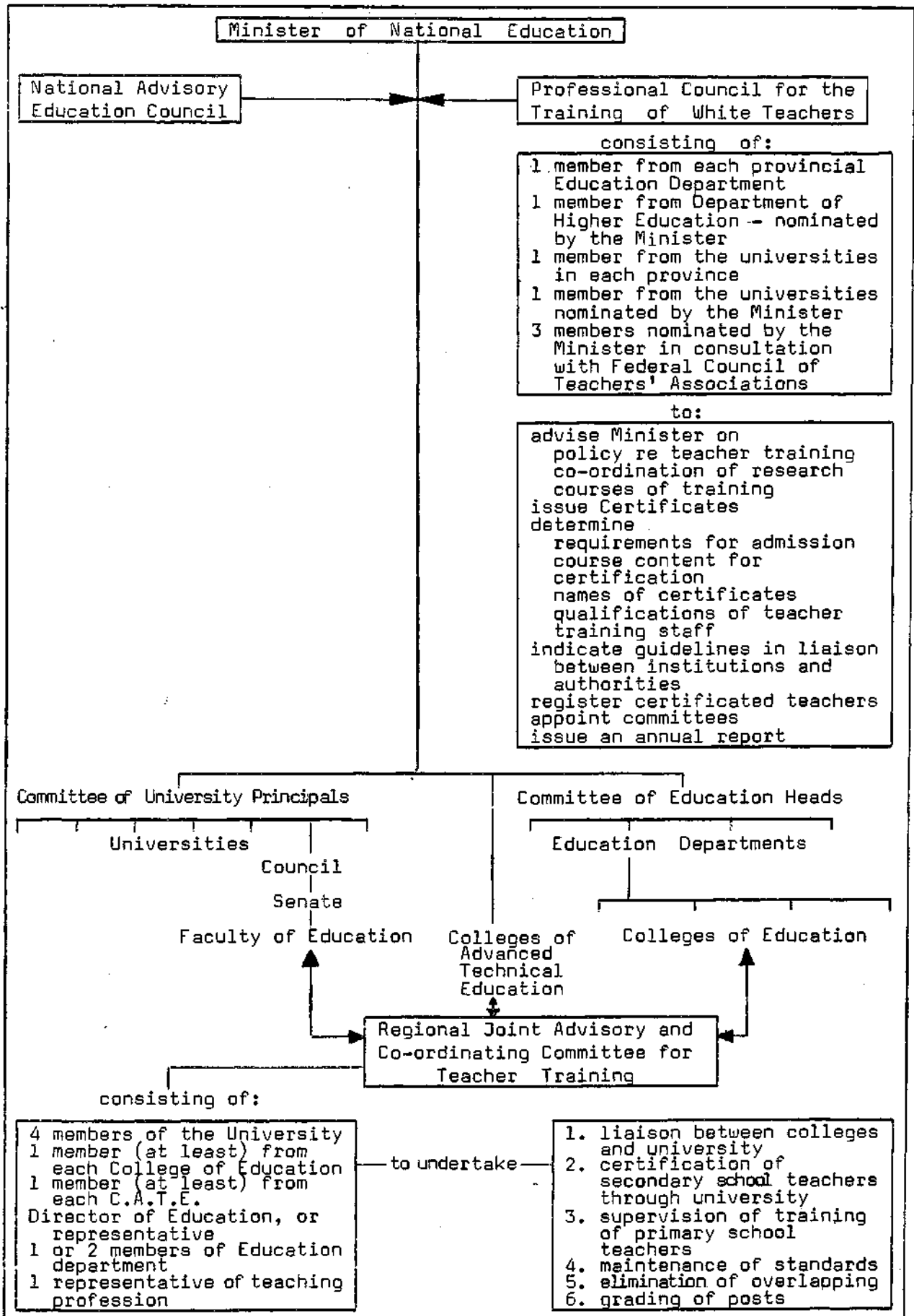
Arising out of this proposed system and in contrast with that proposed by the Teacher Training Bill of 1966,² the following points are noteworthy:-

- (i) It was now proposed that there should be two advisory councils assisting the Minister, the first operating at school level, and the second specifically charged with responsibility for teacher education. This would assist in overcoming the problem of co-ordination mentioned above in connection with the Educational Services Act of 1967. In addition, the Professional Council for Teacher Training was to be given wide powers and responsibilities in the determination of national policy.
- (ii) As in the case of the Teacher Training Bill, however, there was to be no direct link between the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees and the national body. It is obvious that there would be indirect links, as members of the Professional Council would also obviously be involved at regional level. However, it is emphasised that this at best would be incidental, and there would therefore be no official channel through which development at the local level could influence the Professional Council in its work of advising the Minister.

¹ Gericke Commission Report: Clause 68(a)(i).

² See Table 40.

Table 41 : Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as proposed by the Gericke Commission (Majority Report)



- (iii) The concept of the institute of education was rejected. In weighing the evidence presented to it, the Commission found that the concept as set forth in the Teacher Training Bill was "unacceptable" to the provincial "education departments, the colleges for advanced technical education, the majority of colleges of education, the majority of teachers' associations, and also some universities."¹ Five differing proposals were examined before support was finally given to the proposal that existing institutions should be more closely linked by the establishment of joint advisory and co-ordinating committees. In this way it was felt that most effective expression could be given to the idea of institutional partnership which the Commission had accepted as a fundamental premise in the establishment of a new national system of teacher education.
- (iv) Related to the matter of partnership, the Commission was of opinion that the joint advisory and co-ordinating committee was an essential feature of its policy of gradualism in change in order to prevent dislocation in the supply of teachers to the schools. It must be accepted, however, that to be effective a policy of gradualism must be positive, accompanied not only by an expressed desire, but a will to make changes where necessary for the general improvement of teacher training. Where this is not so, a policy of gradualism may degenerate into a policy of 'status quo', resulting in stagnation. In such a case in South Africa, the excessive diversity, which was the bane of the system, would not, or at least not for an excessive period, be rationalised, thus defeating the whole object of the reform.
- (v) The proposal had, however, very positive advantages. Provision was made for partnership in teacher education; there was unlikely to be any dislocation in the supply of teachers; a professional council of the kind envisaged was likely to do much in enhancing the status of the profession and the prestige of its members.

All in all, the recommendations of the majority report of the

¹ Gericke Commission Report: para 63(a), p.28.

Gericke Commission were educationally sound and practically applicable. They were also likely to be acceptable to all concerned in teacher education. The scheme suggested was much more rational than that proposed in the Teacher Training Bill of 1968. There was, however, the danger of gradualism degenerating into inertia. Given goodwill on the part of all concerned, this need not have been a disadvantage.

(c) The Gericke Commission: minority recommendations:

The minority recommendations were put forward by two commissioners, Professors O.P.F. Horwood and B.F. Nel. The disagreement expressed concerned the feeling that the majority recommendations failed to support the general review of education to which expression had been given in the legislative programme of 1967; that the proposed developments maintained the status quo in teacher training, and that aspects of the Teacher Training Bill, in particular, the concept of the Institute of Education had been rejected on inadequate grounds.

The main points of difference raised by the dissenting commissioners may be summarised as follows:-

- (i) The recommendations do not link up with existing legislation, and in fact the creation of the joint advisory and co-ordinating committee at regional level, with its right to indicate the guidelines for liaison in teacher training undermined the position of the Minister in the effective determination of national education policy.
- (ii) It was felt that educational principles had been subordinated to the twin criteria of acceptability and practicability.
- (iii) Insufficient recognition was given to the work of the National Advisory Education Council in the formulation of educational policy.
- (iv) The fact that existing colleges were to be allowed to continue indicated that the recommendations did not meet the "new circumstances and requirements" envisioned in the terms of reference to the Commission.
- (v) The recommendations fail to take cognisance of a world-wide trend in which professional training of various types is moving steadily towards closer links with universities.
- (vi) Arising from this point, the recommendations do not make a significant contribution in the raising of the status of the

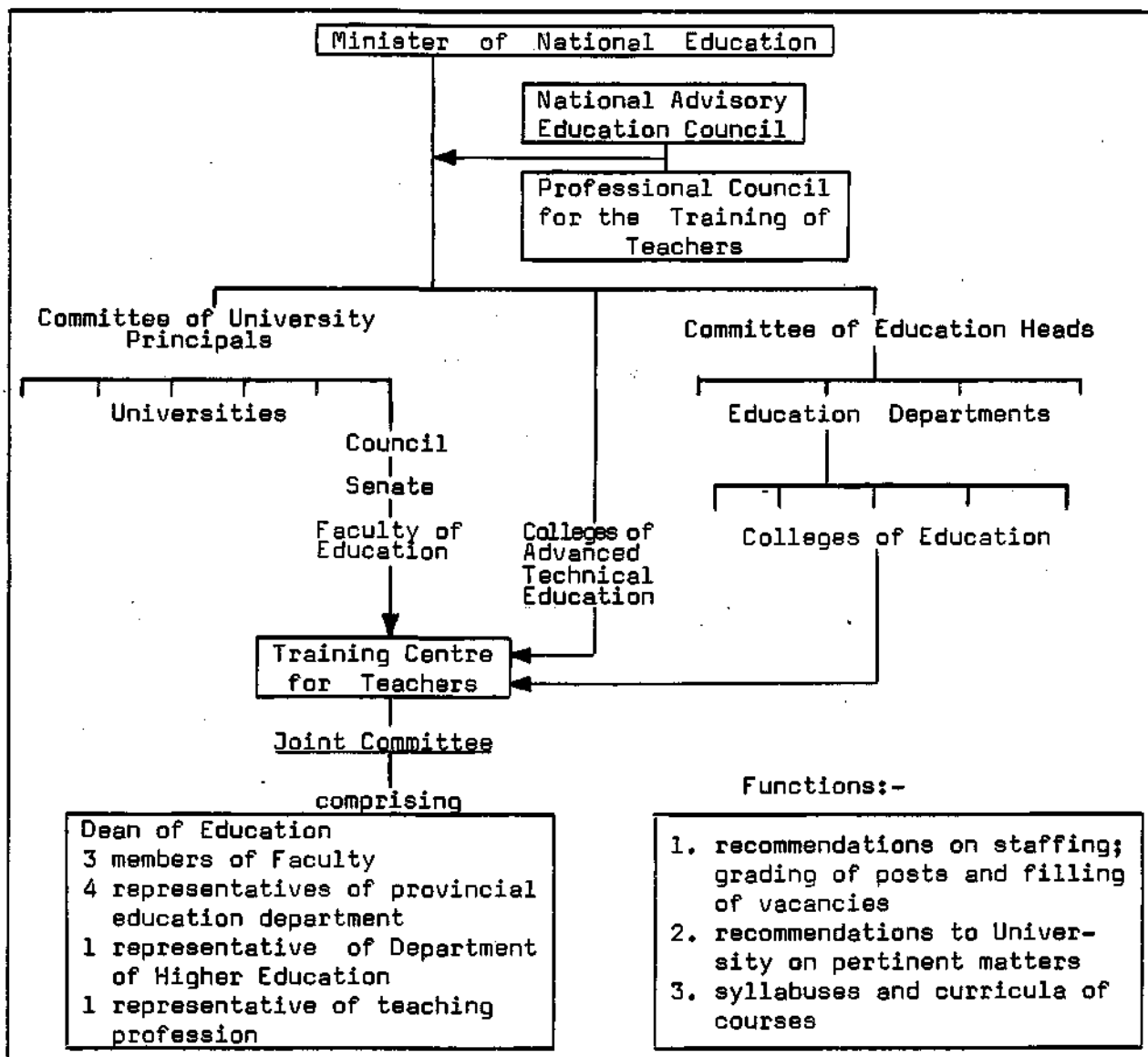
teaching profession. This is particularly emphasised by the differentiation of training in various types of institution. It was felt that joint control of training in a regional centre would enhance the prestige of all who were trained in that centre. Again, it was felt that by closer association with the universities, students would be able to work for degrees and diplomas of the university, while college lecturers would be able to raise their status to that of university lecturers.

- (vii) It was felt that the recommendations as they stood might not lead to any form of co-operation between institutions, and still less to their eventual incorporation within the university. It was, therefore, felt that there should be a specific link with the universities which should give clear guidelines in training.
- (viii) The concept of the institute of education received wider support than the majority report indicated. This had come from the universities, and a significant number of colleges of education as well as from two of the Afrikaans churches. In addition, it was felt that the statement that the proposed institute was unacceptable to the provincial education departments had been adopted too quickly on evidence which was too generalised and which had been evaluated from a quantitative rather than a qualitative point of view.
- (ix) The view was expressed that joint control of teacher education at the regional level was possible, despite the legal arguments put forward to the contrary. Joint control in medical schools and in the faculties of agriculture in South African universities was cited as evidence of this.

The views expressed in the minority report therefore tended to be in favour of a more radical change of policy than that advocated by the majority. The administrative pattern favoured is set out in Table 42.

The main points of difference between the schemes proposed in the majority and minority reports are:-

Table 42 : Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as proposed by the Gericke Commission (Minority Report)



- (i) While accepting the concept of a Professional Council for Teacher Training at the national level, the minority report was of opinion that it should be much more closely linked with the National Advisory Education Committee.
- (ii) The principle of joint participation in the administration of teacher education was also accepted, but the dissentient commissioners pointed out that in terms of Section 44 of the Education Services Act,¹ "the provinces were only enjoying a concession from the Government to subsidise teacher training....."

¹ Act No. 41 of 1967.

It could be argued that they could have no objection if the Minister of National Education were now to exercise his prerogative and decide on the home and control of teacher education."¹

- (iii) The retention of the institute concept in the minority report, the Institute being termed a Training Centre for Teachers established under university aegis by the Minister of Education after agreement between the university and the Administrator concerned. This seemed to raise a number of problems of joint control and its legal interpretation and validity, as mentioned above. Of equal concern was whether such joint control might lead to a diminution of university autonomy as was feared in connection with the disputed Teacher Training Bill.
- (iv) In the joint committee there was to be parity of representation between the university and the provincial education authorities, with the Dean of the Faculty of Education appointed as chairman. This gave considerable advantage to the universities in comparison with the other proposals. It was obvious that the existing institutions would be absorbed into the university for provision was made for the pooling of staff which became the responsibility of the university concerned. Provision was also made for the possible appointment of the head of a college as the director of the Teachers' Training Centre. Significantly, it was stated in the matter of staffing that "before the university council makes the final appointment, the recommendation will be referred to the Administrator for his approval."²

The minority report, then, proposed a more radical plan for the reform of the system of teacher education in South Africa, one which was much closer in pattern to the Teacher Training Bill. The gradualism of the majority report was brushed aside, and, just as the minority report could state that the majority had given too much weight to acceptability and practicality, so conversely could it be claimed that the minority had failed to give due consideration to these requirements

¹ Gericke Commission Report: para 33.4 of the minority report: p.128.

² Ibid: para 38(b): p.132.

of the terms of reference of the Commission.

Perhaps the basic point to come out of the two reports of the Commission was the fact of the underlying dichotomy in teacher education - the cleavage between the provincial administrations and education departments on the one hand, and the central government and the universities on the other. The majority report clearly favoured the former, the minority the latter. From these diverging views it was now a matter for the Minister of National Education and his advisers to produce legislation acceptable as far as possible to all concerned, practicable in its application, and in keeping with the development of a national education policy for the country.

