THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM : A TERTIARY-DIDACTIC INVESTIGATION

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ABSTRACT

The broad goal of this investigation was to examine the effectiveness of the practical components in teacher education courses. In order to achieve this goal, it was necessary to find possible solutions to the major problem around which inquiries of this nature tend to revolve, viz. What would be the features of a relevant, practical, democratically - designed curriculum for Teaching Practice?

To reduce the complexity of the problem, it seemed realistic to link the research to a particular case. Consequently, an in-depth analysis was made of the Teaching Practice curriculum in use at the University of Durban-Westville.

The research consisted of seven phases :

1. A literary study of trends in Teaching Practice, Didactics, and Curriculum Development.
2. An examination of historical and current developments of the Teaching Practice course offered at the University of Durban-Westville.
3. A survey of Teaching Practice curricula currently in use at 52 teacher training institutions inside South Africa and abroad.
4. A survey of the views of 65 school authorities regarding Teaching Practice curricula.
5. A survey of the views of 170 final-year student teachers regarding Teaching Practice curricula.

6. A survey of the views of 35 lecturers involved in teacher education regarding Teaching Practice curricula.
7. The design of an effective Teaching Practice curriculum based on a fusion of the data obtained.

The preliminary findings of the investigation centred upon the identification of deep conflicts that exist among various groups involved in teacher education. During the institutional survey, for instance, it was found that marked differences exist between the practical components of curricula offered at different institutions. Whereas some institutions lay heavy emphasis on the development of practical teaching skills on campus, most of them apparently concentrate only on theoretical aspects in their campus-based courses. Teaching Practice is mostly seen as that part of the course that takes place at schools. This could obviously cause serious discrepancies between what students are taught on campus and at schools. In similar vein divergent trends were identified in the expressed needs of school authorities, students, and teacher educators. Each group seems to have a different set of expectations regarding teacher education in general, and Teaching Practice in particular.

These findings led to the realization that the most important characteristic of an effective Teaching Practice curriculum is that it should be based on a scientific model theory of teaching which both tutors and students should put into practice. The persistent propagation of inconsistent, contradictory theories of teaching was identified as a crippling weakness in many Teaching Practice courses.

The study culminated in the presentation of a proposed Teaching Practice curriculum. This curriculum rests on the claim that it is relevant to modern trends in Didactics as well as in teacher education. The expressed views of school authorities, students, and tutors have been incorporated. It promises to have a strong theoretical foundation and seems to be rooted in real classroom practices. The proposals are accompanied by general guidelines for implementation. One *might* conclude, therefore, that viable solutions to the research problem have been found.

And what of the future? The present crisis in education in South Africa must be considered when embarking on the development, and changing of such a curriculum. Are planners really aware of the impact that pupil unrest will be bound to have on school curricula and thus necessarily upon teacher education? I hope so.

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Although written by one person, this thesis represents the efforts of many. Space will allow the specific recognition of only a few individuals and groups.

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CHAPTER ONE

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. INTRODUCTION

To an educationist the question, "What is wrong with teacher education?" might be like the question, "What is wrong with *you*?" It automatically puts one on the defensive. On the other hand, if the opposite version of the question - "What is right in teacher education?" - is asked, the reaction is likely to be even more emotional. This point serves to illustrate that across the spectrum of problems involving formal education, teacher training is one of the most sensitive and controversial issues.

At least two socio-philosophical sets of reasons can be put forward to explain this tension. First, there would be those who hold that the sensitivity stems from man's natural resistance to change - a view eloquently expressed by the poet, W. H. Auden :

> "We would rather be ruined than changed,
> We would rather die in our dread
> Than climb the cross of the moment
> And let our illusions die."

Yet, however true this may be of *some* people, it would be rather cynical to ascribe this characteristic to the whole of mankind. Undoubtedly the history of civilization has proved man to be one of the most adaptable creatures, constantly changing himself and his environment to ensure his own survival - often at the expense of the immediate environment and its inhabitants.

The second set of reasons seems more plausible. According to this school of thought sensitivity results when "so much happens so fast" that man cannot keep up with the number of changes demanded of him.[1] The process triggers off feelings of insecurity and vulnerability which manifest themselves in defensive, hostile attitudes towards interference.[2] Eventually mankind may find itself in what Frankl calls "an existential vacuum" in which meaningful change becomes increasingly difficult to accomplish.[3] The sense of collective helplessness that accompanies this condition is aptly described in Emerson's words : "Things are in the saddle and ride mankind."[4]

A similar process may be developing in the sphere of teacher education. Among the plethora of demands teacher educators have had to cope with in recent times, are those of learning psychologists insisting on a more vigorous application of cognitive learning theories; humanists pleading for more intensive instruction of the affective domain; technologists pressing hard for an extensive use of instructional aids; philosophers launching swinging attacks because 'vital values' are being neglected; school-authorities becoming ever more deeply entrenched in bureaucratic practices; and naive students persistently clamouring for simple, straight-forward, often sketchy teaching theories. All these demands have to be catered for in the midst of the continuing explosion of knowledge, and concomitantly meeting the immediate demands of large numbers of students already in training. Small wonder that teacher educators cringe when somebody asks : "What is wrong with teacher education?"

This study stems from a suspicion that constant, conflicting demands

made on teacher educators are sapping the strength of teacher education courses. Many well-formulated educational aims seem to have lost their meaning. Others have become submerged in problematic relationships existing between tutors, students, and school authorities due to clashing theories and autocratic practices. Such dissidence could cause the fragmentation of curricula because conflicting demands are made on students. At its worst, each tutor and each school authority could expect students to follow a different procedure.

The time seems to be ripe for a fundamental analysis of the general training needs of teachers. Unfortunately such an enterprise is too formidable a task for a single researcher. Hence it was decided to limit this investigation to a single vital component of teacher education curricula at the University of Durban-Westville, namely Teaching Practice. This area was chosen on the grounds of the possibility of it being the most essential link between theory and practice.

The extent to which the reservations expressed above are borne out by evidence, will only be known at the end of the investigation. Throughout this text, however, it will be useful to keep in mind the following axiom from which all research of this nature springs :

> "The quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its citizens. The quality of its citizens depends - not exclusively, but in critical measure - upon the quality of their education. The quality of their education depends more than upon any factor, upon the quality of their teachers ... The quality of the teachers depends largely upon the quality of their own education,

> both that portion which precedes and which comes after their entrance into the profession. *It follows that the purpose and effectiveness of teacher education must be matters of profound social concern.*[5)]

The first chapter is a necessary preface to the rest of the text. A presentation of the research problem will be followed by an outline of research procedure.

2. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The broad goal of this investigation is to examine the effectiveness of the practical components in teacher education courses, and to draw guidelines for their possible improvement. To help the reader to draw a systematic view of the situation, a detailed formulation of the problem is preceded below by :

a) a statement of the basic assumption, and

b) a brief sketch of pressing problems stemming from recent developments in teacher education. The section is concluded by a delineation of the proposed study field.

2.1 Statement of basic assumptions

This project is based on the assumption that there is much room for improvement in the quality of teacher education courses. To substantiate this claim at least three observations are relevant :

2.1.1 Cognitive aims of formal education are not adequately met :

Three examples from a myraid of research findings should suffice to prove this point : Firstly, reading-test results disclosed in 1981 by the U.S. National Assessment of Educational Progress showed that problem-solving ability among secondary school pupils had declined during the 1970's. Secondly, research by the U.S. National Education Association showed recently that scholars are at present less able to understand complex reading passages than their counterparts of a decade earlier.[6] Thirdly, in 1984 Chisholm showed evidence that the educational standard of black schools in South Africa is considerably lower than the educational standard of white schools.[7] Since pupil achievement depends partly on teacher effectiveness, it seems reasonable to suppose that a deterioration in this area is a resultant action caused, among other things, by inferior teacher education.

2.1.2 Affective aims of formal education are not adequately met :

One example from a multitude of others that might suggest themselves is demotivation among children. From the standpoint of teachers, this has become a problem of major proportions. Illich obviously exaggerates when he states : "Pedagogical therapists drug their pupils more in order to teach them better, and students drug themselves more to gain relief from the pressures of teachers and the race for certificates." (1979:54). Yet few teachers would deny that modern youth tends to equate school with boredom, lassitude, and monotony. By the time the pupils enter secondary school there is little evidence of the "intrinsic interest in learning" and "essentially inquiring

nature" children are supposed to possess.[8] Whereas much blame for this tragic situation could be laid on the doorstep of a rigid educational system, it would be unrealistic to exempt teacher educators from all responsibility. Moreover, teacher education - being the essential link between research findings and bureaucratic practices - has a vital role to fulfil in the *improvement* of affective factors in the classroom.

2.1.3 Teacher education is in crisis :

Since this point needs further elaboration, it is discussed in greater detail below. Suffice to note that a crisis might, by definition, be considered to be a time of tension, suspense, and confusion. Whereas improved competency and performance often *result* from a crisis, it is virtually impossible for people to function effectively while the *crisis is still in progress*. It is therefore logical, at the moment, to expect reduced efficiency in the sphere of teacher education.

2.2 Pressing problems stemming from recent developments in teacher education

2.2.1 The problem of relevance

Until fairly recently few educationists have verbalized reservations about the discrepancy that exists between academic teacher education curricula and regular classroom practices. Even up to the present moment the lack of research, coupled with a certain complacency amongst some educationists, has prevented a fundamental analysis of

this vital issue. However, during the early 1970's several scholars started to recognize the dichotomy. Thus Gage stated in 1972 :

> "Teachers are expected to rediscover for themselves the formulas that experienced and ingenious teachers have acquired over the years. Each generation of teachers benefits too little from the inventions of its predecessors. Too little of the wisdom of the profession gets saved and passed along for the benefit of the novice." (1972:195)

At about the same time a plea for a higher degree of professional competence was made by various academics in the United Kingdom, where teacher training was said to be "too diffuse, too superficial in its coverage, insufficiently professional in its approaches, and too haphazard in its relation to teaching practice"[9)]

Important issues arose from criticism of this nature. In effect, growing concern about the quality of teacher education was voiced in the U.K., the U.S.A. and several other developed countries. As was to be expected, this eventually led to a public debate during the course of which a series of attacks on teacher training was launched. It is not the place here to describe the details of this debate. Enough to say that in Canada, for instance, it culminated in an inquiry into "The Education and Training of Teachers in British Columbia", which resulted in the McGregor Report, published in 1978. In this report the committee recommended the establishment of a new Council for the Education of Teachers which could recommend policy concerning the preparation of teachers, monitor existing programmes, and approve

all new programmes. This Council would be composed of locally elected trustees, members of the lay public, in-service teachers, and a representative of the government, with the deans of the universities being present, but having no vote.[10)]

These developments bring to the fore one of the most pressing problems that needs to be examined in the present study, viz. The relevance of teacher education curricula in South Africa. *Although teacher educators here have thus far been saved from the embarrassment of a public debate, it is a plausible hypothesis that many of our teacher education courses have the same deficiencies as courses elsewhere.*

Research with the intent to investigate such possible deficiencies is urgently needed. Especially pertinent are questions of the following nature :

1. How relevant are our teacher education curricula?
2. Is there a positive correlation between the learning material offered in these courses and the knowledge and skills teachers need for successful classroom practice?
3. Have teacher education courses kept pace with the developments of modern society?
4. How relevant are these courses in the context of recent developments in curriculum design, teacher education, learning theories, and group psychology?
5. How can we better help students to prepare themselves for the teaching profession?

Finding viable answers to these questions will obviously require a major research project. To reduce the issue to manageable proportions, only one aspect of teacher education courses in one particular institution will be examined in this study. However, the problem of of relevance, as set out above, forms the essential backdrop against which the present investigation should be seen.

2.2.2 The problems inherent to practical teaching programmes

Perhaps the greatest shortcoming of teacher education courses is that they have come to be too theoretical. It stands to reason that such an approach results in frustration for both tutors and school authorities, with student teachers suffering as the perplexed victims of a system which fails to match their basic needs. The ultimate result of this process is a pedagogical system characterized by sham. Dow states the noticeable signs of such a system most appropriately :

> "Many 'successful' students and pupils become adept at playing intellectual games with ideas they can manipulate at will and verbalize with great articulateness but from which they remain personally detached. The worst example of this is the slick use of jargon ... They have lost their commitment to their ideas ... This is seen when the simple question floors the 'wise' man and shows the emptiness of his abstractions". (1979:27)

It is therefore hardly surprising that this area has recently been singled out as the most pressing problem in teacher education.

Accusations against teaching courses being too abstract in content and presentation, is nothing new. Similar criticisms have been lodged from time to time, it seems, ever since the conception of teacher training, and many teacher educators have developed a kind of immunity to them. For instance, it hardly created a stir when Flanders in 1963 commented :

> "It is a serious indictment of the profession to hear so many education instructors say that their students will appreciate what they are learning *after* they have had some practical experience. With most present practices, the gorge between theory and practice grows deeper and wider, excavated by the very individuals who are pledged to fill it."[11)]

More than a decade later isolated writers were still complaining about the abstract content of curricula. Thus Wragg wrote in 1974 :

> "At its worst it produces a lecture course saturated with information about historical, psychological, sociological and philosophical aspects of education, followed by an intensive burst of teaching practice in which the student is too desperately immersed in the intoxicating task of survival to stop and deliberate." (1974:VII)

But by this time the teacher education debate had begun, creating a more congenial climate for criticism to be heard. A growing number of educationists started to express their disquiet about teaching the fundamental disciplines - "a potpourri of philosophy, sociology,

and psychology" (Hencke, 1978:32) - rather than basing their instruction on a curriculum centred upon practical teaching problems. At the time, however, the majority still resisted reform. Instead of re-structuring the existing curricula at grass-roots, the policy makers latched on to the time constraints placed on teacher education courses. They recommended an extension of the period of instruction. Hence the B.Ed.-courses were emphasized, based on the assumption that lengthier courses would result in the improvement of teaching standards.

In the atmosphere of heightened awareness caused by the ongoing debate, it did not take critics of the system long to hold forth that the introduced measures were both impractical and inappropriate. Supporters of more teaching-centred curricula rightly pointed out that the new B.Ed.-courses consisted merely of an extra year of academic study in depth, "creating an extraordinary situation whereby the better qualified teacher spent the last eighteen months of his course without setting foot in a school or seeing a child." (Hencke, 1978:33) The movement away from traditional course-content toward an entire new curriculum, gained momentum. The need for a radical restructuring of curricula was soon borne out by a number of empirical research projects. One example of this was research done by Steltman at the University of Bonn in 1979 which revealed that the vast majority of student teachers experienced their pedagogical studies as "meaningless." Moreover, 70,7% of criticism against these teacher training courses centred around *the lack of practical involvement.*[12)]

In retrospect these findings seem to have served as the proverbial final straw. They perpetuated a crisis in teacher education which is

noticeable throughout the developed world, although the forms of influence vary from country to country. (Hencke, 1978; Bruner, 1980; Bone, 1980). In some institutions it led to a complete overthrow of traditional teacher education curricula and the establishment of new core curricula firmly rooted in practice, (Dow, 1979; Ashton, 1983; etc.). In others it caused a kind of panic, resulting in the deeper entrenchment of traditional curricula. (Avenant, 1980; Van der Stoep, 1984). And in the rest - which seems to be the majority - it resulted in mere confusion, leaving teacher education, in the words of an Australian research-team, "in the doldrums." (Turney, 1977:1)

The University of Durban-Westville seems to belong to the latter group, as will become apparent when its curricula are discussed later. In this Faculty the members recognized the inadequacy of traditional curricula as far back as 1980, when processes were initiated which paved the way for the introduction of a campus-based Teaching Practice programme in 1982. Paradoxically, however, this programme does not seem to have had the impact its initiators hoped for. Despite intensive discussions, imaginative arrangements, and excessive demands made upon staff, its implementation is fraught with discontent amongst tutors, school authorities, and students. The crisis has undoubtedly left its mark.

One can best interpret the problem by comparing it to the classical example of a crisis, viz. the turning-point of a disease. In this context the distinctive pattern is that a state of equilibrium (the normal course of the disease) is unexpectedly disrupted (marked deterioration of the patient's condition), leaving the bystanders momentarily in an acute state of indecision. The second phase is

characterized by intense deliberation between the bystanders which, among other measures, usually involves an appeal to authority (doctor). In the event, however, of an authority not being available, there is no other course to follow than to give symptomatic treatment and wait for the crisis to resolve itself. The end of the crisis is reached when the state of equilibruim is restored, albeit perhaps on a different level.[13)]

Similarly, the problem of practical teaching programmes caused the disruption of traditional teaching training programmes, leading teacher educators through the phases of a crisis as described above. The process has seemingly been brought to a standstill due to the absence of an "authority", viz. a comprehensive and coherent scientific theory. Such a theory can serve as a framework, round which a substantial number of stimulating curricula for teacher training can be constructed - as, for instance, in medical and law faculties.

In the absence of such an authoritative framework - which may or may not be forthcoming in the next decade - there is little else for teacher educators to do than to weather the storm as best they can. This amounts to the continuing application of the time-tested principles of scientific research.

The way in which teacher educators behave during this time will obviously have an important effect on its outcome. To merely jump on the band-wagon of innovation for the sake of innovation would be foolhardy. Already many teacher educators are in a state of near-exhaustion due to the demands made on them by radical reform. Already many others

are exasperated at being unable to fill the void left by a too hasty rejection of "obsolete" curricula. Already too many innovations rest on little but subjective assessments, vague descriptions, and unsubstantiated assumptions. This is obviously no time for hasty judgements. A more realistic and promising approach is one of calm deliberation, based on as much qualitative and quantitive data as is feasible.

Hence this investigation. The problem of practical teaching programmes need to be examined from various perspectives, eg.

1. How effectively do practical teaching programmes bridge the gap between theory and practice?
2. Which practical teaching skills should be taught?
3. Which areas deserve more intensive instruction than others?
4. What methods should be used in teaching them?
5. How can we ensure acquisition of relevant skills without becoming too prescriptive?
6. How can we assist students in developing their own unique teaching styles?
7. How should the curriculum process be organized in terms of staff involvement and administrative requirements?

These questions and others are of vital concern at the present moment. Even if only some of them can be answered with a reasonable degree of certainty, the results would inevitably provide curriculum planners with knowledge than can be utilized in the trend towards greater professionalism.

2.2.3 The problem of democratically-designed curricula

Most of the discussion so far has dealt with problems stemming from the diachronic development of teacher education. The final set of problems revolves around the nature of the search for solutions, and relates more directly to immediate needs : What should be the structure of an effective Teaching Practice curriculum? What contribution can the University of Durban-Westville, as an individual institution make to help in the search for general solutions? How can closer co-operation between practitioners (teachers, headmasters, subject advisors, etc.) and lecturers be achieved? To what extent should students' views be taken into account? How can internal strife be overcome?

Before making any suggestions, I would like to refer the reader to a few writers that have ventured to lay down practical guidelines that are most likely to lead us out of the maze :

Bruner : "the task force ... must 'go public', must do something akin to 'consciousness raising'" (1980:28)

McIntyre : "we should identify much more with educational practitioners, most obviously with teachers" (1980:229)

Nisbet : "to understand the educational process, to do any effective research in education, one must see it from the viewpoint of the learner" (1980:6)

Rowntree : "More and more, the *team* concept is being adopted in post-secondary education" (1981:12)

Hopson and Scally : "it can be very important to any innovatory schemes or methods to work for a broadly based acceptance of them before they are launched." (1981:105)

As can be seen from these statements, the critical requirement is *to move away from autocratic practices towards a genuine involvement of all interested parties*. The doctrine that a curriculum should be designed by one or more people selected from a pampered élite, has clearly outlived its usefulness. We may remember that even in 1966 Coleman et al. found that student achievement was more deeply affected by the students' sense of powerlessness than by any other variable (Hopson & Scally, 1981:74). In similar vein, it is virtually impossible for a course to run smoothly and effectively if the majority of tutors, students, school authorities, teachers, and other interested parties feel : "It doesn't make any difference what I say. There is no point in trying because I won't get anywhere"(Ibid:74).

This feeling of helplessness is a direct result of the closed-shop attitude of many curriculum designers. Hopson and Scally outline the process succinctly: "professional groups develop initially to provide a service, but often then become self-protective, their priority being to maintain their privileged position, so ensuring their own continuity by making people dependent on them." (Ibid:56) This attitude obviously imposes severe constraints on other groups involved in the course. Thus, to enhance the quality of practical teaching programmes, curriculum developers should embark on a series of democratic operations akin to 'constructive engagement.'

This entails more than just giving a condescending nod in the direction of students, school authorities, or colleagues. It means a deep commitment to democratic principles, based on an acceptance of, for instance, E.B. White's description of democracy : "Democracy is the recurrent suspicion that more than half of the people are right more than half of the time."[14] In practical terms it denotes the piecemeal process of making inquiries into diverse practices, gathering information about conflicting views, conducting group discussions, reaching genuine compromises, and adhering to formal procedures when decisions are taken.

The above argument leads to a shift from the questions posed at the beginning of this section, to a new set. For example, instead of asking, "What should the structure of an effective Teaching Practice curriculum be?", we should rather ask : What would be the structure of this curriculum in the light of :

(a) curricula used in other teacher training institutions?
(b) curricula advocated by school authorities?
(c) curricula favoured by students?
(d) curricula envisaged by lecturers?, etc.

Only when we have accurate understandings of the views of other people intimately involved in teacher education are we equipped to design a model that will be more acceptable to all concerned. Similarly all subsidiary questions should first be viewed from various perspectives before realistic innovations can be recommended.

To sum up : world trends indicate that teacher education courses are often misdirected. This criticism raises questions regarding the relevance, practicality and democratic design of curricula. Consequently, models of Teaching Practice curricula need to be investigated. Such an investigation would provide policy makers with essential background knowledge to launch effective innovations. At the same time, it could provide teacher training institutions with valuable data, and an approach to teaching practice curricula that is both systematic and flexible.

2.3 Formulation of Problem

The major problem around which this investigation would revolve, emerges from the above discussion. In a nutshell it can be formulated as : *What would be the features of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum for Teaching Practice?*

In order to reduce the complexity of the problem, and still come up viable answers, a case study will be made. Within such a frame of reference the major problem can be stated in more specific terms, viz.

(a) What would be the features of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum for the Teaching Practice course offered at the University of Durban-Westville? and

(b) Which guidelines can be laid down for the implementation of such a curriculum, given the existing constraints?

These specific problems, however, should be seen as being subordinate to the general problem as formulated above. The rationale behind

this argument will become apparent when the validity of case studies is discussed later on in the present chapter.

2.4 Delineation of Study Field

While it is true that the quality of teacher education as a whole was a primary motive behind the present research, this investigation will concentrate more on the area of *practical* teaching programmes. Occasional references to theoretical components will be clearly indicated. The analysis of teacher training courses as a whole falls outside the scope of this study. Consequently, the question of a radical restructuring of teacher education curricula *in total* will not be considered.

The prime focus of interest here will be the *Teaching Practice curriculum in use at the University of Durban-Westville*. Teaching Practice as a subject is at present compulsory for student teachers wishing to qualify for a B.Paed-degree as well as for the University Higher Education Diploma (UHDE) at this university. In the B.Paed-course it consists of three consecutive year-courses, and in the UHDE-course it constitutes a single year-course. Each year-course is further divided into two sections, viz. School-based and Campus-based Teaching Practice. This brings to eight the total number of programmes that will be examined in this study. The study field is further restricted by the five perspectives from which the curriculum will be viewed.

First, a historical-developmental point of view, which entails scrutinizing the diachronic development of Teaching Practice at the University of Durban-Westville since its inception in 1965, up to the end of 1984.

Second, the curricula of a number of *teacher training institutions* in South Africa and abroad will be examined with the purpose of obtaining a overview of organizational patterns and current practices.

Third, the expectations of a representative sample of S.A. Indian *school authorities* will be explored to provide the research with an adequate grasp of conflict areas and gaps that exist between classroom experiences and instructional programmes.

Fourth, the needs and opinions of all final year *students* will be brought into the orbit of the investigation. This will lead to the identification of problem areas in Teaching Practice as perceived by students.

Finally, the expertise of teacher educators at the University of Durban-Westville will be utilized when their conceptions of suitable curriculum structures will enable the researcher to construct a *course-team* view of Teaching Practice.

It may be objected that these perspectives are insufficient to warrant the claim of a democratically-designed curriculum. Indeed, the project would have carried greater weight if, for instance, the ideas of practising teachers were also taken into account. But an equally valid argument could be made out for including the views of subject specialists, educational planners, parents, and politicians - not to mention the scholars who would be the chief beneficiaries of a well-constructed curriculum. The main reason why these perspectives are being disregarded is obviously that they would make the study field unmanageable. As

it is, the dimensions of the project are perhaps already too corpulent to do justice to quality. It is therefore necessary to choose between sets of priorities and decide on a cut-off point. The perspectives outlined above are considered to be the most suitable for the purposes of this investigation.

The classification of the study field into different areas is not meant to suggest that the curriculum process can be divided into sections as a log is cut into lengths of wood. Obviously such a view would imply that curriculum development is a mechanical process.

This runs counter to the humanistic approach adopted in this investigation, where curriculum development is seen as an exploratory and evolutionary series of actions in which the human element is of paramount importance. The dynamic nature of the various perspectives brings about complex interactional patterns which, as the process continues, makes categorization seem increasingly inept and futile. So the divisions should be seen merely as a convenient way of classifying data. Their interpolation will become evident during the latter part of the text when the data are drawn together to form an integrated whole.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section three aspects of the research methodology used in the present project will be briefly outlined : aims, research methodological orientation, and data collection procedure. Finally, a rationale for the research design will be presented.

3.1 Aims of the Research

The broad aim of this investigation naturally has to be defined in terms of the research problem : to establish the features of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum for Teaching Practice.

Similarly, its specific objectives relate to the specific problems previously formulated :

(a) To describe the features of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum for the Teaching Practice course offered at the University of Durban-Westville.

(b) To set guidelines for the implementation of such a curriculum, given the existing constraints.

3.2 Research Methodological Orientation

The research methodological orientation of this research is that of *triangulation*, as defined by Denzin : "the combination of methodology in the study of the same phenomenon."[15] In essence it consists of quantitative-qualitative linkages which allows one to discover a certain amount of deep structure without detracting unduly from the systematic procedures of traditional research methodology. (Triangulation will be discussed in greater detail in section 3.4.1).

Within this orientation the framework can be characterized by :

(a) *Action research* as described by McIntyre, i.e. research concerned with the difficulties involved in following new approaches and with the distinctive consequences of

attempting these approaches. (1980:301)

(b) *Hypotheses-generating research*, i.e. an interpretive study that precedes any theorising and thus acts as the source of hypotheses.[16)]

The specific method applied is that of *case study*. The meaning of case study is here seen as advocated by Walker : the examination of an instance in action which captures and portrays those elements of a situation that give it meaning. (1980:33) (This method will be discussed in greater detail in section 3.4.4).

3.3 Data collection

The data were collected from three sources, viz. documentary sources, direct observation, and indirect observation :

3.3.1 Documentary sources

3.3.1.1 Literature that describes and theorizes about teacher education, the acquisition of skills, and curriculum design was used to provide the researcher with background knowledge of recent developments and global forces that shape the structures of teacher education curricula.

3.3.1.2 Primary documentary sources such as the minutes of senate meetings, circulars, and student guides, enabled the researcher to trace the diachronic development and synchronic nature of the curriculum being investigated.

3.3.2 Direct observation

While this source has been structured to prevent personal bias from dominating the research, it did play a role. The fact that the researcher is a staff member at the said institution, and therefore actively involved in the implementation of Teaching Practice programmes, inevitably led to data collection stemming from informal direct observation.

3.3.3 Indirect Observation

This has been the most important source of data collection employed in the investigation. The methods used were three-fold:

3.3.3.1 Questionnaires

Four sets of questionnaires were distributed :

Questionnaire I was submitted to 200 teacher training institutions in August, 1984 - 100 in the R.S.A. and 100 in countries outside the R.S.A.

Questionnaire II was submitted to ± 109 school authorities in October, 1984 - 98 headmasters and 11 inspectors.

Questionnaire III was submitted in October, 1984, to 43 members of the lecturing staff from the Faculty of Education at the University of Durban-Westville.

Questionnaire IV was submitted to 170 final year student teachers at the University of Durban-Westville.

Copies of the questionnaires appear in the Appendices. As can be seen, they were constructed in a manner that would yield both quantitative and qualitative data. Since provision was made for structured as well as open-ended responses, the data could be coded and interpreted convergently or divergently, as the case may be. Convergent analysis was further aided by the fact that some of the same questions were posed across the spectrum of all the questionnaires. Other questions were different in each questionnaire, to cater for particular interests of the respective groups, and thus allowed for more divergent analysis.

Recognition was given to principles of effective questionnaire design as spelt out by leading scholars.[17] The significance of these principles will be reported on when the questionnaires are more pertinently discussed in later chapters.

A fair amount of inaccurate question-wording was identified and eliminated during pilot studies which were conducted before the distribution of each set of questionnaires.

3.3.3.2 Structured group-discussions

To supplement the responses of Questionnaire III, seven small-group discussions were held with 25 members of the lecturing staff. The members - two to six per group - were encouraged to air their views about some of the major conflict areas that were identified when responses to Questionnaire III were scrutinized. These discussions took place in October/November 1984, and the resultant tape-recordings yielded much qualitative data that would not otherwise have been obtained.

Although the results are formally discussed in Chapter 6, many ideas generated by the discussions reverberate throughout this text.

3.3.3.3 Interviews

Several members of the lecturing staff were, for a variety of reasons, unable to participate in the group discussions. To ensure that their ideas are incorporated into the investigation, they were personally interviewed. The interviews were conducted on the same lines as the group-discussions.

3.4 Rationale for Research Methodology

3.4.1 Triangulation

It is common in research to link the term "quantitative" to the positivistic approach, i.e. attempts to apply the methods and principles of the natural sciences to the human sciences. The success of this movement can be attributed to its strengths : it provides data that is easily quantifiable, based on reasonably objective evidence which in turn lends itself to rigorous analysis. The very fact that these norms caused the positivistic approach to practically hold a monopoly on social research during the greater part of the twentieth century, proves their efficacy and tenacity. Thus it would be unwise to reject quantitative methodology outright.[18)]

On the other hand, the weaknesses of positivism undoubtedly restricts its credibility. Probably the greatest impediment to its credibility is the mechanistic image of man it implies. One important manifestation of this is that research procedures have become ritualized.

Predeveloped instruments are used which may not suit the particular situation. The results are a depreciation of man's unique ability to interpret his experiences, and a negation of the vital role that personality and intuition play in research. To combat such weaknesses qualitative methods need to be employed.[19)]

Qualitative researchers base their methodology on a belief that direct description of observed behaviour (field work) is vitally important before a grounded theory can be developed.[20)] This means "being open to what the site has to tell us."[21)] The analysis of field data revolve around two concepts :

(a) "detective work", viz. the tracking down of patterns, and

(b) "the creative leap", viz. breaking away from the expected to describe something new.[22)]

Since data are weighted mainly on the bases of intuition and personal preferences, the determination is likely to be subjective.[23)] However, exponents of this approach would counteract such criticism by rejecting the subject-object parameters of discourse. Notwithstanding a constant stream of objections from researchers preoccupied with statistical analysis and objectivity, this methodology has been remarkably successful and is continuously gaining momentum.[24)]

The drawbacks of qualitative methods are obvious. Collecting and coding qualitative data are highly labour-intensive operations.[25)] their analysis is "a mysterious, half-formulated art";[26)] the final product is often "news rather than science,"[27)] etc. Superimposed on the

handicaps wrought by these obvious drawbacks, are social psychological complications. One study by Miles, for instance, was characterized by the fact that in three of the six sites the researchers were threatened with law suits by one person or another (1983:128). Such impediments cause many researchers to label pure qualitative methodology as being primitive and unmanageable in any rational sense.[28)]

At present most researchers, regardless of their theoretical persuasion, would agree that social research calls for a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology.[29)] Merton and Kendall state the case clearly :

> "Social scientists have come to abandon the spurious choice between qualitative and quantitative data; they are concerned rather with that combination of both which make use of the most valuable features of each. The problem becomes one of determining *at which points* they should adopt the one, and which the other, approach."[30)]

The above arguments summarize the main reason for adopting a "triangulation" approach in the present investigation. Our main field here is the area of curriculum development - an area which occupies a middle position between theory and practice. The researcher needs to draw on surveys as well as on theories, experimental work as well as open-ended inquiries.[31)]

Finally, viable answers must emerge from quantitative as well as qualitative interpretations.

3.4.2 Action research

Various researchers point out that action research is the approach *par excellence* to be used to resolve the calamity of the gap between research and innovation.[32] Nisbet asserts that without action research the gap is seldom bridged : "There is innovation without research - new ideas based on hunches, never tested objectively; and then there is research without innovations - academic studies which make no impact and are unintelligible except to other researchers" (1980:5-6). This is exactly the kind of stalemate which the present project attempts to prevent. To embark on out-dated distinctions such as pure or applied research would not make sense because the research is aimed at immediate application and not directly towards the development of a general theory. It has placed its emphasis on a problem, here and now, in a local setting. Its purpose is to improve school practices and, at the same time, to improve those who try to improve the practices.[33] These are the terms used to describe action research, and they clearly fit the aims of this investigation.

3.4.3 Hypothesis - generating research

There are three reasons why a hypothesis does not form the basis of this research. Firstly, it is not clear why the systematic and scholarly application of research should revolve around a hypothesis. After all, much valuable research has taken place without hypotheses. For example, none of the major educational reports - Crowther, Newson, Robbins, Plowden, De Lange - have been accompanied by "a conjectural statement of the relation between two or more variables," and are much the better for it.[34] This is not to deny, of course, that

much equally valid research was conducted on the basis of a hypothesis. But to simply plug a hypothesis into a research project because some other researchers, investigating some other phenomena, found such a strategy useful, defies logic. As Cronbach says : "There are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in our hypotheses."[35)]

Secondly, to base this particular investigation on a hypothesis would be like researching a reality which we already understand. For instance, the hypothesis could be formulated as : *The Teaching Practice curriculum currently in use at this university is too irrelevant, impractical, and autocratically-designed to be optimally effective.* Yet this would be tantamount to a situation described by Somerset Maughan : "She plunged into a sea of platitutes and with the powerful breast stroke of a channel swimmer made her confident way toward the white cliffs of the obvious."[36)] What would be achieved by "proving" the "validity" of the above hypothesis? At the end the research world would still be left with a recommendation that further research be conducted on the lines of the present project.

Thirdly a hypothesis would arbitrarily restrict the study field. Whereas hypothesis-based research compels a researcher to look at the problem from one particular angle, this investigation requires that it be looked at from various angles. Instead of establishing relations, researchers in curriculum development are forced to investigate whole organizational patterns that have an alterable and fluid character to them. Mintzberg (1983:110) illustrates the difference adroitly : Imagine an organization to be like a kind of marble cake. Along comes a hypothesis-orientated research with

a machine much like those used to slice bread. In goes the organization and out comes the cross-sectional slices. The researcher then holds up one of them, shown to the right of Figure 1, and tries to figure out what it is he is seeing :

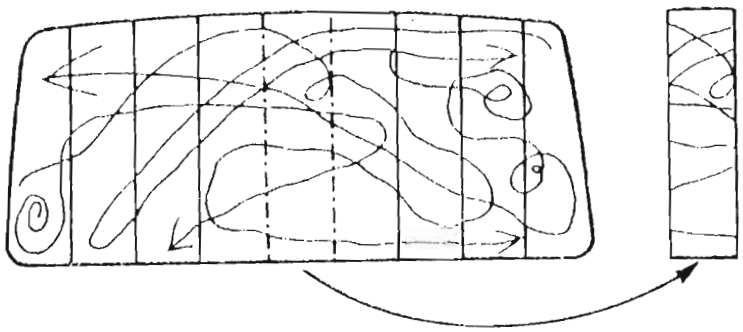

FIGURE 1 : SLICING UP THE ORGANIZATION[37)]

This strategy has, in the past, led to the enthusiastic propagation of facile, single solutions to the multiple problems of curriculum design.[38)] For this reason it is incompatible with our present purposes. In curriculum development researchers who focus on two variables at a time seem to cloud issues more than they clarify them. As Mintzberg states : "We shall never have closure so long as we pretend that other things can be held constant" (1983:114).

In the light of this evidence the statement of a hypothesis would be premature. Once the investigation is complete, of course, one or more hypotheses should emerge which might serve as a launching-pad for some other applied research to be conducted on empirical or whatever lines.

3.4.4 The case study method

In Education the case study generally has a low status as a research method. Yet recent writings by researchers indicate that we are witnessing a change in attitude.[39)]

If the unsuccessful quest for a common intellectual framework for teacher education curricula has taught us anything, it was that we need to re-examine our methods of inquiry. It was Nisbet (1980:6) who pointed out that grounded theory is built up from observation, and that reported case studies offer unique opportunities for other educational researchers to identify patterns which could lead to the formulation of a general tenable theory. These remarks gain in significance when one recollects that many other professional training curricula are solidly built on case studies. Law students have their court-cases, medical students their diagnostic programmes, and anthropologic studies are unthinkable without intensive inquiries into ethnographic cases.[40)] Why, then, is this research method neglected in education? And why should researchers have to justify its use?

However, since it is still too unorthodox a method to be generally acceptable in educational research, some of the arguments for and against are discussed below.

Apart from case study material being a powerful stimulus for theory-building, it is closely linked to practice. Thus it prevents the research from becoming so abstract and removed from reality that

its findings are rendered impotent by sterile discription and far-fetched theorizing. Case studies enable the researcher to get "beneath the skin" of a situation, instead of studying it in a detached way.[41] They help us to get beyond form and structure to the realities of human life, or to use Malinowski's term, they "put flesh and blood on the skeleton."[42] In similar vein Smith says that case studies have a quality of *undeniability*. "That is somebody is actually doing something; it is not hypothetical."[43] It forces a researcher to back off from his rationalisations and to confront the basic choices and dilemmas underlying conflicting values.[44]

From a research perspective, Walker argues that the case study method offers researchers an effective way to cope with the double-bind situation prevalent in educational research : simultaneous demands by sponsors for in-depth-studies on the one hand, and rapid reporting on the other. (1980:31) Certainly, the present study could have been approached from a general point of view. The opinions of representative samples from various sections of society could have been used to design a Teaching Practice curriculum that could be implemented by *all* teacher training institutions throughout the country. But such a project, if done effectively, would take a research team at least five years to complete - by which time the original data might be outdated. Compared to this a case study is far more realistic.