4. The National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969:¹

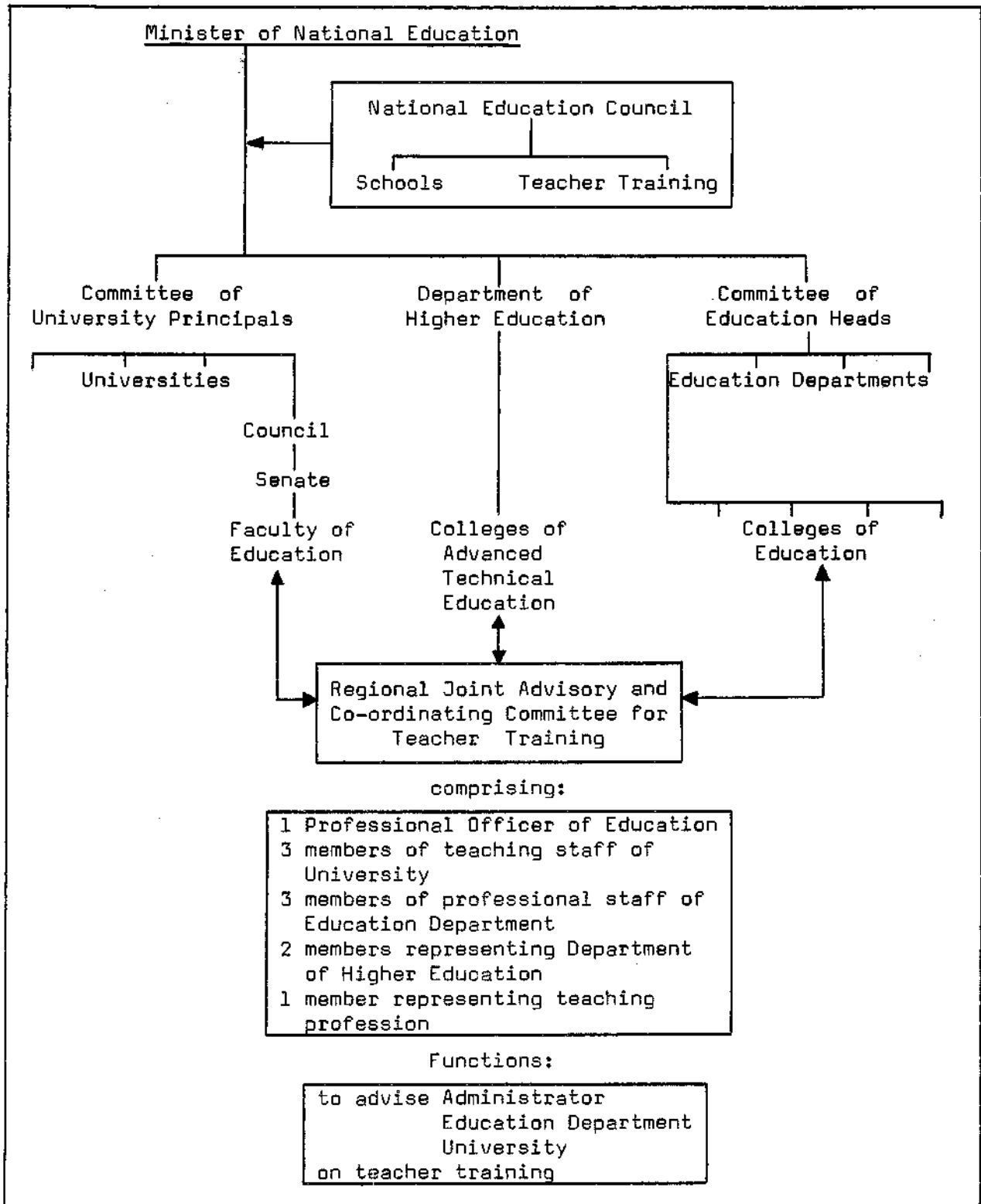
The new measure which arose out of the reports of the Gericke Commission was introduced into the House of Assembly by the Minister of National Education early in the 1969 parliamentary session. It represented a new departure from the pattern of educational legislation developed in 1967. The Teacher Training Bill and the Gericke Commission both had in mind a measure designed solely to provide for a national system of co-ordination and control in teacher education. The new bill was far more comprehensive. It was at once an amending and consolidating measure which sought to place teacher education at the centre of educational policy-making and to link it directly with the National Advisory Education Council and the Minister of National Education. The proposals contained in the Bill - or, perhaps, more correctly referred to as the provisions of the Act, - are set out in Table 43.

(a) The National Plan for the Administration of Teacher Education:

From Table 43 it can be seen that the terms of the Act represent a compromise between the majority and minority reports of the Gericke Commission. The old National Advisory Education Council was abandoned in favour of a new and enlarged National Education Council, the general council of which comprise twenty six to twenty nine members. Of these, not fewer than twelve are to be concerned with teacher education. It can be argued that this represents a junction of a professional teacher

¹ R.S.A.: Act No. 73 of 1969.

Table 43 : Administrative Pattern of the System of Teacher Education as set out in the National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969.



training council with a national education council, in something of the manner suggested in the minority report. This enlargement of the National Education Council both in numbers and functions does present problems. The Council is involved in advising the Minister with regard to school education in South Africa. It was clearly recognised by the Gericke Commission, by the Educational Services Act, and, indeed, by earlier legislation, that teacher training was a function of higher education. Thus, in the present Act the National Education Council has to assume responsibility (admittedly, only advisory at the present time) for educational matters at both pre- and post-Standard X levels. This is a situation almost without precedent in the history of South African education.

In addition to this, it is also an anomalous situation. At the present moment, the Committee of University Principals and the Department of Higher Education both have responsibilities for post-Standard X education. If the National Education Council is given powers of overview and advice at this level, then it seems that a further area of professional administrative overlapping may have been created.

Furthermore, much of the advantage which the Commission envisaged flowing from the creation of a professional council for teacher training, including the registration of teachers, is not provided for by the enlargement of the National Education Council. Thus, while the amended structure provides for efficient dual purpose professional administration, it raises problems of function and does not provide all the services which a professional council might have done.

The compromise nature of the Act is also to be seen in its creation of regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees for teacher training. This follows closely the pattern recommended by the majority report in the joint advisory and co-ordinating committee, and its membership is not significantly different, although university representation is weakened. The minority report recommended the establishment of the training centre for teachers under the university wing, but subject to scrutiny and limited control of a joint committee. In the Act it is stated that "the training of White persons as teachers for secondary schools may be provided at a university only."¹ This implies in effect the creation of a training centre, but, in the case of the Act, the joint

¹ Act No. 73 of 1959: Clause 2.1(A)(2).

committee is under the control of the Administrator and not of the university. Indeed, in the Act, the initiative in the establishment of the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committee is vested in the Administrator, while the chairman of the committee is by regulation required to be an official in the employ of the provincial administration.¹ This appears to be an attempt at compromise between the more radical proposal to transfer teacher education to the universities and the more conservative attitude of the majority report. This compromise is also to be noted in the provisions of the Act which permit existing institutions to continue to function.

On this score, however, the Act is vague. The training of secondary school teachers must take place in the university. The Minister is empowered to grant temporary exemptions from this regulation.² However, the Act further states that "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 at a college and a university in close co-operation with each other."³ The provincial education authorities may be pardoned for wondering what their future is in the field of teacher education.

(b) Professional Problems to which the Act gives rise:

While it is accepted that the lengthy processes of draft bill, select committee, commission of inquiry have given rise to an Act which is to provide a framework for the determination of teacher education policy in the Republic in the immediate future, it is recognised that the Act itself gives rise to certain important problems. These may be summarised as follows:-

- (i) the Act does provide some radical departures from existing practice. The requirement that the training of secondary teachers may only take place at universities could possibly

¹ R.S.A.: Government Gazette No. R1844 of 23rd October, 1970: National Education Policy Act, 1967: Regulations.

² R.S.A.: Government Gazette No. 2750 of 10th July, 1970, pp.10-13. The Department of Higher Education gazetted notices exempting temporarily Colleges of Advanced Technical Education, and provincially-controlled Colleges of Education from the provisions of the Act in respect of specific courses.

³ Act No. 73 of 1969: Clause 2.1(A)(3).

provide a dislocation in the supply of teachers to that sector of the educational plant which is suffering the greatest shortage of skilled staff.

- (ii) the functions of various bodies under the Act is imprecisely stated. For example, the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees are vaguely required to "advise the Administrator concerned, the Department (of Higher Education), and the university or universities concerned on teacher training."¹
- (iii) a possible diminution of university autonomy exists in the situation in which the Administrator is empowered to set up a committee to advise the university on teacher training. The regional committee, it is presumed, must operate in terms of the National Education Policy Act. The university, as an autonomous body, is presumably not required to heed the advice given. The question then arises as to whether there can be a national policy in regard to teacher education, or, if not, might pressure not be brought to bear upon the universities to conform to such policy.
- (iv) the regional structure is defined in very wide terms and discretion is left to Administrators to determine the pattern to be followed within their provinces. This provides no problem in the smaller provinces such as Natal and the Orange Free State, but it is open to considerable debate in the larger provinces like the Transvaal and the Cape.
- (v) a lack of communication between regional and national bodies concerned with teacher education, except where, co-incidentally, individuals are members of both. This is a feature of all the proposed plans for the rationalisation of teacher education in the Republic. In the communications line all the training institutions have a link with the apex of the professional and administrative pyramid. Universities may act through the Committee of University Principals to the Minister; a similar link is provided for Education Departments through the Committee of Education Heads, while the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education operate through the Department of Higher Education.

¹ Ibid: Clause 2.1(B)(3).

There is, however, no direct link between the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees and the National Education Council. This is felt to be a very serious omission, for out of the cumulative expertise and experience of the regional committees should flow ideas to be incorporated in national policy. It is significant in this respect that the Committee of University Principals has set up a sub-committee of Deans of Faculties of Education to advise it with regard to teacher education.

5. Conclusions:

There is no doubt that a reorganisation of teacher education in South Africa, both constitutionally and professionally is timely. Any such reorganisation presents problems of degree. What is the magnitude of the change involved and within what period is the change to be effected? The greater and more rapid the change, the greater is the risk of dislocation, not only of teacher supply, but of the work of participating institutions. It is therefore held that the reorganisation should tend to be conservative rather than radical. At the same time it should be progressive, the ultimate aims and goals being kept under review by a professional body of teacher educators. The reorganisation, it is felt, should grow out of the strengths of existing organisations resulting in a progressive rationalisation and co-ordination of teacher education in the Republic.

The amendments to the National Education Policy Act attempt to steer a middle course between the poles of opinion represented by the majority and minority reports of the Gericke Commission. These poles may be identified with provincialism and local control on the one hand, and a combination of centralised initiative and university control on the other. Forces other than professional, including strong religious influence, can be divined in this separation. If teacher education is to be rationalised and co-ordinated in the best professional interests of the country and its youth, then sectionalism and separatism must be avoided.

There is throughout the world a tendency for post-secondary school professional training to move into closer association with the universities and this is recognised in respect of teacher education in South Africa. The Act lays down that the training of secondary school

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. Are they to be restricted to colleges for the preparation of primary teachers? Will they develop like similar institutions in the United States of America into junior colleges, liberal-arts colleges or even provincial universities. The large colleges in the Transvaal which have long been responsible for secondary school training and which today have well-developed four-year training courses might well follow the American example, particularly if the English precedent of a National Council for Academic Awards were to be adopted. At the same time great care must be exercised in these matters to ensure that such moves in no way detracted from the status of the teaching profession nor the prestige of its members.

The new plan for teacher education in South Africa appears to be a workable one. What is required in the implementation of such a measure is constructive professionalism and goodwill, rather than administrative haste. Proposals for the implementation of the plan will be considered in the remaining chapters.

Chapter Fifteen: A Suggested Framework for the Development of Teacher Education in South Africa

In the two preceding chapters attention has been given to the period of reform of education in South Africa in which the primary aim has been the creation of a centralised national system of education; even though attention has been paid to the objective of 'unity in diversity', the emphasis has been on a standardised pattern for the whole country. "In South Africa we have reached the end of a long phase in the evolution of teacher training, and are about to enter a new and challenging period which will depend for its fruitfulness upon the wisdom of responsible decisions which will have to be taken within the next few years. It is, therefore, of crucial importance that the fundamental principles and issues involved be objectively established before any action is taken."¹ These words were spoken during the sitting of the Gericke Commission. Since then the National Education Policy Amendment Act has established a framework as outlined in the last chapter. However, there is still within this framework a possibility for the development of a flexible approach to the whole question of teacher education. This must be seen in terms of the basic objectives which the country sets for the preparation of its teachers. There is still a short time left in which decisions are to be taken which will affect not only the training institutions, but the students trained in them, the schools in which they teach, and, most importantly, the successive generations of South African children who pass through their hands. Let us begin with what MacMillan terms "the fundamental principles and issues involved."

1. The Fundamental Principles and Issues Involved:

For any student of the development of teacher education, two fundamental principles are laid down as cornerstones of policy which it is virtually impossible to alter. The first of these is the historical tradition in education. The survey of teacher education undertaken in this study has served to highlight the rôles of national and provincial

¹ MacMillan, R.G.: The Organisation of the Training of Teachers in South Africa: Legislation and the Problem: from Occasional Paper No.3, Department of Education, University of Natal, 1969: p.16.

authorities and institutions, seldom acting in concert until the last decade, in the provision of teachers for the nation's schools. The need here is to lead these diverse authorities and institutions into a co-ordinated and rationalised pattern of operation through which optimum results will be achieved in the preparation of teachers. The emphasis here must be placed on the use of the infinitive "to lead". This is much more important in the achievement of success than words such as 'coerce' or 'direct'. There is great opportunity still for the development of leadership in the improvement of the system of teacher education in this country. In few national education systems, apart from newly independent nations (and even here there are very clearly discernible pressures), is it possible to write educational reforms upon a clean grey slate. It is always necessary to take into account established practice. To fail to do so would be to invite dislocation and chaos.

The second cornerstone to which reference is made concerns the educational legislation inscribed in the Statute Book in the last three years of the decade of the 'sixties. This also has been described in the preceding chapters, and is to be accepted as the guidelines along which education in this country will move in the immediate future. With regard to teacher education, this includes the fiat that the training of secondary school teachers will take place in the universities which are not discouraged from extending their activities in this matter to other levels and fields. There must be regional consultation and co-ordination, and at the same time the Minister is to be advised with regard to policy on teacher education by the National Education Council. These provisions may appear to be comprehensive, but they do in fact allow considerable room for flexibility.

Accepting these two basic principles as laid down and, therefore, as twin pillars round which the suggested framework is to be built, what other principles must be established at this stage? The basic principles and criteria laid down for themselves by the Gericke commissioners are accepted as comprehensive.¹ In broad outline the remaining principles may perhaps best be summarised under three main headings:-

¹ See Chapter Fourteen.

- (a) The primary objective is to produce better trained teachers. They must be better equipped both academically and professionally. They must be equipped to meet and to adjust themselves to fairly rapidly changing situations as regards educational organisation, curriculum and syllabus content in terms of the knowledge explosion, methods and techniques of teaching, as well as sociological attitudes to the rôle of the teacher and the school.
- (b) No one and no single institution knows precisely how this is to be achieved. "As Rugg argues 'Among the men of imagination, the teacher of teachers will be called upon to put his talents to work far beyond the conventional fields of education.'¹ For this work to be achieved it is necessary to create an organic unity of training institutions in the functioning of which the rôle of [all institutions] must not be static and circumscribed but, through professional co-operation at all levels, must be encouraged to reach out to face the enormous problems of providing teachers equipped to guide and lead the new society."² It seems, therefore, that what is necessary between authorities and institutions is professionally co-ordinated flexibility.
- (c) The raising of the prestige of the teaching profession and of the status of its members. It is submitted that if a policy, or pattern, can be evolved which meets the first two of these premises, then the third will be automatically achieved.

2. The Basis of an Organisational Structure for Teacher Education:

(a) A Comparative Study of Possible Structures:

It is a truism to state that teacher education throughout the world is in a state of ferment. There are, however, certain definite tendencies which can be discerned on an international plane. Higher academic and professional standards are being required as a result of which the duration of courses of training is being extended. With

¹ Rugg, H.O.: The Teacher of Teachers: Harpers, New York, 1952.

² Niven, J.M.: The College of Education and its Rôle in the functioning of an Institute of Education: Occasional Paper No.3: Department of Education, University of Natal: 1969: p.33.

this, it is becoming usual to regard teacher education as higher education and therefore to transfer such training to the universities, to raise the status of such institutions to that of universities or to grant them associate or constituent status with the universities, thereby underwriting the academic and professional standards of the institutions. South Africa is no exception to these developments. It has been noted that courses in South African colleges have been extended from two years to three years in general, while in the Transvaal a fourth year has been added for secondary school teachers. It would be advantageous to note briefly the main types of organisational pattern adopted by different national education systems:-

(i) The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:-

The pattern of higher education in the USSR is to concentrate specialised professional training in specific institutions as opposed to the universities which are concerned with the more generalised academic studies which can be classified as the humanities and the pure sciences. These institutes, as they are called, are all concerned with tertiary level study, and all are involved in the preparation of students for the diploma, or first degree. Thus, in the field of teacher education, students after completion of the middle school, (ten years) proceed, upon selection, to a pedagogical institute, which, like the colleges of education, in South Africa or the United Kingdom, prepares students specifically for teaching.¹ These institutes are not associated with the universities; they stand apart from them, but their qualifications enjoy, in theory at least, parity of esteem. This is possible in a highly centralised system in which rigid uniformity is enforced, and in which the state is the mainspring of training, certification and employment.

The Soviet pedagogical institutes, then, are teaching institutes closely linked with the All-Union 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.

¹ Pedagogical schools, to which entry could be obtained after eight years of schooling, have tended in the last decade to give way to the institutes, as a result of the realisation of the need for better prepared teachers.

(ii) The United States of America:-

If the Soviet pattern can be described as 'uniformity', then the only word which characterises American teacher education is 'diversity'. The pattern which evolved in the last century of teachers' colleges preparing teachers for the schools, has changed radically. Many of the two-year colleges have expanded the duration of their courses as well as their offerings and have become four-year liberal-arts colleges conferring a first degree. Others have become state universities offering advanced courses and research facilities in post-graduate schools and departments.

Thus, the original teacher's qualification has been upgraded to the status of a degree. The result has been a profusion, and a confusion, of teachers' qualifications. By mid-century some twelve hundred were awarded.¹ Not only was there a profusion of certificates; the same applied to the standards of academic and professional achievement which they represented. Two results have flowed from this. The first has been the professional devaluation of teachers' qualifications with unfortunate results for the status of the American teacher, or at least some of them. Arising from this, the second result has been a growing demand for objective accreditation of teacher education at both state and national levels.

Teacher education in the United States, therefore, has suffered badly from excessive diversification of both courses and standards. 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.²

(iii) France:-

As one might expect in a society with a strong classical tradition in education, and a veneration of academic standards, France has long had a pattern of separation of institutions for the training of primary

¹ Armstrong, W.E. and Stinnet, T.M.: A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in U.S.: third edition, 1955: N.E.A.

² It must be stated that any move towards central i.e. federal government control would be likely to meet with opposition. What is inferred by national control here is of a professional nature e.g. the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, a subsidiary organisation of the National Education Association.

and secondary school teachers.¹ The école normale, to which entry was gained upon conclusion of primary schooling represented the route followed by elementary school teachers. This system was terminated by the Vichy government of Petain in 1940. At this stage, students were required to study for and obtain a pass in the Baccalaureat before undertaking a short course of professional training. At the end of World War II, the de Gaulle restoration re-established the école normale, but retained the requirement of the completion of the Baccalaureat. Thus, students intending to enter primary school teaching now have the advantage, not only of better academic preparation, but of direct experience of the secondary school system, and a level of scholarship which permits them to enter the university.

For the secondary school teacher, the pattern has traditionally been and still is through the university. "In order to encourage young people to enter teaching, a decree of 27th February, 1957, established within each faculty of arts and science an Institute de Préparation à l'Enseignement du second degré (I.P.E.S., or institute for training secondary teachers)."² A three-year course prepares them for their teaching diploma. Closely associated with the I.P.E.S. is the regional pedagogical centre which, among other responsibilities, supervises practical examinations. In addition, the traditional practice of professional study (CAPES) after the first degree still continues.

With the rapid expansion of secondary education in France and the easing of the transition of pupils from primary to secondary schools together with the requirements of the observation and orientation cycles in the junior secondary stages, the result has been not only a shortage of teachers, but the requirement of more generally trained practitioners for this level, rather than the traditional subject specialists. Thus, in France, teacher education is undergoing some modification in response to changing demands of the schools. It is increasingly difficult to maintain the classical separation of teacher education. It is felt that the regional centres, centres pédagogiques régionaux, which operate in all university towns, have an important rôle to play in the reform of teacher education in France.

1 This also reflects the system of control of education at primary and secondary levels which in turn is a link with the administrative system of Napoleon I.

2 Thabault, R.: The Professional Training of Teachers in France: Chapter 11: The Education and Training of Teachers: Yearbook of Education, 1963: p.251.

(iv) 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 Leaders¹ in 1943 recommended the establishment of closer relationships between universities and their neighbouring training colleges. From this concept of an area training organisation, and of the recommendations of the minority report of the Committee has developed the peculiarly English concept of the co-ordinating Institute of Education. The concept is described as 'peculiarly English' because it contains within it as the major ingredient of its success, the capacity for co-operation and compromise. It is not a teaching institution but 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, are represented. The Institute scrutinises student applications for admission, approves courses, conducts professional examinations, recommends certification procedures to its university, organises in-service and vacation courses, provides information services for teachers and promotes educational research.

A further development resulting from the publication of the Robbins Report² in 1963, has been the creation of the School of Education in which the colleges of education and the university faculty of education have moved into closer association for the preparation of students for a new 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. It is not visualised that the majority of college students will qualify for such a degree. By the

¹ The McNair Report, named after the Chairman of the Committee, Sir Arnold McNair.

² Committee on Higher Education: Report on Higher Education, H.M.S.D., 1963.

end of the present decade it is not envisaged that more than 25% of students will be enrolled in such courses. Numbers involved at the present time are very small.

The features of the English system which are significant are the concept of a co-ordinating institute, the rôle of the universities in the promotion of teacher education standards and in drawing other institutions into their orbit, as well as in the promotion of a new degree, the teaching for which is substantially done in colleges beyond university control. Indeed, this last feature has caused some critics to wonder whether this process might not result in a decline of standards on the American model.

(v) The Federal German Republic:-

"The teacher in the academic secondary schools has from time immemorial completed his studies at the university..... On the other hand, teachers in Volkshule and Mittelschule are still struggling to obtain complete academic recognition of their training and education..... This situation will, of course, be changed when the Pädagogische Hochschule becomes part of the university structure."¹

Within the Federal Republic, as in the United States of America, education is a matter for individual states or länder. Thus, the situation varies somewhat in various parts of the Republic. "Bavariahas transformed all its teacher training establishments into Pädagogische Hochschule, offering courses lasting three years, which, in groups of three or four, have been linked to the regional university The remaining länder retain separate and independent Hochschule, but in the composition of their staff.....as in the introduction of self-government in academic affairs and the election of their Rektor, these have something of the legal status of academic colleges."²

In a recent lecture, Professor W. Deeler,³ a member of the Committee on the Reorganisation of Teacher Training in North Rhine-Westphalia,⁴ described the function of the Pädagogische Hochschule in

1 Hilker, F.: Organisation and Structure of Teacher Education in the German Federal Republic: Chapter 12: The Education and Training of Teachers: Yearbook of Education, 1963: pp.263-4.

2 Ibid: p.264.

3 Lecture delivered at the Natal Training College, Pietermaritzburg on 11th March, 1970.

4 This region is roughly comparable demographically with South Africa, having a total population of 17 million.

in this area. The basis of the reorganisation of teacher training is that elementary teachers should be qualified at the same level as secondary school teachers. Accordingly there has been a declaration of equivalence of the Pädagogische Hochschule with the university although no research work is undertaken by them. They have now been converted, by combining various Hochschule, into eight universities in North Rhine-Westphalia. Higher education is now provided within the land on a rationalised regional basis, each regional institution comprising possibly a traditional university, one or two "teacher" universities and about six technical colleges or specialised institutions. An important corollary in the maintenance of standards is that syllabuses in each subject in each institution must be worked out centrally by the co-ordinating regional institutes. This results in standardised regional curricula and examinations.

West Germany, then, accepts the need for teacher education to be conducted in a university environment and is upgrading her teacher training institutions to university status. At the same time regionally centralised control seeks to maintain academic and professional standards. A fundamental principle in this scheme is the equivalence of standards of training for both primary and secondary teachers.

(b) Conclusions from the Comparative Study:

Obviously the foregoing brief surveys are generalisations only of salient features of organisation, and have the weakness of all generalisations in that they do not reveal all the details which become apparent only in an exhaustive study. They do, however, point to five vitally important aspects of any organisational structure for teacher education which might develop in South Africa:

- (i) The broad organisational pattern of teacher education varies from one in which there is strong centralisation 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 organisation. 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, especially where coupled, as in the United States with a freedom from external scrutiny, 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 organisations offering a wide range of academic, professional and vocational courses, to those with a single professional specialism. The former is represented par excellence in the United States, the latter by the USSR: West Germany, with its regional association of tertiary level institutions, as in North Rhine-Westphalia, and England and Wales with inter-institutional co-operation represent intermediate stages between them.
- (iii) The provision of teacher training for various levels of operation, e.g. primary and secondary schools is variously undertaken in separate, in unified or in co-ordinated institutions. Thus, France, in which primary and secondary teacher training have traditionally been rigidly separated, is now encountering the situation in which this policy is being questioned. The USSR is moving towards the situation in the pedagogical school and is abdicating in favour of unified teacher education in the institutes. In America teachers' colleges have become four-year degree granting institutions. Regional co-operation through the Institutes of Education has been the pattern in England and Wales for the last two decades, with a trend towards closer co-operation with the universities through the school of education to which selected students only are admitted.
- (iv) The duration of courses for initial preparation of teachers varies from three to five years.
- (v) In only one example examined above is there a detailed national policy for teacher education. This is to be found in the USSR. It is only in this instance that the state is entirely responsible for selection, training, certification and employment of teachers.

From these conclusions it now seems possible to lay down certain basic fundamental principles with regard to the structure of teacher education in South Africa. These are:-¹

- (i) Teacher education is in the latter part of the twentieth century an integral part of higher education.
- (ii) It should be seen from the viewpoint of policy and planning as a unified whole even though it may be carried out in a variety of institutions operating at different levels and in different fields.
- (iii) Co-operation amongst education authorities at all levels is essential. There should be no divided control of teacher education; at the same time it should not be on the basis of dominance and subordination. Co-operating institutions should operate in partnership on the basis of equality.
- (iv) The importance of regionalism must be recognised with acceptance of the fundamental unit of a university, neighbouring colleges of education, as well as the responsible education authorities.
- (v) In place of a prescribed and detailed national policy which, whatever its intention, could be interpreted as the desire to establish uniformity of control and approach, there should be provision for professional and academic co-ordination at the national level. The aims of this should be to improve courses of training, as well as to maintain academic and professional standards. From this would result a unified teaching profession, the status of which should be steadily enhanced.

These basic principles are to be read in conjunction with those set down by the Gericke Commission, and integrated into the framework of existing educational legislation. Accepting these requirements, can a professionally viable framework for teacher education be created?

(c) A Proposed Framework for Teacher Education:

The basic organisation contained in the National Education Policy

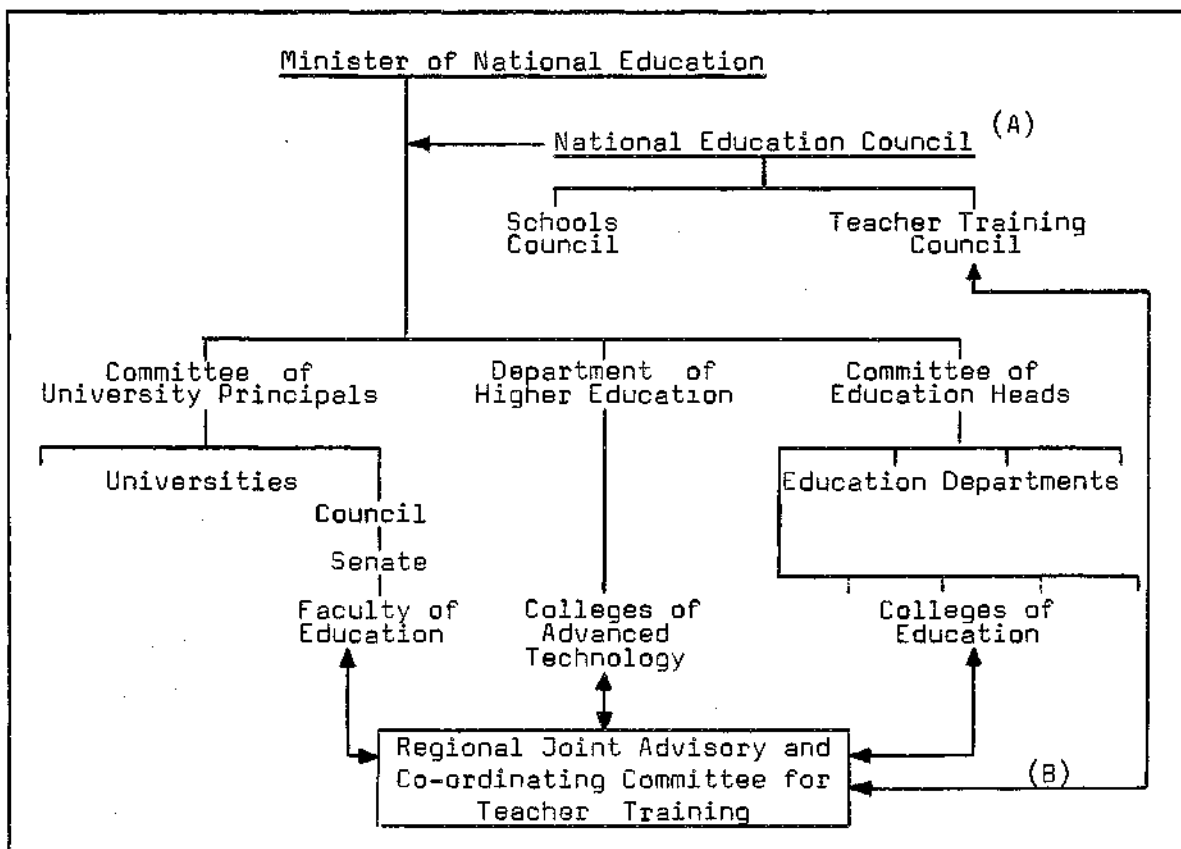
¹ See MacMillan, R.G.: The Organisation of the Training of Teachers in South Africa: Legislation and the Problem: Occasional Paper No.3: Department of Education, University of Natal, p.13.

Amendment Act of 1969 is set out in tabular form in the previous chapter.¹ The proposals contained here may be broadly summarised as providing for:-

- (i) National co-ordination and professional advice to the Minister of National Education through an expanded and reconstructed National Education Council. It should be noted that this Council, unlike its predecessor, is not designated as advisory. It would seem reasonable to assume that consideration had been given at the time of the preparation of the legislation to expanding its functions and responsibilities.
- (ii) Regional groupings of institutions under university aegis but with a broadly representative advisory and co-ordinating committee. The functions of these bodies has not been clearly stated, leaving a distinct possibility for flexibility, particularly in the area of co-ordination.

Within these two national and regional levels and recognising the possibility of variation of function within them, Table 44 contains a proposed variation of this structure.

Table 44 : A Proposed Professional Structure for Teacher Education in South Africa



In the proposed structure two main changes over the pattern as established by the National Education Policy Amendment Act are put forward:-

- A. At national level the institution of the National Education Council is accepted, although its composition and functions are changed. The National Education Council is conceived as being an advisory and co-ordinating body with responsibility for the overview of primary and secondary education and teacher training in respect of the education system. This body would have a general council, much as it has at present, and this council would co-ordinate the work of two specialist professional councils, the first the Schools Council, responsible for advising on and co-ordinating primary and secondary education, and the second, the Teacher Training Council charged with similar responsibilities in respect of teacher education.

(i) The Functions of the Teacher Training Council:

These are firstly seen as advisory to the Minister of National Education, to the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees, and to the statutory bodies such as the Committee of University Principals and the Committee of Education Heads.

A second function is that of registration: of courses offered, of certificates awarded and of teachers qualified. It would thus become a national council for the registration of teachers and the accreditation of courses and certificates.

Its third function is supervisory regarding the admission requirements of students as well as ensuring equality of financial provisions for students throughout the country. In this connection the Teacher Training Council might assume responsibility through a subordinate bureau of the registration of contracts of students in training although this aspect of administrative control could well be left in the hands of the employers.

A fourth function, and most important one, is the co-ordination of teacher education at national level through the holding of regular conferences at which all regional organisations, authorities and institutions could be represented.

(ii) Composition of the Council:

There should be a general council as well as a smaller executive committee to provide continuity when the council is not in session. The general council should comprise two representatives from each regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committee, thus making it a professional body, widely representative, of persons actively concerned in teacher education. This would mean a general council of approximately sixteen members. The executive committee should comprise three full-time members: the chairman, a professional secretary and one additional member. The executive committee should be nominated by the general council and appointed by the Minister of National Education.

It would be necessary to provide a secretariat in order to fulfil the permanent functions of the council as set out above.

The General Council should also have power to make nominations to the Minister of National Education of members to serve on the National Education Council as determined by legislation.

- B. The regional organisation is accepted as it is set out in the Act. What is proposed is a more precise definition of the functions of the Regional Joint Advisory and Co-ordinating Committees, as well as a positive link between them and the national body. This latter requirement has been provided for in the proposed composition of the Teacher Training Council, as well as in the suggestion regarding the holding of regular national conferences.

It is at this point that care has to be exercised. If the functions of the regional committees are set out in detail, the danger exists of imparting an excessive rigidity to the whole scheme of teacher education. What is necessary is the establishment of functions in broad, general terms which still permit flexibility and latitude in the development of regional structures.

(i) Functions of Regional Joint Advisory and Co-ordinating Committees:

The functions of these committees as set out in the National Education Policy Amendment Act is to "advise the Administrator concerned, the Department (of Higher Education), and the university or universities concerned on teacher training."¹ This very broad generalisation is accepted. To it is added the fact that the regional committees should be responsible for the co-ordination of courses, admission procedures, examination and certification of students, regional research projects as well as the provision of information and library services for teacher educators.