This brings us to the problem of generaliseability. Two questions are frequently posed by critics of the case study method : First,

how can the findings of a case study be of general use? And second, how can objectivity in the report be ensured? Standing for nothing so much as a genuine desire to maintain high scientific standards, these two questions warrant thorough consideration.

The problem of general validity stems from the age-old dissidence between deductive and inductive approaches. Arguments which theorists have advanced to justify their preference for one or the other of these approaches are exceedingly difficult to either verify or disprove, and no attempt to do so will be made here. Suffice to say that case study methodologists subscribe to the inductive approach.[45] It is the job of the researcher to abstract from the particular to the general, instead of starting with a particular viewpoint and looking for an opportunity to apply it.[46]

Theory building requires rich description, the richness that comes from a small sampling of detailed case studies.[47] In such a context the systematic collection of specific data obtained from "poking around in relevant places," plus a good dose of creativity, overrides the importance of sample size.[48] Mintzberg et al, having found that simpler, more direct methodologies yield more useful results, query the whole concept of sampling : "What ... is wrong with samples of one? Why should researchers have to apologize for them? Should Piaget apologize for studying his own children, a physicist for splitting only one atom?"[49]

Walker underscores this point. Since small samples have often proved to be superior, any well-conducted case study could make a critical

contribution to the formulation of a general theory. If only one instance is studied, that instance is likely to be as typical and as atypical as another : "The problem of generalising ceases to become a problem for the author. It is the reader who has to ask, what is there in this study that I can apply to my own situation, and what clearly does not apply?" (1980:34) And this is, of course, what all researchers should be doing with all studies, anyway.

A leading educational researcher - Cronbach - sums up the argument neatly : "The theorist performs a dramatist's function : if a plot with a few characters will tell the story, it is more satisfying than one with a crowded stage."[50)]

The last point also serves to illustrate the peculiar objectivity found in curriculum case study research. Like a dramatist, the researcher writes for his product to be "staged". The whole success of the project depends on the researcher's ability to be so well-informed, objective, and impartial that the final recommendations will be approved by the majority of the Faculty. He simply cannot afford to be too subjective or prejudiced.

This demonstrates the axiom that curricula are not fabricated, but *negotiated*. Shaw confirms this view when he says that curriculum decisions do not result from pre-specified aims but from a quasi-political process which allows policy to be *discovered*, (1976:54). It places the researcher in a position of having to blend and integrate clashing belief systems. Under conditions characterized by tension, even hostility (because jobs and careers could be affected), conflicting

opinions need to be recognized and integrated into a curriculum model where most get most of what they want. Under such stringent control measures, autocratic evaluation by a researcher would be akin to digging his own grave.

Admittedly, some subjective judgements do creep in through the structuring of questions, participant observation, and the interpretation of data, but we have already expounded the counter argument (see page 27). But this does not detract from the fact that a high degree of objectivity has to be maintained. Democratic procedures counteract the smuggling in of own, single values.

This concludes the rationale for research methods used in the present study. More specific factors that promote or jeopardize the validity of findings will be discussed at relevant points throughout the text as the investigation unfolds.

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

It is to be hoped, and I have attempted to demonstrate above, that the quality of teacher education courses is likely to improve if Teaching Practice curricula are more relevant, practical, and democratically-designed. The general problem was seen to be a need for more knowledge regarding the views of other groups directly or indirectly, involved in teacher training. To reduce the complexity of the research problem it was decided to make a case study of the Teaching Practice curriculum of the University of Durban-Westville. Adopting an exploratory approach, data obtained from documentary

sources, direct, and indirect observation, will be analysed. Using the results of this analysis as a basis, four models of a Teaching Practice curriculum will be constructed. Finally, comparative studies between the models will enable the researcher to recommend a curriculum that should be more acceptable to the various sub-groups involved in the study.

In the next chapter the first set of data - those extracted from documentary sources - will be examined.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching Practice has been defined as "that body of professional experience during which the student applies, tests and reconstructs the theory which he is evolving, and during which he further develops his competence as a teacher."[51] It follows from this that there are as many teaching theories as there are teachers. To select sets of priorities in classroom practices typified by "stray thoughts, sudden insights, meandering digressions, irrelevant asides, and other unpredicted events,"[52] is therefore the task of each individual teacher.

A similar situation obviously exists in research on teacher education. The large number of theories about professional training, teaching practices, and curriculum development, compels a researcher to choose which ones he/she considers to be most important. This chapter will thus be devoted to the submission of certain theoretical principles which will be used as "anchorages" for propositions in the present study. Since these principles constitute the fundamental framework around which later analyses revolve, they will be stated in terms of criteria.

In this regard the research problem demands a closer definition of three sets of criteria : relevance, practicality, and democratic design.

2. CRITERIA FOR RELEVANCE

In our present frame of reference the word 'relevant' indicates; *pertinent to contemporary beliefs and practices*. Contrary to the tendency of some educationists to base their theorizing on a particular school of thought,[53] this investigation is embedded in the concept of eclecticism. Thus the term 'relevant' as used here indicates a convergence of various major sub-theories which are often thought to be in opposition to one another.

The main appeal of an eclectic approach is that it encourages comprehensiveness of outlook. Adherence to one particular school of thought tends to lock one in, which in turn may cause a kind of unintentional dishonesty to creep in. Issues of crucial importance may be ignored. In the face of this, an eclectic approach - based on a recognition of different value systems and a genuine attempt to reconcile such differences - seems to be educational common sense.

In attempting to settle questions of relevance, eclecticism therefore figures prominently in the proposals of criteria below. These criteria concern the major study fields which meet in this investigation, namely professional training, didactics, and curriculum development.

2.1 RELEVANCE AND PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION THEORIES

One of the most critical problems in teacher education is that of reaching agreement concerning the broad approach that should be adopted towards Teaching Practice courses. Unfortunately there

seems to be great disparity among educationists about this matter. During the past two decades, however, two main approaches have developed and at present many course development teams at individual institutions appear to opt for either one or the other. These approaches are outlined below under the headings Competency-Based Teacher Education and The Humanistic Approach. In addition, a brief sketch is given of a third school of thought - the IT-INSET approach - which has more recently been devised and seems to be gaining momentum.

2.1.1 Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE)

Competency-Based Teacher Education, also known as Performance-Based Teacher Education (PBTE), has had a remarkable growth since its inception in the late 1960's.[54] Although the movement originated in the United States, it has been supported by a large number of teacher educators throughout the developed world.[55] Among the many definitions of this approach that have been forwarded, Cooper's appears to be most generally acceptable : a CBTE programme is one which "specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing student's competencies, and holds the student accountable for meeting those criteria."[56]

Techniques

The techniques applied in this approach are strikingly similar to those found in behaviour modification. This is evident in the characteristics of PTBE as listed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, viz :-

1. instruction is individualized and personalized;
2. learning is guided by feedback;
3. the overall programme is systematic;
4. emphasis is on exit, not on entrance requirements;
5. instruction is modularized; and
6. the student is held accountable for performance.[57)]

In practical terms this means that the tutor or course-team selects only one specific target skill - eg. chalkboard writing - at a time. The target could be either (a) a decelaration target, i.e. wanting to see *less* of certain specified behaviours, eg. spelling incorrectly, writing illegibly, and forming crooked lines on the chalkboard, or (b) an acceleration target, i.e. wanting to see a student doing *something else*, eg. spelling correctly, writing clearly, and forming straight lines. The target that has been selected is then translated into specific observable behaviours, which are communicated to the student. With these behavioural objectives in mind the student, under the guidance of a tutor, practices the sub-skills individually. Finally each student performs a competency test to ensure that the target has been reached before the next target is selected.[58)]

Positive aspects

CBTE has had considerable success. One survey indicated that of 783 teacher training institutions which responded to a questionnaire, 491 reported involvement in CBTE.[59)] Another survey found that at least 20 states in the U.S.A. had made, or were contemplating to make, the implementation of CBTE mandatory.[60)] In the large volume of literature that has been devoted to CBTE, its advocates claim that tutors

reveal a high degree of satisfaction with CBTE programmes. Students working through the programmes reportedly find them strongly motivational. Another worthwhile feature is said to be the assurance which teacher education institutions can give employers that student graduates have reached an adequate level of mastery in the specified competencies.[61] In South Africa both Gresse (1975) and Maarschalk (1978) found that CBTE observation instruments used in evaluating students' teaching ability had positive results.[62] All in all, proponents of CBTE consider the specificity and systematic structure built into this approach to be a great improvement on the unstructured, haphazard practices often found in traditional teaching practice programmes. They find it rewarding, as Goodwin and Coates state, "shifting from a program that runs because students have learned to go through the motions to one that functions because they are experiencing the excitement that accompanies real growth and independence."[63]

Negative Aspects

Many of the difficulties surrounding CBTE cluster around the arbitrary nature of its theoretical foundations. Especially pertinent are objections from didacticians about the concept of teaching that CBTE projects, viz. that the teaching act is the sum of the performances into which it is analysed.[64] In the words of Broudy : "This is a notoriously inadequate description of any human action, let alone one so complex as teaching." (1972:3) On these grounds many educationists regard CBTE as too mechanistic.[65] What they find particularly aggravating is the industrial metaphor CBTE supporters

employ to describe the operation, referring to such things as input, products, performance skills, modules, and feedback.[66] Humanistic educationists are repelled by such language.

Another important point of criticism is the lack of research. Even proponents of CBTE concede the inadequacy of empirical evaluation of total CBTE programmes.[67] Although a large number of such evaluations had been completed they were lacking in objectivity and penetration.[68]

Apart from these two major points of criticism, there are minor objections to the effect that students who are learning skills in isolation may be unable to synthesize them on a higher level; that CBTE programmes do not motivate weaker students; and that teacher educators find it difficult to agree on the particular teaching competencies which should be taught.[69] These objections are considered to be less valid because they have not been substantiated by empirical evidence.[70]

Appraisal

In the final analysis it seems reasonable to agree with Turney when he states : "During its brief history CBTE has become the centre of a considerable amount of controversy. Probably no other development in teacher education has had at the one time so many staunch advocates and strong critics." (1977:17) On the other hand, it seems equally reasonable to resist taking an extreme stand for or against CBTE. The approach does have *some* commendable features. Even teacher educators

who find the natural scientific view of teaching unacceptable could benefit from partial and/or modified implementation of CBTE techniques.[71] After all, most of these techniques incorporate important ideas which teacher educators have supported over the years in one form or another.[72] Under these circumstances partial acceptance of CBTE is seen, in this investigation, as being an essential prerequisite to warrant claims of relevance in a Teaching Practice programme.

The crucial issue will be not *whether* CBTE techniques should be applied, but what *weighting* they should be given in the curriculum - and this would obviously be a course-team decision. At this point it is sufficient to note that even if a course-team should approve the introduction of as little as one per cent of CBTE in their curricula, it can be accepted that the criterion of relevance has been met. By the same token, if CBTE is rejected outright by a course-team, the resultant curriculum *might* be considered by proponents as being irrelevant, i.e. out of touch with modern trends in teacher education.

2.1.2 The Humanistic Approach

The Humanistic approach developed as an alternative to the behaviouristic impetus towards CBTE.[73] Combs et al, the leading proponents of this approach, object to the breaking up of Teaching Practice courses into smaller units known as "competencies", "learning modules", "micro teaching", "stimulation", etc.[74] Granting that the provision of instruction in this fashion is an improvement on monolithic traditional courses, they express concern about the fact that units are, more

often than not, offered in a prescribed sequence according to a preconceived plan rather than in response to student need.[75] The programme they have developed is philosophically rooted in the progressive movement in the 1930's, and stresses the importance of the "self" of the teacher.[76]

Techniques

One of the key features of the Humanistic approach is active involvement in schools at every stage of the student's programme from beginning to end.[77] Field experience is used as a central means of developing a sense of reality and discovery of oneself in teaching. There is a continuous, often daily, involvement in schools for a gradually increasing period of time and an increasingly responsible role in the classroom during each quarter. The graded levels of involvement range from that of tutor, to teacher initiate, teacher-assistant, teacher-associate, to intensive teaching.[78]

The second type of experience provided for students is designed to make available the resources of the community and the faculty for exposing students to ideas. This involves "a wide variety of experience aimed at providing information, stimulating thinking, airing controversies, confronting students with professional problems, demonstrating methods and techniques, or giving students opportunities to see and hear persons with important things to say for educational thought and practice."[79] Some of these activities are required of all students, but many are optional, and students are encouraged to propose their own substitute activities if they wish.[80]

To ensure that all students and staff members are informed as to resources available, a calendar of events is provided and revised weekly. Using this calendar, the student and his tutor determine between them which events the student will be required to attend.[81)]

A group of 30 students is assigned to a tutor for the duration of the two-year sequence of professional education. The 30 students operate in two sub-groups for discussion, two hours per week, usually in an informal setting off-campus. The discussions focus on the personal meaning and self-development aspects derived from the students' field experiences.[82)]

Lastly, the programme is characterized by systematic and continuous evaluation procedures. Self-evaluation of progress and achievement features prominently in this approach, to develop maturity as a professional person. A mid-point evaluation is undertaken by the seminar leader and a panel of staff members. A similar evaluation process is undertaken prior to graduation.[83)]

Positive aspects

The overwhelming majority of writers on teacher education seem to agree that the Humanistic approach was developed in a systematic fashion rarely seen in curriculum development. Turney et al (1977:26) list the impressive theoretical and empirical endeavours that preceded the introduction of the programme : (1) It began in twelve years of basic research on the nature of good and poor teachers. (2) These research results were then combined with recent developments

in Rogerian perceptual-humanistic psychology, to formulate a theory of teaching. (3) This theory was given practical expression in an experimental programme designed and placed in operation side by side with a traditional one. (4) A programme of research was then instituted to provide information concerning the relative effectiveness of the programme. During this last stage *Busby et al showed that students in the humanistic programme were significantly more adaptable, secure, and sensitive as persons and as teachers.*[84] Only after these findings were known, was the experimental programme adopted. A follow-up study by Wass and Combs (1973) later affirmed the efficacy of the programme.[85]

The weight of this evidence indicates that the Humanistic approach has a far stronger empirical - and therefore theoretical - basis than, for example, CBTE. Thus it is hardly surprising that quite a number of institutions have adopted modified versions of this approach. Examples of such empathy-oriented (as opposed to skill-oriented) programmes are the Personalized Teacher Education Program of the University of Texas (reported in 1974),[86] the preparation of "human service educators" at Vermont (reported in 1975),[87] and the "human teacher education" at Indiana (reported in 1975)[88].

As an increasing proportion of teacher educators becomes familiar with this ideology, its influence seems to grow. A number of recently-designed programmes, such as the one advocated by Dow (1979) with its stress on school-based training, curriculum enquiries, and depth studies, have clearly been cast in the mould of the Humanistic approach.

What is conspicuously absent in a humanistic programme is the impersonal role of tutors so often found in other approaches. Instead, a heavy emphasis is placed on the more personal, pastoral function of the tutor, based on the belief that student teachers need to experience for themselves the kind of teaching that it is hoped they in turn will implement.[89] As for the students' analyses of teaching actions, the humanists' rejection of mechanistic techniques has been welcomed by many educators who feel that a very limited account of classroom events is provided by categorizing them, counting their frequency, and examining sequences.[90] From this point of view, the humanistic methods of opening up real teaching situations in ways that liberate the imagination certainly appear more meaningful.

Negative aspects

There seems to be a paucity of literature dealing with weaknesses in the Humanistic approach.[91] At first glance, one might suppose this to be due to a general acceptance of the approach. But then the relatively low number of institutions that have fully implemented it raises doubts as to its acceptability.[92]

Earlier it was established that a humanistic curriculum requires that provision be made for active involvement in schools at every stage of the student's programme. Few teacher educators would dispute, however that such involvement is expensive in terms of money, time, and energy. Administrative costs, especially, would be unusually high, to arrange the placement of students "from beginning to end" of their training. Even more important, the "theoretical" components

of teacher education curricula is likely to suffer. From this standpoint an implementation of the Humanistic approach might amount to radical reform - something which staff members may be reluctant to undertake.

Even if we leave alone the muddy waters of how and when the programme will be implemented, it seems certain that tutors will have to undergo special training to adapt themselves to the role of "counsellor" as opposed to "lecturer."[93] This could be the single most important factor that would determine the success of the programme. It might be objected that teacher educators are good counsellors anyway, since their supervisory function at schools demands it of them. Yet such a claim would be highly debatable. For one thing, students seem to disagree.[94] It is also well-known that there are strong covert disagreements between teacher educators versus school authorities, teacher educators versus teachers, and educationists versus method lecturers. These realities seem to indicate that many teacher educators harbour a certain mistrust and unyielding attitude towards their fellowmen.[95] The hard fact is that a large number of professional educators have had little or no training in counselling techniques and humanistic psychology. Without such training, the Humanistic approach could turn out to be the "disintegrated approach." Would teacher educators be willing to undergo such training? A reluctance to do so - for whatever reason - may well be at the heart of a lukewarm attitude towards humanistic programmes.

Other possible objections to the approach are perhaps of a more trivial nature : Combs' rejection of micro-teaching and other modern methods may make his approach unfashionable; the strong connotations

between this ideology and open education - a theory that has recently fallen into disrepute[96] - may inhibit its growth; and acquisition of the necessary resources is obviously labour-intensive. Finally, many educationists may disapprove of a programme that is basically unsystematic. They may feel, as Gage does, that the freedom of non-programmed teaching invariably turns out to be spurious : "Imprisoned by their technical poverty, teachers tend to do the same thing, no matter what or whom they are teaching, day after day and year after year." (1972:201)

Appraisal

As in the case of CBTE, the issue of whether the Humanistic approach should or should not be incorporated into a Teaching Practice curriculum is seen as being outside the scope of this study. I shall content myself with the belief that this ideology is of sufficient importance to make its partial implementation mandatory in a Teaching Practice curriculum that claims to be relevant. The challenge to overcome criticism aimed at both CBTE and the Humanistic approach seems to demand a merger, with matters of weighting to be stipulated by the course-team. If a researcher merely yields to *one* of these approaches, the resultant discontent coming from the opposite faction - be they students, staff members, or the educational community at large - will necessitate autocratic measures that will be counter to the objectives of this investigation.

2.1.3 The IT-INSET Approach

One of the most exciting recent approaches to Teaching Practice is the IT-INSET Approach. This approach brings together initial training

(IT) and in-service education and training (INSET) in a school-focused pattern.[97] It began with a teacher education project based on the Open University and was funded by the U.K. Department of Education and Science from 1978 to 1981. At present it is continuing in many colleges and departments of education throughout the United Kingdom, and is co-ordinated through the Centre for Education and Development in Teacher Education at the University of Leicester.[98] Ashton, its leading proponent, defines it as "co-operative curriculum evaluation and development." (1983:17) Her Majesty's Inspectorate, however, describes it more elaborately as : "All the strategies employed by trainers and teachers in partnership to direct training programmes in such a way as to raise the standards of teaching and learning in the classroom."[99]

Techniques

The IT-INSET approach operates by the establishment of teams. Each team consists of one or two teachers, a tutor, and 2-6 students. The teacher in each team selects a problem-area in the curriculum, and then the whole team works together regularly in the classroom, evaluating and developing this aspect of the curriculum.[100] This arrangement usually takes place in the second year of the students' initial training course, one day per week, and continues for at least one term.[101] In this way initial and in-service training takes place simultaneously, with the teacher in the key role of initiator to ensure that the programme focuses on the real needs of practising professionals.

The dynamics underlying this programme are evident in its principals, formulated as follows :

> "In order to improve the quality of education provided in schools, teachers, students, and tutors need to engage systematically and continuously in :

1. Analysing practice;
2. Applying theory;
3. Evaluating the curriculum;
4. Developing the curriculum;
5. Working as a team; and
6. Involving other teachers in the school."[102)]

A number of case-studies have been published to illustrate how these principles are applied in practical situations.[103)] From these it appears that teams tend to concentrate more specifically on only ONE of these principles at a time, although progress is made on various fronts.[104)] This prevents the team from getting bogged down by pursuing too many goals at the same time.

Appraisal

Important questions arise for us from a study of the IT-INSET approach. One of the most vital ones is : How lasting will the influence of this innovation be? The two approaches previously discussed have specifically been chosen because they proved to have staying power and world-wide influence. Since only time will tell whether similar considerations apply to IT-INSET, it seems advisable to proceed with caution.

Although tentative evaluations of IT-INSET have been published,[105] the programme as such has apparently not been empirically tested.

On the other hand, if its significance does prove to be more permanent, institutions in South Africa which have adopted it at an early stage, will be in a position to reap the benefits of it sooner. It certainly has some refreshingly new features. If one accepts the view that there must be stronger links between schools and training institutions, as well as between initial and in-service training, this programme may well provide the answer. It is also noteworthy that the impact which an IT-INSET component on a traditional curriculum has is probably not as drastic as, for instance, that of a Humanistic one. In most cases, it seems, the IT-INSET programme only affects one quarter of a year - a feature which may make it more attractive to Faculty members.

At this stage, however, it seems premature to insist on an inclusion of an IT-INSET component in a relevant curriculum. Leaving it optional will probably have better effects on the development of harmonious relations essential in curriculum design. Consequently a flexible attitude towards IT-INSET will be adopted in this study. The decision whether it should form part of the curriculum will be left to the course-team. Although the final recommendations will make provision for the optional inclusion of such a component, the relevance of a curriculum will not be considered to be dependent on it.

2.1.4 Professional relevance as criterion

From the foregoing description the first major criterion that will

guide this research becomes evident, namely the criterion of professional relevance. It can be formulated as follows :

Criterion 1 : Professional Relevance

The Teaching Practice curriculum should give expression to two important recent trends in the professional training of teachers, viz. CBTE and the Humanistic Approach.

We have dealt at some length with the criterion of professional relevance because it will figure prominently in the final stage of the project. Criteria of relevance from the other two study fields - didactics and curriculum development - will, however, be stated more succinctly. This is not to imply that these two areas warrant less consideration than the area of professional relevance, but merely to suggest that they are better documented. It might be considered presumptious were I to disregard the research principle of parsimony and elaborate here on themes that have been well covered in contributions by more gifted members of the academic community. They are stated here on the assumption that the reader is familiar with the arguments for and against their acceptance. Thus, although they are crucial to an understanding of the research basis, they are accompanied by a limited amount of justification.

2.2 RELEVANCE AND DIDACTIC THEORIES

In our present context the general purpose of a didactic theory is seen to be the construction of a framework of knowledge and ideas

derived from sub-theories about one or more aspects of the teaching-learning act that forms a logical, systematic, and consistent whole.[106] Such a framework naturally includes some elements that are more *descriptive* and others that are more *prescriptive*.[107] Since our main concern at the moment is to establish criteria for a Teaching Practice course, we shall focus more pertinently on the latter group, i.e. practical matters centring around the question : What *should* teachers be able to do? Attempts to provide answers to this question are based, as elsewhere in this text, on a study of a wide variety of approaches.

A well-known categorization of sub-theories in didactics is that of De Corte et al (1972). Using this categorization scheme, the complex set of associated ideas about teaching on which this investigation rests, are outlined below. In reality, of course, didactic concepts are not nearly as classifiable and separable as this scheme suggests. They are, as one writer explained, more like a litter of overlapping papers on a desk than like a neat row of files. Although their categorization provides us with a common frame of reference which may help to order our thinking, any classification scheme is necessarily arbitrary.

For teacher education to be didactically relevant, all these categories should more or less be represented in the Didactics component of a teacher education curriculum; they are aimed at providing the prospective teacher with the basic didactic knowledge and experience deemed to be desirable for a teacher. And since Teaching Practice is the praxis-oriented extention of Didactics, these categories should

in turn be represented in a Teaching Practice curriculum. As such they form part and parcel of the course content. Therefore, in the discussion below, themes that are seen to be essential in a Didactics course are followed by statements in which the practical implications of each category are highlighted. In addition, a few issues of a controversial nature are briefly mentioned to clarify the stand-points taken in this study.

2.2.1 The Purposes of Teaching

Didactic components

(a) The aims of formal education, eg. views advocated by Skinner (1968), Van der Stoep (1979), Rogers (1969), Mursell (1954) and Gagné (1973).

(b) Behavioural and non-behavioural objectives in teaching, as described, for instance, by Skinner (1968), Hyman (1974), Mager (1972), Cohen and Manion (1983) and Rowntree (1982).

Practical implications

Teachers should be able to state behavioural objectives for lessons and courses they are likely to teach.

Controversy

The main difficulty which is often felt in this area arises from questions regarding the desirability and/or feasibility of stating behavioural objectives for *all* lessons. In this study the stand

is taken that whereas it is feasible to state behavioural objectives for most lessons, it is unwise to make it mandatory for all lessons.

2.2.2 The Entering Situation

Didactic components

The significance of :

(a) Cultural and social contexts in which teaching takes place, as expounded, for instance, by De Corte et al (1972), Ausubel (1978), Van der Stoep (1979), and Duminy and Söhnge (1981).

(b) The teaching triad, eg. views on this stated by Hyman (1974), Duminy and Söhnge (1981), Good and Brophy (1983) and Cohen and Manion (1983).

Practical implications

(a) Teachers should be able to treat pupils with respect and consideration, and demonstrate their sensitivity to the human needs of each individual pupil.

(b) Teachers should be able to initiate and guide extra-mural activities.

(c) Teachers should be able to organize and conduct educational excursions.

Controversy

It is debatable whether it is part of the teacher's job to become

actively involved in the pupil's general social welfare, eg. intervene when the pupil experiences problems in his/her personal or home life. The standpoint taken here is the one advocated by Good and Brophy, viz. that teachers should confine their efforts to school behaviour, and to aspects of the home environment that are closely related to school behaviour. (1978:215) To go beyond this is to act the role of an uninvited psychotherapist or social worker.

2.2.3 Learning content, selection and sequencing

Didactic components

(a) The selection and sequencing of learning content as suggested by writers such as De Corte et al (1972), Gagné (1973), Van der Stoep (1979), Rowntree (1982) and Cohen and Manion (1983).

(b) The Lesson Structure, eg. models proposed by Herbert,[108] Basson (1973), Gagné (1973), Hyman (1974), Van der Stoep (1979) and Trümpelmann (1981).

Practical implications

(a) Teachers should be able to draw up Schemes of Work from given syllabi.

(b) Teachers should be able to prepare and present effective lessons.

Controversies

(a) There seems to be general agreement that (factual) *knowledge* and *skills* should be taught at schools, as well as that it is inevitable to teach *values* implicitly. But the question of whether values should be taught explicitly seems to evoke diverse opinions. In our present context it is felt that values should, to a limited extent, be taught explicitly, provided that teachers are taught how to do it meaningfully, in ways, for instance, advocated by Hyman (1974).

(b) The issue of which lesson preparation model to use or whether to use one at all often provokes strong reaction from lecturers. The most critical requirement here is that a course-team should *agree* on one particular model that is both flexible and helpful. Once such an agreement has been reached, all lecturers in Didactics, Subject-didactics, and Teaching Practice in that institution should co-operate in helping students to apply that particular model. This view is based on the belief that vagueness and uncertainty about models cause high anxiety amongst students which places an undesirable strain on tutor-student relationships. It is also detrimental to harmonious tutor-tutor relationships.

2.2.4 Didactic method

Didactic components

Teaching methods as described by writers such as Harley (1973),

Hyman (1974), Gagné (1973), Trojcak (1977), Van der Stoep (1979), Clark and Starr (1981), Steyn et al (1981), Duminy and Söhnge (1981), Elliot (1984) and Wheldall and Merrett (1984).

Practical implications

Teachers should be able to apply the following well-known teaching methods effectively : There are of course, many more recognized, and their use will depend upon the course being presented. They will also often feature together.

i) Demonstration
ii) Classroom games
iii) Groupwork
iv) Guided discussion
v) Narration (The Telling Method)
vi) Programmed instruction
vii) Questioning
viii) Role Play

Controversy

There still seems to be much disagreement about the resolution of problems surrounding the issue of reception learning versus discovery learning. While methods facilitating discovery learning are avidly propogated by most educationists, extravagent syllabi continue to necessitate methods that demand reception learning. The central point is that teacher preparation needs to help teachers to facilitate

both kinds of learning. This would equip them to be versatile and adaptable when they are faced with specific decisions in this area.

2.2.5 Media

Didactic components

Instructional media as set out, for instance, by Brown et al (1969), Conradie (1979), Wittich and Schuller (1979), and Yule and Steyn (1982).

Practical implications

Teachers should be able to produce and/or use the following instructional media :

(a) Audio learning materials
(b) The chalkboard
(c) Models
(d) Overhead Projectors and transparencies
(e) Pictures and graphics
(f) Slides and slide-shows
(g) Textbooks
(h) Worksheets

In addition it is becoming ever more important that they are able to apply two kinds of resource-based media : computer-assisted instruction and television teaching.

Controversy

Despite the pleadings of many educationists that the use of media in the classroom should be determined by contextual factors, there still appears to be teacher educators who either insist on the use of media in all lessons, or totally discourage their use. In this study the stand is taken that, although all student teachers should be skilful in the use of media, their desirability in a particular lesson depends entirely on contextual factors, especially the personality of the teacher and the nature of the topic, as well as the ready availability of such media.

2.2.6 Learning psychology in didactic perspective

Didactic components

Operant conditioning and Gestalt-field psychology in relation to teaching, as described by writers like Moully (1968), Brigge (1976), Ausubel (1978), Gagné (1973), Van der Stoep (1981), etc.

Practical implications

Teachers should be able to teach concepts meaningfully.

Controversy

Considering the fact that the behaviourist-versus-Gestalt debate still rages, it seems obvious that the influence of these theories on teaching should be presented to students as impartially as possible. The extrinsic-versus-intrinsic-motivation issue especially needs to be explained in an unbiased way to help students

come to terms with their own opinions about the matter. When it comes to the crunch, however, an eclectic view seems advisable, viz, that teachers should avoid overdoing either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation.[109)]

2.2.7 Group factors[110)]

Didactic components

Sub-theories about classroom management, eg. those of Johnson & Bany (1970), Dreikurs et al (1971), Worell and Nelson (1974), Lemlech (1979), Saunders (1979), and Good and Brophy (1983).

Practical implications

Teachers should be able to manage classrooms, eg. strike a balance between rigid discipline and permissiveness.

Controversy

There can be little doubt that the problem of whether corporal punishment is desirable or not, still elicits divergent views from teacher educators. This study would generate the view that corporal punishment should be used as a last resort by a teacher. The rich variety of more humane methods to maintain discipline as, for instance, expounded by Good and Brophy, should be thoroughly implemented before this severe disciplinary technique is employed.

2.2.8 Evaluation

(a) Product evaluation as presented by writers such as Blood and Budd (1972), De Corte et al (1972), Green (1975),and Lorber and Pierce (1983).

(b) Process evaluation, eg. ideas of Flanders (1970), De Corte et al (1972), Hyman (1974), Combs et al (1974), De Jager (1979), and Rowntree (1982).

Practical implications

(a) Teachers should be able to evaluate their pupils during or after a period of instruction.

(b) Teachers should be able to evaluate their own and other teachers' performances in the classroom.

Controversies

(a) The question of whether measurement (i.e. grading) or other more interpretive methods should be used to evaluate the products and/or processes of teaching, is a sensitive matter. Although a combination of the two seems to be generally acceptable, conflicts often arise when decisions need to be taken regarding the weighting that should be given to the respective types of evaluation. In our present frame of reference it is recognized that grading is often demanded by "the system", but that interpretive measures are usually more meaningful. It seems self-evident that as much grading

as the system requires should be done. The amount of grading needed to support and validate this "compulsary grading" should be decided upon by the individuals concerned, using democratic procedures.

(b) The matter of objective versus subjective evaluation techniques can be dealt with in a similar fashion as the "measurement" issues above.

2.2.9 Didactic relevance as criterion

From the above framework a list of subcriteria for the evaluation of didactic relevance as it applies to Teaching Practice emerges. Teachers should be able to :

(a) state behavioural objectives for lessons and courses they are likely to teach.

(b) treat pupils with respect and consideration, and demonstrate their sensitivity to the human needs of each individual pupil.

(c) initiate and guide extra-mural activities.

(d) organize and conduct educational excursions.

(e) draw up Schemes of Work from given syllabi.

(f) prepare and present effective lessons.

(g) apply the following teaching methods: demonstration, classroom games, groupwork, guided discussions, narration, programmed instruction, questioning, and role play, and others deemed fit.

(h) produce and/or use the following instructional media : audio learning materials, the chalkboard, models, overhead projectors and transparencies, pictures and graphics, slides and slide-shows, textbooks, and worksheets, as well as any others which might become more generally available.

(i) teach concepts meaningfully.

(j) manage classrooms effectively.

(k) evaluate their pupils during and after a period of instruction.

(l) evaluate their own and other teachers' performances in the classroom.

With these goals in mind, the content of a projected Teaching Practice curriculum is brought into clearer focus. It enables us to state the second major criterion of relevance :

Criterion 2 : Didactic Relevance

The Teaching Practice curriculum should make provision for students to acquire the skills and values propagated by leading didacticians, as set out in the relevant section of this text.

2.3 RELEVANCE AND CURRICULUM THEORIES

The third and last study field that yields criteria of relevance is that of curriculum development. It is important to note that the term *Curriculum Development* is used here in a different sense to that advocated by, for instance, Ashton (1983), Crispps (1983), and Merritt (1981). Although definitions by these writers could not be traced, they seem to conceive of curriculum development as the study and

practice of teaching-learning actions.[111] If this notion is correct, it indicates that such writers use the term *Curriculum Development* in a similar sense as the term *Didactics* is used in this text. Thus the meaning of Curriculum Development within the context of this study needs clarification.

In Didactics, curriculum development refers to the processes that precede and accompany the design and modification of curricula. As stated in the Glossary a curriculum is here seen as a *document* - a plan in which projected teaching-learning actions are described - curriculum theories are clearly subordinate to didactic theories. Being an off-shoot of Didactics, there must necessarily be a strong correlation between didactic categories and the features of a curriculum. Nevertheless, it is obvious that not all didactic categories are of interest to curriculum developers. Only those dimensions that are directly relevant to the design of a curriculum are therefore lifted out, refined, and articulated. Thus, although there is a resemblance between the key concepts used in curriculum development and in Didactics, it would be an oversimplification to equate them with one another.

Under these circumstances it seems superfluous to clarify the significance of each feature of the curriculum as set out below. They are as significant as the didactic theories from which they sprang. We shall content ourselves with an explanation why these specific features have been chosen.

Let us look at the basic elements of curriculum design as viewed by the four leading theorists whose works have been consulted as

background material for this investigation : viz. Tyler, Wheeler, Beauchamp, and Rowntree.

2.3.1 Curriculum design as viewed by Tyler (1949)

This well-known rationale centres around four fundamental questions which Tyler believes must be answered in developing any curriculum :

(a) What educational *purpose* should the school seek to attain?
(b) What educational *experiences* can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
(c) How can these educational experiences be *organized?*
(d) How can we determine whether these purposes are being *attained?* (1949:1)

Although Tyler himself indicated that his rationale is but one view of curriculum design, the Tyler formulation has, for many educationists, crystallized to become *the* rationale.[112] It paved the way for the establishment of four elements thought to be essential in a curriculum, viz. a description of : (1) aims and objectives, (2) content, (3) method, and (4) evaluation.

2.3.2 Curriculum design as viewed by Wheeler (1967)

In many respects Wheeler's text seems to be the forerunner of the trend to view curriculum development as the total study and practice of teaching (as previously explained). This is evident, for instance, in his definition of the key term : "By 'curriculum' we mean the planned experiences offered to the learner under the guidance of the school"

(1967:11). It is noteworthy that in this definition the curriculum is not seen as a document, but as the "planned experiences" themselves. Given this definition, it comes as no surprise that Wheeler's components of curriculum design was found to be incompatible to our present purposes. His discussion revolves around children, school curricula, and content. The "basic strands", for instance, which he considers essential in a curriculum are : symbolic studies, basic sciences, developmental studies, aesthetic studies, and moral problems (1967:68). Thus, although his ideas are interesting from a general didactic point of view, they do not contribute much to curriculum theory as viewed in this study.

2.3.3 Curriculum design as viewed by Beauchamp (1981)

Beauchamp, in his critical analysis of curriculum theories, underscores the point that the field suffers from a "severe definitional problem" (1981:6). He establishes, inter alia, that the term "curriculum" is used in three ways, viz. to indicate : (1) a written document, depicting the scope and arrangement of a projected educational programme, (2) the name of a system of schooling, and (3) the title of a field of study, (1981:7 and 108). In building up a case for a curriculum to be seen as a written document, he points out that the other definitions are extremely vague, centring around the expression "planned experiences."[113] He is quick to ask : What about unplanned experiences? To which study field do they belong? If we delete the word "planned", how are we to distinguish between curriculum theories and instructional theories? Anyway, what is meant by "experiences"? In the final analysis, the "curriculum" becomes so wide that it covers the whole field of Education, and subtheory building becomes impossible. (1981:112-114)

Using this argument as a basis, Beauchamp suggests that a curriculum should be seen as a written document. As such it needs to be supported by a *curriculum theory* which is a sub-theory of educational theory (1981:35). The first task of a curriculum planner is therefore to form a curriculum theory, i.e. a set of related statements that gives meaning to a curriculum by pointing up the relationships among its elements (1981:60). Once clarification on this has been reached, the curriculum is drawn up, using four "document features" :

1. An outline of the culture *content* to be taught.
2. A statement of *goals* and/or specific objectives.
3. A set of *rules for implementation.*
4. An *appraisal* scheme. (1981:115-116)

In this way the curriculum is seen as the finished product of a whole curriculum theory - in truth it is but the tip of the iceberg.