It is important to note that these regional committees are designated as being "responsible for the co-ordination of" the various professional matters enumerated. They are not "responsible for" them. Thus, considerable variation may exist between regions, each region adopting the pattern which is most appropriate to its own practice and institutional strengths and capabilities. The regional committees must be given the right to establish such sub-committees, and to co-opt on to them such persons as it deems necessary to carry out its advisory and co-ordinating functions.

(ii) Composition of Regional Committees:

The composition as set out in the Act is accepted. It is stressed, however, that persons appointed to such a committee must be professional persons who are directly concerned in the work of teacher education or in its organisation and planning. They must not be appointed by virtue of official positions which they hold.

(d) Comment upon the Proposed Framework:

While it is held that the creation of two councils within the overall framework of the National Education Council will simplify and regularise the work of that body, it is realised that a fundamental difficulty exists in that the National Education Council is by definition

¹ Act No. 73 of 1969: Clause 2. 1(B)(3).

responsible within the area of school education.¹ At the same time it has been accepted as a basic principle that teacher education is part of higher education. Two possibilities exist for regularising this position:

- (i) Legislation be amended to allow the National Education Council to exercise an overview of education in general in place of school education only. It is realised that this presents certain fundamental difficulties and dangers. Where, for example, would the autonomous universities stand in respect of such a measure? It could have serious effects upon university independence and would therefore be likely to be strongly contested. This problem would not be overcome by restricting the functions of the National Education Council to school education and the training of teachers, for teacher education, or at least that part of it concerned with the preparation of secondary school teachers is made the responsibility of the universities. The solution might possibly lie in the creation of a new National Education Council in which either the Committee of University Principals had strong representation or in which the responsibilities of the Council were explicitly stated to reduce any danger of its incursion into the realm of university autonomy.
- (ii) It might prove simpler to follow the recommendation of the Gericke Commission by the creation of a Professional Council for the Training of Teachers. This body would be a statutory professional advisory and co-ordinating council existing alongside but independently of the National Education Council. Its functions would be those set out for the Teacher Training Council and it would be therefore wholly concerned with matters of higher education, and would overcome in a large measure the dangers inherent in placing teacher education under the co-ordinating control of a National Education Council with increased powers and responsibilities. By this second proposal both the National Education Council and the Professional Council for the Training of Teachers would be advisory and co-ordinating bodies responsible to the Minister of National Education.

¹ Act No. 39 of 1967 states that "the Minister may....determine the general policy which is to be pursued in respect of education in schools." Clause 2(1).

In this case it would be necessary to introduce further amending legislation to the National Education Policy Act. The function of this legislation would be twofold: to reconstitute the National Education Council without its teacher training wing, and, secondly, to establish the Professional Council for the Training of Teachers.

At the level of regional committees it may be argued that the work of educational institutions, particularly the universities and the colleges of education is likely to be subject to serious interference by a body responsible to the Administrator, but co-ordinating and advising upon work being carried on in institutions over which it can have no responsibility. This is perhaps the most serious challenge offered to educationists in the whole proposed scheme. It has in it all the problems of professional co-operation and co-ordination inherent in the Institutes of Education of England and Wales. In addition, these bodies are university bodies under a Director who ranks as a professor of the university. In South Africa these bodies are called into being by government, are to be presided over by a government official and in which the university representatives are in a minority in comparison with state appointed members. It is for this reason that the professional nature of these bodies is stressed, as well as the fact that membership must be confined to those persons who are directly concerned in the problems of teacher education in the region. Even with this proviso, the success of this regional committee which is seen to be the core of the whole scheme will depend to a very large extent upon personal professional goodwill and an earnest desire to make a success of professional co-operation in teacher education. In addition, it will also depend upon the ability of individual members of the committee to carry along with them the institutions and authorities which they represent.

A further point calling for comment is contained in the basic premise that teacher training from the viewpoints of policy and planning should be seen as a unified whole. The scheme proposed here will allow of this, although the terms of the National Education Policy Amendment Act present some problems. For example, it is stated that "the training of White persons as teachers for secondary schools may be provided at a university only", and, furthermore, "the training of..... teachers for primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a

college or a university."¹ This provides for differential training in separate institutions with no specific provision for co-ordination other than two separate advisory committees which are not required to co-ordinate their activities.² Thus the Act does not see clearly that teacher education should be viewed as a unified whole. If it was to be stated that the training of teachers for secondary schools was to be the responsibility of the universities, and provision was made for the training of teachers in various institutions, the position of the colleges of education and their staffs would be much more certain. Machinery in the form of the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees is provided which permits the viewing of teacher education as a unified whole.

(e) Changes necessary for the implementation of the Proposed Scheme:

The original stipulation of the Gericke Commission that a policy of gradualism was necessary in the implementation of any changes in the system of teacher education to prevent any dislocation is observed by the present proposals.

While legislative change is necessary, these changes are in a sense minimal and existing organisations and institutions are in no sense disrupted. Amendment of the amended National Education Policy Act would be necessary in order to modify the structure of the National Education Council either to provide for twin councils, or to allow for the establishment of a Professional Council for the Training of Teachers. A second amendment would be necessary to stipulate that the training of secondary teachers shall be the responsibility of the universities. Finally, it would be necessary to allow the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees, as a part of their functions, to establish such sub-committees, co-opting to them such persons as might be required for the fulfilment of those functions.

It is felt that such changes could be recommended by the Minister of National Education to Parliament without conveying any sense of heavy-handed executive action, for the changes proposed are designed to maintain flexibility of control and at the same time to

¹ Act No. 73 of 1969: Clauses 2. 1(A)(1) and (3) respectively.

² Ibid: Clauses 2(2) and 2(4)(a).

make more definite the rôles of the universities and of the regional committees. To this end it would probably be desirable for such suggestions if found favour to be transmitted from the universities through the Committee of University Principals, and from the regional committee through the Administrator to the Committee of Education Heads to the Minister, as well as to the National Education Council through the agency of individual members.

(f) The Operation of the Regional Committee under the Proposed Scheme:

It has been stated that a desirable aim of any new rationalised system of teacher education should give recognition to the principles of "unity in diversity",¹ of flexibility in adaptation to existing and developing situations, and of regionalism in the preservation and continuity in the training process. The creation of the regional committees under the Act provides for the last of these principles. What of the first two? In considering this point, four possible organisational alternatives are set out below:

- (i) A region comprising one university with a single college of education. This is a situation approximating to that found in the Orange Free State. Here the links established between the University and the Education Department are simple and direct. The history of teacher education in this province is one of fluctuation of relationships between the two authorities, and both the Faculty of Education and the college of education have realised the necessity for collaboration. Whether or not all secondary school training should be provided within the university seems a logical matter for recommendation by the regional joint committee. No major problem is discernible in the introduction of the proposed scheme; existing practice, in fact, appears to be encouraged by it.
- (ii) In the second region one postulates a single university, three colleges of education and a college of advanced technical education. This is the situation at present obtaining in

¹ R.S.A.: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers: RP.29/1969: Section 46B: p.19.

Natal. Here, too, there is a pattern of co-operation between the University and the provincial Education Department. The Teacher Training Advisory Council, and, more specifically, the Teacher Training Committee of the Natal Education Department, have both provided venues for inter-institutional consultation and co-operation. The newcomer to the scene, the College of Advanced Technical Education, has not participated in this joint venture, but has for a considerable period provided courses for teachers of commerce, art and home economics. The structure here, with the addition of the technological institution, is reminiscent of the Area Training Organisation of England and Wales, the co-ordinating machinery for which is provided by the University Institute of Education. It seems that, given goodwill on all sides, there is no reason why the regional committee here should not also serve equally successfully as a co-ordinating agency. In this respect the importance of the contribution made by all three types of institutions in the preparation of teachers is stressed. What is necessary, therefore, is that under the guidance of an advisory and co-ordinating committee they should move in closer association with the university undertaking certain specific responsibilities such as scrutiny of courses, examination and certification of students as well as co-ordination of studies and research.

- (iii) A region comprising two universities, four colleges of education and a college of advanced technical education. This is an infinitely more complex situation than that described in (ii). A single regional committee has to develop a modus operandi in drawing together two autonomous universities and two departments of state and their institutions. It seems obvious that, within the framework of the regional committee, it will be necessary to provide for a regional plenary committee which will be concerned with matters of general regional policy. This would have to be offset by sub-committees which would deal with the co-ordination in respect of each university and its associated colleges. The composition of the regional committee should make this a relatively simple matter.

This is the pattern which is applicable in the Cape

Province with its division into two traditional regions, West and East. The complex of the Universities of Capetown and Stellenbosch, the Capetown, Paarl, Stellenbosch and Wellington colleges of education, and the Cape College of Advanced Technical Education is a formidable one, but this would seem to divide itself fairly logically into two units, one basically English-medium and the other Afrikaans-medium. A similar position would pertain in the Eastern Cape, with the added problem of geographical separation, especially in the case of the two outlying colleges of education at Graaff-Reinet and Oudtshoorn. The regional devolution would centre upon the twin university towns of Grahamstown and Port Elizabeth. This would again mean a division, as in the Western Cape on linguistic lines.

- (iv) The final example is the region in which a university is associated with a single college of education and possibly with one college of advanced technical education. Superficially this situation is similar to that described under (i); the significant difference arises in respect of the size of the college of education. These institutions in the Cape, the Orange Free State and Natal are either small or of moderate size. The enrolments in the Transvaal colleges and their almost astronomical growth in the last two decades has already been commented on. Both the Johannesburg and Pretoria colleges of education and more especially the latter, are large institutions by South African and English standards. They can certainly claim an enrolment in excess of certain universities in this country.

Size is, however, not the only criterion of difference in this case. These colleges have instituted four-year courses in which significant statements are made with regard to degree standard equivalence. This must be coupled with the fact that they have had responsibility for both graduate and non-graduate professional teacher training for all levels of the primary and secondary school spectrum. They have been performing a very sound professional service to the education system in the province for a very long time.

On the other hand the contribution made by the universities, outside the academic field, to the preparation of

teachers has been limited. In the case of the University of the Witwatersrand it has been non-existent.¹ Elsewhere Faculties of Education have tended to be small, and, while they have made an important contribution to teacher education, they have been overshadowed by the size and responsibility of the colleges of education.

The relationship between the two institutions is, therefore, at once significantly different from that pertaining in any other province or region. The question then becomes one of establishing a *modus operandi*, in fact, a *modus vivendi*, between two types of institution in which the one, which has tended to be the smaller, playing a less important rôle in the total teacher training situation, now, through legislative direction, becomes responsible for the major part of this work. This situation is further complicated by the fact that constitutionally the official responsible for the colleges of education, the Administrator, is charged with calling into being the regional advisory and co-ordinating machinery, which is responsible to him.

A difficult and delicate situation of co-ordination, although by no means an impossible one is therefore created. Any ill-will or undue parochialism could render the situation untenable, and it is basically for this reason that it is proposed that the university should not necessarily undertake a greater part in the actual training of teachers, but should rather accept responsibility for it. This assumption of responsibility would then be worked out according to the situation in, and the needs of, each region.

A further proposal with regard to the unique position of the Transvaal, is that these large colleges should be granted a greater measure of autonomy by the provincial authorities. The machinery already exists in the form of the regional committee which is appointed in respect of each college. This body could well be granted additional powers and thus tend to resemble more closely the Council of a university. This problem was faced in the United Kingdom by the committee which enquired into higher

¹ It is only in 1970 that the Department of Education of the Witwatersrand University has laid plans for the introduction of a UED course.

education during the last decade.¹ In recommending the creation of the School of Education in order to provide for the new degree structure, the Bachelor of Education, the Committee advocated the granting of increased powers to the colleges by the local education authorities and other controlling interests by the device of establishing semi-autonomous boards of governors for the colleges.

The loosening of bonds in limited measure could facilitate the development of sound regional co-ordination of teacher education within the general provincial and national frameworks. In addition, it would provide a springboard for the possible development of the large colleges of education in the Transvaal. Two possible divergent lines suggest themselves from the comparative study above. The first is the development of the college of education along the lines of the American community college, or even liberal-arts college. This would mean the diversification of the colleges from single purpose professional/academic institutions, and would be a step in the direction of the creation of 'provincial' universities. The second alternative is drawn from the organisational pattern of North Rhine-Westphalia. This would involve the elevation of these large colleges to the status of 'teachers universities', either autonomous in the award of degrees, or acting, in the first instance, as constituent university colleges of the existing regional universities. A further suggestion is that they might be linked to a national body like the National Council for Academic Awards in the United Kingdom which would underwrite the degrees awarded.

What is of prime importance in these suggestions is not the suggestions themselves, but rather that the proposed regional structure must have built into it the necessary flexibility to promote that system of organisation of teacher education most appropriate to it within the broad national pattern. Such a scheme may be criticised on the grounds that each of the four types of regional pattern may result in a worse confusion than that which it was designed to rationalise and

¹ Great Britain: Committee on Higher Education: Report: (The Robbins Report), 1963: H.M.S.O.

co-ordinate. It is precisely to endeavour to prevent this happening that the link between the regional committees and the Professional Council for the Training of Teachers is stressed. This would allow for expert professional study and assessment of developing regional patterns. Finally, the proposal that national conferences on teacher education should be held is a further safeguard and one from which it is to be hoped, if not anticipated, that an acceptable national pattern of regional development and co-ordination would begin to emerge.

3. Conclusions:

In the proposed scheme for the co-ordination and rationalisation of teacher education within a broad national pattern, the changes necessary in the existing framework are neither numerous nor radical. It is reported that a new Education Act is under consideration with specific reference to the pattern of school organisation and differentiation. The changes advocated in these proposals could well be incorporated within such an Act, or contained in a supporting measure. These proposals in the main are concerned with the restructuring of the National Education Council and the creation of a professional teacher training council, with the more precise definition of the co-ordinating functions of the regional committee, with the definition of the universities' precise function in respect of teacher education and with the provision of links between the regional and national bodies, as well as of national conferences on teacher education.

It is suggested that within this framework sufficient flexibility is possible to meet the needs of differing regions in the process of evolution of a new pattern. It is conceded that the situation in the Transvaal presents difficulties not likely to be experienced elsewhere. Even here, given goodwill, the regional pattern makes possible organisational variation which might have important results for the development of higher and further education in South Africa. It is held that certain fundamental principles upon which the development of a new framework for teacher education can satisfactorily be based are enshrined within the proposed scheme. These include:-

- (a) broad unity of national policy, which while preserving the concept of 'unity in diversity', strengthens the links between the existing training institutions and the universities;

- (b) making adequate provision for regional diversity of development;
- (c) providing for professional co-ordination of teacher education at both national and regional levels;
- (d) by this means providing the mechanism for reviewing and improving teacher education, and thereby raising the status of the teaching profession;
- (e) the policy of gradualism in the evolution of an improved system, thus inhibiting dislocations resulting from radical change, while preserving the positive contributions of existing institutions;
- (f) reasonable administrative simplicity which makes the scheme viable. It is stressed, however, that in all aspects of the scheme this factor is at all times to be regarded as subordinate to professional desirability and practicability.

The essential features of the suggested scheme, national co-ordination, and regional implementation, are already provided for by legislation. What is proposed is certain modifications to make more professionally effective the operation of teacher education at these two levels. It is now necessary to look in brief detail at the institutional operation of the scheme.

Chapter Sixteen: The Initial Preparation of Teachers under the Proposed Co-ordinated System of Teacher Education

The bulk of this present study has been concerned with the evolution of the various patterns of teacher education in South Africa particularly since 1910. Part Three contains an examination of problems of the organisation of initial courses for the preparation of teachers. The period of educational reform of the 'sixties has been examined and, in the previous chapter, a scheme was proposed for the rationalisation of teacher education within the framework of national education policy. It is the function of the present chapter to relate the findings of Part Three to this proposed scheme and from this to essay some conclusions with regard to the professional content of courses and to their administration.

1. Fundamental Premises upon which Courses might be based:

In Chapter Fifteen the concept of a national policy in respect of teacher education was accepted with the proviso that the principle of regionalism should be a fundamental part of it. What should constitute national policy in this regard? Policy itself should be the function of the Minister of National Education advised by, and in consultation with, a professional Council for the Training of Teachers, professionally representative of authorities, institutions and regions and backed by national conferences. The policy as laid down at national level should aim to provide a broad framework allowing wide latitude for experiment and evolution to regional committees and institutions. It should particularly be concerned with:-

- (a) the duration of training;
- (b) the nomenclature of professional awards;
- (c) the registration and equivalence of courses;
- (d) the criteria for the admission of students;
- (e) the conditions for the award of bursaries, grants and loans to students in training;
- (f) the registration of students upon admission to training and of teachers upon qualification.

This last aspect indicates the importance of the National Council as more than an advisory body. It is seen to be a professional body

charged with the maintenance of standards and the prestige of the teaching profession.

The essential concomitant of a broad framework of national policy is the effective development of professional regional administration within which training institutions are encouraged to develop their strengths to the full and within which institutional autonomy is recognised and respected. It is probably at this level that the greatest care and tact will be necessary in the achievement of a truly viable national system of teacher education.

In order to understand and appreciate fully the implications for a scheme for the initial preparation of teachers, some attention must be given to national policy and to regional implementation and functioning.

2. National Policy for the Training of Teachers:

The six points upon which the national framework might be based, as enumerated above, require some elaboration:

(a) The Duration of Training:

It seems wholly desirable that agreement should be reached on a national basis as to the minimum length of courses for the preparation of teachers. If there is to be a policy of equivalence of qualifications, then courses must be comparable in duration. This is common practice in most developed countries. Three-year training in the United Kingdom is today the accepted minimum, while in the United States with its emphasis upon the rights of states and of institutions of higher education the dominant trend is to four-year training for teachers. It is indeed where there is a profusion of different courses of differing duration and standards as in the United States that the determination of equivalence of awards is so difficult. This matter will be returned to below. In England and Wales it is known that the course leading to the Teacher's Certificate of any of the Institutes of Education is of three years' duration.¹ This is of significance in the determination of standards and equivalence by the Ministry of Education and Science, as well as by the local education authorities. It is to be noted that these bodies are not the certifying

¹ This generalisation does not include shortened courses for mature students for which selection is relatively rigorous and which usually extend over two years.

authorities; they are the employers of teachers.

If it is accepted that the minimum length of training for teachers should be laid down as part of national policy, what of optimum length of training, or of its maximum duration? Evidence in general points to three year training being a desirable basic minimum for the preparation of a non-graduate teacher. This is, however, a generalisation of which one must beware. There is no evidence to suggest that the length of training for a technical teacher should be longer or shorter than that for a teacher of art or of infant classes. The minimum duration for the training of a graduate teacher has traditionally been four years comprising three years of academic study with a final year of professional preparation. This is tending to give way today in certain institutions to an integrated degree extending over four years. There have always been serious advocates of the policy of graduate teacher training extending over five years, along the lines of professional training of lawyers.¹

The matter of training of technical teachers by the Department of Higher Education through the colleges of advanced technical education is interesting. It is customary to invite applications from qualified artisans who wish to undergo professional training as teachers for a course extending over one year. Successful applicants are paid a salary during training. Students in such courses may not have undergone three years of full-time training, for much of the artisan training may well have been on a released time, or sandwich course, basis. Thus, it is necessary to exercise care with regard to the requirements for the duration of initial training.

Such problems could perhaps best be overcome by the general prescription that basic courses for the initial preparation of teachers should extend over a period of not less than three years of full-time study, or its equivalent of part-time study. At the same time it is necessary to add a rider to this to the effect that the courses for the preparation of certain classes of specialist teachers will extend over a longer period to be determined by the Professional Council for the Training of Teachers. Here is an immediate function for the

¹ This would mean completion of a bachelors degree followed by the B.Ed., in the same way that the lawyer takes B.A. LL.B. By analogy there is a case to be made for an integrated five-year degree along the lines of the B.Juris., now being accepted by the South African universities.

proposed council, as well as a matter for consideration by a national conference after discussion at regional level.

Again it seems unwise to determine the precise length of training for these specialist teachers for this would seriously curtail the freedom of regions and institutions to develop worthwhile courses. What is necessary is the prescription of minimum duration of courses. The Professional Council and conferences at national level would ultimately determine the optimum length of these courses.

(b) The Nomenclature of Professional Awards:

It would appear sensible that the framework of national policy in teacher education should name the qualifications for which students are being prepared. Considerable confusion exists at the present time between qualifications such as the Teacher's Diploma, the Teacher's Higher Diploma, the Secondary Teacher's Diploma, the University Education Diploma, to name but a few. Much confusion could be prevented if it was to be laid down that the initial professional qualification was to be known as, for example, the Teacher's Diploma. For such a policy to be accepted, however, it would be necessary to stress certain features and conditions which might otherwise give rise to educational debate. These include:-

- (i) national policy in this matter would extend only to the naming of the certificate, and would not include the issuing of a common certificate by a central authority;
- (ii) the issuing authority would presumably be the university or universities central to particular regional authorities. These universities, as autonomous institutions, would, in consultation with the appropriate joint regional committees, be responsible for courses, examinations and certification.
- (iii) the Teacher's Diploma of the particular authority would require to be endorsed with details of the course followed; e.g. graduate, or non-graduate, the particular specialism (if any) - Physical Education, Infant Teaching, and the like, as well as the duration of the course of training. This proviso would allow the issue of teachers' diplomas for various different courses. A student who had completed an initial course of training would receive a teacher's diploma, and, thereafter, upon completion of additional advanced or

specialist courses, would receive suitably endorsed diplomas, or, if the courses were undertaken under the same authority as the initial course, the original diploma would be endorsed accordingly.

(c) The Registration and Equivalence of Initial Courses:

One of the functions of the Professional Council would be to register the courses offered by the various regional authorities and institutions. In this regard its work would be similar to the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education in the United States. Not only would such a function promote co-ordination of teacher education at the national level, it would naturally tend to enhance the prestige of the teaching profession.

In respect of this registration of courses it is assumed that the Professional Council would work in co-operation with the sub-committee of the Committee of Education Heads which is concerned with the determination and recognition of teachers' qualifications. It is held that this link is necessary as it provides liaison between the professional teacher training authority and the employing authorities. Such links naturally exist at regional level in terms of the composition of the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees, but it is desirable that this be extended to the national level.

(d) Criteria for the Admission of Students:

As has been noted in the survey of the development of teacher education in South Africa, each authority has evolved its own criteria for the admission of students. These rose progressively and at different times from the Standard VI level to that of Standard X. Practice is today uniform as a result of the work of the Inter-provincial Consultative Committee, and more recently the Committee of Education Heads. It would appear desirable that the determination of criteria, particularly academic, for the admission of students to courses of training should be a function of the Professional Council. This would include criteria for admission to shortened courses and to specialist courses.

In undertaking this responsibility the Professional Council must exercise great care in respect of the right of autonomous institutions such as universities to control their admissions policies. Therefore,

it would be necessary for the Council to work in close liaison with the Joint Matriculation Board as well as with the regional committees and the Committee of Education Heads.

This last point is of vital concern for the sub-committee of the Committee of Education Heads to which reference is made under (c) above, has been engaged during 1969 and 1970 in the determination of equivalence of qualifications and their evaluation for salary purposes by the employing authorities. This body as a result occupies an enormously important position of influence over teacher education courses throughout the Republic. If a particular level of recognition is accorded to one course more students will be attracted to it than to another which achieves a lower level of recognition. This body, once its recommendations are accepted by education departments, then, is in a position to influence not only courses, but the free choice of students in the selection of their courses, and the autonomy of institutions in the courses they offer and the students they admit.

It must be stressed that this represents in no sense destructive criticism of the work of the sub-committee. Indeed, at the present time none of its recommendations has been made public. It would seem wise, however, that there should be co-operation between it and the Professional Council for the Training of Teachers in order that sound professional criteria for the recognition of courses, and, therefore, their influence upon the admission of students, can be arrived at.

(e) Conditions for the Award of Bursaries, Grants and Loans:

The original draft teacher training bill, the Gericke Commission and the Amendment Act of 1969 all stressed the importance of uniform conditions for the award of financial assistance to students in training.¹ It would appear to be the logical responsibility of the Professional Council to make recommendations to the Minister in this regard.

(f) Registration of Students and Teachers:

Apart from the provision of a policy framework for teacher education, it is necessary to provide at national level a register not

¹ "Persons being trained as teachers are being provided for equally in respect of any financial assistance offered to them on behalf of the State for such training." Clause 2.18(a)(iii)(c), Act No.73 of 1969.

only of students in training but of professionally qualified teachers. Such a register is essential in the case of students admitted in order to ensure the fulfilment of contract terms by students granted financial assistance. It is desirable for the provision of 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. This would enable a Professional Council to require registered members to conform to a professional code of ethics.

The matter of the registration of students in training, and particularly their financial and service obligations presents certain problems which will be considered under the work of the regional committees.

- (g) Recommendations regarding a national policy in respect of initial courses of teacher preparation:
- (i) National policy for teacher education is a function of the Minister of National Education advised by and in consultation with a Professional Council for the Training of Teachers representative of education authorities, institutions and regions and backed by national conferences.
 - (ii) Basic courses for the initial preparation of teachers should extend over a period of not less than three years of full-time study, or its equivalent of part-time study.
 - (iii) A standard nomenclature of professional awards should be recommended by the Professional Council to the Minister and adopted by the country as a whole.
 - (iv) All agreed courses for the preparation of teachers should be registered by the Professional Council and their equivalence determined in consultation with the Committee of Education Heads.
 - (v) Criteria for the admission of students to courses of training should be determined and recommended to the Minister by the Professional Council in consultation with the Joint Matriculation Board, the regional committees and the Committee of Education Heads.
 - (vi) Uniform conditions for the award of bursaries, grants and loans should be determined.

- (vii) A national register of students in training and of professionally qualified teachers should be maintained by the Professional Council.

It is held that within this broad national policy framework the twin concepts of regionalism and diversity can flourish and lead to the effective development of teacher education in South Africa. Consideration must now be given to the functioning of regional administration.

3. Co-ordination of Initial Courses at Regional Level:

In the proposed co-ordinated scheme of teacher education set out in Chapter Fifteen, mention was made of the relations between regional and national organisational levels, and illustrations were given of four possible types of regional association. It is now necessary to examine in more detail the professional administration of teacher education to be undertaken at the regional level. This was described as "perhaps the most serious challenge offered to educationists"¹ in the rationalisation of teacher education in South Africa for this is crucible in which sectional interests and institutional separateness must be fused if the necessary co-ordination of teacher training is to be achieved.

Whatever the structure of the regional organisation is, and however many institutions and authorities are participating in it, the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committee is the body which is central to the implementation of the rationalisation of teacher training courses. In terms of the amending Act² the functions of this body are purely advisory; in terms of the present proposals, its functions are widened and given greater definition.³ In order to carry out its functions it is essential that it should have the power to establish sub-committees for specific purposes. In exercising this power the regional committee should have the right of nomination of persons to serve on them. If this is not done, then the regional committee would tend to lose control of the sub-committees.

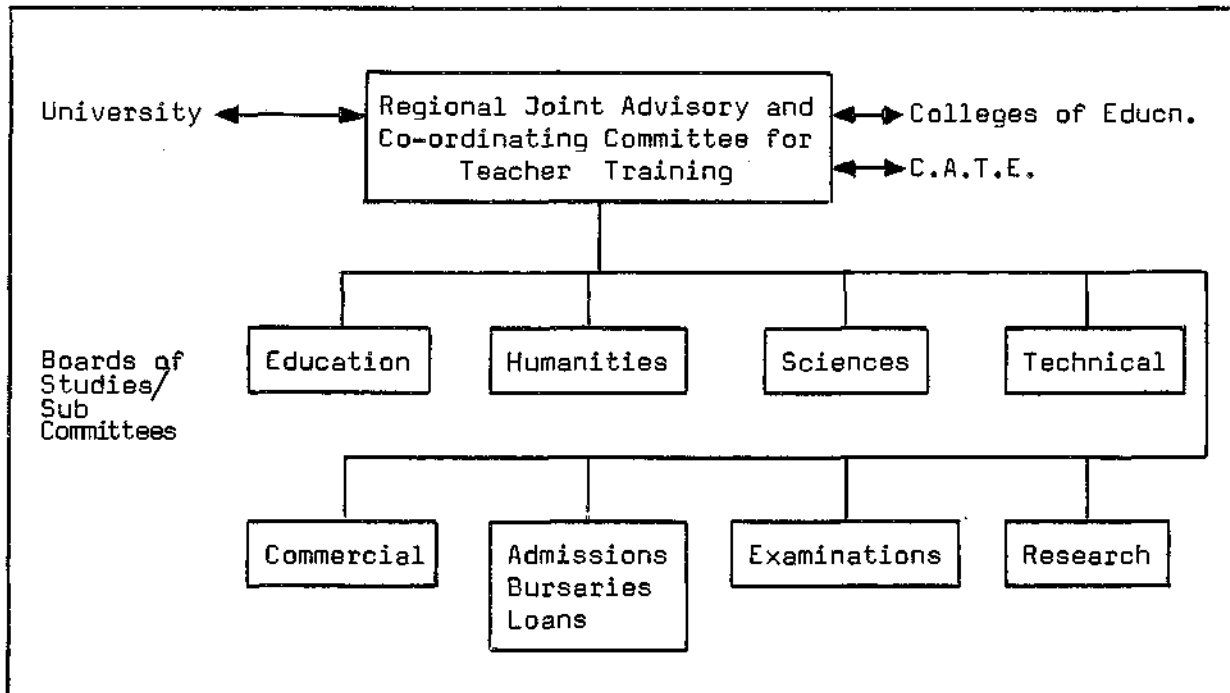
¹ See page 441.

² Act 73 of 1969.

³ See p.71 et seq.

In Table 45 an idealised pattern showing a possible committee structure within the regional structure is outlined:

Table 45 : Proposed Organisation of the Regional Committee¹



The structure outlined above represents a generalisation appropriate to a region comprising a university, a college of education and a college of advanced technology. The sub-committees or boards of studies as presented could be added to or reduced depending upon the local situation. Thus, while originally a board of studies covering, for example, the humanities would probably suffice, this might subsequently be further divided into modern languages, social studies (or history and geography) and fine arts, etc. Such a structure would permit of considerable flexibility in operation.

The sub-committees or boards of studies should in the main be composed of professional educators and should be generally representative of the organisations participating in the regional teacher education programme. In the case of subject boards of studies all members should be professionals and should be directly concerned in

¹ This table should be viewed in conjunction with Table 44 in order to obtain a representation of the total administrative pattern at regional and national levels.

contributing to courses within the particular subject area. In the cases of sub-committees concerned with admissions, bursaries, loans, etc. and with examinations the addition of a professional administrator would be advantageous.

The functions of the various types of boards of studies and sub-committees are proposed as follows:-

- (a) Subject Boards of Studies:
- (i) to receive proposed curricula syllabuses from participating institutions other than autonomous university institutions;
 - (ii) to consider, make recommendations on and submit course proposals to the Regional Committee.
- (b) Sub-committee(s) on Admissions, Bursaries and Loans:
- (i) to receive applications for the above;
 - (ii) to make recommendations to the Regional Committee in terms of national policy.
- (c) Examinations Sub-committee, or Board of Examiners:
- (i) to make general recommendations regarding schemes of examination in various courses;
 - (ii) to recommend to the Regional Committee the appointment of examiners;
 - (iii) to receive the results of examinations and to make recommendations to the Regional Committee with regard to the certification of students.
- (d) Research Sub-committee:
- (i) to give consideration to and to make recommendations regarding necessary basic research in the field of teacher education which should be undertaken in the region;
 - (ii) to be aware of national research projects and to co-ordinate recommendations for regional research projects with these.

It is emphasised that it is not the function of such a sub-committee to seek to control post-graduate research. While such research should be integrated into both national and

regional patterns, the responsibility for ensuring that it does rests with the Faculty of Education in the University.

(e) Information Sub-committee:

- (i) to ensure a flow of information with regard to courses, national policy, examinations and research in progress to all participating institutions and authorities;
- (ii) to prepare lists of holdings and acquisitions of texts, references and journals together with their location within the region.

Such matter might ultimately be published in a regional journal, or circulated for inclusion in existing publications.

From the foregoing it will be noted that the work of the sub-committees is advisory to the Regional Committee. Professional persons concerned with the work of teacher education in a region are drawn in to advise on the co-ordination necessary in the field. The Regional Committee, in turn, through its mandate to advise the Administrator is bound to exercise considerable influence over the direction of teacher education within the region. To what extent would this influence represent an incursion into the traditional sphere of operation of independent institutions such as the universities?

4. University Autonomy and Regional Co-ordination:

Much is written and spoken about academic freedom today which tends to obscure rather than to clarify issues. It appears that the practical problem may be said to be that of insulating proper academic pursuits from irrelevant extraneous pressures, while at the same time avoiding the abuse of public funds and ensuring responsiveness to public policies. This point was emphasised by Sir Douglas Logan, Vice-Chancellor of the University of London, in a letter to the London 'Times' on 10th August, 1966. He wrote: "The late Sir Hector Hetherington in.....1954 explained what he meant by academic freedom in the following words: 'The essence of the matter.....is that, under

modern conditions the area of a university's free choices must be smaller than it was..... I think it vital that the universities should each retain full responsibility for their own appointments, that they alone, subject to the ordinary law of the land, should choose their teachers, should settle the conditions of their tenure, and should, if need be, dismiss them. That is the primary condition of university freedom, and the only ground of assurance that its members may speak and teach in whatever way they are responsibly led to do."