2.3.4 Curriculum design as viewed by Rowntree

In his text *Educational Technology in Curriculum Development* Rowntree is extremely vague about his conception of a curriculum. He merely states : "curriculum may include anything from a five-year programme of studies down to a forty-minute lesson or an even briefer period of planned teaching." (1982:20) Nevertheless, the structure which he proposes for the development of programmes is so versatile and adaptable that it is useful for the solution of almost any teaching problem - including curriculum development as seen in this study.

The process is seen as being four-pronged : Establishing *purposes*, *designing the learning*, *evaluating* the students, and *improving* the course. These phases of course development are impeded and determined by the *constraints* placed on the course.[114] Within this theoretical framework, the subsidiary actions that should take place in each phase are spelled out. Although Rowntree emphasizes that flowcharts always oversimplify processes, the one he presents is useful to help readers grasp the broad flow of events as suggested by Rowntree. (See Figure 3)

What we have here is, of course, a curriculum theory. It is dynamic and interactive, and always leaves room for second thoughts. (1982:24) It can apply to *long-term planning* of a course, or *retrospectively* when a previous teaching experience is analysed. It can be applied by an *individual* preparing lessons, or by a *group* of teachers designing a curriculum. (1982:25)

This last point leads Rowntree to emphasize the important role of *negotiations* in the development of curricula. He pleads for a recognition and synthesis of clashing belief systems. All teachers and students tend to move to and fro over some middle ground between two extremes : humanistic ideals pulling them one way and the pressures for standardized qualifications and certification pulling them the other.

Through persuading and influencing one another, through trust and compromise, participants should strike a balance between what 'the system' requires, what the students want to learn, and what the teachers feel capable of teaching. (1982:27)

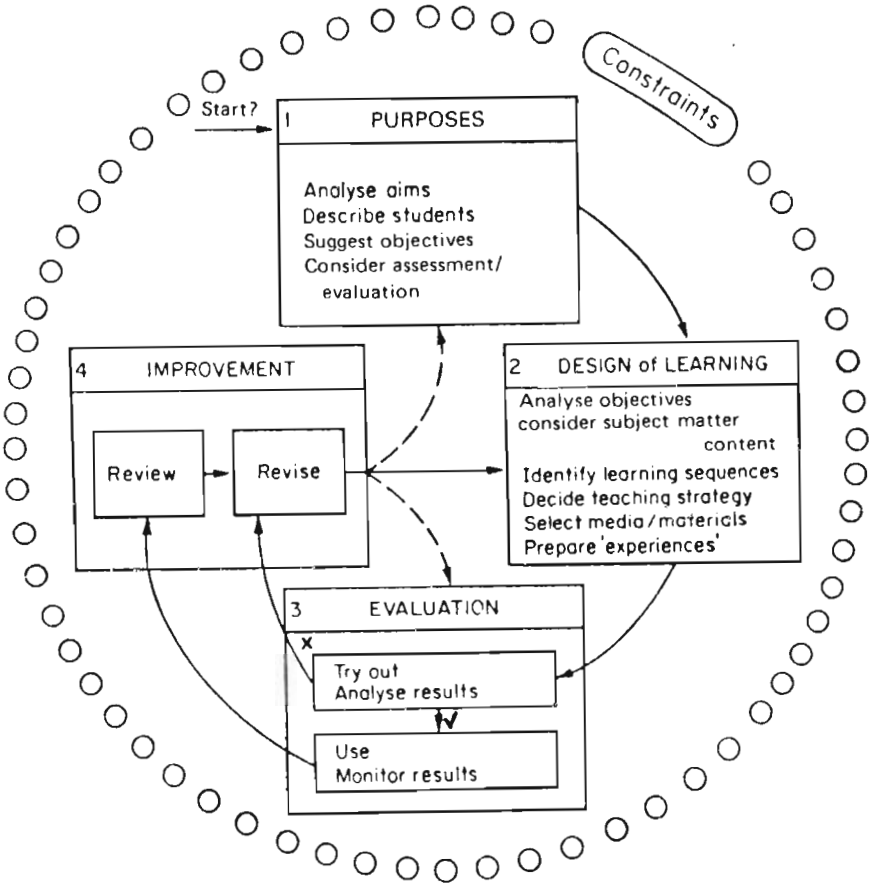

FIGURE 2 : ROWNTREE'S APPROACH TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT (1982:21)

The teacher's or tutor's willingness to negotiate a curriculum must be part of his professional world view, his *pedagogic paradigm* (1982:27). Tutors who cannot open themselves up to other people's view, but instead cling rigidly to their own, cannot facilitate growth in their students. Moreover, they severely retard their own growth (1982:28). Such an attitude may lead to an implicit or explicit refusal to take part in dialogue : "When this dialogue is absent from a teaching/ learning system, the unresolved, and often unacknowledged, tension

between manipulation and facilitation will produce conflict and inconsistency." It stands to reason that, under such circumstances, the establishment of a viable curriculum is unlikely.

2.3.5 Curriculum development as seen in this investigation

2.3.5.1 The difference between a curriculum and a syllabus

Before discussing a relevant curriculum structure, it might be useful to briefly discuss the difference between a *curriculum* and a *syllabus*. The latter is seen here as being more compact. Usually only two curriculum features are partially represented : (a) aims and objectives, and (b) course content. Syllabi on their own are useful in situations where the stress is either on factual knowledge, or on basic skills (calculating, reading, essay-writing, etc.), or on physical skills (typing, woodwork, etc.). For a course in which a number of complex skills needs to be taught in an integrated way, a syllabus is normally insufficient. As a rule tutors presenting such a course need a network of back-up services, (such as those found in medical schools, air pilot training institutions, and television broadcasting companies). One back-up service seen here as crucial to the success of this type of course is the provision of a well-constructed curriculum.

In this text a syllabus is considered to be a prescriptive document. It's main function is to make explicit the purpose of a course. Obviously, the more detailed the objectives in a syllabus are, the more prescriptive the document becomes. Once these details have been approved by legally

acceptable representatives of an educational institution, they are legally binding. Because the syllabus then constitutes an important part of the contractual agreement between student and institution, the tutor - as representative of the institution - is obliged to help the student achieve those objectives.

A curriculum on the other hand, is not prescriptive. The only details in a curriculum that may be, or may become, prescriptive are those that correlate with the details in a syllabus. The rest of the curriculum, however, is viewed in this text as being part of an academic support service. Tutors should be given a free choice whether they wish to implement those parts of a curriculum not prescribed by the syllabus, or whether they prefer designing their own programmes. The only requirement, evidently, is that objectives stated in the approved syllabus need to be achieved.

It may be objected that this view of the curriculum strips the document of its importance. At least two counterarguments can be used against this. Firstly, once a curriculum has been found worthy enough to be recommended by the majority of a course-team, most tutors would support its implementation. Gradually the rest may also come to accept it - to avoid spending time and energy in designing a different curriculum, to take advantage of back-up services, and to be accepted by other members of the team. Secondly, the recommendation of a new curriculum necessitates the simultaneous approval of a new syllabus - a matter of critical importance, as pointed out earlier.

2.3.5.2 Rationale behind the acceptance of the curriculum structure used in this study

If we put the three curriculum structures previously discussed[115] in juxtaposition, the similarity of the components in each structure becomes noticeable. (See Table 1)

TYLER	BEAUCHAMP	ROWNTREE
1. Purposes	2. Goals	1. Purposes : Consider a) aims b) students c) objectives d) assessment
2. Experiences 3. Organization	1. Content 3. Rules for implementation	2. Design of Learning : Decide on : a) objectives b) subject matter c) learning/sequences d) teaching strategies e) media and prepare experiences
4. Attainment	4. Appraisal	3. Evaluation : a) Try out the programme b) Analyse results c) Continue programme d) Continue evaluation
		4. Improvement : a) Review programme b) Revise programme

TABLE 1 : COMPARISON OF THREE CURRICULUM STRUCTURES

As can be seen from this table, the components of both Beauchamp and Rowntree are clearly built on Tyler's rationale. Yet Rowntree's structure differs in two important respects from the others : it is more detailed, and it makes provision for one vital activity seemingly ignored by the other two theorists, viz. improvement. These facts illustrate why it was decided, in this study, to give preference to Rowntree's structure.

However, to accept this structure unaltered would be to deviate from sound principles previously outlined in this text. The reader will recall that the problem being investigated (as formulated in Chapter 1, page 18) necessitates the solution of TWO specific problems : one requires the construction of a *curriculum*, and the other one the statement of guidelines for the *implementation* of such a curriculum. Yet Rowntree treats these two problems as if they were one, thus bringing into his theory elements of ambiguity and confusion.

From a scientific perspective the theoretical background to curriculum development provided by Beauchamp seems superior to that of Rowntree. Beauchamp defines his terms carefully and precisely; he succeeds in demonstrating the critical links between a curriculum, a curriculum theory, and a curriculum process; most important, he proves that curriculum theory is intractibly rooted in educational theory.

We are thus faced with two curriculum theories : one built on a sound theoretical basis, but weak in the structural guidelines emanating from it; another weak in its theoretical basis, but providing excellent structural guidelines for implementation. A synthesis of the two in which the best elements of each are combined, seems an obvious solution.

For the purposes of this investigation it is more realistic and less problematic to make a distinction between the *curriculum* - a statement of interest - and the *curriculum process* - a series of activities preceding or accompanying the implementation of a curriculum. Together they embody the concept *curriculum development*. In this way we can take advantage of Beauchamp's theoretical groundwork. It also enables us to attach a more precise meaning to the use of two important subsidiary concepts, namely :

(a) elements of the curriculum process, i.e. the activity-centred steps in a curriculum process, and

(b) features of the curriculum, i.e. those elements or products of the process that need representation in the curriculum.

2.3.5.3 Elements of the curriculum process

As stated earlier, the whole attraction of Rowntree's structure is the detailed description he gives of essential activities (internal and external) that generates the process, and it's built-in strategies for continuous improvement. If we couple this with the two other arrangements he stresses - constraints and negotiations - it is possible to identify eighteen elements :

Elements

A. Guidelines in planning the purposes

1. Analyse aims
2. Describe students
3. Suggest objectives
4. Consider assessment

B. Guidelines in designing the learning

5. Analyse objectives
6. Consider subject matter
7. Identify learning sequences
8. Decide teaching strategy
9. Select media
10. Prepare experiences

C. Guidelines in evaluating the students

11. Try out the course
12. Analyse results
13. Carry on implementing the course
14. Continuously evaluate the students

D. Guidelines in planning improvements

15. Revise course by identifying and remedying weaknesses
16. Review course by adjusting it to constraints that have changed

E. Guidelines directing entire procedure

17. Accept the limitations imposed by constraints
18. Continuously negotiate with other parties involved.[116)]

In our present context we can also accept Rowntree's view that these activities are really inseparable and do not necessarily occur in a specific order. Perpetually one needs to come back and redefine or add to earlier steps after having worked through later steps (1982:24). Furthermore, while chiefly addressing any particular step, one almost inevitably keeps several of the others in mind at the same time. (1982:25)

These elements seem to be essential in a curriculum process. The quality of the procedural elements inevitably determines the quality of the product. Thus, to avoid as much as possible a superficial curriculum, each of these steps needs to figure prominently in the process - consecutively, intermittently, or continuously. Also, should it be required that a curriculum be accompanied by guidelines for implementation, as in this project, such guidelines need to revolve around the above elements.

2.3.5.4 Features of the curriculum

The general purpose of a curriculum is to help members of a course team to achieve the objectives identified by that team. The curriculum might therefore be seen as a suggested plan of action. To be useful, it needs to :

(a) be set out in a logical and systematic format, and
(b) give clear guidance to tutors as to when they can do what and in which manner.

The features listed below are seen as essential constituents needed to fulfil these two requirements. To put it in a different way : they represent those products emanating from the above elements that are thought to be most helpful when one needs to present a course.

Features

1. Aims and objectives of course.
2. Course content.

3. Learning sequences.
4. Teaching strategies and media.
5. Evaluation of students.
6. Strategies for improvement of the course.

2.3.6 Curriculum relevance as criterion

In the light of the above discussion of curriculum theories we can now state the third major criterion which will be used to evaluate the product(s) of this investigation :

Criterion 3 : Curricular Relevance

The Teaching Practice curriculum should emanate from an observance of the elements of a curriculum process, and give account of the six features of a curriculum, as stated in this text.

2.3.7 Conclusion

This brings to an end the rationale for the criteria of relevance that will guide this research. In the next section the focus will be on criteria of practicality.

3. CRITERIA OF PRACTICALITY

In this study the term "practical" is seen to mean *directly aimed at improving the observable performances of the student in real teaching situations.* A "practical" curriculum thus implies an activity-centred course in which a minimum of reception learning occurs while maximum provision is made for students to be engaged in discovery learning.

Earlier it was established that lack of co-ordination between academic courses and practical situations is seen by many educationists as the most pressing problem in teacher education.[117] Since this is one of the dominant motives behind the present project, the criteria in this section do not seem to require much justification.

Three factors appear to require consideration to ensure practicality in a Teaching Practice curriculum : linkage between campus - and school-based experiences, recognition of constraints, and practicality within the curriculum structure.

3.1 LINKAGE BETWEEN CAMPUS AND SCHOOL-BASED EXPERIENCES

In this study campus-based and school-based Teaching Practice are treated as a single cohesive subject. In the light of this, strong connections should exist between activities on campus and those at schools. Specific strategies should be built into the curriculum to ensure that students experience the two programmes as ONE dynamic course. To students the link between each unit presented on campus and the real classroom situation should be *obvious*. Similarly, previous campus-based experiences should be reinforced at school by making provision for tutors to frequently refer back to them. Thus, by making campus-school linkages as direct and explicit as possible, tutors will be in a more favourable position to help students develop a sense of commitment to teaching as a whole.

Criterion 4 : Linkage Between Campus and School

The Teaching Practice curriculum should make provision for an optimal linkage between campus-based and school-based programmes.

3.2 RECOGNITION OF CONSTRAINTS

To safeguard a curriculum from becoming too idealistic and impractical, the boundaries laid down by existing constraints need to be taken into account. While it is true that many constraints may be overcome by persistent efforts and sheer determination, such procedures can delay or obstruct the implementation of a curriculum indefinitely. Therefore in this study constraints will be treated as indispensable restrictions placed on the course.

The term *constraints* obviously has a wide range of meanings. Yet in our present context the overwhelming majority of constraints is regarded as centring around the following areas :

(a) *Time factors*, i.e. the amount of time set aside for a presentation of the course, the times when block sessions occur, etc.
(b) *Staffing factors*, i.e. the number of staff members available, the academic background and specialities of tutors, administrative assistants, etc.
(c) *Facilities*, i.e. the existing lecture theatres, and other working venues, resource centres, equipment available on campus and at schools, supporting services, number of schools used for placement, etc.
(d) *Finance*, i.e. funds available for implementing the course.
(e) *Institutional factors*, i.e. the existing school system, university regulations, bureaucratic necessities, etc.

Recognition of constraints markedly improves the practicality of a curriculum. It prevents the course-team (and researcher) from getting

entangled in abstractions and far-fetched schemes. Instead of using constraints as a springboard for multiple complaints against "the system", they are recognized as hard realities. This is not to say that recommendations for changes in these areas may not be forthcoming from this project. It merely precludes the possibility of the entire curriculum proposed at the end being underpinned by the compulsory removal of a major constraint.

Criterion 5 : Recognition of Constraints

The Teaching Practice curriculum should take into account the constraints placed on the course.

3.3 PRACTICALITY WITHIN THE CURRICULUM STRUCTURE

It stands to reason that the degree of practicality found in the curriculum will be determined by the curriculum content. Yet looking at research about Teaching Practice, it seems as if the content of these courses are all but practical. A look at some findings may serve to prove the point.

A survey by Griffiths and Moore (1967) revealed that the majority of principals in their study thought that teacher training courses produced "unrealistic teaching". Research by Tuckman and Oliver (1968) proved that when student teachers receive *feedback from pupils*, it leads to permanently improved teaching behaviour, whereas *feedback from supervisors* had no permanent effect. Blumberg and Kusick (1970) found that the interpersonal insights and skills possessed by many supervisors were inadequate. Silberman (1971) claims that supervisors usually

have only a vague conception of education. Cope (1971) observed that some students refrain from approaching supervisors with real problems because they wish to preserve their self-esteem. Stanton (1972) found that supervisors differed markedly from classroom teachers in their indication of strengths and weaknesses in student performances. And Turney et al (1977) revealed that most supervisors had little or no training for their task.[118)]

Without overlooking the fact that these research projects have been conducted some time ago, we have to agree that they are rather disturbing. It seems a plausible hypothesis that if similar investigations were conducted today they would have yielded similar results. Consequently, to ensure that the present project results in a curriculum that has strong ties with the real classroom situation, practicality needs to be built into each feature. Accomplishing such a task involves continual and careful attention to the *objectives* of the course. Firstly, to counteract vagueness and passivity, objectives should, as far as feasible, be stated in behavioural terms. Secondly, the nature of these desired behaviours should force students to exert themselves mentally, emotionally, and physically, instead of merely requiring them to read, or write, or talk. Thirdly, care should be taken to avoid making the list of objectives either too long or too short. It is well-known that a lengthy syllabus leads to an overuse of teacher-centred techniques, while a scanty syllabus often leaves teachers as well as students floundering; in the end both conditions seem to be counterproductive to an activity-centred approach.

The practical implications of didactic theories previously proposed (page 65) would in this study be used as a draft list from which objectives for the course can be compiled.

To enhance the practical value of the *course content*, similar strategies might be adopted to those applicable to the statement of objectives. In addition, course content needs to be carefully examined to eliminate passivity and boredom as far as possible. Especially pertinent here are matters of weighting. The amount of time spent on practising each skill should match the length of time actually needed to acquire that skill, since mismatching in this area could be a major cause of frustration or boredom.

As far as *learning sequences* are concerned, practical propensity can be ensured by placing a restriction on the percentage of time spent on facilitating reception learning. Unfortunately the two concepts "reception learning" and "discovery learning" resist being placed into neat little boxes. In an attempt to overcome this difficulty, it may be suggested that not more than, say, ten percent of the time in each time-sequence should be spent on *lecturing* to students. This strategy provides course developers with a guideline to plan units.

In the area of *teaching strategies and media*, practicality may be promoted by making provision in the curriculum for teaching methods that foster discovery learning. Recent developments in teacher education have yielded a wide variety of such methods and media. The ones that seem to be used most often are listed below :

Simulation (Cohen and Manion, 1978:16)

Microteaching (Brown, 1975)

Interaction analysis (coding) (Flanders, 1970)

Making lesson transcripts (Turney et al, 1977:49)

Hypotheses-based teaching (McIntyre, 1980:304)

Using protocol materials (Orlosky, 1980:275)

Observation (Walker and Adelman, 1975)

Programmed lecturing (Gage, 1972:196)

Case studies (Merritt, 1981:8)

Depth studies (Dow, 1979)

Teaching problem laboratory method (Turney et al, 1977:54)

Modelling (Ibid, page 58)

Diaries (Dow, 1979) and so on

The fifth curriculum feature - *evaluation of students* - is beset by problems of practicality. As is evident from the research findings quoted earlier, these problems cluster round the criteria used for assessing students. This area is so tightly interwoven with value systems, that the only suggestions that will be ventured at this stage, are that more attention should be given to the needs of students, co-operating teachers, and school authorities.

Finally, practicality needs special consideration when *strategies for improvement* are laid down. Provisions should be built into the curriculum to ensure that future modifications of the curriculum do not lead to the course lapsing into becoming too abstract and removed from practical teaching situations.

Criterion 6 : Practicality within the curriculum structure

The Teaching Practice curriculum should have a practical prospensity in each of its features

3.4 CONCLUSION

It has been shown above that there are three criteria which can be applied when degrees of practicality in a Teaching Practice curriculum need to be evaluated.

The only remaining criteria to be established - criteria of democratic design - are discussed below.

4. CRITERIA OF DEMOCRATIC DESIGN

It was K.E. Shaw who characterized educational enterprises as "organized anarchies" (1975:56). If this is true of school systems, it is probably even more applicable to tertiary institutions. Because the degree of bureaucratic constraint on the individual is much lower at the tertiary level, tutors are usually more free from interference than school teachers. However, the price which tutors pay for their freedom is the time they spend on discussing and negotiating co-ordinated policies.[119)]

One of the crucial factors in determining the policy of an institution or faculty is obviously the approval of curricula. Such approval usually involves *change*, and since any situation of change offers threats and opportunity differentially to the participants, curriculum negotiation is generally accompanied by tension.[120)]

It is at this point that democratic principles become of critical importance. Academics evidently baulk at plans imposed on them without prior consultation, proving the truth of the adage :

"If ere convinced against his will
He's of the same opinion still."

Thus autocratic measures often set into motion attitudes of feigned lethargy, increasing pettiness, and passive resistance, which in turn leads to progressive polarization amongst participants. It seems as if the only way to prevent or overcome such a situation is to adhere to democratic procedure. Although democracy obviously has its disadvantages, it still seems the only ideology known to man that offers hope for the maintenance of harmonious and co-operative relationships among people.

In this text democratic procedure is seen as a configuration of concepts such as division of power, free elections, freedom of expression, freedom of choice, and systematic decision-making. Thus concepts broadly manifest themselves in two structural developments : design of the product, and design of the process.

4.1 DEMOCRATIC DESIGN OF THE PRODUCT

At least two democratic principles should be evident in the curriculum recommended at the end of this investigation : division of power, and freedom of choice.

4.1.1 Division of Power

The ideas drawn from four groups of people - teacher educators at other institutions, school authorities, students, and tutors-must figure prominently in the product emanating from this research. The fact that curriculum models have an alterable and fluid character to them, makes it impossible to stipulate the exact weighting that should be given to the needs of each group. Suffice to note that *the final curriculum will be regarded as undemocratically designed if the needs of any one group should be persistently incorporated or ignored.*

Of the four groups involved, the views of the course team will be considered as being the most significant. They are, after all, the individuals who will have to approve and implement the curriculum. Placed in the role of leaders, they are here seen as being obliged to protect the rights of "minority groups" and to make decisions that will be in the interest of *all* four groups.

4.1.2 Freedom of Choice

To provide opportunities for the application of democracy, the outcome of this investigation should offer tutors choices. This could take the form of choosing between curricula or modules, as well as choices in methods.

Criterion 7 : Democratic Design of Product

The Teaching Practice curriculum should reveal that it :

(a) *has been designed according to the principle of division of power and*

(b) *makes provision for freedom of choice.*

4.2 DEMOCRATIC DESIGN OF THE PROCESS

All the principles of democracy previously mentioned should clearly be given recognition in the guidelines for implementation that accompany the recommended curriculum.

4.2.1 Division of Power

It will be taken for granted that all the existing rules and regulations of the University will be part and parcel of the implementation process. In particular, the relevant curriculum will be presented for approval to representative bodies in the regular sequence, viz :-

(i) the Course-team committee,

(ii) the Teaching Practice committee,

(iii) the Board of the Faculty of Education, and

(iv) the Senate of the University

In the light of the distinction previously drawn between *curriculum* and *syllabus*, it will be evident that the whole curriculum will not be presented to the Senate for approval - only those details in the curriculum which the Board identifies as being "the syllabus."

4.2.2 Free elections

According to the present structure of the Faculty of Education at UD-W, decisions about Teaching Practice curricula are taken by the Teaching Practice Committee with the Head of the Department of Applied Didactics acting as Chairman. The standpoint taken in this study is that, whereas the Chairman is appointed by the Senate, the rest of the committee should perhaps be elected by the course-team. It might be a good idea for the course-team to decide (a) what should be the size of the Teaching Practice Committee, (b) what its powers are, and (c) who should serve on it. However, in the final analysis the rules of the Faculty as laid down in its constitution should serve as a guideline for determining who should serve on this important standing committee.

4.2.3 Freedom of expression

It stands to reason that all members of the course-team should be given the opportunity to make their opinions known before and during meetings. Because of the delegation of powers to the Teaching Practice committee, members of the course-team should be free to request this committee to embark on certain actions, and to insist on an official report-back. Regular progress reports in meetings and through circulars would keep the course-team informed and involved - while the curriculum is being negotiated, and during its implementation.

4.2.4 Freedom of choice

This matter has already been discussed.[121] Each individual member of the course-team should be given a full choice regarding the implementation of the curriculum, or any of its units.

4.2.5 Systematic procedure

The present project is based on the assumption that formal meeting procedure will be adhered to at all levels, and throughout the curriculum process. Especially pertinent is that each feature, down to the last unit, should be decided upon by majority vote. Since the success of such a procedure is mainly determined by how well-informed members are, early notification of meetings and provision of supporting documents are seen as being of extreme importance.

Criterion 8 : Democratic Design of Process

The Teaching Practice curriculum should be accompanied by guidelines that would ensure an observance of democratic procedures as outlined in the relevant section of this text.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

We have traced the underlying justification of eight criteria which will guide this research. On the basis of these supporting arguments the Teaching Practice curriculum that emerges from the present investigation should :

1. Give expression to two important recent trends in the professional training of teachers, viz. CBTE and the Humanistic Approach.

2. Make provision for students to acquire the skills and values propagated by leading didacticians, as set out in the relevant section of this text.
3. Emanate from an observance of the elements of a curriculum process, and give account of six features of a curriculum, as stated in this text.
4. Make provision for an optimal linkage between campus-based and school-based programmes.
5. Take into account the constraints placed on the course.
6. Have a practical propensity in each of its features.
7. Reveal that it
   (a) has been designed according to the principle of division of power, and
   (b) makes provision for freedom of choice.
8. Be accompanied by guidelines that would ensure an observance of democratic procedures as outlined in the relevant section of this text.

As was stated in the opening paragraphs of this chapter, these theoretical principles will be used as anchoring ideas throughout this study. If their role in the next five chapters appear to be rather subdued, it would be largely due to the nature of the data being presented.

Their significance will become more apparent in the concluding chapters of the text.

In the next chapter an outline of the development and structure of the Teaching Practice course at the University of Durban-Westville will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

DEVELOPMENT AND STRUCTURE OF THE TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

1. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of the historical background of the Teaching Practice course at the University of Durban-Westville (UD-W) would enable one to obtain an insight into the current structure of the course. This chapter is an attempt to provide such an insight. It aims at giving an outline of the developments of the course, and at describing its present structure. The dominant objective is to place the research problem into a specific organizational context, thus converting it into something more tangible and realistic.

We shall go about this task by looking at the history of the two critical components of the course : School-based and campus-based Teaching Practice.[122] Having considered these developments, we shall shift our attention to the present situation by focusing on three facets : the constraints on the course, its present structure, and a tentative evaluation of the course. However, to provide the reader with a broad background against which these realities may be seen, the chapter will commence with a general exposition of the role and place of Teaching Practice at UD-W.

2. ROLE AND PLACE OF TEACHING PRACTICE AT UD-W

2.1 The University of Durban-Westville

The University College for Indians was established in November 1960 at

Salisbury Island in the Durban Bay area. The purpose behind its establishment was to give Indian South Africans the opportunity "to imprint their own unique contribution on the cultural economic and technological life" of South Africa.[123] For the first ten years it was placed academically under the 'guardianship' of the University of South Africa, but became academically autonomous in 1971. A year later the campus was moved to its present site in Westville, and the institution was renamed the University of Durban-Westville.[124]

During the next decade the University remained mainly a government-sponsored endeavour, but in 1984 it became autonomous, i.e. operating under the same financial formula as the older universities in South Africa.[125]

Because of recognized shortcomings in the political system from which the University originated, a large proportion of the Indian community has adopted a policy of non-cooperation with the University.[126] This has led to a refusal by most students to become involved in sport and other recreational activities on campus. Further tension is caused by the fact that over 90% of students, but only 40% of the academic staff, are Indians. Cutting across these sensitivities is the religious polarization among Indians into two main groups, Muslims and Hindus. Such realities inevitably leave their mark on campus relationships, creating a hidden strain between students and students, students and staff members, and academics and academics themselves, between students and administration, and academics and administration.

The university has eight faculties. Throughout the 25 years of its existence, a sustained growth has been maintained on all levels, as is evident in the steady increase of students and staff members shown in Table II.

	1961	1970	1975	1980	1985
Full-time students	103	1000	2217	3817	5198
Part-time students	11	400	431	1014	1184
Academic staff	20	172	265	340	360
Non-Academic staff	68	136	351	565	697
TOTAL	202	1708	3264	5736	7439

TABLE II : NUMBERS OF STUDENTS AND STAFF MEMBERS AT UD-W, 1961-1985[127)]

2.2 Faculty of Education

In 1965 the former Department of Education was converted into a fully-fledged Faculty of Education. During the period up to 1970 the faculty offered six diploma-courses to help students to qualify as primary and secondary school teachers.[128)] From 1971 the faculty evolved its own teacher training courses. One of the most important developments was the launching of a four-year integrated degree-course for student teachers, known as the BPaed-degree course.[129)]

A second significant change occurred in 1978 when a drastic restructuring of the B.Ed - degree course took place. The course became academically more rigorous and made provision for students to obtain a high level of specialization in a specific area of Education.[130)]

A third major development was the re-adjustment of the departmental structure operative within the faculty, which took place in 1983, This led to the establishment of five departments :

(a) Foundations of Education, represented by *six* permanent academic staff members.

(b) Psychology of Education, represented by *ten* permanent academic staff members.

(c) General Didactics, represented by *fifteen* permanent academic staff members.

(d) Applied Didactics, represented by *five* permanent academic staff members.

(e) Physical Education, represented by *five* permanent academic staff members.

The responsibility for policy decisions is in the hands of members of the Board of the Faculty of Education. At present the Board is constituted in the following manner :

Dean (Chairman)
4 Professors
2 Associate Professors
10 Senior Lecturers
1 Professor from each of the other seven faculties
1 Representative from the Department of Education and Culture
4 Lecturers elected by Faculty members
1 Junior Lecturer acting as Secretary

2.3 Initial teacher education courses presently offered by the Faculty of Education

The University offers *five* initial teacher education courses, four being degree-courses and one a diploma-course.

2.3.1 Degree-Courses

All four of these courses are aimed at assisting students to obtain the degree of Bachelor of Paedagogics (BPaed). In specific terms they are :

BPaed (Arts)
BPaed (Commerce)
BPaed (Primary Education) and
BPaed (Science)

It is not the place here to give a detailed description of these courses. Suffice to note that all of them are four-year full-time degree-courses with a high Educational input. The BPaed (Prim Educ) - course is aimed at the primary school level, while the other three are directed at training secondary school teachers.

2.3.2 Diploma-Course

This course, which prepares students for the University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE), is a one-year post-graduate course. It provides training for students wishing to teach either at primary or secondary school level. Only candidates whose bachelor's degree-curriculum included a set number of approved teaching subjects are admitted to the course.

2.4 Description of students

The minimum entrance requirement for a BPaed-degree course is matriculation with university exemption. This qualification, however, does not automatically entitle a student to enrol for the course; an appointed panel interviews and selects all UHDE and first-year BPaed-students. A fair idea of the number of students that annually enrol for BPaed-degree and UHDE-courses can be obtained from TABLE III.

	1982	1983	1984	1985
BPaed I	210	336	329	126
BPaed II	129	206	273	259
BPaed III	144	141	185	252
BPaed IV	106	115	106	152
UHDE	81	129	154	123
TOTAL	670	927	1047	912

TABLE III : NUMBER OF STUDENTS THAT ENROLLED FOR INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION COURSES - 1982-1985[131)]

If we compare the number of first-year BPaed-enrolments in 1982 to that of the fourth-years in 1985, there appears to have been a drop-out rate of approximately 28% of students.

Table III also shows the sharp drop of the first-year BPaed student numbers that occurred in 1985. According to information released by

the Department of Education and Culture this is the result of a service cut in the number of bursaries allocated to student teachers, and is only the beginning of a new trend necessitated by a saturated market for Indian teachers. The UHDE-figures show, to a lesser extent, a similar pattern. This policy will inevitably have a marked effect on future developments of teacher training at UD-W, as it did when similar situations arose in countries abroad.

While there is a wide variety of subject-combinations which students may choose from, their choices are chiefly determined by the specific course to which they are admitted. Table IV shows the manner in which the total number of first-year and fourth-year BPaed-students have been distributed among the courses during the past four years.[132)]

	1982		1983		1984		1985		TOTAL	%
	BP I	BP IV	BP I	BP IV	BP I	BP IV	BP I	BP IV	BP I + BP IV	
BPaed (Arts)	87	45	115	63	156	44	56	72	638	44
BPaed (Comm)	30	11	55	18	33	13	6	14	180	12
BPaed (Pr Ed)	53	35	95	18	91	33	35	53	413	28
BPaed (Sc)	39	13	68	14	48	9	29	13	233	16
TOTAL	209	104	333	113	328	99	126	152	1464	100

TABLE IV : DISTRIBUTION OF 1st YEAR AND 4th YEAR BPAED STUDENTS, 1982-1985[131)]

The highest intake of students occurred in the BPaed (Arts) and BPaed (Prim Educ) courses; for the past four years approximately 72% of the students enrolled for these two courses. The beginning of 1985 saw a slight shift in the direction of higher enrolment for the BPaed (Science) course (23%) a situation brought about by the demand for more Science teachers. Whether this will alleviate the shortage is questionable, since this course also has the highest drop-out rate (±67%); this could in time lead to a progressively heavier enrolment of science students.

Among UHDE-students the subject bias is more difficult to determine because students can opt to specialize in teaching subjects from two or more different fields of study, for example one from Arts and one from Commerce. Even if one should present a breakdown of the various Method-courses for which these students enrolled, the picture would still be hazy because each student enrols for *two* or *three* different Method - courses. To give a true account of the situation would require that much space be devoted to a relatively insignificant issue. We would therefore content ourselves by noting that UHDE-students are unequally distributed across a spectrum of approximately 23 Method-courses.

The ratio between the sexes of students taking these courses is indicated in Table V.

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	1982		1983		1984		1985	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
BPaed	271	318	378	420	378	515	307	482
UHDE	70	11	65	64	75	79	54	69
TOTAL	341	329	443	484	453	594	361	551

TABLE V : RATIO BETWEEN SEXES OF STUDENT TEACHERS[131)]

These figures clearly illustrate the prevailing tendency of increasing numbers of female students becoming attracted to the teaching profession. The percentage of male students has shrunk from 51% in 1982 to 40% in 1985. The ratio between staff members of the faculty is the reverse - ±60% male and ±40% female. To what extent this influences the attitudes of students towards courses is uncertain.

2.5 Description of Staff

As might be expected from a faculty in which many diverse subject-areas meet, the staffing situation in the Faculty of Education is complex. At the time of writing this text in 1985, the academic staff comprised 47 full-time and 16 part-time members. Due to the divergent nature of Education courses, there is obviously an immense variety of specialization areas in which these members lecture. In practice, 12 of the full-time, and 7 of the part-time academics are not involved in lecturing to students taking initial teacher training courses. The influence which these members of staff have on initial teacher education is only felt indirectly if they are members of the Board. This brings the number of academics directly responsible for initial teacher education at this university to 35 full-time and 9 part-time lecturers.

Of special importance for teacher training are the academic qualifications of staff members. The Faculty has been fortunate in securing the appointment of a large number of academics with advanced qualifications, as is apparent in Table VI.

HIGHEST QUALIFICATION	NUMBER OF STAFF MEMBERS								
	DEd	DPhil	MEd	OTHER M DEGREE	BEd + BHon	BEd	BHon	OTHER	TOTAL
CATEGORY A Full-time staff members directly involved in initial teaching training	11	5	3	2	2	9	2	1	35
CATEGORY B Part-time staff members directly involved in initial teacher training		1		1			2	5	9
CATEGORY C Full-time staff NOT directly involved in initial teacher training	2	2	2	2	2	1	1		12
CATEGORY D Part-time staff NOT at all involved in initial teacher training		2		1		1		3	7
T O T A L	13	10	5	6	4	11	5	9	63

TABLE VI : CATEGORIZATION OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION

In the light of the fact that over 40% of the full-time staff members have doctor's degrees,[133] it is understandable why the Faculty displays a marked attitude of concern about the continuous improvement of teacher education. Since two-thirds of the full-time academics[134] have sucessfully completed post-graduate degree-courses in Education, it is a rather obvious connection that they would stress the importance of Education as a subject, and the professionalism of teachers.

This still leaves, however, a relatively large percentage of lecturers who have not obtained any degree in Education as such. Although most of these academics have completed diploma-courses, it does seem somewhat alarming that of the *total* number of 63 members who lecture in the Faculty of Education, only 35 (56%) have formal qualifications in Education.[135] Yet let us hasten to add that these figures obviously present a slightly distorted picture. Part-time lecturers, for instance, lecture only to a small number of students, and have less contact with their students than full-time lecturers have with the same students. Thus, to obtain a more accurate understanding of the true situation, it is better to focus attention only on the full-time staff members directly involved in initial teacher training. But even here it is perhaps disturbing to note that 26% of the academics who present courses in the field of Education, do not have any higher qualifications in this field themselves.[136] In addition, none of the part-time lecturers directly involved in initial teacher training have degrees in Education, while five of them (56%) hold only one primary degree in another field.

In the face of these facts it seems probable that a large number of staff

members find lecturing to student teachers a frustrating and energy-sapping process, due to the disparity between their qualifications and their students' expectations. If we add to this the normal tensions that exist between educationists from different schools of thought, negative transfer of educational concepts from one subject to the next seems a foregone conclusion. To spur curriculum growth and minimize superficiality, strong academic support programmes seem essential.

Another staffing factor adding to the complexity of teacher education courses, is the excessive number of specialization areas needed - a situation to which UD-W is no exception. If one considers that the faculty offers about forty fully-fledged courses in *initial* teacher training alone, the immense task of utilizing existing staff optimally becomes obvious. To assist the reader in gaining an insight into the staff situation with regards to these demands, a breakdown of the present situation is presented in Table VII. Note that these figures only indicate the degree of staff involvement in the presentation of courses to student teachers in their *final year* of study.

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	NO. OF FULL TIME STAFF INVOLVED	NO. OF PART TIME STAFF INVOLVED	NO. OF STUDENTS INVOLVED	ESTIMATED TUTOR : STUDENT RATIO
1. Education III	8		253	1:32
2. Principles of Education	7		104	1:15
3. English Usage	4		182	1:46
4. Eng Usage in Pr. School	4		77	1:19
5. Afrikaans Usage	3		184	1:61
6. Afr Usage in Pr. School	3		79	1:26
7. Teaching Practice III	33	9	138	1:37
8. Teaching Practice UHDE			122	
SPECIAL METHODS OF :				
9. Accounting	1		12	1:12
10. Afrikaans	3		20	1:7
11. Arabic		1	17	1:17
12. Art	1		13	1:13
13. Biology	2		19	1:10
14. Business Economics	1		24	1:24
15. Clothing and Textile		1	3	1:3
16. English	2		106	1:53
17. Food & Nutrition		1	3	1:3
18. Geography	1		41	1:41
19. Guidance	1		20	1:20
20. Gujerati		1	1	1:1
21. Hindi		1	1	1:1
22. History	2		101	1:51
23. History of Art	1		9	1:9
24. Mathematics	3		88	1:30
25. Music		2	5	1:3
26. Physical Education	2		5	1:3
27. Physical Science	2		92	1:46
28. Speech & Drama	2		8	1:4
29. Technical Drawing		1	1	1:1
30. Urdu		1	6	1:6
31. Zulu		1	2	1:2

TABLE VII : DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF AND STUDENTS AMONG BPAED IV AND UHDE COURSES, 1985[138)]

Because all students and a considerable number of staff participate in more than one course simultaneously, the figures contained in this table do not lend themselves to comparison with data contained in other tables. They are shown here mainly for the purpose of demonstrating to what extent the diversity of courses contribute to a scattering of staff resources.

This table also serves to illustrate the central position of Teaching Practice in the Faculty. While all the other courses broadly resemble a set of pigeon-holes in which academics can become engrossed in their own domains, Teaching Practice compels them to converge. It is in this area where conflicts are most likely to occur. It is also in this area where a new burst of creativity may be encouraged.

According to the SAPSE-formula operative at the university, the overall tutor : student ratio should be 1:20. Assuming that the average student takes three courses per year, this amounts to a tutor : student-course ratio of 1:60-70.[130] If we apply this formula to all tutors, students, and courses involved in initial teacher training at UD-W, the current tutor : student - course ratio is approximately 1:67, which tallies well with the SAPSE-formula. However, many tutors fear that the reduction of student numbers which started in 1985 may perpetuate a series of changes. It seems logical, for instance, that if student numbers drop to 50% of the 1985 intake, half the number of lecturing posts presently filled may be declared redundant. This possibility has given rise to much anxiety amongst staff members, which in turn may affect their attitude towards courses.

2.6 Place of Teaching Practice in teacher education courses

The beginning of 1982 saw traditional Teaching Practice courses at UD-W being supplanted by new ones, as will be explained later in this chapter. It gave rise to the rule that three year-courses, namely Teaching Practice I, Teaching Practice II, and Teaching Practice III, are compulsory for all BPaed-students. A fourth year-course, simply named Teaching Practice, was established at the same time to cater for the needs of UHDE-students.

2.6.1 Place of Teaching Practice in BPaed-courses

All BPaed-students, regardless of their specific study field, follow the same three Teaching Practice courses. The place of these courses in the context of their degree studies is indicated in the example of a student's degree-structure shown in Figure 3. The courses in question are ringed to facilitate identification.

Partly because of minor differences between the various BPaed-courses, and partly because of the personal preferences of students, this example is neither typical nor atypical of BPaed-courses generally. A large number of different options are open to students on various levels. Each deviation from this example may perpetuate a series of changes in the overall pattern. Nevertheless, to describe the role of Teaching Practice as economically and clearly as possible, this example seems a useful basis on which to pin the rest of the picture.

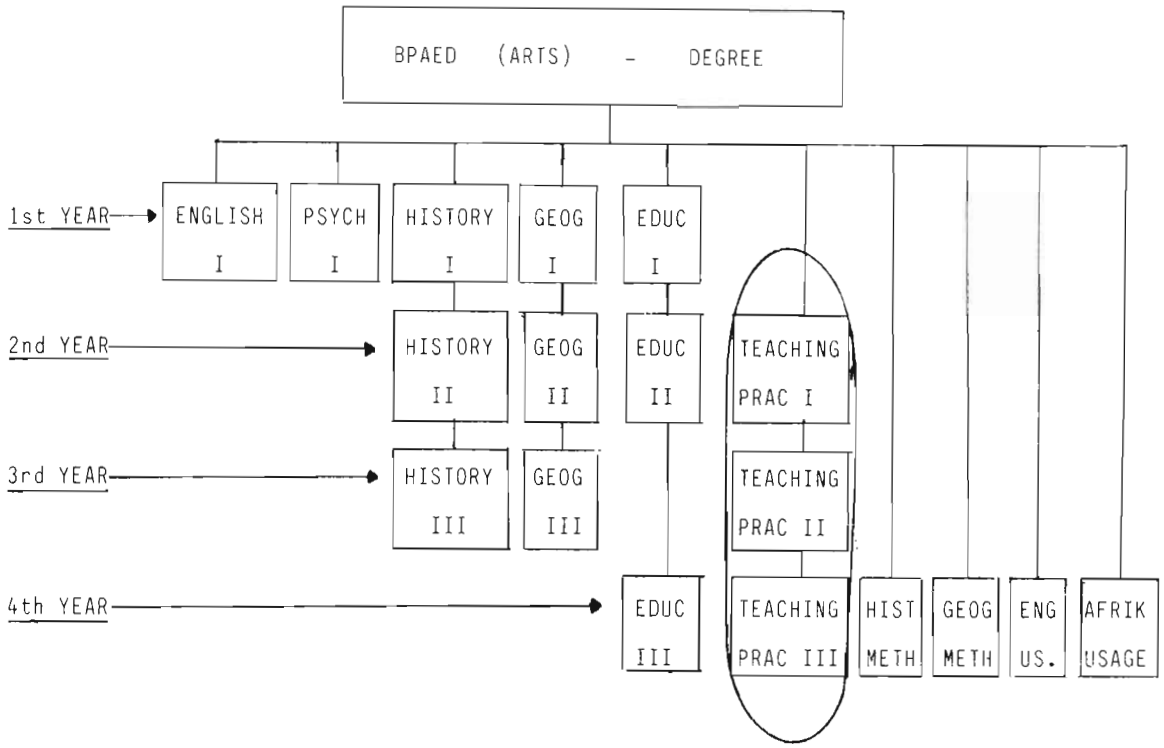


FIGURE 3 : EXAMPLE OF A BPAED-STUDENT'S DEGREE-STRUCTURE

Perhaps the most practical way of identifying the place of Teaching Practice in BPaed-courses is to examine the amount of contact hours students have with staff members. If we take the normal, time-allocation given to courses at UD-W - approximately four hours per course per week, for an estimated number of 25 weeks per year - it is possible to make a rough comparison between Teaching Practice and the other subjects. In Teaching Practice contrary to the other courses, provision is made for only *two* contact hours per week during the first two years. Keeping these details in mind, we are able to gauge the weighting given to Teaching Practice on the weekly time-table of the student in the example :

	NUMBER OF LECTURE CONTACT HOURS IN OTHER SUBJECTS	NUMBER OF CONTACT HOURS IN TEACHING PRACTICE	TOTAL NUMBER OF CONTACT HOURS
FIRST YEAR	20 HOURS (+ pracs)	0 HOURS	20 HOURS
SECOND YEAR	12 HOURS (+ pracs)	2 HOURS	14 HOURS
THIRD YEAR	8 HOURS (+ pracs)	2 HOURS	10 HOURS
FOURTH YEAR	20 HOURS (+ pracs)	$4\frac{1}{2}$ HOURS	$24\frac{1}{2}$ HOURS

One of the striking features in this schedule is the great disparity that exists in the total number of contact hours between the third and fourth years of study - a feature of the BPaed-course that seems to need urgent attention.

This student's weekly time-table, however, presents us only with a partial picture. In addition to the weekly contact hours with Teaching Practice tutors, students are required to spend certain set periods at schools. To obtain a more complete picture of the actual contact time BPaed-students have with Teaching Practice, it is more profitable to look at the total time allocations given to the ten subjects indicated in the example. The estimated amounts of contact time which the student in the example is likely to experience throughout his four years of training, transformed into a pie chart, are shown in Figure 4.

It needs to be re-emphasized that this is but a rough estimate of one particular example of a BPaed-course. The actual percentages of contact time vary from student to student according to circumstances. BPaed (Prim Educ) - students for instance, take two additional year-courses in their final year, bringing the total number of subjects for that year to eight. Also, students taking the BPaed (Science) - course

are likely to spend more contact hours in doing their majors, due to the large amount of time they devote to practical work. Conditions such as these necessarily affect the percentage of time taken up by Teaching Practice. On the other hand, the majority of BPaed-students are likely to wind up with course-structures rather similar to the one in the example.[142] Thus it seems as if Teaching Practice figures more prominently in average BPaed-courses than any other subject. As illustrated below, approximately 25% of the contact time that these students have with staff members in the course of their training is spent in the Teaching Practice area.[143]

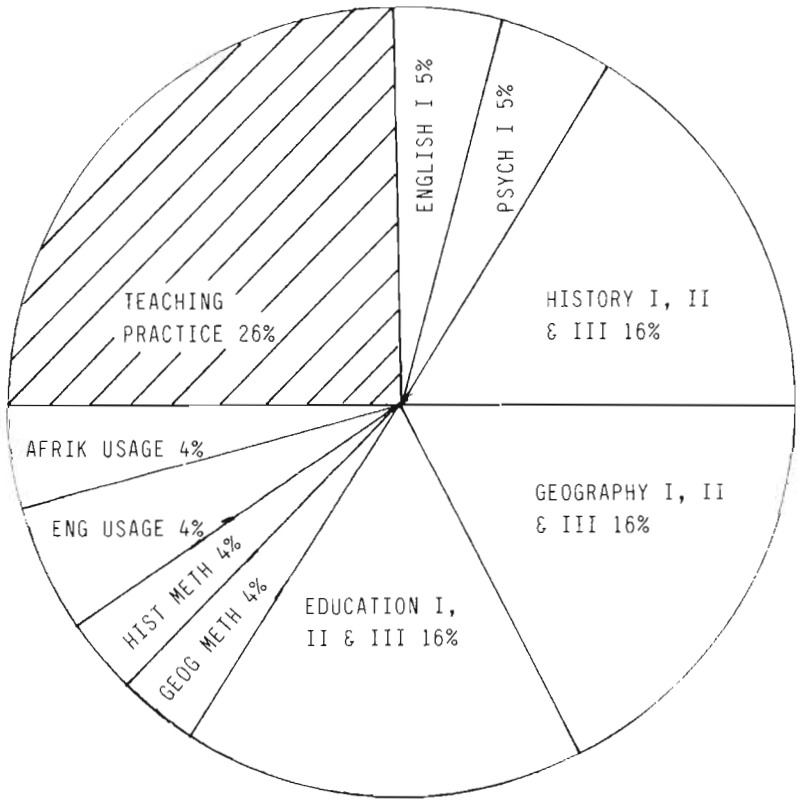


FIGURE 4 : TIME-ALLOCATION GIVEN TO TEACHING PRACTICE IN A BPAED-COURSE, IN RELATION TO OTHER SUBJECTS[141]

2.6.2 Place of Teaching Practice in UHDE-course

UHDE-students can choose between two diploma-structures, referred to in the Calendar as Curriculum A and Curriculum B. The first one is directed at training teachers for secondary schools, and the latter one at primary schools. Since both these structures make provision for Teaching Practice in a similar fashion, only one will be used here to illustrate the place of Teaching Practice in the average UHDE-course.

If we break down the contact time of UHDE-students in the same way as we did for the BPaed-course, the pie chart presented in Figure 5 emerges.

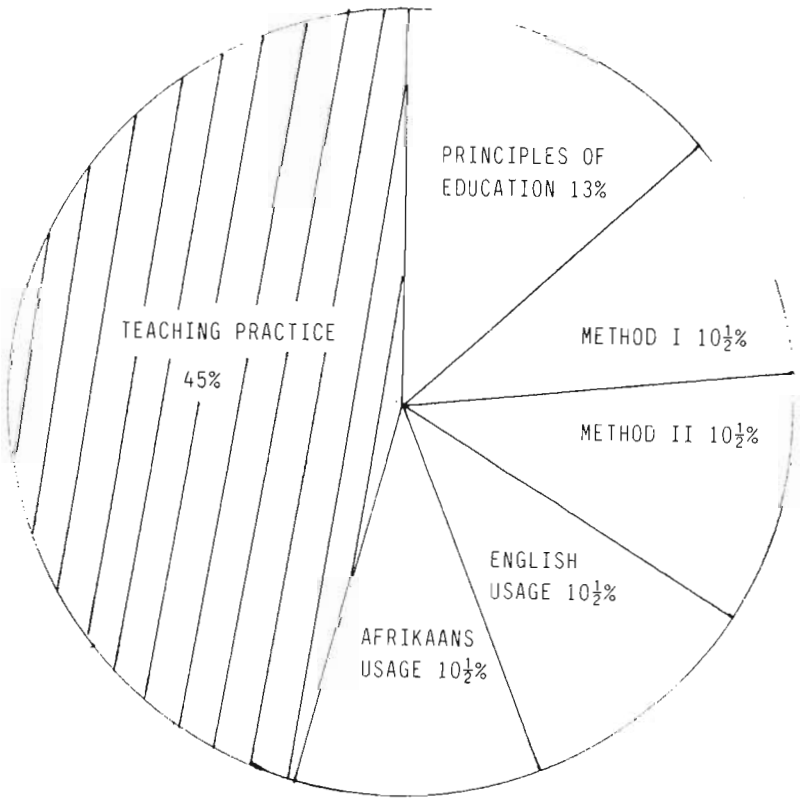


FIGURE 5 : TIME-ALLOCATION GIVEN TO TEACHING PRACTICE IN A UHDE-COURSE (CURRICULUM A) IN RELATION TO OTHER SUBJECTS[144)]

As in the case of BPaed-courses, these percentages will vary, but most UHDE students' yearly contact time will broadly reflect a similar pattern. One of the chief differences between the BPaed and UHDE courses is evident : whereas 26% of the BPaed-course is devoted to Teaching Practice, 45% of the UHDE-course is taken up by this subject. The primary reason for this is that the latter one is only a one-year course, compared to the four years taken up by BPaed-studies.

Within the context of total time spent on obtaining a primary degree plus the one year devoted to UHDE studies, Teaching Practice takes up approximately 19% of contact time.[145)]

In many respects Teaching Practice courses at UD-W are still in a transitional stage. The main reason for this is that the campus-based components have only been introduced four years ago. It took, for instance, two years for the first group of Teaching Practice I students to reach the Teaching Practice III level, which necessitated interim arrangements for students who had enrolled for Teaching Practice II and Teaching Practice III during 1982 and 1983. The outcome of these interim arrangements are illustrated in Table VIII.

P.T.O./page 114

COURSES	1982	1983	1984	1985
BPaed II	129	206	273	259
Teaching Practice I	87	183	238	209
BPaed III	144	141	185	252
Teaching Practice II	93	83	179	203
BPaed IV	106	115	106	152
Teaching Practice III	-	-	76	138
UHDE	81	129	154	123
Teaching Practice	250	240	181	122

TABLE VIII : NUMBERS OF STUDENTS ADMITTED TO TEACHING PRACTICE 1982-1985, COMPARED TO TOTAL ENROLMENT FIGURES IN COURSES

During 1982 and 1983 no students were admitted to Teaching Practice III, but BPaed-students were offered practically the same course as the UHDE - students. Although a distinction between the two has, for registration purposes, been made during 1984 and 1985, the content of these two courses is still essentially the same.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

Apparently school-based Teaching Practice was incorporated into all initial teacher training courses soon after the University was established in 1961.[146] As the curriculum took form, it was increasingly regarded as "an integrated part of the total spectrum of the preparation of the teacher as a professional person."[147] Against this general background the development of five key aspects of the course took place. A brief sketch of each of these may facilitate understanding of the present structure of this component.

3.1 Preparation of Students

The preparation of students developed around two needs : general preparation and specific preparation.

3.1.1 General Preparation

Throughout the 1960's and 1970's the general preparation of students for Teaching Practice was regarded in a serious light. Explicit rules were laid down for staff and students about matters such as observation activities, preparation books, self-criticism, schemes of work, involvement in extra-mural activities, etc. These regulations necessitated intensive preparation. In the area of lesson preparation, for instance, students were expected to prepare four lessons daily, one of which had to be accompanied by proof of extensive preparation intended "to help the student to achieve clearness, definiteness and fullness in his teaching and to arm him with knowledge and self-confidence."[148] These rules were issued to students in the form of a twenty-page document, *Practice Teaching Guide for Students*, and all tutors were required to enforce its implementation.[149]

From the late 1970's onwards this system seems to have disintegrated slowly. By 1980, when the writer of this text became a member of the Faculty, the above rules were considered to be out-dated. General preparation for school-based Teaching Practice as previously done, fell into disrepute. Planning for school experiences came to be centred around specific preparation by specialist lecturers, creating a more flexible system in which individual tutors prepare their own groups for school-based Teaching Practice in whichever ways they see fit.[150]

3.1.2 Specific Preparation

As is the custom in most teacher education institutions, specific preparation for Teaching Practice at UD-W has been left to Method lecturers. During 1967 and 1968, for example, all Method lecturers and students were required to assemble on the last day of their Easter-vacation at the University to prepare the students intensively for the two-week block session that was due to commence the following day. In addition, lecturers were requested to discuss Teaching Practice matters with students every Thursday throughout the year, since, at that time, students had to teach in schools every Friday.[151)]

In 1972 and for a few years afterwards it was a faculty rule for lecturers to prepare final year students immediately after their official enrolment at the University for their observation session that followed immediately after.[152)] It is not clear when this practice was discontinued. Since 1980 there has been no signs of an equivalent programme for the three groups of students - BPaed II's, BPaed III's, and UHDE's - that are at present expected to do two weeks observation before lectures commence. They essentially go into the schools "raw", i.e. never having met their future method lecturers.

It has already been pointed out that specific preparation of students has in recent years come to be seen at UD-W as the most important form of preparation for Teaching Practice.

3.2 Placement of Students

During the history of Teaching Practice at UD-W, two distinct patterns

for the placement of students at schools have developed :

3.2.1 Placement of students near their home areas

This arrangement was established in 1978 and is valid for all students who are required to complete an observation session at a school before lectures commence at the beginning of the year.[153] Since students arrange these sessions themselves with relevant principals, the University is not officially responsible for organizing the placements.

3.2.2 Placement of students during block sessions

As far as possible, the university places these students at local schools to facilitate regular guidance by tutors. From 1969 onwards it became the custom to keep students at one particular school for the duration of their teaching practice, except under exceptional circumstances. The laborious task of arranging these placements has for many years been done most effectively by two particular members of staff, and is one of the few areas of Teaching Practice that has rarely been criticized.

The numbers of students and schools presently involved will be discussed later in this chapter under the heading *Constraints on the Course*.

3.3 Times and duration of school experiences

The nature of school experiences has long been a bone of contention at UD-W. Traditionally there were three types of school experiences : intermittent Teaching Practice, observation sessions, and block sessions.

3.3.1 Intermittent Teaching Practice

From the mid-1960's until 1980 it was customary to send final year students to schools for one day per week from March until the end of the first or second semester. Many difficulties seem to have arisen from this system.[154] Throughout its implementation period the opinions of staff members appear to have been divided about its value and desirability. During 1980 the practice was retained for one term only, and then finally abolished.[155]

3.3.2 Observation sessions

With the development of BPaed-courses during the early 1970's concern was expressed about the lack of school-based experiences for BPaed-students.[156] A system evolved in which all BPaed-students (from first-years through to fourth-years) were required to do two weeks unsupervised Teaching Practice, either in January/February or November/December of each year.[157] From 1981 onwards first-year and final-year BPaed-students were excluded from these sessions and since 1983 a similar observation module has been incorporated into the UHDE programme.

3.3.3 Block sessions

Many of the difficulties experienced during this time in the faculty clustered around the times and duration of block sessions. At the beginning there seems to have been two periods set aside for continuous Teaching Practice under the supervision of tutors : two weeks during the second term and three weeks during the third term.[158] In 1967 the faculty was requested by both the Rector of the University and the Director of Indian Education to change these periods. They

favoured an approach in which certain groups would be placed at schools for the entire first term, and other groups for the entire fourth term.[159] After many discussions and negotiations the Board finally approved in 1970 the placement of students at schools during the last quarter, in addition to other specified periods earlier in the year.[160] However, a year later Senate referred the matter back to the Board after complaints were received about :

(a) clashes between Teaching Practice and the University examination time-table, and

(b) the suitability of the fourth term for Teaching Practice due to the amount of revision work and examinations then taking place at schools.[161]

After a period of flux in which the times of block sessions changed repeatedly the faculty in 1978 reverted back to a system similar to the original arrangement : three weeks during the second term and two weeks during the third term.[162] When intermittent Teaching Practice came to a halt in 1980, the second block session was extended to three weeks, bringing the total number of weeks spent on the two block sessions to six per year. Thus it has remained up to the present time.

3.4 Rules and Regulations

During the period 1971-1980 the rules and regulations for Teaching Practice was set out in two lengthy documents : *Guide to Teaching Practice* - a 23-page booklet for the use of lecturers - and *Practice Teaching Guide to Students* - a 20-page booklet for the use of students. They were published in 1971 after two years of intensive preparation

which entailed, inter alia, a visit by the head of Teaching Practice to various teacher education institutions in the United Kingdom during which he studied modern approaches to teacher training.[163] Both these documents show proof of an in-depth study of Teaching Practice and didactic principles; so much so that the writer, Prof J H Bekker, received, after its publication, an official congratulation from Senate.[164] In addition to practical advice, it contains much theoretical background aimed at assisting staff and students to link practical school experiences to educational theories.

In retrospect it seems regrettable that these Guides were not kept up to date, revised periodically, and retained for the use of students and staff.

The "New" *Guide to Teaching Practice*, which appeared in 1982, contains neither practical advice nor theoretical background. It is a simple prescriptive document in which students are informed about the requirements for Teaching Practice in an impersonal, official manner. Originally compiled upon request from the Teaching Practice Committee by the writer of this thesis, it has since been annually revised by the Committee.

The Teaching Practice Committee was declared a standing committee in 1972, and at the time consisted of ten members : the head of Teaching Practice, two senior lecturers, five lecturers, and two student representatives.[165] It had an executive committee consisting of three members. Although nowhere stated as such, it seems as if all committee members except the student representatives were appointed, rather than elected. The committee had wide powers, was well-structured, and its duties were explicitly spelled out (See Figure 6).[166]

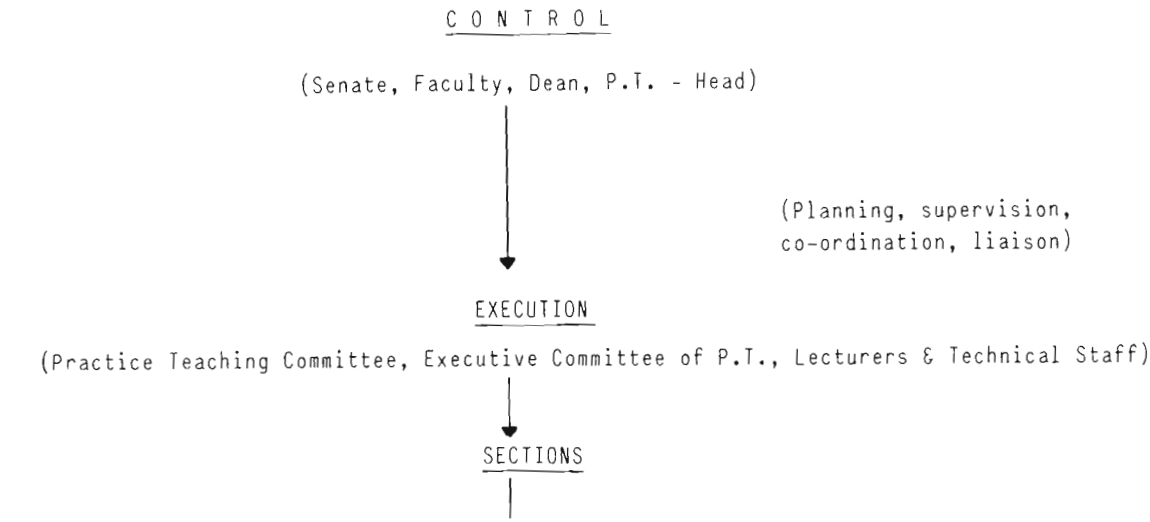
In 1982 the structure of the committee underwent a rather drastic change. The number of members were reduced to three : the head of Teaching Practice, the head of school-based Teaching Practice, and the head of campus-based Teaching Practice.

The present structure of the committee will be outlined in the section on campus-based Teaching Practice.

3.5 Assessment of Students

Realising the close relationship between process and product evaluation, faculty members have always endeavoured to improve their own assessment of students. Regular post-practice symposia have become a tradition that is being upheld enthusiastically.[167] In addition, pre-practice seminars and courses take place annually to assist and prepare tutors for their difficult task of evaluating student teachers.[168] Care is taken to make these symposia and seminars as relevant to Teaching Practice as possible. In February 1985, for instance, five speakers from diverse specialization fields outside the faculty delivered papers and conducted discussion on *Evaluation of Teaching*.

P.T.O./FIGURE 6



Planning Section	Control Section	Evaluation Section	Diagnostic Remedial Section	Filing & Typing	Distribution
(P.T. Schools, periods, allocation of students)	(Procedures and implementation)	(Tutors, principals special examiners)	(According to reports by tutors and principals intensive diagnostic and remedial work in connection with problems)	(Secretary technical assistants, tutors)	(Notices, lists guides, etc.)

FIGURE 6 : STRUCTURE AND DIVISION OF DUTIES OF TEACHING PRACTICE COMMITTEE, 1971

Notwithstanding these efforts, the assessment of students presents formidable problems. One such problem is achieving agreement about the role of assessment during Teaching Practice. Already in 1967 pleas went up from one group of tutors that the emphasis should be on *guidance* rather than on assessment, while another group favoured the allocation of percentages for each criticism lesson.[169] Throughout the history of Teaching Practice at UD-W the dispute stemming from these two clashing belief-systems continued. A precarious compromise was reached in 1970 when the Board approved the allocation of symbols for criticism lessons[170] - a rule that was valid until 1982. Emotions flared up in that year when the university examination section demanded percentages instead of

symbols. It triggered off lengthy discussions between staff members. One meeting about the role of assessment in Teaching Practice continued for seven hours, and ended without agreement having been reached. Equilibrium was eventually restored by the acceptance of another uneasy compromise : individual lessons would only be given percentages during the *second block* session, but not during the *first block* session. Although this rule still stands, many members of staff frequently express discontentment about the arrangement.

Students seem to be as divided in their opinions about the use of percentages as tutors. This fact is born out annually during post-practice symposia when the matter evokes heated arguments with unfailing regularity.

Another assessment issue that has shown itself to be a complication, is disagreement about evaluation criteria. To which extent this was a problem prior to 1980 is difficult to determine. Judging from documents available-including verbatim discussions about Teaching Practice - the problem hardly existed. While this could have been due to a reluctance by tutors to criticize the Teaching Practice committee openly, it is also feasible to speculate that everybody was reasonably satisfied. In both the tutor's and the student's guides the criteria for assessment were spelled out in great detail.[171] Uncertainties about particular courses of action could, theoretically, be alleviated simply by consulting "the guide."

Whatever the situation may have been, it is significant that the moment the compiler of these guides left the University (at the end of 1979), their content was rejected.

As stated previously, the faculty has since opted for a more open system. Considering that preparation of students at present revolves around specific guidance by individual lecturers, it follows that assessment is based on subjective criteria. For tutors the system functions well; each tutor is, in effect, given *carte blanche* to apply his/her own criteria in evaluating lessons. Students, however, complain bitterly about the system. From 1981 they have never wavered in their denunciation of it, and vagueness of criteria has been the most important discussion theme in every post-practice symposium. Yearly the Teaching Practice committee has the unenviable task of having to defend conflicting standards. Given the strong resistence shown by staff against any suggestion of moving towards a more uniform approach, the committee has thus far had little option but to turn a bland face and a deaf ear to student calls for more explicit criteria.

4. DEVELOPMENT OF CAMPUS-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

4.1 Raison d'être

Already in 1977 tentative suggestions were made by staff members for the establishment of "afternoon-sessions" to allow for microteaching, the production of teaching materials, and the practising of teaching methods.[172] A year later funds were made available for the purchase of micro-teaching equipment.[173] With the arrival of this equipment, the incorporation of a micro-teaching programme into teacher training courses came to be regarded as a necessity.

The original intention was to merely incorporate micro-teaching and chalkboard components into the *Educational Technology* - course

which was, at the time, a compulsory subject for BPaed IV-students.[174] But as the new syllabus took form, the need for more far-reaching changes became apparent. The net result of deliberations about these and related matters was a series of modifications to a number of courses. Of special interest for the purposes of this overview were two particular changes :

(a) The establishment of a Department of Didactics, aimed at making Education I, II and III - courses more praxis-oriented,[175] and
(b) the transformation of traditional Teaching Practice programmes into four fully-fledged courses, each one encompassing a campus-based and a school-based programme.[176]

The new structure of Teaching Practice-courses was proposed by the head of the Education Resource Centre. His reasons for the proposed introduction of campus-based programmes were :

(i) to ensure the preparation and guidance of the student teacher for teaching at a much earlier stage than had been done in the past;
(ii) to bridge the gap between theories of instruction and their implementation, i.e. to prevent theoretical components in teacher education courses from "being only loosely bound to, or divorced from, actual teaching situations";
(iii) to avoid situations in which students are suddenly confronted with the classroom situation without adequate preparation.

The course itself was envisaged as taking place "in small group simulated teaching situations, tutorials, observation classrooms, and micro-teaching

contexts." It would include selected extra-mural activities, resource centre activities, drama in Education, and relevant aspects of Educational Technology.[177)]

4.2 Development of campus-based programmes

Early in 1981 a new committee - the Practical Didactics Planning Committee - was created to plan the campus-based programmes that was due to be tried out on final-year students that same year. This committee, under the chairmanship of the head of the Resource Centre, consisted of all tutors involved in school-based Teaching Practice. For a variety of reasons, however, few of the Method-lecturers attended the meetings, causing the planning of modules to be done by a handful of interested members. In addition to regular meetings, the committee also had two large-group meetings with final-year students to discuss the students' ideas about the syllabus for campus-based Teaching Practice.[178)]

Campus programmes were implemented on a full scale from the beginning of 1982. During February of that year two visiting lecturers from Stirling University in the U.K. presented a four-day course in micro-teaching at UD-W. Faculty members reacted enthusiastically to the course, paving the way for the planning committee to incorporate a variety of micro-teaching modules into the campus-based programmes.

Shortly after these events the "old" Teaching Practice committee was disbanded and a new one established, as previously explained. Whether it was due to this change, or to the tutors being bogged down by the implementation of programmes, or other causes, the fact is that meetings

of the original planning committee became more irregular until, towards the end of 1982, this committee fizzled out.

In a sense these developments completed the first phase of campus-based Teaching Practice at UD-W. Early the next year a seminar was held by visiting lecturers from Rhodes University in which micro-teaching and other "mechanical" techniques were severely criticized. This seminar led to a new approach to Teaching Practice which still figures prominently in present programmes. In addition, the head of the Resource Centre left the employment of the University early in 1983, creating fertile ground for a complete renewal of Teaching Practice courses.

Planning came to be the responsibility of the Teaching Practice Committee, with the assistance of course co-ordinators.

4.3 Present structure of the Teaching Practice Committee

At present the Teaching Practice Committee consists of four members : the head of Teaching Practice, two senior faculty members in charge of school-based programmes, and one senior member in charge of campus-based programmes. The head of campus-based programmes makes use of the assistance of three co-ordinators : one for Teaching Practice I, one for Teaching Practice II, and one for the combined course, Teaching Practice III and Teaching Practice for U.H.D.E. Instruction in the use of audio-visual equipment is done by a technical assistant from the Resource Centre. All committee members and course co-ordinators are appointed by the head of Teaching Practice. At infrequent periods -

two or three times per year - meetings are held with tutors to inform them which modules to implement and to orientate them for the course programmes.

4.4 Implementation of programmes

Programmes are annually revised; previous modules are frequently discarded and new ones designed. Although the proportion of time spent on micro-teaching has been reduced to less than 5% of the course,[179] programme - designers have gone to great lengths to make the modules as stimulating and meaningful as possible. All programmes are strongly discussion-centred, and tutors are given much leeway to implement modules in their own way. Their evaluation of students are accepted unquestioningly and at no stage do course co-ordinators or members of the committee interfere with, or "breathe down the neck" of, staff members. Tutors are treated as free and responsible people, well able to implement programmes without being spoon-fed. This policy has led to smoothly running programmes with the minimum of open conflict between tutors.

5. CONSTRAINTS OF THE COURSE

5.1 Time Factors

The amount of time set aside for the presentation of the course is summarized below :

a) BPaed-course

i) Teaching Practice I	APPROX. NO. OF HOURS
School-based programme : two-weeks in January/February of each year	60

	APPROX. NO. OF HOURS
Campus-based programme : one double period of approximately 2 hours each, for 25 weeks per year	50
ii) Teaching Practice II	
As for Teaching Practice I	110
iii) Teaching Practice III	
School-based programme : two block sessions of three weeks each, one in the beginning of the second school-term, and one at the beginning of the third school-term	180
Campus-based programme :	
a) Two double-periods of approx. 2 hours each for 19 weeks per year	76
b) Ten hours of instruction in the use of audio-visual equipment	10
b) U.H.D.E.-course	
School-based programme :	
i) Two weeks in January/February	60
ii) Two block sessions as for Teaching Practice III	180
Campus-based programme :	
As for Teaching Practice III	86
TOTAL NUMBER OF HOURS	326

5.2 Staffing Factors

The staffing situation has already been outlined. All factors outlined in that section can be considered constraints. Distribution of staff members involved in Teaching Practice is shown in Table IX.

	FULL-TIME TUTORS	PART-TIME TUTORS	TOTAL
SCHOOL-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE TOTAL	35	9	44
CAMPUS-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE			
Teaching Practice I	5	-	
Teaching Practice II	11	-	
Teaching Practice III	16	-	
TOTAL			32

TABLE IX : DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF AMONG TEACHING PRACTICE COURSES[180)]

For purposes of this study only the *total* numbers involved (44 and 32) will be regarded as fixed constraints. As set out here, three of the full-time staff members and none of the part-time ones are involved in campus-based programmes. This, too, will be considered as a fixed constraint.

A staffing condition seen as being flexible - thus NOT a constraint - is the division of staff among Teaching Practice I, II and III. This is essentially an internal arrangement, and brings about an unfortunate situation in which only 16-18 tutors (involved in Teaching Practice III) are actually in a position to help students link their campus and school experiences. Consequently, only the total number of tutors participating in campus-based programmes (32) can be accepted as a fixed determinant.

Full-time tutors here indicate members of the faculty employed on a full-time basis, and who are directly involved in Teaching Practice. Part-time tutors are those full-time employed elsewhere - perhaps in other faculties or institutions - who lecture to student teachers on a part-time basis. In actual fact, however, all Teaching Practice tutors work on a part-time basis because they chiefly lecture in other specialized areas within the faculty. This, too, is a serious constraint on the course.

5.3 Facilities

The facilities available to put the course into practice are too many to list here. Theoretically all the facilities on campus- eg. lecture theatres, libraries, offices, etc. - are at the disposal of course developers. There seems to be little point in listing them here.

As far as equipment is concerned, the Education Resource Centre provide access to textbooks, slide shows, video-tapes, wall-charts, a photocopy machine, and other kinds of material normally found in resource centres. Furthermore the Resource Centre has the following equipment available specifically for teacher training :

20	Chalkboard units
12	Overhead projectors
2	Record players
27	Tape recorders
6	Cameras
12	Slide projectors
2	Filmstrip projectors

2	Motion film projectors
6	TV-monitors
6	TV-cameras
5	Video recorders
3	Computers
2	Portable video recorders
1	Spirit duplicator
1	Thermal copier
1	Scanner
1	Photographic laboratory
11	Typewriters

The number of schools available for the placement of students change slightly from year to year. There are at present 44 such schools put at our disposal by the Department of Indian Education : 16 primary schools and 28 secondary schools. Each school can accommodate an average number of six students, although the number varies from school to school.

5.4 Money

It is virtually impossible to make a distinction between finances available for Teaching Practice and those for the faculty as a whole. Moreover, the amounts vary tremendously. Every year the Board of the Faculty of Education submits a detailed budget of projected expenses to Senate, and approval is preceeded by a meticulous examination of each item. Approval is obviously influenced by the financial state of the University as a whole. Thus it would be unrealistic to describe this constraint here. Suffice to state that Senate is unlikely to approve a

sudden sharp increase in expenditure, and recommendations flowing from this research should take cognisance of such a restriction.

5.5 Institutional factors

Most institutional constraints have already been outlined, eg. enrolment figures, regulations of the university, the existing school system, and other bureaucratic necessities.

One fact that has not yet been mentioned concerns the size of the student groups in campus-based Teaching Practice programmes. Apart from the Teaching Practice I - students, all students are divided into groups of approximately 15 students each. The first-year students, however, are divided into three large groups of 40-100 students each, placing severe stresses on this programme.

This brings to the fore another constraint : lecture loads of staff members. The present allocation of workshops to tutors has resulted from a careful scrutiny by the Teaching Practice Committee of the complete lecture loads of each tutor and must therefore be accepted as a reasonable distribution of work among staff. It would be unfair to increase these work-loads of individual tutors, and thus future changes to campus-based programmes should take place within this framework.

There has, however, been a considerable drop in the numbers of students who registered for BPaed courses in 1985. This is due to the fact that fewer teachers are needed to man the Indian schools in South Africa, and this fact will influence future campus- and school-based programmes.