The autonomy of the university, then, exists in the freedom, which, through its right to appoint its own staff, confers upon it the right to teach that which its staff, governed not only by adherence to academic principles and standards, but by their responsibility to the wider society of which they are members, hold to be true.

The phrases to note in these two paragraphs are: irrelevant extraneous pressures, the area of free choice must be smaller than it was, subject to the ordinary law of the land, and responsibility to the wider society of which they are members. Bearing these in mind, it is felt necessary to add two further conditions to this definition of university freedom. These are the university's right to admit its own students, and through the control of its assessment procedures, to make its own academic awards.

In terms of these necessary conditions does the proposed system of regional co-ordination of teacher education infringe this basic autonomy? In the strictest sense the answer must be in the negative. However, from a further angle this must be qualified. If the regional organisation, charged with the co-ordination of teacher education, and comprising a majority of non-university personnel, is to fulfil its function, then it must concern itself with the courses offered by the university. This could lead to a situation in conflict with Hetherington's dictum that the "members (of the university) may speak and teach in whatever way they are responsibly led to do."

This situation seems to be close to the crux of successful regional co-ordination of teacher education. It is essential that the regional body should realise that its rôle is in professional advice and co-ordination. Further, the function of the Administrator is to ensure that the advice tendered by the regional committee is relayed to the responsible authorities beyond his control, viz.: the

Department of Higher Education and the university or universities concerned.¹ Finally, the Senate of each university must be fully aware that the professional advice tendered by the regional committee has been derived from the knowledge and experience of competent persons in the field of teacher education within the region. Thus the successful operation of regional co-ordination of teacher education under existing legislation and the proposed scheme depends essentially upon the recognition by all bodies and persons concerned of their functions in the scheme and their operation within the defined limits of those functions. What is proposed is a new experience of living and working together for a common purpose; in a sense the situation is similar to that of a young married couple; for the marriage to be successful it is necessary that the partners should not only show goodwill, but should be prepared to make concessions to promote the greater good of the union.

5. Education Authorities and Regional Co-ordination:

To promote the flexibility necessary for effective regional co-ordination, it appears necessary for education authorities to be prepared to allow the colleges under their control to enjoy somewhat greater autonomy than the majority possess at the present time. This topic was touched on briefly in the previous chapter in respect of possible regional organisation in the Transvaal.² It is necessary in this connection to differentiate slightly between the Department of Higher Education and the provincial education departments. In the former, teacher education is undertaken by the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education, which, being in a state of what appears to be transition to technological universities, enjoy some measure of professional and administrative independence. The majority of provincially-controlled colleges of education do not enjoy the same degree of autonomy. It is suggested therefore that the Transvaal pattern of regional committees should be developed and extended, with consideration being given to flexibility of academic and professional control.

As has already been suggested, it should not be envisaged that

¹ Act 73 of 1969. Clause 2.1(B)(3).

² See pages 445 et seq., Vol.II.

colleges of education will remain immutably under provincial control, nor, indeed, that they should be arbitrarily transferred to university control. As regional co-ordination develops it is foreseen that some colleges will remain under provincial control, some may become regional institutions, as constituent or associate colleges of existing universities, while others may well become autonomous provincial universities. What seems likely is that the next developmental phase will be a transitional one in which institutions develop along different lines in different regions. This might well result in the development of a pattern which in time would be accepted as a national plan through the work of the Professional Council and of national conferences.

The immediate problem for education authorities with regard to regional co-ordination is that there should be acceptance of the principle that the regional university, or some external certificating authority, should be able to assume some of the responsibility currently held by the various education departments, particularly at provincial level. This responsibility, as is implied, should at the outset be of a professional and academic nature.

With the loosening of reins by the provincial authorities, and the creation of regional co-ordinating machinery as well as a movement towards university assumption of responsibility for academic and professional standards, a problem of college of education staff tenure, security and promotion opportunities arises. It is essential that this problem should be given high priority in order to prevent the possible growth of doubt and uncertainty as to future prospects in the minds of college of education staff, and the consequent disruption which would result from their withdrawal from this branch of the teaching service. The following steps should be taken to allay any fears of this nature:-

- (a) A basic assurance that any staff members involved in changes due to reorganisation will not suffer financially nor will their promotion opportunities be impaired vis-a-vis other members of the teaching service. This assurance should be given at Professional Council level. It should be noted that both the National Education Policy Act of 1967, and its amendment of 1969, are silent on this score. However, the Draft Teachers' Training Bill of 1968, which proposed the

creation of Institutes of Education, did provide for the transfer of staff.¹

- (b) In the first instance staff of colleges of education should remain administratively members of the provincial education authority. Where a new form of regional arrangement is entered into they should, with their concurrence, be seconded to enable them to fit into the developing pattern. At such time the provincial authorities should be responsible for their salaries and general conditions of service. Where new institutions develop as a result of regional co-ordination, staff should be given the option to transfer to them with no loss of service or salary conditions or of pension rights.
- (c) The conditions of service, terms of secondment and transfer of staff in the developing pattern should fall within the purview of both regional committees and of the Professional Council, on both of which representatives of the organised teachers' societies are to be found.
- (d) With the development of university links and the assumption by the universities of responsibility for certain academic and professional standards, the matter of recognition of college lecturers as university teachers should be investigated. This would contribute to the status and prestige of the teacher training branch. Such persons would, in the first instance, be recommended for this recognition to the university concerned by the appropriate regional committee.

6. Initial Training Courses and their Co-ordination:

(a) Initiative in Course Design:

Arising from an examination in Part Three of existing courses for the initial preparation of teachers, general principles with regard to course and curriculum construction were enunciated. These must be read in conjunction with the present chapter. The concern at the present is with co-ordination and rationalisation of existing practice which has at times been recognised in the survey contained, particularly

¹ R.S.A.: AB 68 of 1968: Clause 15(2)(a).

in Part Two, as being unco-ordinated, and, in certain respects, irrational. It is perhaps necessary to state in precise terms what is meant by the twin concepts of co-ordination and rationalisation. Co-ordination is taken as being the act of regulating and combining so as to give harmonious results and adjustment. Rationalisation is defined as the use and reliance upon reason in the formulation of theory or, as in the present instance, of an organically integrated system of professional administration.

The first concept presupposes the existence of a number of disparate entities, in this case institutions and authorities, which could with professional advantage be drawn into a co-ordinated pattern. The initiative for the design of courses must lie with these institutions; at the present time they are to a greater or lesser degree responsible for these courses, and co-ordination and rationalisation can only take place when these courses and curricula are submitted to the regional co-ordinating machinery. The terms of the definition are stressed; co-ordination lies in regulation and combination. It does not lie in uniformity of control or in regionally centralised initiative. Initiative in this area is the function of the participating institution.

A point that should be noted is that certain initiative does reside with the regional committees. For example, the regional committee may advise that a new course of training in a particular area is necessary. Furthermore, it may recommend that such a course should properly be provided in a college of education, or some other institution within the region. The college or institution concerned would then be invited to submit schemes for consideration by the appropriate board of studies and then by the regional co-ordinating body. Initiative in course design, therefore, remains the responsibility of the institution or institutions concerned.

(b) The Function of the Board of Studies in Course Co-ordination:

Boards of Studies and other sub-committees of the regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committee are established by the latter to assist it in its functions as well as to assist in meeting the regional teacher education needs. The functions of such sub-committees are seen to be those delegated to them from the imprecise powers of the regional committees contained in the National Education Policy Amendment

Act, as well as from the extension of these powers and responsibilities suggested in the previous chapter.

The functions and methods of operation of these Boards of Studies is suggested below:-

(i) On implementation of the suggested policy:

When a major policy change such as that envisaged with regard to teacher education is implemented, two main dangers are encountered. The first, as has already been stressed, is that the changes will be of such a nature as to cause dislocation in the pattern of training and in the output of teachers. Thus it is necessary that there should be a gradual approach to change. This in turn produces the opposite danger, viz.: that the change may be so gradual as to be relatively ineffective in producing very necessary reforms.

To endeavour to steer a middle course between these opposed poles, it is suggested that at the outset existing courses of teacher education should be accepted in principle. Before the recommendation of registration, however, participating institutions within the region should be encouraged to submit details of curricula and syllabuses to the Regional Committee which would in turn refer them to the appropriate Boards of Studies for comment. After consideration of the comments of the Boards, the Regional Committee would recommend registration of the courses, pointing out to the institutions concerned the professional attitude to its courses. It would then be anticipated that consideration would be given to this advice in course reviews undertaken by the particular training institution.

Consideration of the courses should include a review of the schemes of examination proposed for them. Obviously where current courses failed to meet the general requirements of national policy as outlined the Board of Studies would have to advise the Regional Committee that the particular course should not be recommended for registration. This would include, for example, courses which were not of the minimum prescribed duration.

(ii) Functions in the post-initial phase:-

Subsequently, Boards of Studies, on the instructions of the Regional Committee, should scrutinise and make recommendations regarding all course, syllabus and examination scheme innovations.¹ These recommendations would naturally be for the guidance of the Regional Committee in the formulation of its advice to the Administrator and appropriate authorities. Again it is stressed that this work must be in accordance with the general principles of national policy.

From this the importance of the Boards of Studies and the Regional Committee may be assessed. These bodies provide the professional advisory core of teacher education within a region. They have a responsibility both to regional development and to the institutions which they represent. In the formulation of regional policy they are responsive to national policy emanating from both the National Education Council, and the Professional Council for Teacher Training. Through representation on the latter body, and through national conferences on teacher education, they are responsible for the transmission of professional thought from regional to national level. In this way the Boards of Studies, in relationship with the Regional Committee, play a key rôle in the two-way transmission of professional ideas essential to the formulation of national policy.

(c) The Development of Courses in terms of National Education Policy:

The foregoing has tended to assume the development of a national system of teacher education and its implementation at regional level for a relatively static school situation in which there are no major changes of educational policy. If there were to be such changes could the proposed scheme of teacher education be capable of adjustment to the new situation? It seems likely that the innovations contained in the National Education Policy Act, as well as the somewhat wider proposals contained herein are to be subjected to a challenge of this nature in the near future.

¹ It should be competent for Boards of Studies to make recommendations to the Regional Committee regarding aspect of particular subjects and disciplines which are not adequately covered by courses in operation.

The Report of the original National Advisory Education Council for the year 1965 contained reference to the fact that "differentiated education and guidance are of the utmost importance."¹ Continued attention to this subject has been devoted by subsequent Councils and in 1969 a comprehensive consolidated report on the subject was presented to the Minister of National Education, copies being circulated to members of the National Education Council and to the Committee of Education Heads. It is considered that, after considerable debate at national level, and reported general acceptance of the concepts contained in the report, this is likely to form the basis of national education policy particularly at secondary school level in the near future.

In the absence of any published version of the report it is necessary to rely on hearsay with regard to new departures which are likely to affect fundamentally teacher education policy. It appears that the new policy favours the twelve-year primary and secondary school system being divided into four phases or cycles of three years each. The first, covering the first three years of schooling, approximates to the present infant school system.² The second phase (including the present Standards II, III and IV), corresponds to the junior school. Following upon transfer to the secondary level at the age of eleven years, comes the third phase of a broad general course of schooling with emphasis upon educational guidance. This might be likened to the junior secondary school of the Transvaal or of Scotland, from both of which it has significant differences. It would probably be more correct to call it a "middle" school. It appears to be conceived as a period of observation and orientation. Finally, in the last three-year cycle of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth years of schooling, comes the differentiated high school.

In the implementation of this policy it is necessary to produce teachers who are capable of fulfilling adequately their functions in each of these four areas. The first two appear to present few problems, for this is the area for which teachers have traditionally been prepared by the colleges of education. It is at the two upper levels that the main deviations and problems are likely to occur. Among them are the

¹ See Chapter 13: 3(d).

² In Natal it has become customary for Standard I to be grouped with the sub-standards as part of the infant school.

following:-

- (i) It would appear that the new middle school will require both general practitioners as well as limited subject specialists. The educational emphasis would appear in the main to be on child development rather than on subject specialism. Are the teachers at this level to be prepared by the universities or by the colleges of education? In terms of legislation, the universities are required to provide this training. The proposed scheme would, however, allow a rationalisation of this situation provided that the universities assumed responsibility for courses and certification.
- (ii) A corollary to the above is the direct rôle of the university in initial courses of teacher preparation. Is it to be concerned solely with teacher education for graduates destined to teach in the differentiated academic high school. If this is so, then its courses must be seriously reviewed. If it is not so, then courses will still have to be reviewed from the point of view of the differentiation necessary to provide for the academic high school specialist and the less specialised 'middle' school practitioner.
- (iii) A similar problem faces the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education for presumably they would be responsible for the preparation of specialist technical and commercial teachers for the differentiated high schools. The problems remain of where and how to train the less specialised teachers, particularly of the 'craft' subjects, for 'middle' and junior schools.
- (iv) Furthermore, the details of the differentiated curricula for the high schools might reveal specialisms not provided for, or inadequately provided for under existing arrangements. The matter of the preparation of teachers of agriculture is a case in point.
- (v) It is obvious that the concept of a general middle school with emphasis upon orientation must make educational guidance and counselling very much more important than it has hitherto been. Should specialists in this area be university or college of education trained; should their preparation be specialist or part of wider general training; should courses for these

teachers be initial or subsequent training?

Clearly such a major change in policy as seems to be envisaged in the report on educational differentiation has important repercussions for teacher education in South Africa. Bearing this in mind, it would be competent for a Professional Council for Teacher Training to lay down guidelines for the approach to the preparation of teachers to implement the new policy. It is the function of the regional committee to make recommendations regarding its implementation at local level, and for the institutions concerned to design courses and draw up syllabuses through which teachers are to be prepared for the new responsibilities facing them. It must be remembered that where major changes in educational policy are concerned, their success depends upon the availability of satisfactory numbers of well-trained teachers. For this purpose it is urgently necessary to recognise that, in proposing such changes, the longest possible warning should be given to the teacher training plant. Thus liaison between the National Education Council and the Professional Council for Teacher Training is essential if the necessary co-ordination and rationalisation of teachers' courses is to take place timeously.

(d) Integration of Initial Courses at Regional Level:

It should be proper for the Regional Committee, upon the recommendation of Boards of Studies, to give consideration to, and where, in its opinion, it is appropriate, to recommend to particular authorities that certain carefully prescribed degrees of integration of initial courses would assist in the promotion of rationalisation and co-ordination of teacher education in the region.

An example may possibly assist in the clarification of this concept. As has been noted in Part Three, the teacher education units in the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education (and previously the technical colleges) tend in the main to have rather small enrolments. They require the services of highly trained technical and commercial specialist lecturers. In addition, professional teacher educators are required to present the appropriate parts of the initial courses concerned. While the specialist lecturers are often required to contribute to work in the same field in other areas of the College's activities, the same is not always possible with professional teacher trainers. The result could be the uneconomic use of professional

staff, or, in order to avoid this, the utilisation of specialist non-professional teacher trainers for general courses in education for which they may have received little training, but which they approach with commendable devotion and dedication. A similar situation can be envisaged with regard to the organisation and supervision of practical teaching.

It is usual to find in the centres where the Colleges of Advanced Technical Education are involved in teacher education courses that both colleges of education and university departments of education are similarly engaged. Where, in the opinion of the Regional Committee, some integration of courses would effect a desirable rationalisation of teacher education, the Committee should recommend accordingly to the Administrator and the authorities and institutions concerned.

A similar situation exists within universities where it is customary for certain specialist departments to seek the assistance of other departments in the preparation of students in specialised courses. The rôle of service courses in modern languages, mathematics and physics are well known examples of this practice. A similar but rather more specialist application is to be found in the case of the Faculty of Agriculture in the University of Natal, where a new Master of Science in Agriculture is being offered in the field of agricultural extension. As this work is closely involved in particular aspects of adult education, the course is being developed as an integrated venture between the Faculties of Agriculture and Education. Similar integrations are practised in the University of Pretoria.

It is stressed that in this proposal the function of the Regional Committee must be advisory.

7. Initial Courses for Teachers and Probationary Service:-

The questions of basic initial teacher preparation and effective probationary service in which further professional growth is fostered are, or should be, at the centre of thought of institutions concerned with teacher education. The main function of the basic training course was well stated by Milton in a paper to the Institute of Education of the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (as it

was then called).¹ While Milton was dealing specifically with college of education courses, his remarks are appropriate to other initial courses.