On the other hand, work-loads on staff during school-based programmes do not seem to be unduly heavy. During block sessions, of course, tutors work extremely hard. But the other two-week period when school-based Teaching Practice takes place (January/February) occurs towards the end of a two-month holiday for most tutors. This hardly seems fair on the senior members serving on selection panels and other committees whose holidays are usually cut short from the middle of January. Moreover, this is an internal arrangement and in the past, as we have previously noted, tutors did in fact prepare students for school-based experiences during this time of year. For these reasons it does not seem feasible to accept this arrangement as a fixed constraint on the course.

6. PRESENT STRUCTURE OF THE TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

The curriculum outlined below should be seen against the dynamic background that characterizes all curriculum processes. It is as impossible to describe the real events happening in a course as it is to capture the experiences of a marathon athlete in a single photograph. This is as true of the Teaching Practice course presently operative at UD-W as of courses elsewhere. The campus-based components especially are constantly in a state of flux : many units are planned for the first time shortly before they are presented; others are struck off when unforeseen difficulties arise; some tutors deviate from the programme, etc. Thus it must be admitted that the structure below is not accurate in every detail. It is a conglomeration of what the courses entailed during 1984 and/or 1985, and what could be gleaned from available documents that have been circulated to staff and students during this period. It is here presented merely to provide a working basis and a scheme of reference around which the rest of the investigation can be built.

CURRICULUM FOR TEACHING PRACTICE I, II AND III

6.1 Aims and objectives

No trace could be found of a recent statement of aims *for the course in general*. In the light of this, it seems safe to presume that the aims are still the same as they were when campus-based programmes were proposed in 1980.[181)]

Similarly, the general aims of *school-based Teaching Practice* do not appear to have been communicated recently in writing to either staff or students.

Gradually within each of the programmes statements of *specific aims* have begun to appear. Below is a list of them :

Teaching Practice I - School-based

a) To understand the nature and purpose of a few of the routine tasks of the teacher and to see these as meaningful in the context of the school in particular and Education in general.[182)]

Teaching Practice I - Campus-based

b) To provide students with experiences relating to learning and teaching.

c) To familiarize students with important educational concepts and principles.

d) To enable students to analyse and evaluate learning and teaching.

e) To apply what they have learned to the teaching process.[183)]

Teaching Practice II - School-based

As for Teaching Practice I - School-based.

Teaching Practice II - Campus-based

f) To involve students in learning some of the processes of teaching.[184)]

Teaching Practice III and for UHDE - School-based

Not stated.

Teaching Practice III and for UHDE - Campus-based

The first part of this course (Units 32-36) is aimed at helping students to :

g) Articulate their reasons, often unconscious, which underlie their actions in the classroom and the school.

h) Focus on the nature of schooling.

i) Provide a basis for self-awareness and self-evaluation.

j) See theory and practice as a unity.

k) Work together in groups and thus learn something of the dynamics of group work.

l) Plan, design, teach, evaluate and redesign a lesson.

m) Focus on that special relationship between teacher and pupil.[185)]

The objectives of the course appear in Table X, at the end of this chapter.

6.2 Learning sequences

As set out in Table X.

6.3 Course Content

As set out in Table X.

6.4 Teaching Strategies

As set out in Table X.

6.5 Evaluation of students

As set out in Table X.

6.6 Strategies for improvement

The details of these strategies have already been given under the heading *Present structure of the Teaching Practice Committee.*[186)]

Curriculum for Teaching Practice (U.H.D.E.)

This curriculum entails a selection of certain units from Teaching Practice I, II and III. The following units are presented to U.H.D.E.-students :

Units 1-9
Unit 16 and
Units 32-40

In addition, Units 14 and 15 appear in a slightly modified form. The objectives and learning sequences of these units in the U.H.D.E.-curriculum are :

Unit 14

Prepare and teach *four* lessons with the assistance of the class teacher - 16 hours.

Unit 15

Observe *ten* lessons and write comments about some of them - 16 hours.

This brings the total number of hours devoted to the school-based programme to 240 hours, and the campus-based programme to 76 hours - in all, an estimated number of *316 hours* for Teaching Practice (U.H.D.E.) as a whole.

7. EVALUATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Using the criteria laid down in Chapter 2, it is possible to speculate about the relative strengths and weaknesses of the current curriculum.

7.1 Professional relevance

Although there are no signs of CBTE techniques in the curriculum, some characteristics of the Humanistic Approach are noticeable in Units 32 to 37. However, two factors are likely to hamper the beneficial application of the Humanistic Approach in these units :

a) Only two of the techniques of this approach - exposing the students to ideas about teaching, and continuous assessment - figure in these units. The other three fundamental requirements - active involvement in schools at every stage of the programme, the circulation of a weekly calendar of events to staff, and the allocation of *the same students to one particular tutor* for the duration of his/her teacher training - are not fulfilled.

b) There is not a parallel academic support programme to train tutors for this approach. Only one of the eighteen tutors who put these units into practice has qualifications in psychology. As stated previously, the whole success of humanistic programmes depends on the ability of tutors to apply Rogerian psychological principles.

Considering these factors, as well as the fact that in approximately 90% of the curriculum neither CBTE nor the Humanistic Approach figures, the curriculum seems to reveal a *low level of professional relevance.*

7.2 Didactic relevance

Of the twelve didactically-relevant topics that warrant inclusion in the curriculum, ten are partially represented. It could therefore be concluded that the curriculum reveals *a medium level of didactic relevance*.

The topics and sub-topics that have been omitted are :

a) Stating behavioural objectives[187)]
b) Conducting excursions
c) Drawing up Schemes of Work
d) Applying the following teaching methods : demonstration, games, groupwork, guided discussion, narration, programmed instruction, questioning, and role play
e) Producing and/or using the following instructional media : audio learning materials, the chalkboard, models, overhead projectors, transparencies, pictures and graphics, slides and slide-shows, textbooks, and worksheets
f) Teaching concepts meaningfully
g) Evaluating pupils

This aspect will be further discussed under the heading *Practical propensity*.

7.3 Curricular relevance

If we use the developmental level or completeness of the various features in each unit as a guide to determine curricular relevance, the following points seem justifiable :

7.3.1 Aims and objectives

The failure to state general aims have resulted in specific aims being vague, repetitive and long-winded. Both general and specific aims deserve closer attention. A clear distinction between the aims of the various programmes could also be of great benefit in providing participants with a stronger sense of direction.

It stands to the credit of planners that more than half of the units are accompanied by statements of objectives. Those units for which objectives have not yet been stated - especially Units 17-22 - are parts of the course that have only recently been introduced and are still being developed.

7.3.2 Course content

This feature of the curriculum is well planned. Despite the many difficulties encountered by course developers, they have succeeded in planning a theme for each unit.

7.3.3 Teaching strategies

Out of the 40 units there are 33 for which teaching strategies have been designed. Those for which strategies are still lacking are mostly the ones that have recently been incorporated into the curriculum.

7.3.4 Evaluation of students

As might be expected from the handicaps wrought by an incomplete statement of aims and objectives, evaluation planning procedures are arbitrary. It

seems as if student performances are evaluated in only six-and-a-half units, which could mean that *in 90% of the course attendance is the only criterion used to assess students' teaching ability*. Thus, while emphasis is placed on course content and teaching strategies the evaluation component is inadequately developed. This component, which is of over-riding concern in determining the reliability of the whole curriculum, deserves rigorous restructuring.

All in all about 40% of the unit features discussed above are well - developed, while about 60% are still in an undeveloped state. This indicates a *medium level of curricular relevance.*

7.3.5 Strategies for improvement

This feature will be discussed more fully under criteria of democratic-design. Here it may be sufficient to note that current strategies seem counteractive to the emergence of a well-constructed curriculum. *Different* course co-ordinators and committee members work independently of one another in designing *different* parts of the curriculum. This might well lead - and indications are that it did - to compartementalization with its well-known defects : duplication and omission of topics that cause the whole curriculum to be developed in an accidental manner.

7.4 Linkage between campus-based and school-based programmes

The connection between students' campus activities and school experiences appear to be *of a very low level*. With the possible exception of two units (14 and 16), none of the activities students are required to do at school is preceded by preparation on campus. Instead, class teachers

are expected to teach students - a duty for which they are not prepared, qualified, or paid.

Even in units 14 and 16 the linkage is weak. In Unit 14 a two-minute sequence of one of the student's 30 lessons is used (with ±14 other two-minute sequences) as stimulus material in a two-hour workshop. Unit 16 is rooted in principles laid down by Method lecturers, effectively blocking the application of skills obtained from campus-based programmes. Anyway, school-based programmes are usually presented by different tutors than campus-based programmes, making it difficult for students and tutors to link the two.

7.5 Constraints

Since the curriculum is currently in use, the constraints have obviously being taken into account. From this angle the curriculum is of a very high level.

7.6 Practical propensity

To justify claims that the curriculum shows *a low level of practicality* - i.e. makes little provision for practising real teaching skills - a few observations seem relevant : In only four units - 14, 16, 29 and 36 - are the students required to practice real teaching skills, while in the majority of objectives they are merely expected to describe procedures. Although it is obviously unrealistic to demand a behavioural objective from each unit - many skills being too complex for such a mechanistic approach - a preponderance of discussions, reading assignments and descriptions gives this curriculum the appearance of being abstract,

theoretical and rather irrational. It seems ludicrous, for instance, to allow a student four hours for describing the filling in of a register, while only two hours are allocated for mastering the skill of classroom management.

It is also debatable whether the teaching strategies being employed are stimulating enough; the campus-based programmes indicate an over-emphasis of discussion techniques which could make the course tedious.

Impractical elements such as these are to be expected from a newly-designed course; course material is still being developed and pressing demands from students already in the pipeline leave little time for designing stimulating units. Nevertheless it seems desirable to work towards a curriculum that is more practical in its objectives, content, and teaching strategies.

7.7 Democratic design of product

Considering that the curriculum has been designed by a number of tutors, the product can be said to be democratically designed, but only to a *low degree*. Opinions of students and school authorities have not explicitly been taken into account, and the majority of tutors had no part in planning the campus-based curriculum. Again there are good reasons for these developments : time was of the utmost importance; to have involved large numbers of participants would have been so cumbersome that it would have delayed rather than assisted the process. Besides, it is more meaningful to consult students and tutors *after* they have experienced the course in action than *before*. Now that the course has been implemented for a few years the time seems to be propitious for a more democratically-designed curriculum.

7.8 Democratic design of process

Existing strategies for an improvement of the curriculum leave little room for the views of tutors to be taken into account. The fact that only the Teaching Practice committee and course co-ordinators are officially responsible for developing the curriculum, leaves 80% of the tutors who are actively involved in the course without official channels to make their opinions heard. The net result of this could be :

a) a lethargic attitude of many tutors towards the course which inevitably rubs off on students, and
b) an inferior curriculum because many excellent ideas are never heard.

To enable tutors to become more involved and experience the excitement that accompanies real growth, provision needs to be made for a more democratic process of curriculum improvement.

8. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The foregoing depicts the main developments of Teaching Practice at UD-W from 1961 to 1985. These developments reveal many positive elements. The faculty has been fortunate in securing a large number of academics with advanced qualifications and strong beliefs in Education. This is the key to the success that have been achieved in the Teaching Practice area. In contrast to many other universities where tutors who handle Teaching Practice are scattered across a variety of faculties, the educationists at UD-W work together in a single faculty as one co-operative

team. Under this arrangement Teaching Practice has become a central concern of all. More time is allocated to this subject than to any other course offered to student teachers. In 1982 a viable campus-based programme has been introduced in which three-quarters of staff members are actively involved. The course is thriving. Regular symposia and support programmes for tutors take place. Programmes for students are constantly being revised and replaced by improved ones. All in all, a sound foundation and organizational system has been created to ensure the continued growth of a robust and superior Teaching Practice curriculum.

Handicaps wrought by the rapid development of the course entail voids in the curriculum, insufficient linkage between school - and campus-based programmes, and the non-observance of certain democratic principles. Superimposed on the above limitations are uncertainties arising from the pending reduction of student numbers in the immediate future. These are the critical areas that seem to need serious consideration if UD-W is to maintain and improve academic competence in the field of Teaching Practice.

A. SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMMES

OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES	COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS	
	Estimated no. of contact time allowed for activity			Expected no. of pages of written assignment resulting from activity	Form of assessment of assignment and/or performance
1. Describe the system used in the school for the control of registers, pupil absenteeism, late arrival and pupils' excuse.	4	Registers and related matters	Interviewing (of teachers) Written assignments	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
2. State the value of assemblies and how they are arranged in terms of time and frequency, organization of pupils and staff, procedure and content.	4	Assemblies and related matters	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
3. Describe the responsibilities attached to teacher duties regarding play-ground and lunch time, relief teaching, tuckshop, and road safety.	2	Playground duties and related matters	Interviewing Written assignments	½	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
4. Describe the responsibilities attached to teacher duties regarding sport activities.	4	Sport duties	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
5. Describe the responsibilities attached to teacher duties regarding school societies and clubs.	2	Societies and clubs	Interviewing Written assignments	½	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
6. Describe the organizational procedures involved in the acquisition and control of school stock. viz. pupils textbooks, the stationery, and other consumable items.	4	School stock	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
7. Explain the place of Journals, Schemes of Work and Preparation Books in the class teacher's planning	2	Journals and other preparation books	Interviewing Written assignment	½	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.

TABLE X : CURRICULUM FOR TEACHING PRACTICE IN THE B.PAED-COURSE, 1984-1985

OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES	COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS	
	Estimated no. of hours of contact time allowed for activity			Expected no. of pages of written assignment resulting from activity	Form of assessment of assignment and/or performance
8. Tape one lesson and transcribe the first 5-6 minutes word for word.	2	Lesson transcription	Using the tape recorder Written assignment Experimentation	2	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
9. Describe the services available for staff in the school's Resource Centre.	4	School Resource Centre	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
10. Describe the way in which educational excursions are organized by the school	2	Excursions and related matters	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
11. Describe how class tests are organized, administered, marked, and followed up.	2	Tests	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
12. Describe the system of examining used in the school.	2	Examination system	Interviewing Written assignment	1	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
13. Select any three pupils and observe them in the classroom for a minimum of four periods.	10	Observation of pupils	Observation Written assignment	3	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
14. Prepare and teach fourteen lessons with the assistance of the class teacher.	42	Lesson preparation Presentation of lessons	Interviewing Written assignments Experimentation and practice	3	First four lessons scanned only. One of the last ten lessons is later used as stimulus material during campus-based group-discussions.
15. Observe 30 lessons and write comments about some of them.	36	Lesson observation	Observation Written assignment	3	Tutor scans assignment. No grading.
16. Prepare and teach a minimum of 84 lessons on principles laid down by relevant Method lecturers	180	Lesson preparation Presentation of lessons	Experimentation	±84 but varies	Approx. 12 lessons are observed and evaluated by tutors. Half of them are not graded. Other half are graded in percentages.
TOTAL NO. OF HOURS SCHOOL-BASED	302				

TABLE X (CONT) CURRICULUM FOR TEACHING PRACTICE IN THE BPAED-COURSE, 1984-85

B. CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMMES

OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES	COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS	
	Estimated no. of hours of contact time allowed for activity			Expected no. of pages of written assignment resulting from activity	Forms of assessment of assignment and/or performance
17. Not stated	2	Introducing T.P. I	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
18. Not stated	12	The lesson as a learning unit	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
19. Not stated	6	Conceptual learning	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
20. Not stated	6	The learning of skills	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
21. Not stated	10	Learning and teaching in a context	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
22. Not stated	2	Review of T.P. I	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
23. Not stated	2	Review of school-based experiences	Discussion	Not stated	Not stated
24. Not stated	2	Class Management	Reading of lesson transcript Role Play Groupwork Discussion	2	Not stated
25. Not stated	2	Students' lesson given during observation sch.	OHP and Transparencies Discussion	1	Not stated
26. Not stated	2	Improving lessons	OHP and Transparencies	Nil	Not stated
27. Not stated	2	Teaching Styles	Videotapes of real teaching Discussion	Not stated	Not stated
28. Not stated	2	Teaching a craft	Discussion	Not stated	Not stated
29. Prepare and teach 5 minute mini-lessons	18	Presentation of mini-lessons	Micro-teaching	Nil	Not stated, but tutors are verbally requested to assess mini-lessons in percentages
30. Not stated	2	Optional-students choose one or more topics	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
31. Not stated	2	Evaluation of T.P. II	Written assignment	Not stated	Not stated

TABLE X (CONT) : CURRICULUM OF TEACHING PRACTICE IN BPAED-COURSE, 1984-85

B. CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMMES (CONT.)

OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES	COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS	
	Estimated no. of hours of contact time allowed for activity			Expected no. of pages of written assignment resulting from activity	Form of assessment of assignment and or performance
32. Not stated	4	Orientation to T.P. Getting to know you	Dyadic groupwork Discussion	1	Formal grading
33. Not stated	4	Exploring personal values	Film : "A Man for all seasons" Discussion of film	1	Formal grading
34. Not stated	4	Education goes to school	Reading assignment Film : "To Sir with Love". Discussion	1	Formal grading
35. Not stated	4	Problems and solutions	Reading assignment Film : Exploring chemistry Videos of student-teachers in the classroom. Discussion.	1	Formal grading
36. Prepare together in a group one or more lessons which someone will teach to the group.	20	Preparing to teach Aims Behavioural objectives	Reading assignment Worksheet Discussion Experimentation Microteaching	5	Formal grading
37. Reflect on relationships between and among members in groups.	4	Relationships between people PGR factor	Worksheets Discussion Picture of people Reading assignment	1	Formal grading
38. Gain the necessary expertise in the use of audio-visual materials for teaching.	10	Overhead projector Spirit duplicator Thermal copier Producing transparencies Producing charts Tape Recorders Episcopes Filmstrip projectors	Demonstration Reading assignments Lecturing	Not stated	Students produce a portfolio of audio-visual materials. How and whether this will be assessed is not stated.
39. Evaluate school-based teaching practice experiences	2	Evaluation of school experiences	Symposium	Nil	Nil
40. Not stated	24	Optional : Drama and Speech in Ed Resource Centre Management and Photography Sports/Games Computers in Education	Not stated	Not stated	Not stated
TOTAL NO. OF HOURS CAMPUS-BASED	148				
TOTAL NO. OF HOURS TEACHING PRACTICE	450				

TABLE X (CONT) : CURRICULUM FOR TEACHING PRACTICE IN THE BPAED-COURSE 1984-85

CHAPTER 4

THE STRUCTURE OF TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULA OFFERED AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS

1. INTRODUCTION

In order to construct a curriculum which would encapsulate the views of different groups, the main task involved is obviously to establish what these views are. The next four chapters will be devoted to this task. As such the main body of research results obtained during the investigation will be divided into four categories : views about Teaching Practice held by :

a) teacher educators at other institutions,

b) school authorities,

c) students, and

d) tutors.

To clear confusion about what should and should not be included in a Teaching Practice curriculum, the report of data received will, in each instance, culminate in the presentation of a Model Curriculum. It is hoped that each one of the four Model Curricula will, in a schematic way, reflect the views of the majority of respondents from that particular group. With these Model Curricula serving as drafts, attempts will be made - in final chapters of the text - to design the blueprint of a Teaching Practice curriculum consisting of a workable combination of the drafts.

The key question with which we are concerned in this chapter is : What is the typical structure of a Teaching Practice curriculum in a typical course? It might be objected that usage of the term "typical" in this question is arbitrary; indeed, that it rests on the bogus assumption

that such a "typical institution" does exist. In our present frame of reference such an objection is seen as hair-splitting. The whole chapter is based on a full awareness that each curriculum at each institution has been uniquely designed by a unique group of people. This awareness, however, does not detract from the fact that the term "typical" can still be fruitfully used in a hypothetical sense for argument's sake. It is used here to indicate how world trends in teacher education generally manifest themselves in teacher training situations, and to help the researcher identify which activities are at present given priority at a certain number of teacher training institutions.

The chapter will commence with an overview of the nature of the survey, followed by a description of the institutions in the sample. Current practices at these institutions will be reported in the section *Nature of Teaching Practice courses* while the rest of the chapter will be devoted to a presentation of the first Model Curriculum and a critical analysis of this model.

2. NATURE OF SURVEY

The survey consisted of a questionnaire (See Appendix 1) that was distributed to 100 universities outside South Africa, and 115 teacher training institutions inside South Africa.

2.1 Basis of selection

2.1.1 Institutions outside South Africa

Care was taken to resort to a *random sampling* of universities in Europe,

the United Kingdom, and the United States of America. Since academics from these areas seem to take leading roles in the development of teacher education, 90% of the questionnaires in this section were equally distributed to them, i.e. 30% to each region.

Below is a list of countries in Europe to which questionnaires were sent. The number of questionnaires forwarded to universities in the respective countries appears in brackets :

Austria	(1)	Germany	(1)	Netherlands	(3)
Belguim	(4)	Greece	(1)	Spain	(1)
Bulgaria	(1)	Hungary	(1)	Sweden	(3)
Denmark	(3)	Italy	(1)	Switzerland	(2)
France	(3)	Luxembourg	(1)		

Universities in the U.K. and the U.S.A. were selected on a random basis from lists of all the universities in those regions, although in the U.S.A. not more than one university/college per state was selected.

The other 10% of questionnaires to countries abroad were distributed randomly to universities in the following countries :

Australia	(1)	New Zealand	(1)
Finland	(1)	Pakistan	(1)
India	(2)	U.S.S.R.	(1)
Israel	(1)	Canada	(1)
Japan	(1)		

2.1.2 Institutions inside South Africa

Questionnaires were sent to all universities and teacher training colleges in the Republic that could be traced, as well as to those in the neighbouring states of Ciskei, Gazankulu, KwaZulu, Lebowa, Namibia, Transkei, and Venda.

2.2 Modus operandus

Before the questionnaires were distributed, they were scrutinized by the Director of the Institute for Social and Economic Research, UD-W, who recommended certain changes. Then a pilot study was conducted to identify and eliminate or improve questions that were poorly phrased. In August 1984 the improved versions of the questionnaire were posted, each one accompanied by an example of a completed questionnaire to assist completion. To further facilitate a high response rate, the purpose and scope of the project was explained in a covering letter, and all respondents were promised copies of the raw results.

Completed questionnaires were received during the course of the next eight months, and in May 1985 the raw results were forwarded to respondents.

2.3 Format of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of 28 questions and was divided into a Part One and Part Two. Part One contained eight questions aimed at establishing the nature of programmes with which the average student teacher is prepared for practical teaching skills. The Part Two was

constructed specifically to elicit responses that would be useful in designing a model curriculum containing the curriculum features outlined in Chapter 2.

During the pilot study it was found that the questionnaire took 60-90 minutes to complete. Question 25, in which respondents were requested to complete a course content grid, was thought to be especially time-consuming to answer. Nevertheless the question was retained since it constituted a crucial part of the research project. To encourage completion of this item, the question was accompanied by clear instructions and an Appendix in which terms were described in greater detail.

In addition to the above documents, self-addressed envelopes and postage stamps for returning completed questionnaires were forwarded to each addressee.

2.4 Response rate

2.4.1 Institutions from outside South Africa

Out of the 100 questionnaires distributed to countries outside of South Africa, 25 were returned, but since five of these were returned incomplete, the effective response rate for questionnaires in this category was 20%.

Completed questionnaires were received from the following institutions :

Australia	:	University of Queensland
Canada	:	University of Toronto
Finland	:	University of Tampere
Switzerland	:	University de Fribourg

United Kingdom :	University of Cambridge
	University of Cardiff
	University of Durham
	University of Hull
	University of Leicester
	University of Liverpool
	University of Manchester
	University of Stirling
	University of Warwick
United States of :	University of Alabama
America	University of Arkansas
	University of Washington
	Dakota State College
	Iowa State University
	Jersey City State College
	Kearny State College

It will be noted that the poorest response rate came from Universities in Europe : only one of the 30 questionnaires forwarded to this region (3%) was completed. The second lowest response rate was that of universities/colleges in the U.S.A.; seven of the 30 (23%) were returned. Universities in the United Kingdom and in other parts of the world (excluding Europe and the U.S.A.) showed the highest response rates : 30% in both instances.

Three of the questionnaires that were returned uncompleted were accompanied by letters explaining that their non-response was based on a disagreement with South Africa's racial policies. It seems reasonable

to suppose that quite a number of other non-respondents witheld co-operation on the same grounds without making their reasons explicit.

According to the Research Institute at UD-W, the normal response rate to questionnaires is ±27%. If we assume that at least seven of the 80 non-respondents withheld responses on the grounds of non-cooperation with South Africa, the actual response rate of 20% to this questionnaire would appear to be adequate.

2.4.2 Institutions from inside South Africa

Out of the 115 questionnaires forwarded to teacher training institutions inside South Africa, 39 were returned; of these, 32 were completed and seven uncompleted. This shows an effective response rate of 28%.

The following institutions returned completed questionnaires :

Universities inside South Africa :

Cape Town	Port Elizabeth
Durban-Westville	Pretoria
Fort Hare	Rhodes
Natal (Durban)	Witwatersrand
Natal (Pietermaritzburg)	Zululand
Orange Free State	

Colleges of Education :

Amanzimtoti
Bloemfontein
C.F.F.T.
C.N. Phatudi
Durban
Edgewood
Eshowe
Kwena Moloto
Madadeni
Modjadji
Okakarara
Ongwediva
Oudtshoorn
Potchefstroom
Pretoria
Southern Cape
Soweto
Springfield
Transvaal
Venda
W.B. Rubusana

Considering that 11 of the 18 South African universities completed questionnaires, the response rate from this source (61%) was extremely encouraging. Only one of the non-respondents from this category - the University of Stellenbosch - supplied a reason for not responding, stating that they found it "impossible to complete a questionnaire of this nature."

In contrast to the universities, the response rate from Colleges of Education was disappointingly low - only 21 from a total of 97 completed questionnaires, viz. 22%. A possible explanation for this is that colleges are apparantly more subject to bureaucratic control. Six of the seven questionnaires that were returned uncompleted contained notes explaining that rectors were not permitted to complete questionnaires without the prior consent of a higher authority. Colleges in the Cape Province appear to be particularly tied to this policy; only two of its 20 colleges participated in the survey. So much for academic freedom!

2.5 Limitations of the survey

The drawbacks of relying exclusively on data obtained from questionnaires are well documented; there seems to be little point in repeating them in detail here. In essence the shortcomings of this method are the same as those of all quantitative methods, as stated in Chapter 1 : it is mechanistic, stultifying, and insufficient in giving researchers an accurate picture of the real situation. Neither can one deny that subjective value-judgements creep into items which often begs the question, as well as in the analysis of data. In addition there are the problems of representativeness and generalizability. These and other disturbing weaknesses underscore the need for viewing the results with caution, and of retaining a reasonable degree of skepticism regarding conclusions drawn.

The major weakness in this particular questionnaire was probably its length. There can be little doubt that the size of the questionnaire (19 pages) was one of the strongest factors that contributed to the low response rate. Although much time and energy was consumed in efforts to cut down on the number of questions, the scope of the survey may have been too ambitious to do justice to the validity of results. If, for instance, the survey was restricted to an investigation of *postgraduate* or *primary school* teaching courses only, the questionnaire would have been shorter, the response rate possibly higher, and the results possibly more reliable.

Perhaps the length of the questionnaire was the main cause of another limitation, namely the paucity of qualitative data obtained. Despite

ample space being provided for personal, open-ended comments, few respondents utilized this space. One might speculate that the psychological effect of filling in such a demanding and time-consuming questionnaire was that it inhibited free responses.

2.6 Positive features of the survey

The questionnaire provided the researcher with a wealth of valuable data. Questions in Part One succeeded in eliciting information regarding a diverse number of teacher education courses which facilitated the identification of similarities as well as differences of practices in the various institutions. Without this information it would have been impossible to interpret Part Two meaningfully. More important, it would have created an artificial situation in which the subject Teaching Practice would have been researched in isolation rather than in the context of teacher education courses as a whole.

The fact that the questionnaire was directed at a variety of target groups may have had an adverse effect on the response rate, but it did yield a wide range of data in a relatively short period of time. If different questionnaires were sent to different target groups - one examining only post-graduate courses, another only primary teaching courses, etc. - it would have necessitated distributing at least two sets of questionnaires. This would have added to the costs, administrative work and duration of the research.

The questions in Part Two were not merely aimed at gathering information about Teaching Practice courses generally, but about Teaching Practice

as relevant to this particular project. They were carefully constructed to ensure that data from this survey would lend themselves to linkage with data from other surveys included in the project. Thus the survey fulfilled a vital role in the investigation.

Finally, the survey provided positive proof of UD-W's desire to alleviate the all-too-familiar problem of teacher training institutions operating in isolation from one another. By demonstrating a willingness to learn from the experiences of other teacher educators, this survey acted as a bridge-builder between UD-W and a large number of parallel institutions elsewhere.

2.7 Statistical procedures used

Due to the fact that this is only ONE of the four surveys conducted in the course of the whole project, statistical procedures had to be kept fairly uncomplicated. To prevent the results from being out-dated before they are published, quick processing of results was necessary. In any event, it has never been the purpose of this survey to give a detailed account of teacher education courses elsewhere. The prime objective has merely been to try and identify general patterns in the Teaching Practice programmes at institutions in the sample.

It needs to be stressed that the findings in this survey hold no claims of being universally valid or representative of the majority of teacher training institutions. Should this survey be repeated, the results may very well be quite different. All that can rightfully be claimed is that in this survey these particular practices appear to take place in

these particular institutions. And on the strength of arguments previously lodged in this text, some of these practices should, at the end of the study, be incorporated into the recommended Teaching Practice curriculum.

Keeping these realities in mind, the data obtained from 52 institutions in the sample were classified into appropriate categories, and the averages calculated. In cases where a respondent omitted to answer a question, only the responses of those who did answer the question were taken into account. Special attention will be drawn to questions answered by an unduly low percentage of respondents.

Problems related to weighting necessitated a number of arbitrary decisions. Should data from institutions outside South Africa be given the same weighting as those from institutions inside South Africa? It is realistic to give the same weighting to *university* and *college* programmes? Should some colleges - notably black ones - where the quality of teacher training appears to be lower, be given less weighting than others?

After much deliberation it was decided to merely divide the data into two main categories : data from institutions outside South Africa and data from institutions inside South Africa. In the final analysis these two were given equal weighting. It was felt that this procedure will enable course developers to reap the benefits of trends prevailing in more developed countries without giving the Institutional Curriculum Model an un-South African character.

No other distinctions were made : university and college programmes were all treated alike; "black" and "white" institutions were given equal consideration; etc. When feasible, responses were further categorized (eg. into final-year-courses and non final-year-courses) but on the whole subdivisions were kept to the minimum. In this way it was hoped to present the results as clearly and straight-forward as possible.

In conclusion the reader's attention is drawn to a report-writing technique which could be misleading : In order to avoid repeating the phrase "(institutions) *included in the sample*" continuously, these institutions are simply referred to as "institutions", "universities", "colleges", etc. This could create the impression that the writer is generalizing beyond the data, i.e. that reference is made to *all* institutions, universities, etc., when this is not the case. It is just a technique used to prevent the report from becoming too tedious and bulky. Therefore, whenever reference to these terms is made in this chapter, please add mentally "included in the sample."

3. DESCRIPTION OF INSTITUTIONS IN THE SAMPLE

The information in this section was obtained from responses to the first 15 questions in the questionnaire (See Appendix 1). The section's main function is to report these responses and to use them to substantiate assumptions of what typical teacher education courses appear to consist of, judging from the 52 examples in the sample.

3.1 Size of institutions

A rough estimate of the size of a typical teacher training institution can be made on information received about the numbers of tutors, students, and equipment in various institutions.

3.1.1 Numbers of tutors

Responses showed that the numbers of full-time tutors/lecturers at teacher training institutions range from 3 to 160, while that of part-time tutors range from 0 to 85. If one accepts the notion that the workload of two part-time tutors is roughly equivalent to the workload of one full-time tutor (and I realize that this is open to question), *the average number of tutors at institutions outside S.A. appears to be 43 and at institutions inside S.A., 29.*

3.1.2 Numbers of students

Student teachers taking courses at institutions vary in numbers from about 152 to about 2660. Using the same formula for part-time students as we did above for part-time tutors, it seems as if *a typical institution outside S.A. caters for approximately 684 students compared to an approximate number of 772 at institutions inside S.A.*

3.1.3 Tutor : Student-Ratio

Using the above information as a basis, *the average number of students per tutor is approximately 16 at institutions abroad, and 25 at institutions in S.A.*

3.1.4 Equipment

Table XI shows the average numbers of items of equipment reported to be available specifically for the purpose of helping student teachers to develop teaching skills, at each institution.

TYPE OF EQUIPMENT	OUTSIDE S.A.	INSIDE S.A.	OVERALL AVERAGE
Chalkboard units	25	22	24
O.H.P.	15	19	17
Record players	5	4	5
Tape recorders	19	14	17
Cameras	6	3	5
Slide projectors	7	7	7
Filmstrip projectors	6	4	5
Motion film projectors	5	4	5
TV - monitors	7	5	6
TV - cameras	4	3	4
Video recorders	5	4	5
Computers	17	5	11

TABLE XI AVERAGE NUMBER OF ITEMS OF EQUIPMENT

Probably the most obvious conclusion one can draw from all the data presented above is that the average institutions outside S.A. apparently has more tutors to teach fewer students using more equipment than the average institution inside S.A. Especially conspicuous is the large number of computers overseas institutions seem to have at their disposal But even in other kinds of equipment they appear to be better off. Only one type of equipment is seemingly used more in S.A. than in other parts of the world, viz. Overhead Projectors.

3.2 General nature of teacher education courses

To save space the data obtained in responses to Question 8 have been summarized in Table XII.

The results contained in this table offer evidence of four trends that appear to be equally strong at institutions inside *and* outside South Africa : the average duration of postgraduate courses is one year (Item 1), the number of final year students in the most popular courses is about 228 (Item 5), the amount of contact time that post-graduate students have with tutors on campus is approximately 15-16 hours per week (Item 9 (a)), and most institutions seem to be geared most strongly towards the training of secondary school teachers (Items 6 and 7).

P.T.O./TABLE XII

ITEM	OUTSIDE S.A.	INSIDE S.A.	OVERALL AVERAGE
1. Average duration of post-graduate course	1 year	1 year	1 year
2. Average duration of undergraduate or diploma course	4 years	3 years	3,5 years
3. Percentage of institutions catering mainly for POST-GRADUATE student teachers	53%	17%	35%
4. Percentage of institutions catering mainly for DIPLOMA OR UNDERGRADUATE student teachers	45%	85%	65%
5. Average number of final year students in the most popular course	227	228	228
6. Percentage of institutions mainly preparing PRIMARY SCHOOL teachers	21%	36%	29%
7. Percentage of institutions mainly preparing SECONDARY SCHOOL teachers	68%	61%	64%
8. Percentage of institutions preparing ±equal numbers of Primary and Secondary school teachers	11%	3%	7%
9. Average amounts of time students attend lectures per week :			
a) Postgraduate students	16 hours	15 hours	15,5 hours
b) First-year students	18 hours	25 hours	21,5 hours
c) Second-year students	18 hours	25 hours	21 hours
d) Third-vear students	17 hours	23 hours	20 hours
e) Fourth-year students	15 hours	19 hours	17,5 hours
f) Mean/Average	17 hours	21,2 hrs	19,1 hours
10. Average duration of one lecture period	50 min	40 min	45 min
11. Average number of year-courses (subjects) in postgraduate diploma-courses	5,7	9,3	7,5
12. Average number of year-courses in undergraduate degree/diploma courses :			
a) First year of study	5,7	8,6	7,2
b) Second year of study	5,5	7,4	6,5
c) Third year of study	4,2	6	5,1
d) Fourth year of study	4	5,7	4,9
e) Average total	19,4	27,7	23,6
13. Average number of different subjects in undergraduate courses	11	13,1	12,1

TABLE XII : GENERAL NATURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION COURSES

Two prevailing practices in teacher education appear to be somewhat different here than abroad. First, the duration of diploma and/or undergraduate courses is on the average shorter at institutions in South Africa than elsewhere (Item 2). Second, a higher percentage of overseas students appears to take post-graduate courses than they do here (Items 3 and 4). These apparent differences can be partly explained by the fact that the sample from inside South Africa contains a higher proportion of colleges (as opposed to universities) than the one from abroad. However they do suggest two realities :

(a) *diploma-courses at teacher colleges in South Africa are considerably shorter than degree-courses in teaching*, even though both train students to teach the same target groups of children, and

(b) *post-graduate courses are at least as important as undergraduate courses*, judging from current practices in teacher training institutions.

Of the many questions raised by teacher education courses, one of crucial importance is : How does the average student spend his/her time on campus? In this regard the survey showed up significant differences. Not only do teacher education courses abroad seemingly require of students to pass a *lower* number of subjects (Item 11 and 12), but they also offer students less contact time with lecturers (except for post-graduate students; see Item 9): This *might* indicate that South African institutions allow too much time for students to be spoonfed and too little for independent study. At Black institutions this tendency appears to be particularly strong. In the breakdown of responses received from Black institutions, White colleges, White universities, and institutions abroad (See Appendix II, Table A), the data show marked differences between institutions catering mainly

for Blacks and other institutions. Compared to the approximately 20 year-courses students at other institutions are on average required to pass to qualify as teachers, Black students need to pass an average of 34 year-courses. This despite the fact that courses for Black students are a year shorter than the others. One important conclusion could be that Black student teachers seem to spend much more time studying and preparing for examinations than, for instance, White students do. Considering the nature of examinations, this could mean an overemphasis on theoretical knowledge as opposed to practical ability - a suspicion that seems to be confirmed by the almost staggering amount of contact time Black students apparently have with lecturers (an average of 30 hours per week).

3.3 The place of Teaching Practice in teacher education courses

One of the disappointments of the survey was that it failed to establish the place of Teaching Practice in typical teacher education courses. This was partly due to inadequacies in the questionnaire, and partly to the terminological confusion prevalent in teacher educational circles. Every institution seems to call subjects in which teaching skills are taught on campus by different names. Neither did it prove helpful to ask respondents to identify subjects that are specifically aimed at helping students to develop *practical* teaching skills; many pointed out that all subjects are directed at this aim. Yet when one scrutinizes the subjects offered, most appear to be extremely theoretical, eg. Education, History, English usage, Religious Instruction, etc.

In the final analysis the vast majority (75%) of institutions do not

seem to offer anything similar to what is known at UD-W as campus-based Teaching Practice. Judging from the names of subjects, only 20% of institutions outside South Africa and 31% inside South Africa offer seemingly praxis-orientated subjects like Micro-teaching, Educational Technology, Classroom Practice, Teaching Proficiency, Chalkboard, Praktikum, etc. Yet since names of subjects is a poor basis for drawing conclusions about content, this information is relatively meaningless. Until further research reveals more information about the actual course content of subjects offered at institutions, the place of campus-based Teaching Practice in teacher education courses remains obscure.

On the matter of school-based Teaching Practice there is more agreement. Apart from one correspondence college, all institutions offer such programmes. It is perhaps fair to say that all teacher educators regard this part of teacher education courses as being of vital importance. Lacking details about the time-periods allocated to the various subjects, however, it was not possible to determine the percentage of time allocated to school-based Teaching Practice.

4. NATURE OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSES

Whereas it was difficult to ascertain in which *subjects* practical teaching skills are taught, much data were obtained regarding *current practices* aimed at helping students to master such skills. This data, classified into sections previously outlined, are presented on the next page.

4.1 Aims and objectives

In order to achieve high quality responses without overwhelming respondents with complex questions, a list of possible objectives was attached to each questionnaire. Respondents were requested to indicate which of these form part and parcel of their curricula (See Appendix 1, Question 25A). It was taken for granted that all practical teaching skills of which the *theoretical aspects* are presented to students are in fact objectives of Teaching Practice. In addition to these *given* objectives, respondents were required to inform us of any *other* objectives (Questions 17, 18, 19 and 26). The results below contain information that could be gleaned from responses to these questions.

4.1.1 Integrated skills

A large number of respondents - 60% from abroad and 38% from S.A. - made mention of the fact that skills in the given list are seldom or never taught *specifically* at their institutions. The main reason for this appears to be that they consider such an approach to be artificial and behaviouristic. As one respondent commented : "Our programmes are not tightly defined with precise topics presented within lecture 'boxes'". Such educationists obviously lean heavily towards a humanistic approach : the students should practice a variety of skills simultaneously in ways that fit each one's unique abilities and circumstances. In this text such modules will be referred to as Integrated skills. The objective will be defined as : *to teach effectively by using a variety of teaching skills in an integrated and unique manner.*

Considering the high percentage of institutions in which an integrated

approach is favoured - an average of 49% - it seems as if a large proportion of a typical Teaching Practice course would consist of helping students to master Integrated Skills. Thus, for purposes of constructing an Institutional Model (See Section 5 of this chapter) approximately 50% of time spent on the course should preferably be set aside for achieving this overriding objective.

4.1.2 Specific skills

A perception of which skills teacher educators consider more important than others came from studying responses to Question 25A (See Appendix 11, Table B). Utilizing this data, Table XIII shows which objectives are given priority at a typical teacher training institution. The skills have been arranged in order of importance.

Since none of these sets of objectives are recognized by less than 50% of institutions, their inclusion in an Institutional Model Curriculum seems appropriate.

In addition to these objectives, a fair proportion of candidates indicated that their curricula also included the following objectives :

Charts and pictures

1. to produce and/or construct educational charts and pictures
2. to use charts and pictures effectively in the classroom.

Sound equipment

3. to use sound equipment such as tape-recorders and record-players effectively in lessons.

P.T.O./TABLE XIII...

OBJECTIVES	SKILLS	% OF INSTITUTIONS WHERE THESE OBJECTIVES APPEAR TO BE IN THE CURRICULUM
1.1 to maintain discipline & control in the classroom 1.2 to establish rapport with pupils through an appropriate teaching style 1.3 to use aids without disrupting lessons	1. Classroom Management	100%
2.1 to ask cognitive-memory, convergent, and divergent questions 2.2 to use questioning skills such as prompting, redirection, and refocusing correctly 2.3 to react appropriately to response	2. Questioning	100%
3.1 to prepare stimulating lessons 3.2 to write lesson notes that reflect a systematic structure and a thoughtful approach 3.3 to observe and evaluate lessons	3. Lesson Preparation	99%
4.1 to construct and mark tests effectively 4.2 to conduct product as well as process evaluation	4. Evaluation	93%
5.1 to organize and conduct small group discussions (eg. buzz groups) 5.2 to organize and conduct formal large group discussions (eg. debates, panels, and symposiums)	5. Groupwork	90%
6.1 to state behavioural and non-behavioural objectives 6.2 to show evidence that lessons are directed at the achievement of specific objectives	6. Objectives	90%
7.1 to provide experiences which will help pupils to learn concepts 7.2 to draw concept maps and hierarchies of learning 7.3 to sequence subject matter	7. Concept Learning	87%
8.1 to guide discussions 8.2 to facilitate the exchange of ideas 8.3 to lead pupils to generalizations and inferences regarding the subject matter under study 8.4 to stimulate inquiry about normative issues such as social matters, morals, evaluations or feelings	8. Guided Discussion	86%
9.1 to demonstrate skills (to pupils) 9.2 to use real-life examples to elucidate subject matter 9.3 to facilitate imitation learning	9. Demonstration	82%

TABLE XIII : PREFERENCES OF INSTITUTIONS RE. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING PRACTICE

10.1 to initiate dramatizations and socio-dramas that enable students to explore real-life situations through spontaneous enactments followed by guided discussion	10. Role Play	78%
11.1 to operate overhead projectors effectively	11. Overhead Projectors	78%
12.1 to initiate learning and motivational games in the classroom	12. Games	75%
13.1 to use the chalkboard effectively	13. Chalkboard Work	73%
14.1 to make three-dimensional likenesses of things relevant to the subject matter 14.2 to use models effectively as teaching aids	14. Models	71%
15.1 to produce slide shows & film strips with and without sound 15.2 to select slide programmes 15.3 to present slide shows & film strips effectively	15. Slide shows	70%
16.1 to produce transparencies of a high standard 16.2 to use transparencies effectively as teaching aids	16. Transparencies	70%
17.1 to give short, stimulating lectures 17.2 to explain subject matter lucidly 17.3 to use variation techniques such as change in speech pattern, teacher movement, change in sensory focus, and pupils involvement effectively	17. Narration	70%
18.1 to assist pupils to learn through computers 18.2 to select and prepare instructional programmes	18. Computer-assisted Instruction	68%
19.1 to conduct extra-mural activities such as sport, chess, drama & hobby clubs	19. Extra-mural Activities	68%
20.1 to assist pupils to learn through programmed instruction 20.2 to select and prepare programmes based on the principles of programmed instruction	20. Programmed Instruction	68%
21.1 to assist pupils to learn through closed-circuit and open-circuit television 21.2 to select and produce television programmes/lessons	21. TV-Teaching	65%
22.1 to construct effective worksheets	22. Worksheet Construction	64%
23.1 to plan and conduct out-of-school excursions	23. Excursions	58%

TABLE XIII : PREFERENCES OF INSTITUTIONS RE. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF TEACHIN(
PRACTICE (CONTINUED)

Introduction

4. to start lessons in stimulating ways

5. to use set induction devices (as propogated by Brown (1975)).

Closure

6. to conclude lessons appropriately.

Drill/Reinforcement

7. (objective not stated).

The exclusion of the first two topics - Charts and Pictures, and Sound Equipment - is due to an oversight by the designer of the questionnaire. On the strength of arguments previously outlined (See Chapter 2) it seems important for these objectives to be included in a curriculum. The other two topics - Introduction and Closure - appear to form part of Lesson Preparation and could therefore be incorporated in that module. The objective of Drill/Reinforcement - a topic mentioned by 17% of South African respondents - was not stated. Since its meaning is unclear to the writer of this text, it was decided to exclude it from the Institutional Model.

A variety of other topics were mentioned by respondents, i.e. Working with Parents, Dealing with Handicapped Children, Typing, Problem-solving, etc. Due to their divergent nature and to the fact that all of them were mentioned by only one or two respondents, they were considered irrelevant to this study.

4.1.3 Objectives of school-based programmes

Apart from the objectives mentioned above, a few other school-based objectives were identified. They are evident in the data summarized in Table XIV.

4.2 Learning sequences

In the questionnaire respondents were requested to state the approximate number of *periods* they spend on teaching the various skills. Another source of information regarding learning sequences was responses to Question 16. These questions were especially significant since the responses made it possible to give a rough estimate about the amount of time a typical institution devotes to achieving the various objectives of Teaching Practice.

ITEM	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	OVERALL AVERAGE
1. LESSONS OBSERVED			
1.1 Average number of lessons undergraduate students are required to observe in the course of their training	70	68	69
1.2 Average number of lessons postgraduate students are required to observe in the course of their training	12	27	20
2. LESSONS TAUGHT			
2.1 Average number of lessons non-final-year undergraduate students are required to teach per week (while at schools)	6	20	13
2.2 Average number of lessons final-year undergraduate students are required to teach per week	26	27	27
2.3 Average number of lessons post-graduate students are required to teach per week	24	15	20

TABLE XIV : ADDITIONAL OBJECTIVES OF SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMMES

The data obtained (See Appendix II, Table C) pinpoints the crucial part played by the amounts of time set aside for the different teaching skills. Time seems to force teacher educators to reveal their real priorities. Thus the analysis of learning sequences showed up a number of apparent contradictions. Many objectives which respondents identified as being *extremely important* (as discussed in the previous section) are given *less time* than others which were regarded as being relatively unimportant. For instance, Questioning, which appeared to be a priority at all institutions, only take an average of ±4% of course time - the same as Extramural Activities, which 32% of institutions apparently do not even teach.

It might rightfully be argued that complex skills require less time than mechanical skills. However, the results revealed that less time is spent on complex skills such as Guided Discussion and Role Play than on more mechanical skills such as Chalkboard Work and Games. *Although this text is not the place for disentangling the web of possible factors behind apparant paradoxes in teacher training, realities such as these underscore the need for teacher educators to base curricula for Teaching Practice on a thorough analysis of real-life experiences rather than on theoretical abstractions.*

The central issue which concerns us here is the amount of time institutions allow for the achievement of objectives previously identified. Using the data contained in Appendix 11, Table C, it is possible to estimate the time-periods devoted to the various skills.

4.2.1 Time spent on school-based Teaching Practice

The data revealed that *undergraduate and diploma students spend an average of 15 weeks on school-based Teaching Practice* in the course of their training. If we take the duration of a normal schoolday to be about 6 hours, the results indicate that a typical student from this category is required to spend approximately 450 hours at school.

Postgraduate students appear to spend an average of 10 weeks or 300 hours on school-based programmes.

4.2.2 Time spent on campus-based Teaching Practice

As shown in Table C (Appendix 11), the amounts of time institutions seem to devote to Teaching Practice-related activities vary greatly. A closer estimate can be made if we use the formula :

Average no. of hours spend on campus-based Teaching Practice =

$$\frac{\frac{Px}{Tx} \times Ax + \frac{Pz}{Tz} \times Az}{2 \times 60}$$

where Px = Total number of periods institutions outside S.A. spend on campus based teaching programmes

Tx = Number of institutions outside S.A.

Ax = Length of average period at institutions outside S.A., in minutes

Pz = Total number of periods institutions inside S.A. spend on campus-based teaching programmes

Tz = Number of institutions inside S.A.

Az = Length of average period at institutions inside S.A., in minutes.

4.3 Course Content

Data obtained about course content tended to go hand in hand with data about objectives. Since objectives imply course content, the latter can readily be derived from the section dealing with objectives. Thus, to avoid duplication, no further details about course content will be given here.

4.4 Teaching Strategies

While the existence of objectives and learning sequences go a long way to construct a well-defined curriculum, students may find their styles severely cramped by ineffective teaching strategies being employed. It seems reasonable, for instance, to expect congruence between objectives and the methods used to achieve those objectives. In this respect the survey raised a variety of questions which again highlighted the superiority of focusing on *current practices* in curriculum research, compared to the vagueness often found in literary studies. Unfortunately the limits set for the present project do not allow space to explore - or even to mention - most of these problems. Suffice to note that the study showed many apparent irregularities between teaching strategies and other curricular features. The data provide fertile ground for further research related to this investigation.

The key question that is of interest here is : How thoroughly are teaching skills taught to students? Admittedly, the only effective way to answer the question is probably to evaluate the abilities of students after the completion of courses.

But in the absence of such scientific evidence, arbitrary judgements had to be made on data that were more easily obtainable.

4.4.1 Theory : practice ratio

In Question 24 respondents were asked to state the number of weekly periods institutions provide for teaching students (a) the theoretical aspects of teaching, and (b) the practical aspects of teaching. A summary of the results appears in Table XV.

	Non-final-year students			Final-year students		
	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	MEAN	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	MEAN
Average number of "practical" periods for each "theoretical" period	0,7	0,4	0,6	2,06	0,41	1,24

TABLE XV : THEORY : PRACTICE RATIO

The marked difference between the theory:practice ratio at institutions here and abroad raises important doubts about the teaching strategies employed at the average South African institution. It will also be noted that there is a considerable difference at institutions abroad between the ratios for non-final-year and final-year students. At local institutions these ratios are practically the same.

The most important finding is the establishment of a rough guideline : for non-final-year students approximately half-a-period of practical work is provided for every full period in which theoretical aspects of teaching are taught; for final-year students the equivalent ratio is approx. 1,25 (practical) to 1 (theoretical).

(f) Skills for which an average of 1-2 methods are used :

13. Extra-mural Activities
14. Games
15. Narration
16. Slide Shows
17. Transparencies
18. TV Teaching

(g) Skills for which an average of 1 method is used :

19. Models
20. Programmed Instruction
21. Role Play
22. Worksheet Construction

(h) Skill for which an average of 0-1 method is used :

23. Excursions

4.4.4 Media

The equipment available at a typical institution was listed in Section 3.1 of this chapter.

4.5 Evaluation of students

To understand what is really going on in teacher training institutions, it seems imperative to focus most strongly on the complex issue of evaluation. More often than not, the proof of the pudding lies in the eating, and this feature of the curriculum might well be that aspect of the menu. Given the well-attested fact that evaluation is the only valid way of knowing whether objectives have been achieved, it seems amazing that educationists frequently neglect this aspect in their

courses. That many institutions do neglect evaluation was evident in this survey. One needs only to compare Tables B and E in Appendix 11 to note the presence of this weakness in Teaching Practice courses.

The academic answer usually given to justify this trend is that the emphasis in Teaching Practice should be on *guidance* rather than on *evaluation*. Yet it is hard to see how one can guide a person without constantly evaluating him or her. The evaluation can be formal or informal, accompanied by marks, remarks, or mere thoughts; but teaching seems to be inconceivable without some kind of evaluation. Perhaps the apparent reluctance of teacher educators to evaluate students stems more from a dislike for making implicit judgements explicit or "formal", than from a distaste for evaluation *per se*.

Whatever the reason may be, the findings of this survey regarding the evaluation of students are enough to daunt the most determined crusader for the improvement of school education. As evident from Table E (Appendix 11), skills that are more mechanically-oriented (Items 11, 12, 13, 14, 16 in Table XIII) are only assessed at about 30% of institutions - a surprising fact, since they are relatively easy to assess. The skill most often assessed is Lesson Preparation. Yet even here it is disturbing to note that 20% of institutions apparently do not assess this ability. Assessment of the other three skills - which more than 90% of the same respondents identified as priorities in Teaching Practice (See Table XIII), - lags far behind Lesson Preparation : only about 50% of institutions assess Classroom Management, Questioning, and Evaluation. This could mean that large numbers of students are able to qualify as teachers without necessarily being able to prepare

lessons, manage classrooms, ask questions, or set tests effectively.

4.5.1 Evaluation of Integrated Skills

Due to the multitude of interacting factors related to the evaluation of Integrated Skills, this aspect of Teaching Practice was not investigated in the survey. Until a generally-accepted theory for the evaluation of teacher effectiveness is formulated, tutors seem to have little other choice than to continue using unreliable, subjective standards in the evaluation of Integrated Skills. In fact, one of the prime reasons why the survey revolved around specific skills was that they allow for more objective evaluation.

4.5.2 Evaluation of specific skills

Data indicated that only eight teaching skills are regularly assessed at a typical teacher training institution (See calculation at bottom of Table E, Appendix II). To be consistent in the interpretation of results, those eight skills being assessed by the highest percentage of institutions would be treated as worthy of evaluation in the forthcoming model :

1.	Lesson Preparation	80%
2.	Classroom Management	58%
3.	Objectives	49%
4.	Evaluation	47%
5.	Questioning	47%
6.	Concept Learning	39%
7.	Guided Discussion	39%
8.	Demonstration	38% (See Table E, Appendix 11)

4.5.3 Evaluation of school-based Teaching Practice

Apart from providing information about the evaluation of student abilities as outlined above, the survey yielded data about a number of other issues related to school experiences. The results are summarized in Table XVI.

By utilizing this information it is possible to draw up a profile of the basic conditions under which the average student's school experience seem to be evaluated : The responsibility for evaluating the student's performances during the course of his/her final year is likely to be shared between about three lecturers and one or more class teachers. The average number of lessons that will be evaluated appears to be about 10.

This Table bears evidence to one of the most controversial issues in the evaluation of students, viz. which assessment scale to use. In South Africa educationists seem to prefer percentages, while those abroad appear to opt for Symbols or a simple Pass/Fail procedure. In the final analysis all three scales seems to be equally popular. The solution might be to use different assessment scales at different stages of the programme.

4.6 Strategies for improvement

Institutions use a variety of strategies for the improvement of Teaching Practice courses. A closer examination of the responses revealed that these strategies could be divided into five categories, as shown in Table XVII.

1. Percentages of institutions using different evaluation systems, categorized according to evaluator :

EVALUATION DONE BY :	FINAL YEAR STUDENTS			NON-FINAL YEAR		
	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	AVERAGE	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	AVERAG
Class teachers only	6 %	14 %	10 %	14 %	10 %	12 %
Lecturers only	19 %	24 %	21 %	29 %	18 %	23 %
Headmaster only	0 %	5 %	3 %	14 %	0 %	7 %
Class teacher + Lecturer	50 %	17 %	33 %	43 %	18 %	31 %
Class teacher + Headmaster	0 %	17 %	9 %	0 %	18 %	9 %
Lecturer + Headmaster	12 %	14 %	13 %	0 %	18 %	9 %
Lecturer + Teacher + Headmaster	13 %	9 %	11 %	0 %	18 %	9 %
	100	100	100	100	100	100

	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	AVERAGE
2. Average number of different lecturers that evaluate the same student's performance (final years only)	2,1	3,4	2,8
3. Average number of a typical student's lessons that are formally evaluated during his/her final year	12,3	7,8	10,1
4. Assessment scales used :			
Simple Pass/Fail	45 %	10 %	27,5 %
Symbols, e.g. A, B, C	40 %	19 %	29,5 %
Percentages	5 %	55 %	30 %
Other	10 %	16 %	13 %
	100	100	100

TABLE XVI : EVALUATION OF SCHOOL-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES	PERCENTAGE OF INSTITUTIONS WHEN THIS STRATEGY IS USED		AVERAGE PERCENTAGE
Revision regularly done by :	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	
1. Committee consisting of lecturers only	36	30	33
2. Panel of internal and external educationists and researchers	21	9	15
3. Team consisting of lecturers and students	14	40	27
4. Team consisting of lecturers, teachers or school authorities and students	21	13	17
5. Other strategies	8	8	8
	100	100	100

TABLE XVII : STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVEMENT

Whereas the largest proportion of institutions apparently leave improvement of the curriculum to lecturers, the strategy of using a team consisting of lecturers and students seems to be almost equally popular. This trend is particularly noticeable at South African institutions.

5. INSTITUTIONAL MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

The implications that can be drawn from the results of the survey is that an Institutional Model Curriculum can be constructed. In such a model full recognition could be given to the most common trends in praxis-oriented components of teacher education courses.

The main features of such a hypothetical model are shown in Table XVIII. Since it was taken for granted that the aim of Teaching Practice coincides with the objective for Integrated Skills, aims have not been specified in the Model Curriculum. Similarly, findings regarding strategies for improvement have not been incorporated in the model because they were deemed too general and too vague to warrant inclusion.

	Module No.	Unit No.	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGY	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS			
				% of course spent on activity	Approx. no. of hours for activity		Topics only (content to be worked out in great detail)	Depth of coverage, viz. no. of methods used	Formal or informal assessment	Evaluator		Assessment used
					On campus	At school				On campus	At school	
			To grasp the extent of the course		0,5		Introduction of course	1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS	1.	1.	To use sound equipment such as tape-recorders and record-players effectively in lessons.	1	1,5	4,5	1. Audio Equipment	2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		2.	To use the chalkboard effectively.	2	3,5	9	2. Chalkboard work	2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		3.1	To produce and/or construct educational charts & pictures.	1	1,5	4,5	3. Charts/ Pictures	2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		3.2	To use charts and pictures effective in the classroom.									
		4.1	To make three-dimensional likenesses of things.	1	2,0	4,5	4. Models	1	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		4.2	To use models effectively as teaching aids.									
		5.	To operate overhead projectors effectively.	1	2,0	4,5	5. OHP	2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		6.1	To produce slide shows and film strips with and without sound.	1	1,5	4,5	6. Slide shows	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		6.2	To select slide programmes.									
		6.3	To present slide shows and filmstrip effectively.									
		7.	To produce transparencies of a high standard.	1	1,5	4,5	7. Transparencies	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		8.1	To assist pupils to learn through closed-circuit and or open-circuit television.	1	2,0	4,5	8. TV Teaching	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		8.2	To select and produce TV programmes/lessons.									
		9.	To construct effective worksheets	1	1,5	4,5	9. Worksheet Constr.	1	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	10	17,0	45,0						
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	2.	1.	To maintain discipline and control in the classroom.									
		2.	To establish rapport with pupils through an appropriate teaching style.									
		3.	To use aids without disrupting lessons	6	10,5	27,0	10. Classroom Management	2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	6	10,5	27,0						
	TOTALS CARRIED FORWARD			16	27,5	72,0						

TABLE XVIII.1 INSTITUTIONAL CURRICULUM MODEL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE (UNDERGRADUATE OR DIPLOMA-COURSE)

	Module No.	Unit No.	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGY	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS			
				% of course spent on activity	Approx. no. of hours for activity		Topics only (content to be worked out in great detail	Depth of coverage, viz. no. of methods used	Formal or Informal Assessment	Evaluator		Assessment Method used
					On campus	At school				On campus	At school	
			TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	16	27,5	72,9						
COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTR.	3.	1.	To assist pupils to learn through computers.				11. Computer-assisted Instr.					
		2.	To select and prepare instructional programmes.	4	7,0	18,0		2-3	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	4	7,0	18,0						
CONCEPT LEARNING	4.	1.	To provide experiences which will help pupils to learn concepts.				12. Concept Learning					
		2.	To draw concept maps and hierarchies of learning.									
		3.	To sequence subject matter.	3	5,0	13,5		3-4	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	3	5,0	13,5						
EVALUATIONS	5.	1.	To construct and mark tests effectively.				13. Evaluation					
		2.	To conduct product as well as process evaluation.	3	5,0	13,5		2	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	3	5,0	13,5						
EXTRA-MURAL ACT.	6.	1.	To conduct extra-mural activities such as sport, chess, drama and hobby clubs.	2	3,5	4,0	14. Extra-mural activities	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	2	3,5	4,0						
LESSON PREPARATIONS	7.	1.	To prepare stimulating lessons.				15. Lesson preparation					
		2.	To write lesson notes that reflect a systematic structure and a thoughtful approach.									
		3.	To observe and evaluate lessons.	4	7,0	18,0		4	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Percentages
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	4	7,0	18,0						
OBJECTIVES	8.	1.	To state behavioural and non-behavioural objectives.				16. Objectives					
		2.	To show evidence that lessons are directed at the achievement of specific objectives.	2	3,5	9,0		2-3	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Simple Pass/Fail
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 8	2	3,5	9,0						
QUESTIONING	9.	1.	To ask cognitive-memory, convergent, and divergent questions.				17. Questioning					
		2.	To use questioning skills such as prompting redirection, and refocusing correctly.									
		3.	To react appropriately to response	2	3,5	9,0		3	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Symbols
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 9	2	3,5	9,0						
			TOTALS CARRIED FORWARD									

TABLE XVIII : INSTITUTIONAL CURRICULUM MODEL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE (UNDERGRADUATE OR DIPLOMA COURSE)

	Module No.	Unit No.	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGY	EVALUATION OF STUDENTS			
				% of course spent on activity	Approx. no. of hours for activity		Topics only (content to be worked out in great detail	Depth of coverage, viz. no. of methods used	Formal or Informal Assessment	Evaluator		Assessment Method used
					On campus	At school				On campus	At school	
			TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD									
TEACHING METHODS	10.	1.	To demonstrate skills (to pupils) to use real-life examples to elucidate subjects matter to facilitate imitation learning.	3	5,0	13,5	18. Demonstration	2-3	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Simple Pass/Fail
		2.	To plan and conduct out-of-school excursions.	1	1,5	4,5	19. Excursions	1	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		3.	To initiate learning and motivational games in the classroom.	3	5,0	13,5	20. Games	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		4.1	To organize and conduct small group discussions (e.g. buzz groups).	2	3,5	9,0	21. Groupwork	2-3	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		4.2	To organize and conduct formal large group discussions (e.g. debates, panels and symposiums).									
		5.1	To guide discussions.									
		5.2	To facilitate the exchange of ideas.	2	3,5	9,00	22. Guided Discussion	2	Formal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Symbols
		5.3	To lead pupils to generalizations and inferences regarding the subject matter under study.									
		5.4	To stimulate inquiry about normative issues such as social matters, morals, evaluations or feelings.									
		6.1	To give short, stimulating lectures.									
		6.2	To explain subject matter lucidly.	1	1,5	4,5	23. Narration	1-2	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		6.3	To use variation techniques such as change in speech pattern, teacher movement, change in sensory focus, and pupil involvement effectively.									
		7.1	To assist pupils to learn through programmed instruction.	1	1,5	4,5	24. Programmed Instr.	1	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
		7.2	To select and prepare programmes based on the principles of programmed instruction.									
		8.	To initiate dramatizations and socio-dramas that enable students to explore real-life situations through spontaneous enactments followed by guided discussion.	1	2,0	4,5	25. Role Play	1	Informal	Tutors	Tutors & Teachers	Comments
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 10	14	23,5	63,0						
			TOTAL FOR SPECIFIC SKILLS	50	85,0	225,0						
INTEGRATED SKILLS	11	1.1	To teach effectively by using a variety of teaching skills in an integrated and unique manner.	50	86,0	225,0			Informal & Formal	Tutors & Teachers		Unspecified no. of lessons are informally assessed. Approx. 10 are formally assessed using different assessment scales.
		1.2	To observe and evaluate ± 69 lessons.									
		1.3	To teach ± 13 lessons per week for ± 6 weeks, i.e. ± 78 (not in final year).									
		1.4	To teach ± 27 lessons per week for ± 9 weeks, i.e. ± 243 (in final year).									
			TOTAL FOR MODULE 11	50	86,0	225,0						
			TOTAL TIME FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	100	172,0	450,0						

This model shows the structure of a hypothetical BPaed-curriculum, i.e. that of typical *undergraduate or diploma course* in teacher training. To obtain an accurate picture of a typical *postgraduate course* a few adjustments will have to be made to learning sequences, since the latter course is shorter. In attempting to prevent the report from becoming too lengthy and repetitive, these adjustments will only be made in Chapter 8. For the time being only the undergraduate curriculum model is presented.

6. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF MODEL

On general grounds this model could be subject to attack by educationists from all major schools of thought. Theorists with a humanistic orientation are likely to object to the tendency of teaching abilities being placed into "statistical heaps," while behaviourists might criticize the vague terms in which Integrated Skills are described. These arguments, however, have already been fully dealt with in Chapter 2. Our concern at present is to make a brief appraisal of the model in terms of the criteria previously outlined, with the view of deepening and refining our search for an acceptable Teaching Practice curriculum.

It could be argued that the model goes a long way in meeting the said criteria. Although the Humanistic Approach does not manifest itself in a clear-cut way, the potential for implementing it is evident in the 50% of the curriculum set aside for Integrated Skills. At the same time the model displays many features of CBTE, creating fertile ground for a *high degree of professional relevance*. Given the fact that the questionnaire was set with principals of Didactics and

Curriculum Development in mind, *the high levels of didactic and curricular relevance* in the model was a foregone conclusion. In addition the model makes provision for *optimal linkage between campus-based and school-based programmes*, and there appears to be *a practical propensity* in each of its features. By virtue of these strengths the model can be accepted as an effective draft document.

On the other hand it has a number of defects. The most obvious one is that the modules and units *have not been arranged into any logical* sequence, but merely appear in alphabetical order. This is misleading and unrealistic. Equally unrealistic is the *disregard for constraints* evident in the various curriculum features. It is clear, for instance, that the objectives regarding computer-assisted instruction (Module 3) and television teaching (Module 1) require facilities on campus as well as at school that are unlikely to be found everywhere in South Africa. The inclusion of specific skills in the school programme also resulted in a seemingly preposterous situation where students will be expected to teach/observe ± 490 lessons in ± 225 hours. (See Module II). This is probably a technical problem - lessons in which students practice specific skills should be deducted from the total number of lessons required - but it gives the model an appearance of being unpractical. Another weakness related to learning sequences is the little time set aside for teaching *questioning* (Module 9). Despite the reality that this appears to be the average percentage of time that institutions spend on questioning, it is still a disturbing factor.

In two other curriculum features there is evidence of the model being impractical : teaching strategies and evaluation. How could a tutor

use *one method only* to teach a practical skill? It is inconceivable that one can teach a skill without providing *some* theoretical knowledge as well as *some* opportunities for practising the skill. In respect to evaluation, the model indicates that it should be done by tutors and teachers - a stipulation that would *require an evaluation support programme for teachers*.

The most serious shortcoming in the model could be that the views of people most intimately involved in the course have not been taken into account, viz.students, school authorities, and tutors. Should the curriculum be implemented, this shortcoming is likely to have an adverse effect on such groups, which might force the institution to fall back on autocratic measures to ensure "co-operation". It might also curtail renewal since it prevents these groups from making meaningful contributions that may lead to original solutions of problems.

In the face of these impediments, the institutional model cannot be welded on to the existing practices of any institution, including UD-W. It does, however, provide the course developers with a valuable profile of activities elsewhere that may act as a catalyst to stimulate development. It bears evidence to ways in which other institutions manage to surmount Teaching Practice problems, and shows how consensus can be created between opposing schools of thought within the context of several dozen similar enterprises. Finally, it replaces the flimsy grounds on which many innovations take place with a firm scientific basis to back up possible reform proposals.

7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter marks the start of reporting the results of empirical studies undertaken during the investigation. It deals specifically with data obtained from a survey of Teaching Practice programmes at 52 institutions, and culminates in the construction of an Institutional Model Curriculum. While this model was shown to be unsuitable for implementation at UD-W, it has succeeded in lifting the veil of secrecy often surrounding Teaching Practice curricula at teacher training institutions. Like part of a puzzle that has been completed, the model will now be temporarily shelved while we shift our attention to another survey conducted in the attempt to design a democratic Teaching Practice curriculum : the school authority perspective.

CHAPTER 5

TEACHING PRACTICE FROM A SCHOOL AUTHORITY PERSPECTIVE

1. INTRODUCTION

Educators involved in teacher training have repeatedly expressed concern about the lack of co-operation between teacher training institutions and schools. (See Chapter 1) In the words of one principal : "the University advocates a particular approach in which to handle a subject whereas the subject advisers want it to be handled another way." This would imply that teacher educators and school authorities pursue different aims. On the one hand it could mean that students are instructed at university to acquire abilities which they are not permitted to put into practice at schools; on the other hand, abilities which school authorities expect teachers to have, are perhaps never taught at university.

Should there be many discrepancies between training institutions and school requirements, teachers may in fact be forced to undergo *two* training processes : one at university and one at school. Such a situation obviously has serious implications. Apart from the extra expense and wasted energy stemming from the duplication of work, the sheer absurdity of the training process could induce a feeling of cynicism towards teaching as a whole. It could give rise to the fallacy : "Teaching well is not as important as pretending to follow instructions" - a belief which an increasing number of teachers seem to share. It is said that lethargic teachers produce lethargic children. The insidious attitude towards work implied by the above statement may well be at the

heart of demotivation prevalent amongst children. In this way a gulf between teacher educators and school authorities constitutes far more that a minor conflict between two small groups : it could tap the strength of an entire school population.

A more promising approach would be to attempt bridging the gap. Instead of regarding school authorities as undersirable elements in the system, teacher educators should recognize the fundamental importance of the students' future employers. The second survey in the present project was aimed at paving the way for such an approach.

The results of the survey conducted among school authorities will be examined in this chapter, followed by a School Authority Model Curriculum for Teaching Practice. To make explicit the basis used for the interpretation of data, the results will be preceded by an outline of the nature of the survey.

2. NATURE OF SURVEY

The survey consisted of a questionnaire (See Appendix III) that was distributed to the principals of 98 schools and to 11 subject advisers.

2.1 Basis of Selection

2.1.1 School Principals

To ensure that the survey would yield data relevant to students at UD-W, it was decided to restrict the survey to principals employed by the Department of Indian Education. A *random sampling* was used using

alphabetical lists of schools obtained from the Department. The first 50 names from a list of Natal State Primary Schools, and the first 50 names from a similar list of Natal State Secondary Schools were chosen. The intention was to send questionnaires to the principals of these 100 schools, but due to a clerical error questionnaires were distributed to only 98 school principals : 50 at primary schools and 48 at secondary schools.

2.1.2 Subject advisers

As in the case of principals, only subject advisers from Indian Education were requested to take part in the survey. Subject advisers being less in number than principals, it was thought practical that *all* subject advisers should participate. Unfortunately it proved to be a well nigh impossible task to obtain a complete list of subject advisers employed by the Department. After various requests and visits to the Department during which the researcher was repeatedly referred to other sections "that may be able to provide a list", the names of eleven subject advisers were traced. Although it seems unlikely that these are the only ones employed by such a large organization, the search for more names had to be abandoned to meet deadlines set for the project. Questionnaires were therefore only distributed to the eleven subject advisers that could be traced.

2.2 Modus Operandi

After the questionnaire was drawn up, it was submitted to four senior educationists at UD-W to help the researcher identify construct and other possible weaknesses. Recommendations from these academics

resulted in substantial improvement of various items as well as of the format. The improved version was then submitted to the Department of Indian Education to obtain permission for its completion by principals and subject advisers. On receipt of such permission the questionnaire was distributed to the sample of school authorities during October 1984. As in the case of the survey discussed in Chapter 4, respondents were promised copies of the raw results, and in May 1985 these initial findings were forwarded to all parties who participated in the survey.

2.3 Format of the questionnaire (See Appendix III)

The questionnaire consisted of 12 questions which were divided into two parts : Section A dealt with campus-based Teaching Practice and Section B with school-based Teaching Practice. Having learnt some lessons from the first survey, the research team decided to place the most difficult item (Question 1) at the beginning of the questionnaire rather than at the end, as in the Institutional Survey. In this question respondents were requested to stipulate the weighting that should, in their opinion, be given to the various teaching skills when they are taught to students on campus. Although somewhat similar to Question 25 in the Institutional Questionnaire, it required less detail from respondents than in the Institutional Survey. It was thought to be unfair to expect from school authorities to elaborate on specific teaching strategies that might be used in teacher education.

Throughout Section B (on school-based programmes) the programme currently in use at UD-W was used as an example to elicit useful comments. This

part of the questionnaire is therefore not what it appears to be. Although the questions are seemingly aimed at asking respondents their opinion about the present programme, the responses were in fact used to discover which kind of Teaching Practice programme the respondents think *should* be implemented. A more direct approach, it was felt, would yield suggestions that may be too vague or too idealistic for implementation.

On the whole the questionnaire was constructed in a format that would invite free and open responses, with ample scope for school authorities to elaborate on their personal views.

2.4 Response rate

2.4.1 School principals

Of the 98 questionnaires distributed to school principals, 64 were completed and returned; 29 from primary schools, 33 from secondary schools, and 2 from schools that could not be identified due to addresses being incomplete. Below is a list of the schools from which completed questionnaires were received :

Primary Schools

1. Alencon
2. Allingham
3. Aloe Park
4. Avoca
5. A.Y.S. Memorial
6. Astra
7. Beacon Ridge
8. Buffelsdale
9. Cavendish
10. Clayhaven
11. Clareville
12. Clayridge
13. Collegevale
14. Columbia
15. Crescent Ridge
16. Crestview
17. Dawnridge
18. Dawnview
19. Deccan Road
20. Depot Road Memorial
21. Dr Macken Mistry
22. Durban South
23. Erica
24. Everest Heights
25. Evergreen
26. Excelsior
27. Falcon Park
28. Ferndale
29. Forderville

Secondary Schools

1.	Apollo	12.	Crossmoor	23.	Isipingo
2.	Arena Park	13.	Daleview	24.	Isipingo No. 2
3.	Asoka	14.	Drakensberg	25.	Isnembe
4.	Avoca	15.	Durban Girls' High	26.	Lakehaven
5.	Belverton	16.	Earlington	27.	Marburg
6.	Brindhaven	17.	Effingham	28.	Meadowlands
7.	Burnwood	18.	Esther Payne Smith	29.	M.L. Sultan - Glencoe
8.	Centenary	19.	Glenhaven	30.	M.L. Sultan
9.	Chatsworth Sec.	20.	Glenover	31.	Mt. Edgecombe
10.	Chatsworth No. 43	21.	Greytown	32.	Mt. View
11.	Cool Air	22.	Heather	33.	Newhaven

2.4.2 Subject advisers

Only one of the eleven questionnaires forwarded to subject advisers was completed. This one came from Mr A.H.A. Raiman, a Circuit Inspector of Education.

2.4.3 Analysis of response rate

The above data show that the total response rate was 59,6%. This surprisingly high number is even more significant if one recalls that the modus operandus did not include the sending out of reminders or second questionnaires. The high response rate was the result of a single request. It may be argued that the items could have been received at a time when schools were not very busy, but even this seems unlikely. The questionnaires were received (and the majority returned) during November/December - a time when most schools are characterized by frantic activity revolving around examinations and the promotion of pupils. In the light of these facts it seems to be a reasonable conclusion that *the high response rate indicates an acute desire by principals to see a marked improvement in the quality of teacher training.* Compared

to an average response rate of 27% (See Chapter 4), this survey yielded one of 60% - more than double the anticipated number.