"It might be argued that the Training College course as a whole attempts to include these main elements:-

- some mastery of the subject to be taught, and of effective ways of teaching it;
- an understanding of the processes involved in teaching and in learning;
- an elucidation of the place of the teacher and of the school in the social structure;
- practical experience.

Such a range.....cannot be undertaken in depth within the initial course.....(which is) seen as part of the long-term education of the teacher in which the theory and practice of education effectively interpenetrate each other..... Nothing less than such a long-term aim can safeguard the student against the acquisition of a mere veneer of knowledge and a very slender understanding of the role which a teacher should take in the development of children. The present organisation.....may be one of the reasons why education, both in college and in school is so examination ridden.

"Can the.....college course provide at the same time for the immediate efficiency of the new teacher as a member of a school staff, and for his long-term effectiveness?.... The question is posed more sharply when we recognise what difficulties and strains the newly qualified teacher is under, how much is expected of him, how little he knows, how decisive is the influence and authority of the headmaster..... The new teacher must have, at the same time, first aid in the routine skills, and the knowledge of how to benefit from the opportunities now before him for further study and development. If it were possible to defer full recognition of qualification for one or two years there might be an advantage."²

The extensive quotation has been made from this paper, for the problem which Milton recognised in Rhodesia eight years ago is a

¹ Milton, A.: Theory and Practice of Education: notes on initial and further training courses: unpublished Institute of Education Paper, U.C.R.N., July, 1962.

² Ibid.

serious problem in South Africa, and, indeed, in other systems of education in many parts of the world today. One is concerned to see that, during the initial period itself, there is achieved a reality of the unity of theory and practice on the argument that unless it is achieved in that time, it will never be achieved, however elaborate and ingenious are the schemes for further training developed. Essentially, it is believed an immense step forward will be made when it is generally accepted that the 'initial training period' covers both the basic course and the probationary period thereafter. The present system is very unsatisfactory because there is an absolute separation between the training and the probationary periods. Any training of probationer teachers is left to individual headmasters and heads of departments plus what can be done by an already overworked inspectorate.

The consequences of this cleavage between training and probation are thoroughly bad. Among other things, it helps to develop the attitude that theory and practice are two separate and unrelated aspects of education; that theory is completed during the initial course, and that possession of the initial teacher's qualification 'completes' training.

It is felt that the co-ordination and rationalisation which it is anticipated can be effectively brought about by the proposed scheme must include a detailed examination of this problem. One solution would be the appointment of probational supervisors. The duties of these professional officers might be:

- "(a) to supervise new teachers during their.....probationary period, although the final clearance of any teacher would still rest in the hands of the inspectorate;
- (b) to arrange short courses (week-end and vacation) for inexperienced teachers in the region;
- (c) to recommend further professional training for selected weaker teachers before full recognition is accorded them;
- (d) to co-operate with the Inspectorate in arranging in-service courses within the particular region concerned;
- (e) to screen (initially) possible candidates for teacher education courses;
- (f) to publicise teaching as a career, as well as to make known to

teachers advanced courses offered within the region."¹

It might seem that such a proposal is not properly the function of the Regional Committee, and that in financial terms it represents a utopian 'frill' which could be placed low on any list of educational priorities. There is no doubt, however, that year after year the potential of much student material is not realised in the classroom, that some young teachers, through disillusionment, withdraw from the profession completely, and that there exists a separation of interests of schools and training institutions through a failure to draw schools into the teacher training orbit and vice versa. It is felt that the appointment of such supervisors might in the long-term - if not in the short - provide a saving of funds, and, more particularly, of teacher resources, even though it would be difficult to prove until such time as the experiment had been made.

The relevance of the creation of the post of probational supervisor in terms of co-ordination and rationalisation of teacher education at regional level is significant. Such a post represents a link between initial training and initial service, which it is now proposed should be seen as part of a single process - the preparation of the teacher. Previously the dichotomy between the training institutions and the teaching service had made the bridging of this gap difficult, if not impossible. The Regional Committee represents a fusion of all professional interests in teacher education - training institutions, employing authorities and the organised profession. Thus, the opportunity is presented in the work of the Regional Committee in co-ordinating teacher education, to prevent, or at least reduce, the loss of valuable human resources through the reduction of frustration and disillusionment through misunderstanding and lack of effective communication.

8. Conclusion:

In the present chapter and within the broad organisational pattern established by existing legislation and expanded in Chapter Fifteen, the importance of a general framework of national policy for teacher education is recognised. This framework should be concerned

¹ Young, R.J.: Memorandum on the Suggested Establishment of Posts of Probationary Supervisors: submitted to the Principal, The Teachers' College, Bulawayo, and the Director, Institute of Education, U.C.R.N., September, 1962.

with truly national professional issues and should not include minutiae of organisational detail which would have the effect of inhibiting regional diversity designed to meet the needs of particular local situations. The result of such action would be to strait-jacket teacher education and lead to the destruction of confidence, enthusiasm and initiative among professional and academic staff.

The core of vitality in the proposed scheme is recognised to lie in efficient and defined co-ordination at the regional level. With reasonable diversity within the broad framework the regional organisation should endeavour to transmit to participating institutions the fundamental premises with regard to course design which were outlined in Part Three. At the same time the function of institutions in the design of courses should be recognised and safeguarded. In this respect the rôle of Boards of Studies and of the Regional Committee must be clearly defined. Machinery of a consultative and advisory nature at national and regional levels is essential to allow adaptation of institutions and courses to significant changes in national education policy at the school level. At the same time it should be possible to recommend integration of courses at the regional level where such action is designed to promote efficiency of training and organisation. The problems concerned with initial training and the supervision of probationary service as being parts of the overall training process should fall within the purview of the Regional Committee.

The possible success of the scheme which has been proposed in the last two chapters would appear to depend on four significant factors:-

- (a) the recognition of the need for a policy of gradualism to prevent dislocation in the supply of teachers to hardpressed schools, as well as to recognise the contribution made, and being made by participating institutions;
- (b) the acceptance of the advantages to be derived from the professional co-ordination of teacher education at both national and regional levels as opposed to the problems resulting from a parochial approach as in the past;

- (c) the emphasis upon the importance of the evolution of regional patterns of professional consultation and co-ordination in close association with university institutions in the development of an 'organic unity' of training institutions within the region;
- (d) the realisation that, for rationalisation and co-ordination to be successful, co-operation and the will to make the scheme work is essential at all levels of operation.

South Africa has been given the chance through educational reform in the decade of the 'sixties to take a major step forward in the development of teacher education in the 'seventies. If this step is not taken, or is only partially taken, as a result of hesitation or faltering confidence, then the opportunity for improvement in the education of our youth for a number of generations may well have been jeopardised.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

This bibliography is divided into:-

1. References quoted in the text, and
2. References consulted but not quoted in the text.

Each section is further sub-divided into references derived from official and non-official sources.

1. References quoted in the text:

(a) Non-official sources:

- ADAMSON, J.: Principles underlying the Training of Teachers: paper delivered to the New Education Fellowship Conference, 1934: from Malherbe, E.G. (ed.): Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society: Juta & Co., Capetown, 1937.
- ARMSTRONG, W.E., and STINNET, T.M.: A Manual on the Certification requirements for School Personnel in the U.S.: (third edition): National Education Association: Washington.
- BEHR, L., and MACMILLAN, R.G.: Education in South Africa: J.L. van Schaik Ltd., Pretoria, 1966.
- BEREDAY, G.Z.F., and LAUWERYS, J.A. (eds.): Yearbooks of Education, 1963, 1965: University of London Institute of Education, and Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York: Evans Bros., London.
- BERESFORD, H.B.: A Critical Study of Some Aspects of Teacher Training in the Commonwealth: unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Natal: 1960.
- BONE, R.C.: Teacher Education and the Training Colleges in England and Wales: unpublished report: Institute of Education, University of Leeds, 1964.
- BRUNER, J.S.: The Process of Education: Harvard University Press, Cambridge (Massachusetts): 1966.
- BRITISH Psychological Society and Association of Training Colleges and Departments of Education (joint working party): Teaching Educational Psychology in Training Colleges: London, 1962.
- CALVERT, L.: New Experiments in Education: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.

- CLARKE, Sir F.: Educational Organisation in South Africa: Article in the Cape Times, Capetown: November, 1924.
- COETZEE, J. Chris. (ed.): Onderwys in Suid-Afrika: J.L. van Schaik Ltd., Pretoria, 1958.
- CONANT, J.B.: The Education of American Teachers: McGraw-Hill: New York: 1963.
- EDUCATION PANEL, 1961: Second Report: Education and the South African Economy: University of the Witwatersrand Press, Johannesburg, 1966.
- FEBVRE, L.: A Geographical Introduction to History: Kegan Paul, Trench, Truebner & Co., London, 1932.
- FLOOD, J.: Teaching in an Affluent Society: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- FORBES ADAM, J.: The Scope and Content of a Three-Year Course of Teacher Training: London University Institute of Education: London, 1956.
- GUTSCHE, H.: Memorandum: Some Remarks on the Training of Teachers: included in the Report of the Director of Education, Transvaal, 1924.
- HANS, Nicholas: Comparative Education: Routledge & Kegan Paul, London: Third Edition, 1961.
- HARTFORD, E.F.: Education in These United States: Collier-MacMillan, London, 1964.
- HERSCHEL, J.F.W.: Further Consideration of the Working of Government Free Schools of the Cape Colony: Memorandum to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, London, 1838.
- HILKER, F.: The Organisation and Structure of Teacher Education in the German Federal Republic: Yearbook of Education, 1963.
- HOLMES, B.: The Organisation of Teacher Training: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- : Teacher Education in a Changing World: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- JACOBY, E.G.: Methods of School Enrolment Projection: UNESCO, Educational Studies and Documents No.32: Paris: 1959.

- JEFFREYS, M.V.C.: Revolution in Teacher Training: Pitman, London, 1961.
- : Personal Values in the Modern World: Pelican, London, 1962.
- JENNINGS, H.D.: The D.H.S. Story: Durban High School and Old Boys Memorial Trust: Durban, 1966.
- JOHANNESBURG COLLEGE of Education: Becoming a Teacher: Prospectus: Transvaal Education Department, 1968.
- KELLERMANN, J.E.: Die Geskiedenis van die Opleiding van Blanke Onderwysers in Suid-Afrika; 1936: Unpublished D.Ed. Thesis: Stellenbosch, 1936.
- KING, E.J.: The Curriculum of British Teacher Training Courses: Analysis and Critique; Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- KOTZEE, A.L.: Planning in Education, with special reference to Methods of Forecasting the Future School Population and the Future Need for Teachers in the Province of the Transvaal: paper to the National Conference on Education, University of Natal, 1960.
- LEEDS, University of, Institute of Education Handbook, 1962-1963, Part II: The University, Leeds.
- McKERRON, R.: The History of Education in South Africa, 1652-1932: J.L. van Schaik, Pretoria, 1934.
- McMAGH, P.G.: Some Recommendations with reference to Teacher Training in the Transvaal in the light of the McNair Report: Associateship Report: (unpublished): London University Institute of Education, 1962.
- MACMILLAN, R.G.: The Organisation of the Training of Teachers in South Africa: Legislation and the Problem: from Towards the Co-ordination of Teacher Training in South Africa, Occasional Paper No.3: Dept. of Education, University of Natal, 1969.
- , and PROZESKY, M.N.: An Attempt at Forecasting the Future need for Teachers in Natal: unpublished research, Dept. of Education, University of Natal.
- , HEY, P.D., and MACQUARRIE, J.W.: Education and Our Expanding Horizons: proceedings of the National Conference on Education, University of Natal, Durban, 1960: U.N. Press, 1962.

- MALHERBE, E.G. (ed.): Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society: proceedings of the New Education Fellowship Conference, Capetown and Johannesburg, 1934: Juta & Co., Capetown, 1937.
- : Education in South Africa, 1652-1922: Juta & Co., Capetown: 1925.
- MANN, Horace: 9th Annual Report of the Secretary to the Board of Education of the State of Massachusetts, 1841.
- MARQUARD, L.: The Story of South Africa: Faber & Faber, London 1955.
- MESSERTI, J.C.: Horace Mann and Teacher Education: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- MILTON, A.: Theory and Practice of Education: unpublished paper: University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland Institute of Education, 1962.
- MURRAY, J.: Limitations of the Training (Normal) College: paper to the New Education Fellowship Conference, 1934.
- NATAL MERCURY, The: Article on the effect of the differentiated Senior Certificate Examination, 6th January, 1968.
- NATAL: University of: unpublished memorandum on the Training of Teachers in South Africa, presented to the Committee of University Principals, 1968.
- : Department of Education: Towards the Co-ordination of Teacher Training in South Africa: Occasional Paper No.3: 1969.
- NEL, B.F., and DUMINY, P.A.: Survey of the Development of European Teacher Training in South Africa, 1652-1960: Pretoria, the Authors, 1961.
- NIVEN, J.M.: The College of Education and its Rôle in the functioning of an Institute of Education: Occasional Paper No.3: Department of Education, University of Natal, 1969.
- OBERHOLZER, C.K.: Die Pretoriase Normaal Kollege, 1902-1952: 'n Tergublik oor Vyftig Jaar: Pretoria, G.P.: 1952/3.
- PATRICK, P.E.: The Student Population in South African Universities: unpublished memorandum, University of Natal, 1967.
- PEDLEY, F.H.: The Educational System in England and Wales: Pergamon Press, London, 1963.

- PELLS, E.G.: Three Hundred Years of Education in South Africa, 1652-1952: Capetown: Juta & Co.
- RICHMOND, W. KENNETH: The Teaching Revolution: Methuen & Co., London, 1967.
- ROUSSEAU, H.J.: University Teacher Training: unpublished thesis for the degree of D.Ed. in the P.U.K. vir C.H.O. of the University of South Africa, 1951.
- RUGG, H.O.: The Teacher of Teachers: Harpers, New York, 1952.
- SADLER, M.: How far can we learn anything of value from the study of foreign systems of education: monograph, 1900.
- SNAPE, A.E.: Report on Technical Instruction in the Union of South Africa: report presented to a conference on technical education held in Durban in 1911.
- THABUALT, R.: The Professional Training of Teachers in France: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- THORPE, L.P., and SCHMULLER, A.M.: Contemporary Theories of Learning: Ronald Press, New York, 1954.
- TRANSVAAL EDUCATIONAL NEWS: Official organ of the Transvaal Teachers' Association: editorial: Nov./Dec., 1966.
- VAN COLLER, H.P.: Onderwysers Opleiding in Brittanje en in die Transvaal, met besondere verwysing na die Britse beïnvloeding hier te lande, veral gedurende die eerste helfte van die twintigste eeu: D.Ed. Thesis: P.U. vir C.H.O.: Potchefstroom, 1957.
- WOODRING, P.: Fourth of a Nation: McGraw-Hill, New York, 1957.
- YOUNG, G.W.: Memorandum on the suggested establishment of posts of probationary supervisor: unpublished - submitted to the Director, Institute of Education, U.C.R.N., Salisbury, 1962.

(b) Official Sources:-

(i) Annual Reports of Central Government and Provincial Government Departments:

Cape Colony and Province: Reports of the Superintendent-General of Education for the years:- 1895, 1896, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1909, 1912, 1913, 1914, 1918, 1919, 1920, 1921, 1922, 1923/4, 1925, 1927, 1928, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1934, 1935, 1941-45, 1946, 1947, 1948-9, 1950-1, 1958, 1961, 1962, 1963.

Natal Colony and Province: Reports of the Superintendent of Education, subsequently Director of Education, for the years:- 1909, 1910, 1912, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1926, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1934, 1936, 1938-9, 1947, 1948, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1962, 1965.

Orange Free State: Reports of the Director of Education for the years:- 1910-11, 1911-12, 1916, 1917, 1919, 1920, 1921, 1923, 1925, 1927, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1935, 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1941-5, 1949, 1951, 1955, 1957, 1960, 1962.

Transvaal Province: Reports of the Superintendent of Education of the South African Republic: 1893, 1895.
Reports of the Director of Education for the years:- 1906, 1907, 1908, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1921, 1922, 1923, 1926, 1927, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1936, 1942, 1943, 1944-5, 1947, 1949, 1950, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954, 1955, 1957, 1962.

Union Department of Education: Reports of the Secretary of Education for the years:- 1913, 1917, 1919, 1920-21*, 1921-2*, 1922-3*, 1934-5*, 1928, 1930, 1933-4, 1935, 1936.
* abridged reports.

Department of Education, Arts and Science: Reports of the Secretary for the years:- 1948, 1951, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966.

Department of Higher Education: Reports of the Secretary for the years:- 1967, 1968, 1969.

National Advisory Education Council: Reports of the Chairman for the years:- 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968.