Documents from the Department of Indian Education reveal that the following numbers of Indian State Schools exist in Natal :

Primary Schools - 166

Secondary Schools - 82

Thus the views of 17,5% of primary school principals and 40,2% of secondary school principals were obtained during this survey. Considering these figures, it could be claimed that the findings rest on *a representative sample* of principals from Natal State Indian schools. The result of this survey is therefore more reliable and representative than those from the Institutional Survey.

2.5 Limitations of the survey

As was stated previously (See Chapter 4), any survey in which the findings rest solely on data obtained from questionnaires should be viewed with caution. When, in addition, many of the findings are based on quantitative data, it raises even more doubts. The School Authority survey should be seen with these weaknesses in mind.

In this survey - as in the Student and Course-team surveys later on - the Lickert-formula was one of the techniques used to analyse data. Although this technique is widely recommended by research writers, there can be no denying that it often creates a distorted picture of

the real situation. A respondent may, for example, indicate that he "agrees" with something simply to avoid possible repercussions, and not because he really agrees. The present survey could have been particularly vulnerable to this kind of distortion; perhaps its official nature and the departmental labels attached to it inhibited respondents from answering truthfully. The likelihood of distortion seems to be supported by apparent discrepancies in the results. According to the Lickert-formula, for instance, responses to Question 6 indicate that school authorities experience *a medium level of satisfaction* with the present duration of block sessions. A closer examination of responses shows, however, that *59% of principals in fact disagree* with the present system. This leads one to wonder how reliable the Lickert-formula is. It seems illogical to claim that respondents are reasonably satisfied with a procedure which almost 60% of them reject.

The above is a typical example of the limitations of this survey stemming from a reliance on quantitative data. Yet a large number of findings from the survey was derived from qualitative data - a procedure that gave rise to limitations of a different kind. Firstly, the analysis of free responses were so time-consuming that many may not have received adequate attention. Secondly, they were so divergent in nature that most of them defied all attempts at categorization. It left the researcher with many difficulties, for instance in deciding which comments to include in the report and which ones to disregard. Although care was taken to be as objective as possible, it has to be admitted that many of the findings are derived from data selected on a subjective basis.

In addition to these weaknesses, there is the question of principals' attitudes toward student teachers. Reports and comments from students suggest that most principals do not show *any* interest in students. Responses like "The principal doesn't even know that students exist" were made so frequently during the student survey, that there must be some truth in it. Thus : to what extent can principals' comments by believed? Are they not merely reacting to situations they experienced as students 10, 15, 20, or more years ago? Questions like these need to be kept in mind when the school authority survey results are studied.

Finally, the poor representation of the views of inspectors is a major weakness in the survey. One cannot escape from the fact that a school authority perspective of Teaching Practice should have been based on more views than those of principals. A survey in which a substantial number of inspectors, planners, and curriculum specialists also took part would have been more authentic.

2.6 Positive features of the survey

Broadly speaking, this survey displays the same positive features as the previous one : in a relatively short period of time it produced a wealth of data which lent themselves to linkage with data from other surveys included in the project. It also represents a starting-point in breaking the negative pattern of compartementalization existing between training institutions and schools.

Perhaps the greatest accomplishment of the survey was the large amount of data obtained from it. In contrast to respondents in the Institutional

Survey, school authorities rose to the challenge when they were invited to add personal comments. A study of these comments led to an intense awareness of the complex problems experienced by principals. For example, principals show a different attitude towards teacher training than academics do. Apparently, with teacher educators operating at a distance, safely hidden from the public view, principals have to bear the brunt of attacks when the quality of their teachers is below par. *Yet they have hardly any channels open to bring about improvements in teacher training*. It is therefore not surprising that they seized the opportunity offered by this survey to make a rich variety of suggestions for the improvement of Teaching Practice programmes. Some of the suggestions may be too idealistic, but the majority of the contributions appear to be more realistic and viable than those received from most teacher educators who participated in the project.

Another worthwhile aspect of the survey was that it made explicit specific objections which school personnel have against certain trends in teacher education. Teacher educators have probably always been dimly aware of disagreements between themselves and practising teachers. What was missing, in almost every case, was scientific evidence of the dissatisfaction. The present survey provided, in a limited way, such evidence. Academics who are in favour of more school-centred teacher training now have a firmer basis for their arguments than mere impressions and assumptions.

2.7 Statistical procedures used

The data from this survey necessitated statistical procedures that were more complex than those used in the first survey.

2.7.1 Qualitative procedures

2.7.1.1 The mean

Averages were calculated of figures obtained from responses to the first five questions. In cases where a respondent omitted to answer a question, only the responses of those who did answer the question were taken into account.

2.7.1.2 The Standard deviation

To help the researcher identify which teaching skills principals disagree most (between themselves), the standard deviation of responses to all the sub-items in Question 1 was calculated by using a statistical calculator.

2.7.1.3 The Lickert-formula

This procedure was used in analysing quantitative data received from Questions 6, 7, 8, 9, and 11. In accordance with this technique respondents were presented with a five-point scale and requested to indicate which category reflects their own opinion about the matter. In recording the results each category was given a numerical value:

Agree strongly	5
Agree	4
Neither agree nor disagree	3
Disagree	2
Disagree strongly	1

After all responses were recorded, the scores for each question were added and the answer divided by the maximum score possible. In this way the *agreement index* for each item was determined.

The interpretation of results was based on an application of the following analytical guide :

Agreement index of 20 - 47 : low level of agreement
Agreement index of 48 - 74 : medium level of agreement
Agreement index of 75 - 100: high level of agreement

2.7.1.4 Percentages

When it became evident that the Lickert-formula had certain weaknesses (See section 2.5), it was decided to also calculate the percentages of negative and positive responses to Questions 6 - 11. It led to the emergence of a more accurate picture of the situation.

2.7.1.5 Other quantitative procedures

Whenever feasible, other quantitative techniques were used. Question 10 in particular necessitated a modification of the Lickert-formula.

2.7.2 Qualitative procedures

Qualitative data were as far as possible divided into categories reconcilable with the purposes of the project. Thus remarks about aims and objectives were placed in one group, remarks about learning sequences in another group, etc. Eventually the data were examined to identify

general patterns, and the conclusions incorporated in the overall interpretations of results. Comments that could not be categorized were treated as being irrelevant to the investigation.

In concluding this overview of the survey, I would like to draw the reader's attention again to the fact that the words "authorities" and "principals" in the report refer only to participants in the survey, and not to all authorities or principals.

3. THE NATURE OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSES : A SCHOOL AUTHORITY PERSPECTIVE

Historically, Teaching Practice has been a school-based activity. For this reason school authorities found it difficult to perceive that part of the course is now being taught on campus at UD-W. Most of their suggestions were only relevant to school-based Teaching Practice. The net result of this situation was that the data show sharp distinctions between campus and school activities. In the summary of the results of the survey that appears below these distinctions had to be retained in order to give a true reflection of school authorities' views about Teaching Practice.

3.1 Aims and objectives

3.1.1 Aims of Teaching Practice

Although the questionnaire did not contain any questions regarding aims, the general remarks provided the researcher with an excellent list of what school authorities think the general aims of Teaching Practice should be. The eight most frequently mentioned are stated

here in order of importance, i.e. those emphasized by most respondents appear at the top of the list :

3.1.1.1 To master the practical aspects of teaching as a continuous process in a specific social setting

A major proportion of school authorities feel that "far too much emphasis is directed towards the theory associated with Practice Teaching while actual classroom practice is neglected." Many principals believe that college students have an advantage over university students in that the former are exposed to the teaching situation as from their first year, while at university, Teaching Practice is only "properly done" in the student's fourth year of study. This gives B.Paed- and UHDE students too little time to become familiar with, for instance, school procedures and the socio-economic conditions of pupils. They tend to teach lessons "in a vacuum" instead of seeing it in the context of interrelated factors. To make matters worse, university lecturers appear to judge students only on their performances in isolated lessons, and not on their ability to handle the teaching situation as a whole. Thus "many are declared outstanding teachers, but fail miserably in the school situation."

3.1.1.2 To prepare and teach lessons that are stimulating and effective

Teaching students how to present effective lessons must surely be an aim of the highest priority in Teaching Practice courses. Yet from the standpoint of school authorities the quality of students' lessons falls far short of the required standard. Weaknesses seem to be of three kinds: Firstly, students fail to "go to the class adequately *prepared* with sound

knowledge of their subject matter." Such failure often results in them being unable to react appropriately to questions or queries which arise during the lesson. Second, most students apparently do not have the ability to *stimulate* pupils by using teaching aids correctly (even their chalkboard work is "poor and haphazard"), or asking provocative questions. This leads to pupils being so disinterested in the lesson that students experience much difficulty in "motivating and stimulating pupils to speak." Third, lessons are often totally *ineffective*, i.e. classes do not learn anything. Says one headmaster : "it would be revealing if at the end of the lesson the tutor gave out a short written test to the pupils." The school's needs are frequently ignored - "Students somehow make us believe that lesson preparation and teaching practice are designed for their tutors" - and many principals feel that students beam their lessons above the abilities of pupils. On the whole, "one gets the impression that the lessons are taught just for the sake of being taught."

3.1.1.3 To be dedicated to the teaching profession

According to principals, student teachers need to acquire specific values that would earn them the respect of pupils, colleagues, and parents. Apparently most students show little evidence of this. Instead of developing these values, they "do not take their school-based teaching practice seriously;" they "tend to bide their time with a minimum of effort;" they "sit on pupil's desks, sort of sit sprawled on the table when delivering lessons." A particular sore point is their speech, which seems to lack refinement. In general, they "do not know what is acceptable behaviour towards pupils in their care, nor what is

acceptable in a staffroom." *To rectify this a number of headmasters suggest that the course should include a session on etiquette, manners, etc. so that student teachers will know how to behave in school situations.*

3.1.1.4 To develop a sense of responsibility and an ability to maintain discipline

Closely related to the previous aim is the need for teachers to realize that they are accountable for their actions. Many principals feel that students reveal a carefree attitude towards their pupils which causes them to have poor disciplinary control over their classes. While it is true that some students are "outstanding", the majority of them are apparently very lenient and "tend to fraternize too much with pupils." Sometimes male student teachers establish personal relationships with female pupils - "a violation of the code of ethics governing our profession." At other times students adopt "an arrogant attitude" when repudiated by senior staff members. "They behave as though they have nothing to learn but everything to teach everybody." Problems like these caused many respondents to plead for greater contact between students and lecturers, since heavy teaching and administrative duties prevent principals from attending to these matters themselves.

3.1.1.5 To project an image of efficiency by paying particular attention to a neat appearance

One aspect of Teaching Practice that headmasters obviously find extremely annoying is that many students dress in unconventional and "outlandish" ways. They feel that such practices undermine authority and therefore cannot be tolerated at schools. It effects the standing

of all teachers in the community. In bringing about an improvement some proposed that a well-groomed appearance and the wearing of conventional conservative clothing should be a *stipulated* rule strictly enforced by lecturers.

3.1.1.6 To identify and emulate the qualities of good teachers

A substantial number of principals expressed the opinion that there should be more official links between practising teachers and student teachers. The value of demonstration lessons by outstanding teachers was repeatedly emphasized. Such activities should take place in the presence of tutors, preferably on campus. Since "a fool sees not the same tree that a wise man sees," students need a tutor to help them identify teaching skills in action "Mere sitting at the back of a classroom should not be mistaken for intelligent observation."

3.1.1.7 To keep abreast of modern developments in education

The value of reading widely about education and the latest trends in teaching was stressed by approximately 20% of principals. *It seems as if the majority of teachers fail to comtinue education themselves once their formal training is finished.* Yet whenever opportunities arise for them to attend in-service-programmes during school-time, authorities are inundated with requests, most often by teachers in their first or second year of teaching. Headmasters rightly point out that these newly-trained teachers should be in a position to present in-service-workshops themselves, and to help with the up-grading of older teachers on the staff. Although nowhere explicitly stated as such, hints were dropped to the effect that the students' lack of knowledge could be due to tutors themselves failing to keep track with modern developments.

3.1.1.8 To cope with the official demands of a formal school system

It is essential for teachers to contribute their fair share to the smooth running of a school. While school authorities clearly perceive the seven aims stated above as being the most important ones, many also point out the necessity of meeting the demands of inspectors. Respondents belonging to this group are disturbed about the lack of liaison between tutors and subject advisers. Apparently there are many conflicting opinions between the two powers - not only about theoretical issues, but also about the need to teach teachers accurate record-keeping procedures. Since this latter aspect is not taught at university, school records are often in a "chaotic state" and, if allowed to continue, end up with "some teachers not keeping any records at all." Principals seem to resent the fact that they and their senior staff need to teach young teachers how to keep markbooks, journals, lesson preparation books, and record cards, as well as how to draw up schemes of work. Neither their own nor the teachers' time-tables permit much time for such activities. Anyway, they believe that it is the university's task to supply them with properly trained teachers: "Greater contact between students and lecturers is absolutely necessary to monitor their progress."

3.1.2 Objectives of Teaching Practice

3.1.2.1 Objectives of campus-based programmes

Respondents were presented with the same list of objectives as in the Institutional Survey. Since the overwhelming majority of them indicated that they believe all these objectives should be included in the curriculum, there seems to be little point in duplicating the list here. For a detailed account of objectives the reader is referred to the results of the Institutional Survey (Chapter 4).

In addition to objectives in the given list, 15-30% of school authorities wish to see five other topics to be taught on campus : remedial teaching, interpersonal skills, schemes of work, audio equipment, and use of charts/pictures. Because they were not asked to state objectives pertaining to these topics, the topics will merely be included in the model curriculum as additional course content.

3.1.2.2 Objectives of school-based programmes

Objectives contained in the Observation Schedules

It seems as if the majority of school authorities consider the objectives in the Observation Schedules to be worthwhile. Calculations of their responses to Question 10 - summarized in Table XIX - show high to medium levels of agreement with these objectives.

I T E M	PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL AUTHORITY RESPONSES IN THE VARIOUS CATEGORIES				AGREEMENT INDEX
	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT TOO IMPORTANT	UNIMPORTANT	
1. Administering tests and examinations	81,3	18,7	0	0	75
2. Place of journals, schemes of work	72,3	27,7	0	0	75
3. The Resource Centre	53,9	46,1	0	0	71
4. Teachers' duties besides teaching	53,9	44,6	0	1,5	70
5. Class Registers	43,1	41,5	15,4	0	66
6. School assemblies	23,4	57,8	17,2	1,6	60
7. Observing classroom behaviour of 3 pupils	29,7	50	15,6	4,7	60
8. School stock and its control	29	56,5	11,3	3,2	59
9. Excursions	9,5	44,4	42,9	3,2	51

TABLE XIX : SCHOOL AUTHORITY VIEWS ABOUT THE OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

A fair number of principals, however, made remarks to the effect that "writing lengthy assignments serve little or no purpose" and that "UD-W students must get down to brass tacks ... they must come down to EARTH."

Objectives regarding the observation and teaching of lessons

As shown in Item 3 of Table XX, about 56% of school authorities seem to agree with the current number of lessons students are required to teach, while approximately 38% apparently disagree. Closer analysis of the respondents that disagreed, however, revealed that a major proportion of these respondents (19 out of 24) do not so much disagree about the *number* of lessons taught, as about the fact that the lessons are unevenly distributed during the three years study of B.Paed-studies. In fact, *83% of school authorities are in full agreement about the number of lessons students are required to teach.* Of the remaining 17%, about half the number wants more lessons to be taught, while the other half wants less. Thus the agreement index of 62 is not a true reflection of the real situation. A similar situation arose during the analysis of item 4 (See Table XX).

I T E M	PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOL AUTHORITY RESPONSES IN THE VARIOUS CATEGORIES					AGREEMENT INDEX
	AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY	
1. Duration of block session B.Paed - 10 weeks UHDE - 8 weeks	2	40	0	48	10	54
2. Times of block sessions Jan/Feb, Apr/May, Jul/Aug	0	27	1	69	3	50
3. No. of lessons taught: B.Paed - 98 UHDE - 84	2	54	6	38	0	62
4. No. of lessons observed: B.Paed - 30 UHDE - Not specified	2	59	6	31	2	63
5. Current basis for evaluating school-based Teaching Practice	4	69	2	25	0	67

TABLE XX : SCHOOL AUTHORITY VIEWS ABOUT BLOCK SESSIONS

It would appear, therefore, that the vast majority of school authorities would like the current objectives regarding the observation and teaching of lessons to remain unchanged, except that ±30% would like to see a more even spread of the work for B.Paed-students.

Additional objectives for school-based Teaching Practice

Respondents suggested a large number of additional activities for students during block sessions. These will be discussed under *Course Content*.

3.2 Learning sequences

3.2.1 Learning sequences in campus-based Teaching Practice

In order to design a curriculum that would closely fit the needs of school authorities, respondents were requested to stipulate the percentages of the time they felt should be devoted to the teaching of various practical skills on campus. (See Appendix III, Question 1 and 2). To assist them, the questions were followed by lists of given skills, and space provided for other skills respondents wanted to add.

Responses to this part of the questionnaire are shown in Appendix IV, Table A. Using the standard deviation scores as a guide, it seems as if the four most controversial skills are : Classroom Management, Lesson Preparation, Guided Discussion, and Programmed Instruction. With standard deviation scores of more than 4, they appear to be skills about which school authorities are in least agreement with one another.

Calculations of the averages indicate that the time-percentages which school authorities favour in teaching the various skills to students

are on the whole like those shown in Table XXI. As evident from the table, figures were rounded off, and adjustments had to be made to incorporate the five additional skills suggested by a significant number of principals (many more skills were suggested, but only by small numbers of respondents). The reason why some of these suggested skills were given a higher percentage of time than others was that more respondents suggested, for instance, interpersonal skills (30%) than charts/pictures (13%). Thus, the number of respondents who proposed additional skills was used as a basis for allocating time-percentages.

In the School Authority model curriculum the time currently set aside for campus-based Teaching Practice at UD-W was used as a guideline when time-percentages were converted to hours. The reader will recall that at present about 148 hours of the B.Paed-course, and 86 hours of the UHDE-course are spent on campus-based programmes.

P.T.O./TABLE XXI

	AVERAGE OF PERCENTAGES OBTAINED (SEE APP. IV)	PERCENTAGES AFTER SUGGESTED SKILLS WERE INCORPORATED
1. Lesson Preparation	11	10
2. Classroom Management	7	7
3. Evaluation	7	6
4. Objectives	7	6
5. Questioning	6	6
6. Concept Learning	5	5
7. Worksheet Construction	5	5
8. Guided Discussions	5	5
9. Chalkboard work	5	5
10. Demonstration	4	4
11. Programmed instruction	4	4
12. Computer-instructed instruction	4	3
13. Groupwork	3	3
14. TV Teaching	3	3
15. Extra-mural activities	3	3
16. Narration	3	3
17. Transparencies	3	2
18. Games	2	2
19. Role Play	2	2
20. Models	2	2
21. O.H.P.	2	2
22. Excursions	2	2
23. Slide shows	2	2
24. OTHER SUGGESTED SKILLS	3	
Interpersonal skills		3
Remedial teaching		2
Schemes of Work		1
Audio Equipment		1
Charts/Pictures		1
	100	100

TABLE XXI : PERCENTAGES OF TIME THAT SHOULD BE SPENT ON THE VARIOUS TEACHING SKILLS (SCHOOL AUTHORITY PERSPECTIVE)

3.2.2 Learning sequences in school-based Teaching Practice

To substantiate conclusions drawn about the amounts of time school authorities would like students to spend at schools, I refer the reader back to Table XX (page 212). It will be noticed that despite an agreement index of 54 (item 1), *most school authorities disagree about the present duration of block sessions.* (58,5% disagreed compared to 41,5% who agreed). When the reasons behind the disagreement were scrutinized, it was found that 96% of respondents in this category are in favour that block sessions *be extended.* Further analysis showed that these school authorities desire an average duration of 17,7 weeks for B.Paed-students, and 9,3 weeks for UHDE-students. It would seem unfair, however, to conclude that school authorities in general want block sessions to be long. After all, about 40% of them are satisfied with the present system. In making allowances for the latter group, it seems reasonable to say that *school authorities want block sessions to be approximately 15 weeks for B.Paed-students, and 8,5 weeks for UHDE-students.* (At present the B.Paed-students do two weeks in their second year of study, two weeks in their third year, and six in their fourth-year - a total of 10 weeks - whereas the UHDE-students do eight weeks in the one-year diploma-course).

Remarks on questionnaires revealed a high degree of dissatisfaction about *the times* when block sessions occur. In fact, *this item showed the lowest agreement index of all items on the entire questionnaire.* The cause of the severe dissatisfaction appears to be the January/February block session. Approximately 70% of principals expressed the view that during that time of the year it is virtually impossible for schools

to accommodate students, since classes have yet to be allocated to teachers, and the schools are generally in a state of disorganization. *Unfortunately the survey failed to produce any viable solutions to this problem.* The fact that January/February is the only time of the year that fits in with the University time-table makes it an issue of such complexity that its solution would require a series of negotiations, at levels beyond the scope of this investigation. Thus it seems as if any solutions that might be suggested here are bound to be still-born.

Two sets of results from questions pertaining to *other* features of the curriculum - course content and evaluation - hold implications for learning sequences according to the school authority perspective of Teaching Practice. Since these findings will only be reported on later in the chapter, their inclusion may appear premature here. Yet for purposes of accuracy time needs to be set aside for them in this section. The one is *Suggested Activities for School-based Programmes*, and the other one *Evaluation of Priority Teaching Skills.*

Keeping these findings in mind, it seems as if school authorities favour the following learning sequences in school-based Teaching Practice for B.Paed-students :

Units contained in the Observation Schedules	±20 hours
Observation of 30 lessons (30 x 40 min.)	±20 hours
Teaching of 98 lessons (98 x 40 min.)	±65 hours
Preparation of 98 lessons (98 x 75 min.)	±125 hours
Suggested Activities for School-based T.P.	±184 hours
Evaluation of Priority Teaching Skills	±36 hours
TOTAL	±450 hours

It will be noticed that the total of 450 hours was derived from the suggested 15 weeks of school-based Teaching Practice (i.e. 15 times 5 days with an average of 6 hours per day =450 hours).

For UHDE-students the data suggest the following time allocations :

Units contained in the Observation Schedule	± 20 hours
Observation of ± 10 lessons (10 x 40 min.)	± 7 hours
Teaching of 84 lessons (84 X 40 min.)	± 56 hours
Preparation of 84 lessons (84 x 75 min.)	±105 hours
Suggested Activities for School-based T.P.	± 54 hours
Evaluation of Priority Teaching Skills	± 13 hours
TOTAL	±255 hours

The total number of hours was calculated in the same way as those for B.Paed-students, but for 8.5 weeks.

3.3 Course content

3.3.1 Course content in campus-based Teaching Practice

The course content of these programmes has already been outlined under the curriculum feature *Aims and Objectives*.

3.3.2 Course content in school-based Teaching Practice

It has already been established that school authorities would like the following course content in school-based programmes for the B.Paed-degree :

1. Units contained in the Observation Schedules
   (see pages 146-150)
2. The observation of ±30 lessons
3. The teaching of ± 84 lessons
4. The preparation of ±84 lessons

In addition free responses to Question 10 and other general comments revealed that there are fifteen other activities which a significant number of school authorities (more than 20%) would like students to do. By using the number of respondents who suggested the specific activity as a basis to determine how important the activity is considered to be, one gets a fair picture of how strong school authorities feel about the various activities. Table XXII contains a list of the suggested activities, as well as an indication of the degree of importance respondents seem to attach to each one.

It stands to reason that a curriculum which claims to give expression to the views of school authorities should contain these topics.

3.4 Teaching Strategies

The school authority survey did not explore the views of principals about teaching strategies that should be used in teacher training. Neither did the qualitative data yield many suggestions about this matter. All that was established was that the respondents seem to favour *an average theory : practice ratio of 7:10 for campus-based programmes.*

	SUGGESTED ACTIVITY	PROPORTIONS OF SUGGESTIONS FALLING IN THIS CATEGORY
1.	SETTING TESTS on lessons taught by student him/herself, marking them, making item analyses, and recording results	13%
2.	Conducting and organizing EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES, especially sport	13%
3.	Practising accurate RECORD-KEEPING, esp. pupils' Record Cards, Marking books, Journals & Schemes of Work	11%
4.	Doing REMEDIAL TEACHING, especially after tests	10%
5.	Becoming familiar with the COMPULSORY EDUCATION ACT or rules contained in the Principal's Handbook, and adhering to these regulations	9%
6.	Practising DIFFERENTIATION in the classroom, especially in teaching mixed ability classes and classes containing some pupils taking subjects on the Higher grade and some on the Standard grade	9%
7.	Using TEACHING AIDS properly, and initiating short-term projects using the Resource Centre, especially the library	9%
8.	Practising to help PROBLEM CHILDREN with the assistance of the Guidance teacher, and studying problem cases	5%
9.	Learning to TYPE AND DUPLICATE worksheets	4%
10.	Becoming familiar with requirements regarding the PROMO-PROMOTION OF PUPILS	3%
11.	Organizing debates, plays, and other CULTURAL ACTIVITIES	3%
12.	CONDUCTING WORKSHOPS designed to help with the upgrading of older teachers	3%
13.	Learning to maintain DISCIPLINE in the classroom	3%
14.	Making an IN-DEPTH-STUDY of the school history of three pupils, preferably one bright, one average, and one slow learner	3%
15.	CONSTRUCTING WORKSHEETS for a lesson the student teaches himself	2%
		100%

TABLE XXII : SCHOOL-BASED ACTIVITIES SUGGESTED BY SCHOOL AUTHORITIES

3.5 Evaluation of students

3.5.1 Evaluation of campus-based Teaching Practice

It will be recalled that in Question 3 of the questionnaire respondents were asked to state for which skills students should be required to pass a compulsory test. The responses are indicated in Appendix IV, Table A; all responses for which tests should be given are marked with a circle. An interesting pattern is revealed when we compare these responses with those of a similar question in the Institutional questionnaire : whereas teacher educators apparently want *to teach* many skills without them being evaluated, principals apparently want many skills *evaluated* without them being taught.

Evaluation of Priority Teaching Skills

If we use the same statistical methods than those used in the previous survey, it is possible to estimate which skills school authorities would like to see assessed. First, the average number of skills respondents want assessed is 6,35; this seems to indicate that school authorities want an average of six skills to be formally assessed. Second, the following six skills were favoured by the highest number of respondents :

1. Lesson preparation
2. Classroom management
3. Worksheet construction
4. Objectives
5. Evaluation
6. Questioning

Thus the survey showed that *students should pass compulsory performance tests in these six skills during the course of their training.* Since most principals indicated that skills can only be meaningfully evaluated in a practical situation, time will have to be made available for them to practice these skills and be assessed during school-based programmes. If an average of 6 hours per skill is set aside for this purpose it seems as if a total of 36 hours school-based time would be needed to cater for these views. I have suggested 6 hours per skill because most of them are complex and would need considerable practice. Six hours make provision for nine 40-min. lessons - eight to practise the skill, and one to assess it.

3.5.2 Evaluation of school-based Teaching Practice

As evident from the discussion above, a study of data obtained from the School Authority survey has led to the emergence of five modules in the school-based programme :

Module 1 : The observation schedule

Module 2 : The observation of a set number of lessons

Module 3 : The preparation and teaching of a set number of lessons

Module 4 : Suggested activities for the school-based programme

Module 5 : The practise and evaluation of priority teaching skills

Regarding the evaluation of these modules, the survey only yielded information about the last three modules. It will therefore have to be accepted that no further details can be supplied about the evaluation of Modules 1 and 2. Furthermore, Module 5 has already been discussed. Thus only information pertaining to the evaluation of Modules 3 and 4 is presented below.

It will be recalled, however, that school authorities appear to object strongly to the tendency of lecturers to evaluate students exclusively on the quality of their lessons (See discussion of Aims, Section 3.1.1 of this chapter). Apparently principals would like the school-based performances of the students to be evaluated on the grounds of a students' *general professional behaviour* as well. Conclusions about the evaluation of Modules 3 and 4 below will therefore be followed up with an examination of this issue.

3.5.2.1 The evaluation of lessons

Only one question in the questionnaire dealt with the evaluation of lessons. School authorities were asked to what extent they agree about current practices regarding the choice of *evaluators*. (See question 11, Appendix III). At present students are evaluated by principals and lecturers; respondents were requested to indicate to what extent they agree with this practice. The following results were obtained :

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES					AGREEMENT INDEX
AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY	
4,5	69	1,5	25	0	67

It would seem as if ±74% of respondents agree with the present practice, while ±25% disagree. When the reasons behind disagreements were scrutinized, it revealed that 56% of those who disagree would like assessment to be done by Heads of Department (at schools) rather than by principals, while the rest favours assessment by class teachers. But seeing that the overwhelming majority tend to agree with the *status quo*, it seems reasonable to conclude that school authorities would be relatively satisfied if evaluation is left in the hands of principals and lecturers.

Approximately 16% of respondents suggested that school-based Teaching Practice should also be assessed during B.Paed-students' second and third years. This ties up with data previously quoted (See Section 3.1.1.8) in which principals call for a deeper involvement of tutors in school-based programmes.

3.5.2.2 Evaluation of suggested activities

Although respondents did not state which of the suggested activities (See Table XXII) they would like to see assessed, it seems educational common sense to evaluate some of them. Judging from data available, it appears to be feasible that the four activities stressed by *most* respondents - Items 1 - 4 in Table XXII - would require assessment.

3.5.2.3 Evaluation of general professional behaviour

Few educationists would disagree with the notion that the general professional behaviour of student teachers needs to be evaluated. The problem is that it gives rise to a series of unresolved issues.

Some of these issues were concisely captured in the remarks of one respondent. In presenting a list of suggestions, he stated :

"1. Tutors should meet and discuss important aspects of supervision; it has been observed that different tutors have different criteria.
2. Make students aware of these criteria.
3. Avoid making remarks that kill enthusiasm.
4. Avoid assigning marks that are too low; rather discuss faults orally and follow-up with student.
5. Liaise with subject advisers to find out what criteria they use to assess teachers; inform students about these."

Two important questions arise for us in reflecting about these remarks, viz. (a) What should the criteria be when general professional behaviour is being evaluated? (b) How can we ensure a high standard of professional behaviour? In an attempt to find out how school authorities feel these questions should be resolved, a brief look at the data is necessary.

Findings regarding criteria for evaluation

It is perhaps too cynical to imply that the survey did not provide any guideline regarding criteria for evaluation. After all, the fact that the data yielded a list of aims shows that some criteria were identified. On theoretical grounds, however, it seems somewhat unlikely that these aims can, without further ado, be converted into useful guidelines. For one thing, they are open to misinterpretation. There must be dozens of ways in which one can interpret, for example, the aim "to keep abreast with modern developments in education." Another problem is that aims are rather abstract.

How could one, for instance, verify the claim that a particular student is "dedicated to the teaching profession?" Difficulties such as these make the aims that were identified unsuitable to be of much use as criteria for the evaluation of students. Many researchers in the area of lesson evaluation (eg. van der Stoep (1979:231), van der Merwe (1980:145), De Corte (1972:251) maintain that an effective evaluation system should include indicators which might enable evaluators to judge specific behaviours according to specific criteria. From this standpoint, the survey failed to provide criteria for evaluation.

This brings us to another point mentioned by the respondent quoted above, viz. the need for tutors to liaise with subject advisers. It has already been pointed out that it was an acute awareness of this need that led to the present survey. Yet the fact that the vast majority of subject advisers apparently refused to participate in the survey, gives some indication of the difficulties involved in bringing about such liaison. Thus, from this standpoint, too, the survey failed to yield criteria for evaluation.

Lastly, some respondents suggested that tutors should use the same criteria as the ones used by principals when they make Merit Assessments of practising teachers. A copy of this form is shown in Appendix IV, Table B. It seems as if this is one of the most viable suggestions about criteria that came from the survey. Unfortunately the criteria on this form are almost as vague as the ones that can be derived from the aims, and may prove to be just as impractical. Perhaps a study of such forms as used in other instances (White, Black and Coloured Departments of education) might prove a worthwhile experience.

Many other related questions, of course, arise from the need to establish criteria. In the final analysis, however, it seems as if school authorities are as uncertain about criteria for evaluation as most teacher educators are.

Findings regarding the establishment of a high standard of professional behaviour

As illustrated in the remarks of the principal quoted earlier, many principals made pleas to the effect that tutors should be more lenient in their assessment. Due to difficulties experienced in the categorization of remarks, the percentage of school authorities holding this view could not be established. Some did, in fact, express themselves in favour of stricter assessment. But the overall impression given was that *the majority was in favour of more lenient assessment by tutors.*

In analysing the implications of these views, it seems useful to glance at other surveys related to the evaluation of school-based Teaching Practice. A large number of investigators have confirmed the tendency of principals to be lenient in their assessment of student teachers. (See those quoted by Turney : 1977, p. 50-53). In one South African survey the extent of this tendency was well illustrated : In a paper entitled *How schools judge student teachers* (read at an Evaluation Seminar at UD-W in 1985), M. Thurlow showed evidence that principals gave A- and B- symbols to practically all students of Natal University placed in schools during 1984. A similar pattern is revealed by principals' assesment of students studying at UD-W. In fact, these assessments are so obviously unrealistic that, more often than not, university personal dare not take them into account for promotion purposes.

The present survey revealed the same disturbing pattern. In the face of this evidence, most of the valuable contributions made by school authorities seem to lose their meaning. It would seem superflous to reproduce here the many shortcomings in teacher training that principals complained about during the survey. Yet, strangely enough, one of the major shortcomings seems to be the principals themselves. How is it possible, one wonders, to label the teaching performances of students as being "far below standard", but at the same time giving them marks ranging from 70% to 90%? On what grounds do school authorities give high grades to students who "fraternize too much with pupils" and "do not know what is acceptable behaviour towards pupils in their care?"

It would seem, therefore, that one of the most important findings of the survey was the discovery of a dichotomy. Apparently, no matter what the behaviour of a student at school is, he/she will still be given a pass mark by the principal. UD-W records indicate that failure marks by principals are practically non-existent. School authorities, it seems, do not practice what they preach.

3.6 Strategies for improvement

3.6.1 Frequency of reviewing course

Responses to Question 5 showed that school authorities favour a strategy in which Teaching Practice courses are reviewed *once every three years*.

3.6.2 Evaluation team

Table XXIII shows the percentages of respondents that advocated various

strategies regarding the team that should revise the course. From this data it seems as if a group consisting of principals, inspectors, lecturers, teachers, and educational planners is the one preferred by the highest percentage of school authorities.

EVALUATION TEAM	% OF RESPONDENTS THAT FAVOURED THIS STRATEGY
Lecturers only	9
Lecturers and practising teachers	12
Lecturers, teachers, and students	5
Panel of educationists	6
Principals, inspectors, lecturers, teachers, and education planners	25
School authorities, lecturers, students, and TASA representatives	9
Lecturers and students	9
Lecturers and school authorities	14
Lecturers, students and school authorities	9
School authorities only	2
	100

TABLE XXIII : EVALUATION TEAMS FAVOURED BY SCHOOL AUTHORITIES

4. SCHOOL AUTHORITY MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

In the same way as it was done in the Institutional Survey, a hypothetical model was designed to make explicit the findings of the School Authority Survey. This model appears in Table XXIV. (At the end of this chapter).

Three curriculum features have been omitted from this model ; aims, teaching strategies, and strategies for improvement. Aims could not be included because they need further refinement to fit into the model;

the general aims identified during the survey need to be converted into specific aims which in turn should be linked to objectives. It could be accepted, however, that the aims stated in Section 3.1 of this chapter would have been part of the model if it was the final draft of a real curriculum. Teaching Strategies do not appear in the model because the survey did not cover this aspect of Teaching Practice. Similarly, data obtained about strategies for improvement were too scanty to warrant inclusion in this model.

5. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF MODEL

The final point to be considered is whether this School Authority curriculum gives expression to the criteria laid down in Chapter 2.

The model shows clearly that school authorities recognize the need for a Teaching Practice course to be practical. In the overwhelming majority of units there is *an obvious practical propensity*. Particularly revitalizing is the substantial number of suggested activities in the school-based programmes. These units highlight the need for students to come to grips with the hard realities of classroom life; remedial teaching, differentiation, regulations, record-keeping, etc. The suggested activities also lend themselves well to learning packages : students could, for instance, be required to teach a lesson using methods of *differentiation*, and to follow it up with a *test*, an *item analysis*, and *remedial teaching*. Such interacting units would offer more lattitude for experimentation and should help students to come to grips with the tight-knit nature of the teaching process. This model seems to offer many opportunities for the construction of such learning packages.

Another worthwhile aspect is the meaningful way in which *the model takes existing constraints into account*. Apart from requiring an extension of block sessions, the model can easily be implemented. It is clear that the units contained in the school-based programme would fit in well with resources and other facilities available at most universities and schools.

This is not to say that the model meets all criteria of practicality. A noticeable weakness is the *poor link between campus - and school-based activities*. In contrast to the Institutional model, this one places the programmes in two distinct compartments - a quality which would make it very difficult for students to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Another trend, found mainly in the area of curricular relevance, is that there is a certain degree of duplication in some units of the school-based programme. Four of the units in Module 3 - lesson preparation, classroom management, worksheet, and evaluation - also appear in other modules. Other curricular shortcomings are the confusion surrounding the assessment of general professional behaviour (Module 4 - see previous discussion), the number of unit features "not established", the total absence of teaching strategies, and the haphazard way in which campus-based units are sequenced. For these reasons the model seems to have *a low level of curricular relevance*.

Despite the obvious existence of a high degree of didactic relevance in the campus-based programme, the model as a whole gives the impression of having *a medium level of didactic relevance*. Many teaching skills

previously shown to be of fundamental importance are absent from the school-based programme.