(ii) Legislative Acts or Proposed Legislative Acts of the Parliament of the Union of South Africa or of the Republic of South Africa:

Acts No.:	12, 13, 14 of 1916
	5 of 1922
	70 of 1955
Draft Bill No.:	A/B 7 of 1962
Acts No.:	86 of 1962
	39, 40, 41 of 1967
Draft Bills No.	A/B 68 of 1968
	A/B 80(A) of 1969
Act No.:	73 of 1969.

(iii) Provincial Government Education Ordinances:

Cape Province:	Consolidated Education Ordinance, No. 5 of 1921 Provincial Education Ordinance, No. 9 of 1951
Natal:	Consolidated Education Ordinance, 1942 Provincial Education Ordinance, 1969
Orange Free State:	Education Ordinance, 1954
Transvaal:	Provincial Education Ordinance, No.29 of 1953.

(iv) Special Reports:Cape Province:

- First Memorandum on Training Schools in the Cape Province
(annexure to the Superintendent-General's report for
1912)
- Report of the Provincial Education Commission of Inquiry,
1916
- Rules relating to the training of and examinations for
White teachers at Training Colleges, 1968

Natal:

- Report of the Provincial Education Commission (Broome), 1937
- Report of the Provincial Education Committee (Wilks), 1946
- Report of the Director of Education on an official visit to
educational institutions in Great Britain and Europe, 1961
- Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the desirability of
having differentiation in Natal Schools (Lighton), 1963
- Report of the Director: Town and Regional Planning Department,
Natal: Educational Fact Finding: Second Interim
Report

Orange Free State:

- Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Paucity of
Teachers in the O.F.S. (Kottich), 1921
- Report of the Education Inquiry Commission (de Villiers),
1926
- Report of the Provincial Education Commission of Inquiry
(Pretorius), 1951
- Report on the Overseas Commission of Inquiry into
Differentiated Secondary Education (Wentzel), 1963

Transvaal:

- Report of the Provincial Education Commission, 1928
- Report of the Provincial Education Commission (Nicol), 1939
- Report of the Education Committee (Lynch Committee):
first report, 1948
second report, 1950
- Report of the Committee on Differentiated Secondary
Education (Steyn Report), 1953
- Report of the Overseas Mission on Differentiated Education
(van Wyk Report), 1955
- Verslag: Komitee insake Krediet- en Eksamenstelsels aan
Onderwyskolleges (Griffiths verslag): 1961

Central Government:

- Report of the Conference of Directors of Education, November, 1911 (occurring as an annexure to the report of the Secretary, Union Department of Education, 1911)
- Report of the University Commission (Laurance), 1914;
U.G. 42/1914
- Report of the Educational Administration Commission (Hofmeyr), 1923; U.G. 19/1924
- Report of the Universities and Technical Colleges Commission (van der Horst), 1928; U.G. 33/1928
- Union Department of Education: Report of the Director, National Bureau of Education, 1930
- Report of the Commission on the University of South Africa (Brookes), 1947; U.G. 44/1947
- Report of the Commission on Technical and Vocational Education (de Villiers), 1948; U.G. 65/1948
- Report of the Parliamentary Select Committee on the subject of the National Education Advisory Council Bill (AB 7 of 1962), 1962
- Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the training of White persons as teachers (Gericke Commission), 1968;
RP 29/1969
- Department of Education, Arts and Science: National Bureau of Educational and Social Research: Research series Nos. 2, 6, 7, 24, 25, 29, 30.
- Department of Higher Education: Human Sciences Research Council: Register of Research, 1969: Report No. 10: compiled by Fourie, E.C.

United Kingdom:

- Great Britain: Committee of the Privy Council: Poor Law Commissioners: First Report on the Training School at Battersea, 1841
- Great Britain: Board of Education: Consultative Committee: Education of the Adolescent (Hadow Report), 1926
- Great Britain: Board of Education: Consultative Committee: The Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders (McNair Report), 1943
- Great Britain: Committee on Higher Education: Higher Education (Robbins Report), 1963
- Great Britain: Central Advisory Council for Education: Children and their Primary Schools (Plowden Report), 1967

(v) Other Official References:

- Natal: Natal Education Department: Circular No. 109 of 1961: Differentiation in Secondary Classes
- Orange Free State: Department of Education: Normal Courses: Regulations, 1911-12
- Transvaal: Circular No. 76 of 8th December, 1949: Manual of Instructions regarding credit and examination systems in colleges of education, 1963

Union Government/Republic of South Africa:Bureau of Census and Statistics:

- Fifty Years of Statistics, 1910-1960
- Population Census 1960, Tabulations 1, 7, 8
- Report No.285: Statistics of Schools, 1963 and earlier
- Statistical Yearbook, 1965
- Statistical Yearbook, 1966

Government Gazette: No.2750 : 10th July, 1970
 No.R1844 : 23rd October, 1970

House of Assembly Debates (Hansard): Second session of the
 Fourth Parliament: 7th-11th June, 1971

Great Britain: Education Act, 1944

2. References consulted, but not quoted in the text:(a) Non-official sources:

- ADAMS, J.: The Evolution of Educational Theory: MacMillan, London, 1915.
- AMERICAN Association of Colleges for Teacher Education: Teacher Education: Direction for the 'Sixties: Bemidji, Minnesota, 1960.
- ASSOCIATION of Commonwealth Universities: Commonwealth Universities Yearbook: London, 1966.
- ASSOCIATION of Training Colleges and Departments of Education: Memorandum to the Committee on Higher Education: The Training of Teachers in relation to the expansion of Higher Education: London, 1961.
- BARNETT, W.G., and PROCTOR, L.: Automation in Education: Monograph of the Johannesburg College of Education: Johannesburg, 1963.
- BARON, G.: The Organisation of Teacher Training in England and Wales: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- BARR, A.S.: Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Efficiency: a summary of investigations; Journal of Experimental Education, XVI, 4.6.1948: Madison, Wisconsin.
- BLOOM, J.M.: Videotape and the Vitalization of Teaching: Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XX, No.3, Fall, 1969.
- BOYD, W.: The Four-Year Integrated Course: N.E.F. Conference: Capetown, 1934.

- BRITISH Association for the Advancement of Science: Final Report on Formal Training: Committee on: London, 1930.
- CAPETOWN University: Origin and Development of the Department of Education and the Faculty of Education in the South African College, and the University of Capetown: Capetown: the University, 1961.
- CARNEGIE Corporation Quarterly: Any Nation's Biggest Business, Volume XII, No. 2: New York, April, 1964.
- CARTWRIGHT, W.H.: Post-war revisions in Teacher Education in the U.S.: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- CASSIRER, H.R.: Television Teaching Today, UNESCO, Paris, 1962.
- CASTLE, E.B.: Ancient Education and Today, Penguin, London, 1961.
- CONFERENCE OF Institute Directors: 36th Meeting, 31st January, 1964: The Implementation of the Robbins Report - unpublished report.
- COOKE, D., and DUNHILL, J.: A Short Guide to Educational Administration: University of London Press: London, 1962.
- COOPER, J.M.: Developing Specific Teaching Skills through micro-teaching: Stanford Teacher Education Programme: 1967: Stanford University.
- CRAGG and ARDLEY: Teachers - the new image: Teacher Education: Vol. 6, No. 3, Feb. 1966.
- CURTIS, S.J., and BOULTWOOD, M.E.A.: A Short History of Educational Ideas: University Tutorial Press: Cambridge, Second Edition, 1956.
- DOBINSON, C.H.: Schooling, 1963-1970: Harrap, London, 1963.
- DU TOIT, P.S.: Aspects of Teacher Education in the U.S.A., Canada and South Africa: Report to the Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1956.
- EDUCATION Panel, 1961: First Report: Education for South Africa: University of Witwatersrand Press, Johannesburg, 1963.
- EDWARDS, Newton: Education and the National Economy: Education Digest, Volume XIX, October, 1953.
- ERICKSON, Carlton W.H.: Fundamentals of Teaching with Audio-Visual Technology: MacMillan, New York, 1965.

- EURICH, A.C.: The Rôle of the American Foundations in Future Teacher Training: Yearbook of Education, 1963: Evans Bros., London.
- EYBERS, G.W.: Select Constitutional Documents illustrating South African History, 1793-1910: Routledge, London, 1918.
- FEHR, H.F.: Breakthrough in Mathematical Thought: The Maths Teacher, Vol. 52(1), 1959.
- FLANDERS, N.A.: Intent, action and feedback: a preparation for teaching: Journal of Teacher Education: Vol. XX, No. 3, 1969.
- GIAMMATEO, M.: Systems Concepts related to Teacher Training: Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XX, No. 3, 1969.
- GRIFFITHS, V.L.: Educational Planning: O.U.P., London, 1962.
- HARBISON, F.: The African University and Human Resource Development. Paper to Anglo-Afro-American Conference on Teacher Education: Lake Mohonk, New York, September, 1964.
- HARBISON, F., and MYERS: Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: McGraw-Hill, New York, 1964.
- HAWKRIDGE, D.G.: Programmed Learning and Teacher Education: Vol.6, No.3, Feb., 1966, London.
- HEADLAM, C. (ed.): The Milner Papers: South Africa to 1905: Volume II: Cassell & Co., London, 1933.
- HUTCHINSON, M., and YOUNG, C.: Educating the Intelligent: Pelican, London, 1962.
- JONES, G.E.L.: The Training of Teachers in England and Wales: a critical survey: O.U.P., London, 1924.
- KING, E.J.: World Perspectives in Education, Methuen & Co., London, 1962.
- KOERNER, J.D.: The Miseducation of American Teachers: Houghton, Mifflin: Boston: 3rd printing, 1963.
- KOTZEE, A.L.: 'n Metode van Vooruitskating: unpublished Ph.D. Thesis: Pretoria.
- LESTER SMITH, W.O.: Education: Pelican, London, 1964.
- : Government of Education: Penguin, London, 1965.

- LEWIS, A.J., and LIEB, L.V. (eds.): A Report of a Conference of Institutes of Education in Africa: Mombasa, January, 1964.
- LONDON: University of: Scheme of Special Relations with U.C.R.N.: Regulations for the Post-Graduate Certificate in Education: London, 1964.
- MALLINSON, V.: An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education: Heinemann, London, 1961.
- McGEE, V.E.: Can South Africa afford a modern curriculum in High School Mathematics: Spectrum: Volume 1, No. 4, 1963.
- MACMILLAN, R.G. (ed.): Report on a Pilot Course on Some Problems in Teaching Method at University Level: Department of Education: Occasional Paper No. 1: University of Natal, 1965.
- : Some Aspects of the Problem of Admission to College in the United States of America: Department of Education, University of Natal, 1965.
- : The Education of the Teacher: Inaugural Lecture, University of Natal Press: 1958.
- METROWICH, C.F.: Development of Higher Education in South Africa, 1873-1927: Maskew Miller, Capetown, 1929.
- MICHAEL, D.P.M.: The Idea of a Staff College: F.L. Allan Memorial Trust: Occasional Paper No. 1: Headmasters Association and Conference: London, 1967.
- MILLET, J.D.: Financing Higher Education in the United States; Columbia University Press, New York, 1952.
- MILTON, A.: Teachers Outside the Walls: Inaugural lecture, U.C.R.N.: August, 1963: O.U.P., London, 1964.
- NATIONAL Education Association: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards: New Horizons for the Teaching Profession: Washington, N.E.A., 1961, (ed. Lindsey, M.)
- NEW EDUCATION: Can we really teach teaching?: New Education: New York, Volume 3, No.3: March, 1967.
- NIVEN, J.M.: The Implications of the Recommendations of the Robbins Report for Teacher Training in Southern Rhodesia: Paper to the Institute of Education, U.C.R.N., 1963.
- : The Purpose and Function of an Institute of Education in Central Africa: May, 1965: The Mentor.

- NIVEN, J.M.: Teacher Education in Rhodesia with particular reference to the needs of the period, 1965-1975: M.Ed. Thesis: University of Natal, 1966.
- PELLS, E.G.: The Story of Education in South Africa: Juta & Co., Capetown, 1938.
- POTCHEFSTROOMSE Onderwyskollege: Onderwysers-opleiding: Potchefstroom, Pro Rege-pers, 1954.
- PRATT, S., and LOVERIDGE, A.J.: Training Programmes and Manpower Planning: Teacher Education: Volume 4, No. 3, Feb., 1964.
- RADEMEYER, J.I.: Geskiedenis van die Heidelbergse Onderwyskollege: 1909-1964: Johannesburg, Voortrekkerpers, 1964.
- RELLER, T.L., and MORPHET, E.L.: Comparative Educational Administration: Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1962.
- ROBBERTSE, J.H.: Die Finansiëring van die Opleiding van Blanke onderwysers in Transvaal, 1859-1956: M.Ed. Thesis: P.C.U. vir C.H.O.: 1958.
- ROBBINS, G.D.: Teacher education and professional standards in England and Wales: Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1963.
- STANFORD UNIVERSITY: Teacher Education Programme: Micro-teaching, a Description, 1967: Stanford, U.S.
- STEENKAMP, L.: Onderwys vir Blankes in Natal, 1824-1940: J.L. van Schaik Ltd., Pretoria, 1941.
- STELLWAG, Helena W.F.: The Problem of General Didactics in post-primary academic education: J.B. Wolters, Groningen, 1961.
- TAYLOR, L.C.: Resources for Learning: Penguin Education Special: Lonon, 1971.
- TAYLOR, W. (ed.): Towards a Policy for the Education of Teachers: Twentieth Symposium of the Colston Research Society, 1968: Butterworths, London, 1969.
- TIBBLE, J.W.: Education for Teaching: A.T.C.D.E. Journal: London, February, 1962.
- TRUMP, J. LLOYD: Focus on Change - a Guide to Better Schools: Rand-McNally, New York, 1961.
- VAIZEY, J.: Education for Tomorrow: Pelican, London, revised, 1966.

VAN DER MEULEN, J.: Fundamentals of the Training of Teachers:
Hearlem: reprint of article; no source given; 1962.

WALKER, E.A.: A History of South Africa: Longmans Green, London,
1928.

(b) Official Sources:

Cape Province:

Cape Education Department: The Education Gazette: Vol.LXVI,
No.8: 6th April, 1967: Cape and Transvaal Printers.

Cape of Good Hope: Department of Public Education:
Opleiding Kolleges, hoër en middelbare skole vir blanke
en kleurling studente: Cape Times, 1957.

Cape of Good Hope: Department of Public Education: Courses
of Training for European Teachers: Federal Printing Co.,
1950.

Natal:

Province of Natal: Director of Education: Tables of Educational
Statistics, published triennially, 1960, 1963.

Natal Education Department: Training of Teachers: courses and
loans; information to prospective students, 1965.

Natal Training College: Commemorative Journal, 1909-1959.

Natal Training College: Journal, 1966.

Orange Free State:

Orange River Colony: Education Department: Teacher Certificate
Examination Papers, 1909: Education Department, Bloemfontein.

Transvaal:

Transvaal Onderwysdepartement: Voorwaardes vir die opleiding
van blanke onderwysers en die uitreiking van onderwysers-
diplomas, 1944.

-----: Komitee oor die hersiening
van voorwaardes en kursusse vir die opleiding van onderwysers,
1954.

-----: Handboek van regulasies,
voorwaardes en kursusse in die opleiding van onderwysers, 1954.

-----: Sillabusse vir Transvaalse
onderwyskolleges: 1955.

-----: Hendleiding insake krediet- en
eksamenstelsels aan onderwyskolleges: 1963.

Transvaal Education Department: Council of Education:

First Report: Country Schools: Pretoria, 1913

Second Report: Town Primary Schools: Pretoria, 1914.

Central Government:

- Union of South Africa: Conference on Technical, Industrial and Commercial Education, 8-10th November, 1911: Pretoria, 1912.
- Unie van Zuid-Afrika: Dept. van Onderwys: Bepalings betreffende de Onderwysersakte van de Eerste Klas: 1912.
- Union of South Africa: Provincial Administration Commission (Jagger Commission), 1916: U.G. 45/1916.
- : Union Dept. of Education: Amended Regulations for the Teachers First Class Certificate and certain special courses, 1918.
- : Union Dept. of Education: Handbook of National Teachers Examinations, 1937.

United Kingdom:

- Great Britain: Ministry of Education: Education, 1900-1950: London, 1951.
- : Central Office of Information: Reference Division: Technological Education in Britain: London, 1956.
- : Ministry of Education: Central Advisory Council on Education: 15-18: (Crowther Report: London, 1958.
- : Ministry of Education: Supply and training of teachers for technical colleges: London, 1960.
- : Central Advisory Council for Education: Half Our Future: (Newsom Report): London, 1963.
- : Department of Education and Science: National Advisory Council on the training and supply of teachers: The supply and training of teachers for further education: London, 1965.

(c) Miscellaneous:

- South African universities and colleges of education: official calendars or handbooks.