Perhaps the model's most glaring weakness is the *low level of professional relevance* it reveals. There is no trace of the Humanistic Approach. The units all appear to be in water-tight boxes with little scope for human freedom and the development of warm relationships. Less than 1% of the course is devoted to Interpersonal skills. In effect the model seems to be centred upon the belief that a student simply needs to accumulate information in a technically correct manner, and a good teacher will emerge. The harm done by such an approach could be incalcuable. To help students to develop self-awareness and an insight into human nature the model would need considerable restructuring.

With regards to criteria of democratic-design, the model is unequivocally biased in favour of the views of school authorities. As in the Institutional Model, the opinion of only one group has been taken into account, and the model can therefore not lay claim to being democratically designed.

Apart from these strengths and weaknesses in the model, a number of findings from the survey itself raise some general questions. A brief look at some of these may prove the point :

1. To what extent do principals' conceptions of "good" and "poor" teachers correlate with those of educationists? If there is little correlation between them, many of the objections made by principals are irrelevant.

2. Is it fair of principals to blame universities if teachers fail to continue educating themselves once their formal training is finished? (See Section 3.1.1.7). Surely this is the responsibility of schools, not training institutions.
3. Would school authorities allow university students to help with the up-grading of older teachers on the staff, eg. by presenting workshops to practising teachers? (See Section 3.1.1.7). This is highly questionable.
4. Is it true that there is a lack of liaison between tutors and subject adivsers? (See Section 3.1.1.8). Some subject advisers do visit the university quite regularly.
5. How feasible is the principals' claim that it is solely the responsibility of the university to train teachers? (See Section 3.1.1.8). It seems to be a joint responsibility.

In the light of these apparent discrepancies it may be advisable to conduct further research into the views of school authorities about Teaching Practice.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this survey are perhaps best summarized in the words of the pedagogue who said : "The trouble with being a teacher is that you have to be perfect so early in the morning." In somewhat similar vein, this survey suggested that school authorities expect student teachers to be perfect. From one point of view this is most encouraging, since a striving for perfection obviously lies at the heart of all worthwhile human endeavours, including innovations in teacher education.

But from another point of view it gave rise to a certain feeling of uneasiness. Perfection by whose standards? *It is well-known that in matters pertaining to teacher training the striving for perfection often comes perilously close to indoctrination - to rote learning of set lesson patterns, to mechanistic presentations, and so on.*

All principals who took part in the survey seemed to be caught somewhere between these two conflicting qualities related to perfectionism. The curriculum model that appears towards the end reveals a similar ambiguity. But at the same time it makes explicit the frustrations school authorities experience in trying to meet society's need for "perfect" teachers in a system which gives school authorities no tangible means of contributing towards teacher education.

Finally, the survey led to the identification of possible weaknesses in the attitudes of school authorities themselves. What can school authorities *themselves* do to improve the quality of school-based Teaching Practice? Are they, in fact, using the opportunities that they do have during block sessions to positively influence students - to guide, advise, encourage, arrange suitable confrontation discussions, allow access to information, and so on? Once these questions have been answered, it would certainly open the way for closer co-operation between schools and teacher training institutions.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
MODULE 1 : FIRST OBSERVATION SESSION (WEEK 1)							
1.	See first 5 items in Observation Schedule		8	T.P.I. First 5 days of observation session	1. OBSERVATION SCHEDULE I	At school.	Tutor check whether student comp leted Modul and assesse student's written worl
2.	See Table XXII		4		2. EDUCATIONAL ACT		
3.	See Table XXII		5		3. EXTRAMURAL ACTIVITIES		
4.	See Table XXII		4		4. RECORD-KEEPING		
5.	To prepare one lesson and one or more worksheets to be used in lesson.		1		5. PREPARING FIRST LESSON		
6.	To teach lesson prepared in unit.		1		6. DELIVERING FIRST LESSON		
7.	To set a test on the same material taught in unit 6.		1		7. PREPARING FIRST LESSON		
8.	To administer test prepared in unit 7.		1		8. ADMINISTERING FIRST TEST		
9.	1. To mark the first test. 2. To make an item analysis of results of test		3		9. MARKING FIRST TEST		
10.	To discuss problems experienced with visiting tutor.		2		10. FIRST CONSULTATION WITH TUTOR		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 5	30				
MODULE 2 : FIRST OBSERVATION SESSION (WEEK 2)							
1.	To prepare a remedial lesson based on the results obtained from the first test.		1	T.P.I. Last 5 days of observation session	11. PREPARING FIRST REMEDIAL LESSON	At school	Principal reports on student's general conduct.
2.	1. To hand out marked tests. 2. To discuss results briefly. 3. To teach lesson prepared in unit 1 above.		1		12. DELIVERING FIRST REMEDIAL LESSON		
3.	To prepare a second test on the material taught in Module 1 Unit 6, and Module 2, Unit 2.		1		13. PREPARING SECOND TEST		
4.	To administer test prepared in Unit 3 above.		1		14. ADMINISTERING SECOND TEST		
5.	To mark the second test and record the marks in teacher's markbook.		3		15. MARKING SECOND TEST		
6.	To prepare one new lesson and one or more worksheets to be used in lesson.		1		16. PREPARING SECOND NEW LESSON		
7.	To teach the lesson prepared in Unit 6 above.		1		17. DELIVERING SECOND NEW LESSON		
8.	To prepare a test on the material taught in Unit 7 above.		1		18. PREPARING THIRD TEST		
9.	To administer test prepared in Unit 8 above.		1		19. ADMINISTERING THIRD TEST		
10.	1. To mark the third test. 2. To make an item analysis of test results.		3		20. MARKING THIRD TEST		
11.	To prepare a remedial lesson based on the results obtained from the third test.		1		21. PREPARING SECOND REMEDIAL LESSON		
12.	1. To hand out marked third tests. 2. To discuss results briefly with class. 3. To teach lesson prepared in Unit 11 above.		1		22. DELIVERING SECOND REMEDIAL LESSON		Tutor checks whether stud completed Module 2 and assesses student's written work
13.	To prepare a test on the material taught in Units 7 and 12 above.		1		23. PREPARING FOURTH TEST		
14.	To administer test prepared in Unit 13 above		1		24. ADMINISTERING FOURTH TEST		
15.	To mark the fourth test and record the marks in teacher's markbook.		3		25. MARKING FOURTH TEST		
16.	To observe 10 lessons and write remarks about them.		7				
17.	To discuss problems with tutor.		2				
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 5	30				
	TOTAL c/f	±10	60				

TABLE XXIV. SCHOOL AUTHORITY MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM FOR B.PAED-COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	TOTAL b/f	± 10	60				
	MODULE 3 : CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMME IN TEACHING PRACTICE I						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	See Table XIII		1 5 15 9 7 9 4	T.P.I. (25x2)	26. INTRODUCTION 27. OBJECTIVES 28. LESSON PREPARATION 29. QUESTIONING 30. WORKSHEET CONSTR. 31. EVALUATION 32. CLASS MANAGEMENT	On campus	Each of these skills to be assessed during next Observation Session.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 8,5	50				
	MODULE 4 : SECOND OBSERVATION SESSION						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	See last 4 items in Observation Schedule. See Table XXII To prepare and teach 10 lessons, using skills taught in Module 3; during ± lessons tests must be administered. To mark at least 3 sets of tests To serve relief at least 3 times and practise classroom management skills. See Table XXII See Table XXII		13 5 20 9 2 3 8	T.P.II. Observation Session	33. OBSERVATION SCHEDULE II 24. RECORD KEEPING 25. PREPARING AND DELIVERING LESSONS 26. MARKING TESTS 27. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT 28. EDUCATION ACT 29. EXTRAMURAL ACT	At school	Tutor observes student's lessons and gives him/her a mark for EACH skill taught in Module 3; principal reports on student's general conduct.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	10	60				
	MODULE 5 : CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMME IN TEACHING PRACTICE II						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	See Table XIII		7 7 6 3 4 3 4 7 6 3	T.P.II. (25x2)	30. CHALKBOARD WORK 31. CONCEPT LEARNING 32. DEMONSTRATION 33. EXCURSIONS 34. EXTRAMURAL ACT 35. GAMES 36. GROUPWORK 37. GUIDED DISC. 38. OHP & TRANSP. 39. SLIDE SHOWS	On campus	Not established.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 8,5	50				
	MODULE 6 : CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMME IN TEACHING PRACTICE III (FIRST TERM)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Not established		4 7 3 2 2 2 4	T.P.III. (6x4)	40. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS 41. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT 42. REMEDIAL TEACHING 43. SCHEMES OF WORK 44. AUDIO EQUIPMENT 45. CHARTS & PICTURES 46. NARRATION	On campus	Not established.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 4	24				
	MODULE 7 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	See Breakdown of Units in First Block Session - B.Paed (Appendix IV)		30 30 30 30 30	First Block Session (5 weeks)	47- 51. SEE APPENDIX IV	Each student to do these units in a different sequence to enable students to use school facilities at different times, in rotation.	Formal assessment by tutors; principals report on student's general conduct
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	± 25	150				
	MODULE 8 : CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMME IN TEACHING PRACTICE III (SECOND TERM)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	See Table XIII		6 5 5 4 4	T.P.III. (6x4)	52. PROGRAMMED INSTR. 53. COMPUTER-ASST. INSTR. 54. MODELS 55. ROLE PLAY 56. TV TEACHING	On campus	Not established
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 8	± 4	24				
	MODULE 9 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1- 6.	See Breakdown of Units in Second Block Session - B.Paed (Appendix IV)		180	Second Session (6 weeks)	57- 62. SEE APPENDIX IV	As Module 7	Formal assessment by tutor and principals
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 9	± 30	180				
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	100	598				

TABLE XXIV (cont.). SCHOOL AUTHORITY MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM FOR B.PAED-COURSE

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	MODULE 1 : OBSERVATION SESSION						
1-27.	Same as Modules 1 and 2 of B. Paed-curriculum (See Table XXIV)		60	Jan/ Feb.	1-25. As in Modules 1 and 2 of B.Paed-curriculum	At school	Tutor checks student's work and discusses problems.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 18	60				
	MODULE 2 : CAMPUS-BASED ACTIVITIES DURING FIRST TERM						
. 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	See Table XII		0,5 5 8,5 5 4 5 3,5	Feb.- April (7x 4,5)	26. INTRODUCTION 27. OBJECTIVES 28. LESSON PREP. 29. QUESTIONING 30. WORKSHEET CONSTR. 31. EVALUATION 32. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	On campus	Each of these skills to be assessed during first block session
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 9	31,5				
	MODULE 3 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	The last 4 items in observation Schedule See Table XXII To prepare and teach ± 30 lessions using the 6 skills taught in Module 2; during ± 5 lessons tests must be administered. To mark at least 5 sets of tests. To serve relief ± 5 times. See Table XXII		13 5 42 15 4 3 8	First Block Session (3 weeks)	33. OBSERVATION SCHEDULE 34. RECORD-KEEPING 35. PREPARING AND DELIVERING LESSONS 36. MARKING TESTS 37. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT 38. EDUCATION ACT 39. EXTRAMURAL ACT.	At school	Tutor observes student's lessons and gives his/her a mark for EACH skill taught in Module 2; principal reports on student's general conduct.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 26	90				
	MODULE 4 : CAMPUS-BASED ACTIVITIES DURING SECOND TERM						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11.	See Table XIII		4 2,5 4 3 2 2 2 2,5 4 4 1,5		40. CHALKBOARD WORK 41. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT 42. CONCEPT LEARNING 43. DEMONSTRATION 44. EXCURSIONS 45. EXTRAMURAL ACT. 46. GAMES 47. GROUPWORK 48. GUIDED DISC. 49. OHP & TRANSP. 50. SLIDE SHOWS	On campus	Not established.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	± 9	31,5				
	MODULE 5 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1. 2.	To prepare and teach ± 45 lessons; in ±8 lessons differentiation must figure prominently; in ±8 lessons various teaching aids must be used; at least 3 assignments must be given to pupils, and at least 3 remedial lessons delivered. To mark 3 sets of assignments and record the marks.		94 12	Second Block Session (3½ weeks)	51. PREPARING AND DELIVERING LESSONS 52. MARKING ASSIGNMENTS	At school	Formal assessment by tutors; principals report on student's general conduct
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 31	106				
	MODULE 6 : CAMPUS-BASED ACTIVITIES DURING THIRD TERM						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11	See Table XXII See Table XIII		2,5 2,5 1 1 1 2,5 3 2,5 2 2 2	Sept.- Oct. (5x 4,5)	53. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS 54. REMEDIAL TEACHING 55. SCHEMES OF WORK 56. AUDIO EQUIPMENT 57. CHARTS & PICTURES 58. NARRATION 59. PROGRAMMED INSTR. 60. COMPUTER-ASST. INS. 61. MODELS 62. ROLE PLAY 63. TV TEACHING	On campus	Not established
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 7	22				
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	100	341				

TABLE XXIV (cont.). SCHOOL AUTHORITY MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM FOR UHDE-COURSE.

CHAPTER 6

TEACHING PRACTICE FROM A STUDENT PERSPECTIVE

1. INTRODUCTION

Most student teachers might be inclined to agree with the colloquial explanation of human rights: "As soon as the second human appeared on earth, the rights of the first were cut in half. Now divide your rights by the total population and ..." Indeed, when curricula for teacher education courses are constructed, student views often appear to carry no weight. Many course developers give the impression that they *expect* students to be disagreeable; they *expect* them to demand little work and low standards; they *expect* them to be unreasonable, ignorant, and lazy. Consequently, student views are often disregarded under the pretext of "We cannot allow students to dictate course content."

While critical of the trend, it has to be admitted that course developers may have good grounds for adopting this attitude. A policy in which students are permitted to dictate course content may very well deal a lethal blow to academic standards. But there is an obvious difference between "dictating course content" and "evaluating a course." In the latter instance the focus is not so much on course content as on inter-relationship between the purposes of a course and the extent to which these purposes are fulfilled.

In settling questions of such a valuative nature it seems to be critically important to obtain the views of students. *They are probably the only participants who experience the course in its entirety. While other*

evaluators are obliged to judge the effectiveness of the course from a limited perspective - lecturers by looking at small facets of the course, and school authorities by looking at the results - students speak from "on site" experience. Moreover, they are the main beneficiaries of the course; it is their development that is at the heart of the curriculum decision-making-process.

For these reasons the key task of the present chapter will be to describe the views that student teachers have about Teaching Practice. In an attempt to piece together the results of the student survey, a hypothetical model curriculum will be constructed. The chapter will be concluded with a critical analysis of the model.

At the outset it must be stressed that this survey was conducted at a single university; the sample used was one drawn from a relatively small population (800 000) of South African Indians. Although the students' lifestyle closely approximates that of other population groups in South Africa, particularly English speaking whites and coloureds, their backgrounds are perhaps vastly different, culturally and socially different.

2. NATURE OF SURVEY

The survey consisted of a questionnaire (See Appendix V) that was distributed to 170 student teachers who, in the last quarter of 1984, were in their final year of study at UD-W.

2.1 Basis of selection

The intention was to distribute questionnaire to *all* final-year student teachers at UD-W, i.e. to 152 B.Paed IV-students and 123 UHDE-students. This would have brought the total number of students involved to 278 - the highest number of participants in any of the surveys. But to cut down on the administrative work that would be required to distribute such a large number of questionnaires, it was decided to conduct the survey on campus. That meant abandoning the plan of involving all final-year students since a certain proportion of students do not attend lectures regularly. In the light of this, it became necessary to use a *sample selected on the basis of availability*. Questionnaires were therefore only distributed to those final-year students who attended the two particular lectures during which questionnaires were handed out, viz. 81 B.Paed-students (53%) and 89 UHDE-students (72%).

2.2 Modus operandus

As is evident from the above, the questionnaires were distributed to students during a regular lecture period in October 1984. They were given 40 minutes to complete it. Assurances were given regarding the confidential nature of the responses, but students were requested to write their names on the questionnaires. While filling in their answers, they were allowed to discuss the questions with one another. Students were not promised copies of the raw results because it was obvious that by the time these results would be available, the students would have left the university, and have taken up posts throughout Natal, in the Cape and Transvaal.

2.3 Format of the questionnaire

The questions in the Student Questionnaire were almost identical to the ones in the School Authority Questionnaire. Minor changes in the sequence and wording of the first five questions were aimed at assisting students to grasp the nature of the survey. The question dealing with strategies for improvement was cut to prevent the questionnaire from becoming too lengthy. Apart from these slight modifications, the Student Questionnaire was very similar to the one discussed in the previous chapter.

2.4 Response rate

Considering the basis of selection and the circumstances under which the questionnaire was completed, it is hardly surprising that the survey showed a 100% response rate.

It seems reasonable to claim that the proportion of students who took part in the survey constitutes *a representative sample of final-year student teachers studying at UD-W.* Approximately 63% of all final-year students were involved.

2.5 Limitations of the survey

To a large extent this survey suffered from the same limitations as the School Authority survey. The use of the Lickert-scale coupled with the subjective basis of qualitative data analysis undoubtedly affects the validity of results. (See Chapter 5, Section 2.5).

A disturbing factor in the Student Survey is that it was conducted under

formal conditions : the questionnaires were completed during a lecture period, under the supervision of a lecturer from the Education Faculty. Under such circumstances it would be natural for students to feel inhibited. They might have been afraid to criticize lecturers or courses, especially since respondents were unfortunately requested to write their names on the questionnaires (I did not realize the implications of this requirement at the time). The fact that the Survey took place shortly before the final examinations could have added to the pressure. Also, the fact that only 53% of B.Paeds and 72% of UHDE's turned up at that particular lecture might further colour the results. For these reasons, it seems likely that a fair amount of distortion is present in the picture that emerged from the survey.

2.6 Positive features of the survey

It is fashionable in many quarters to request an evaluation from students towards the end of a course. Unfortunately the results of such informal inquiries are seldom published, which means that lecturers presenting other courses cannot benefit from the insights gained by the lecturer who conducted the inquiry. One of the features which distinguishes this survey is that it gives official recognition to student views. It makes a wide variety of concerned individuals - especially lecturers - aware of the reality of student needs. Although no two courses are ever wholly identical, student needs often show common characteristics. This survey therefore makes it possible for a large number of lecturers to use the findings in the improvement of their courses, where applicable.

The majority of students wrote comments on the questionnaire to clarify

their viewpoints. While the average amount of qualitative data thus obtained was less than the average amount obtained from the School Authority Survey, the overall quantity far exceeded that of the previous survey. (Since this sample was two-and-a-half times the size of the previous one). The most significant factor stemming from a study of these responses is that they provide us with a vivid picture of the problems experienced by students who are required to pass a course characterized by controversy. An example of such a problem is the dilemma in which students find themselves due to the divergent approaches advocated by different specialists. Caught in a web created by conflicting demands made by lecturers with clashing belief-systems, overworked teachers and rigid authorities, the acquisition of a teaching certificate becomes the overriding concern of every student. To obtain such a certificate, each student has to cater to the "whims and fancies" of at least a dozen different superiors. Since none of these "authorities" seem to agree on what constitutes good teaching, the desire to teach well soon becomes overshadowed by the need to be a good chameleon. An ability to change one's teaching style everytime a new evaluator enters the scene, comes to be seen as the key to success. Thus "pretending" becomes more important than "knowing": "knowing your evaluator" more important than "knowing your subject"; and "learning to bluff" more important than teaching.

One of the most positive features of this survey is that it provided students with a platform to communicate problems such as these to lecturers without jeopardizing their futures. Admittedly, some of the remarks may have been based on half-truths or personal inadequacies. Yet most comments seem to be genuine and justified. Taking such views

into account when Teaching Practice curricula are revised would probably lead to the establishment of a more relaxed atmosphere between students and lecturers. It could change students from being perplexed victims of a system that fails to match their needs, into respectable scholars.

Apart from the specific advantages above, the survey also achieved a number of other general purposes as described in the reviews of the previous two surveys.

2.7 Statistical procedures used

In this survey the same statistical procedures were used as in the School Authority survey.

3. THE NATURE OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSES : A STUDENT PERSPECTIVE

In the report on the School Authority Survey it was pointed out that school authorities found it difficult to grasp the significance of campus-based Teaching Practice. One would expect students to see the relationship between campus- and school-based activities more clearly, since they were involved in both programmes. But curiously enough, even they seem to perceive the programmes as being two seperate entities. It would therefore present a distorted picture of students' views if the two components are here treated as one. To prevent such a distortion, a distinction between campus and school activities will be maintained in most parts of this report.

3.1 Aims and objectives

Aims of Teaching Practice

In contrast to the many aims identified from data made available by the School Authority Survey, responses to the Student Survey provided evidence of only one overriding aim : *to develop a unique, but effective teaching style.*

The term "style" is here used to indicate all aspects of teaching that are related to, and determined by, personality factors. As such it includes aspects like a teacher's beliefs and values, his repertoire of teaching skills, his attitude towards children, his ability to display leadership qualities, etc.

Student responses revealed that they lay heavy emphasis on the unique personality of each teacher. Over and over again they expressed their aversion to individuals who try to impose "their own shaky beliefs" on student teachers. One of the highest priorities of any Teaching Practice course, they advocate, should be to help students discover their *own* strengths and beliefs, within the limits imposed on them by the educational system. The call for "more freedom of expression" was undoubtedly the strongest and most frequently mentioned wish encountered during the survey.

These views may be met with the retort that the students' tendency to overemphasize individuality stems from an unwillingness to learn more effective teaching techniques. Without ruling out such a possibility altogether, I would nevertheless contend that this might be an unrealistic

argument. Firstly, it seems to be somewhat absurd to suggest that students do *not* want to learn more effective teaching techniques. Why would they deliberately set out to be ineffective teachers? Second, the students in this survey - being in their fourth year of study - have already proved themselves to be accomplished scholars. On what grounds could one accuse them of being "unwilling to learn?" Third, if "effectiveness" means passing a performance test, these students have every reason to desire effectiveness. What is more natural for them, at this stage, than to wish to complete their studies? In the light of these arguments it seems irrational to claim that pleas for the development of unique teaching styles stem merely from an unwillingness to learn. On the contrary, simple logic coupled with much evidence from the survey indicate that *students want to become effective teachers*. In fact, they seem to have a particularly intense desire to improve their teaching abilities.

Perhaps their insistence on being allowed more freedom to develop their own styles is the result of a loss of confidence in the academic system. As will be shown later in this report, the survey revealed that students seem to have lost faith in their lecturers. Such an interpretation of the data seems to explain why students are so adamant in their calls for measures that would "prevent lecturers from imposing their methods on us." The impression was given that students have more faith in their own abilities than those of their lecturers.

Account for it as we may, there can be no doubt that this is the one aim about which all students are in full agreement.

3.1.1 Objectives of Campus-based Teaching Practice

Although the student questionnaire did not contain specific questions regarding objectives, student views about this matter could be derived from responses to other questions. The richest source that yielded apparently desired objectives was responses to Question 12. In this question students were requested to, among other things, state their views about the present campus-based Teaching Practice programme. To show how data obtained from this source will lead to conclusions later about desired objectives, it may be worthwhile to first examine the main trends revealed by a study of responses in this category.

Student views about the present campus-based programme

Of the 29 students who commented about this programme, 2 comments were positive, 24 negative, and 3 neutral. In the one favourable comment the student expressed gratitude to a particular campus-based tutor, while in the other the student stated : "Micro-teaching was the only beneficial part of the Teaching Practice (campus-based) course."

A major proportion of the negative comments centred upon the uselessness of endless discussions, eg. "Campus-based T.P. is a waste of time. All we did was talk, talk, and more talk," and "The TLC sessions with tutors were a complete waste of time. Students should rather be placed in actual situations," and "Campus-based teaching practice should do away with those readings on reserve and discussions on them. They're a waste of time!" As is evident from these remarks the most common phrase used to describe the programme, was "waste of time." Unfortunately not many students ventured to explain *why* they found the programme unhelpful.

Among the few who did delve a little deeper into the reasons behind their views, frequently mentioned that the discussions were unrealistic: "Most of our ideas and suggestions were too idealistic. Furthermore, we made suggestions knowing that they would not be carried out. What is the sense in this?" It seems as if students found themselves discussing problems that were not related to real teaching situations. Thus another student wrote : "What we discussed in our TLC sessions about the ideal way to do 'this and that' is very different when it came to being in a class and trying all these 'ideals' out".

The picture that emerges from the data is that the majority of students apparently experience the programme as a series of idealistic discussions based on "those readings on reserve" (i.e. more theory) and flights of the imagination - all of which prove to be "a waste of time" when "it came to being in a class."

Looking at the programme from this angle leads one to wonder whether students would perhaps want this part of the course "scrapped" (as a few suggested). A closer examination of the data, however, revealed an opposite trend. The majority of students, it seems, merely want the current programme to be replaced by one that will provide them with "greater opportunity for merging theory with practice." In the words of one student : "(Lecturers should) create situations which are closer to the real classroom situation so that students are aware of what to expect when they are faced with the real thing." Another one suggests : "There should be a closer relationship between campus-based and school-based T.P. - theory and practice should not be seen as two seperate (sic) entities"

The assumption that students are not against a campus-based programme *per se* seems to be confirmed by the comprehensive number of responses indicating that the course is "too theoretical." Although many of these remarks relate to the teacher training course as a whole, those who refer to campus-based programmes mostly imply replacement, not removal. A few examples may serve to prove the point :

> "I feel there should be more practical work, i.e. more micro-teaching than theory"
>
> "Students should be given more practice in methods of teaching, not useless theory and exercises."
>
> "let's make it 80% practical and enjoy it."
>
> "I feel practice should be the main content of the course. After all, this is what teaching is about, not a whole lot of unnecessary, easy forgettable (sic) theory."

On the basis of comments like these, the conclusion can be drawn that *the majority of students want the campus-based programme to be retained, but rigorously restructured to make it more practical.*

This conclusion makes it imperative to establish what students mean when they use the terms "practical" or "practice." In the survey there is evidence that few, if any, students have a clear understanding of these concepts - a fact that is not surprising, since most educationists experience difficulties in defining these terms. Nevertheless, a closer description of students' conception of them is important if the purposes of the survey are to be achieved.

Using the frequency in which specific nations were mentioned as a basis

to determine each one's significance, it is possible to give a broad description of the kind of activities which students seem to consider as being "practical." The ideas that were mentioned most frequently are stated below as general objectives, because that is what they appear to be. Simultaneously, each objective seems to constitute a different answer to the question "what do students mean by "practical?", as stated indirectly by a significant number of students.

General objectives of campus-based Teaching Practice

Due to the fluid character of qualitative data, it was impossible to determine with any accuracy how many students were in favour of the various objectives below. Broadly speaking, each one was mentioned by more than 20% of respondents. The sequence in which the five objectives appear also does not correlate with the frequency in which the suggestions were made.

3.1.1.1 To master specific teaching skills

Responses that provided guidelines regarding specific teaching skills fell into three categories : general remarks, course content chosen from a given list (Question 1), and course content suggested by students (Question 2).

General remarks

The data provided ample evidence that students would like to be taught specific skills. Some of the remarks were vague - eg. "We should rather use time set aside for campus-based T.P. to develop teaching skills" - while others stressed particular skills.

The skill in which the largest number of students seek more guidance appears to be *lesson preparation;* remarks such as "the Teaching Practice course should make provision for students to prepare lessons adequately," "the main problem we were faced with was that we knew too little about lesson preparation," and "one theory lesson devoted to Lesson Preparation is insufficient," were rife.

Requests for stronger assistance in the mastery of many other skills were also put forward : "Test construction and assessment are two important objectives which are overlooked in campus-based teaching." "techniques of note-taking (by pupils) and chalkboard work should be taught;" "the major problem lies in classroom management, lesson preparation, and questioning:" etc.

Although many more examples could be quoted, these few appear to be sufficient to substantiate the claim that most students would like certain specific skills to be taught explicitly.

Specific skills identified by students

Respondents were presented with the same list of possible course content topics as those in the two other surveys previously discussed. Unlike respondents in the other surveys, however, students were pertinently asked to indicate which items on the list they believe should be included in the programme. (Question 1) The percentages of students who favoured the various items appear in the last column of Table A in Appendix VI.

Calculations reveal that *the average number of the given items which students want to be included was 11*. Thus, although all items were favoured by various numbers of students, it seems reasonable to conclude that *only the eleven skills which received the highest ratings are those that most students want in the programme*. These eleven skills were :

1.	Chalkboard work	57%
2.	Classroom management	79%
3.	Concept learning	85%
4.	Evaluation	57%
5.	Groupwork	46%
6.	Guided discussions	68%
7.	Lesson preparation	98%
8.	Objectives	76%
9.	Questioning	100%
10.	Transparencies	49%
11.	Worksheet construction	53%

The objectives of each of these skills are the same as those in the Institutional Survey (See Chapter 4).

A second set of specific skills that students apparently would like to acquire, are those suggested by themselves. (Question 2). While most of these skills will be discussed as part of the next general objective (Interpersonal Skills), three technical skills were suggested by a major proportion of students : *Record-keeping*, *Typing and Wallcharts*. To give full expression to the views of students, these three should be included in the curriculum.

3.1.1.2 To master interpersonal skills

Most of the activities proposed by students themselves seem to be of an interpersonal nature. One of the most amazing discoveries of the survey was that *more than a quarter of the respondents suggested that they be taught "confidence"*. What was meant by this term is not clear. One plausible explanation may be that many students found Teaching Practice so stressful that they had difficulty in coping with the situation. This explanation is supported by the unduly large number of remarks in which students described school-based experiences as being tension-filled. One student, for instance, wrote : "Adequate self management techniques should be imparted to student teachers. Students put themselves under incredible pressure at school. They work in a state of examination phobia. Please something - anything - *must* be done about this." Another commented : "Students should be prepared for the many inhibitive and stifling factors which sadly constitute an integral part of the educational System." As is evident from these remarks, some students blame themselves while others blame the system. Many blame lecturers, eg. "One is constantly in a state of nervous exhaustion because a lecturer may 'sneak up' on you", and "We are encouraged by some lecturers to maintain individuality but this can hardly be done : some lecturers insist on conformity. They prove to be adamant about their views and feel threatened when challenged." Others complain about their own inability to control pupils ("Serving relief becomes a nightmare") or found teachers and principals to be unsympathetic ("students will always be regarded as intruders at school"). Whatever the causes behind the tension may be, the fact that such a large percentage of students want to be taught "confidence" reveals a rather intense need for psychological guidance and/or instruction in interpersonal skills.

3. *Without examples on campus, students tend to imitate teachers at schools*

One student summed up this argument as follows : "When students do go out that first block session, they immediately start to imitate the teacher under whose supervision they are. Can you blame them? They have had no experience in the profession." Whether this is an acceptable practice is not a debatable point : as the student pointed out, it is inevitable for students to imitate teachers. However, it seems regrettable that they are not acquainted with a richer variety of examples to choose from. It is also significant to note that examples of traditional approaches to teaching are continuously encountered at schools, while modern approaches are apparently not reinforced by examples on campus.

From this discourse two conclusions can be drawn : Firstly, that students want to observe and discuss a whole range of demonstration lessons, preferable delivered by lecturers. Secondly, that students want lecturers to use the same methods in their own teaching as those they expect students to apply.

A final point about discussions of examples were made by a number of students. Apparently some tutors did present students with examples of teaching-in-action, but prohibited free discussions about them. Instead of allowing students to criticize the lessons (or lecturers) freely, such tutors seem to insist on structured discussions, i.e. "forcing us to agree, to say what they want us to say, and so we just dry up." Although only seven students referred to this problem, it could explain, up to a point, why so many students found discussions

"a waste of time." This is the reason why the phrase "in an uninhibited way" was added to the particular objective discussed in this section.

3.1.1.4 To discuss students' own Teaching Practice problems

What is conspicuously absent in the Teaching Practice programme, according to the data, are opportunities for students to discuss their own Teaching Practice problems. As put rather bluntly by one respondent : "The teaching practice course should not frustrate prospective teachers. They should be free to discuss their *own* problems and not problems set by the *faculty*." This sentiment is echoed by a considerable group of students. The need to express their feelings appear to be particularly acute after block sessions. One student even suggested that students should be invited to write letters to the faculty about their experiences during block sessions. The general feeling is that the time allowed for the post-practice seminar is insufficient for students to air their views or to have their questions answered. Strong hints were dropped to the effect that the presence of lecturers during these discussions is not always desirable : "Allow students to sort out the problems first - failing which they could turn to the lecturer for guidance." They simply want, it seems, to compare notes (or lecturers). A few suggested that practising teachers should be invited to join these sessions; others favour groups that would include inspectors, principals, first-year teachers, or pupils. Yet mostly they want to talk to each other : "Each student should learn to relate to other students. If he is able to display confidence among his fellow students, then he will be even more at ease with pupils."

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One of the most frequent suggestions made was that students should spend one or more periods before each block session in a *group discussion with the particular lecturer who will visit them during Teaching Practice*. "Lecturers should meet with the student teacher before the block session so that lecturers and students know what to expect from each other. So often the only time a lecturer sees a student is in the classroom and both parties receive shocks."

3.1.1.5 To do micro-teaching

Although micro-teaching is, strictly speaking, not so much an objective as a teaching strategy, the requests for more micro-teaching were so numerous that it seems appropriate to state it as an objective. Since details regarding the required *content* of micro-teaching sessions were not supplied by respondents, suggested content may need to be formulated at a later stage during this project.

3.1.2 Objectives of school-based Teaching Practice

Despite the face that the survey yielded more data pertaining to school-based than to campus-based programmes, the desired objectives for school-based Teaching Practice were easier to identify; specific questions were asked about its content.

3.1.2.1 Written assignments

Remarks on questionnaires revealed that ± 72% of students would like the present observation schedule to be *removed from the syllabus*. These respondents felt that time does not allow for written assignments

to be completed in addition to their lesson preparation and teaching duties. However, a fair idea of which written assignments they consider most important can be gleaned from Table XXV.

From this table it appears that there are three areas which most students consider worthy of further investigation when they are at schools : *Record-keeping* (Item 5), Service available at *Resource Centres* (Item 6), and *Administering tests and examinations* (Item 8). Items 2, 4 and 9 viz., *school assemblies*, *school stock*, *and observing pupils* seem to be particularly unpopular.

The calculations contained in Table XXV nevertheless are overridden by the fact that the overwhelming majority of students seem to disapprove of all written assignments during Teaching Practice.

The only kind of written assignment that was advocated by a significant group of students, was one they would like to do *after* the first block session, in which they would be required *to report on difficulties they experienced at schools*. Regarding the marking of these assignments, several students stressed the importance of assignments being returned to them after they have been marked."

P.T.O./TABLE XXV...

ITEM	PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS RESPONSES IN THE VARIOUS CATEGORIES				IMPORTANCE INDEX
	Unimportant	Not too Important	Important	Very Important	
1. Class registers	19	30	40	11	61
2. School assemblies	34	50	12	4	58
3. Teachers' duties besides teaching	6	28	52	14	69
4. School stock and it's control	15	47	32	6	57
5. Place of Journals, Schemes of Work, and Prep. books	3	10	38	49	83
6. Services available at Resource Centre	4	13	56	27	77
7. Out-of-school excursions	5	39	49	7	64
8. Administering tests and Examinations	2	11	47	40	80
9. Observing and interpreting the classroom behaviour of three individual pupils	45	28	18	9	48

TABLE XXV : STUDENT VIEWS ABOUT OBSERVATION SCHEDULES

3.1.2.2 Number of lessons taught

Responses to a number of questions have been summarized in Table XXVI. As shown in Item I, the majority of students tended to agree with the present number of lessons which they are required to teach. The agreement index of 63 indicates a *medium level of agreement*. Closer examination of the 33% of respondents who disagreed about current requirements revealed that reasons for the disagreement fell into two main categories : those students who want the number of lessons to be reduced, and those who *want the number of lessons to be progressively increased as the student becomes more proficient*. (Eg. from first year through to fourth year). These views, however, do not detract from the fact that the majority of students apparently agree with current requirements.

3.1.2.3 Number of lessons observed

Data obtained showed an agreement index of 68, i.e. *a medium to high level of agreement* about present requirements. In the light of responses summarized in Item 2, Table XXVI, it seems feasible to conclude that most students are satisfied with this aspect of the programme.

I T E M	PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES					AGREEMENT INDEX
	AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY	
1. Present number of lessons students are required to teach	2	55	10	28	5	63,43
2. Present number of lessons students are required to serve	8	56	7	27	2	68,14
3. Present duration of block session	5	33	5	45	12	54,56
4. Present times when block sessions occur	1	36	6	49	8	54,59
5. Present choice of evaluators assessing students	3	58	10	25	4	66,22

TABLE XXVI : STUDENTS VIEWS ABOUT CURRENT SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMMES

3.1.2.4 Suggested activities during school-based programme

Students suggested a multitude of activities which they would like to do during Teaching Practice. Unfortunately the suggestions were of such a diverse nature that very few of them revealed definite preferences

shown by a significant number of students. In the final analysis only five activities were repeatedly suggested by considerable groups of respondents : Record-keeping, Staff interaction, Group discussions, Private conferences, and Progressive involvement.

Record-keeping

Countless numbers of respondents reported embarrassment in having to "scrounge around" for help to do administrative duties apparently requested by teaching staff. Many felt that teachers should be formally requested (in a letter from the faculty) to teach and allow students to fill in registers, record cards, journals, marking schedules, etc. Such a request will apparently earn students the right to ask for formal guidance from teachers.

Staff interaction

A large variety of students requested "A project about interaction between staff members" or something similar. What actually is meant by this could not be discovered from available data. It seems as if students are disturbed about certain boundaries that are set up, seperating teachers from students, or teachers from each other. Quite a few asked that students should be allowed to attend staff meetings. Because remarks about this matter were so vague, - and yet numerous - further investigations would be required to clarify the suggestion. At this point it will suffice to note that a need for stronger interaction seems to exist.

Group discussions

General group discussions organized by lecturers were frequently suggested. Apparently this proposal stems from the same needs as those mentioned earlier : students want to discuss their own problems with each other. (See section 3.1.1.4 of this chapter)

Private conferences

As will be shown later in this chapter, most students seem to resent the fact that many tutors shy away from private discussions with the students in their care. Apparently students value personal conferences between student and tutor after a lesson.

Progressive involvement

A whole array of suggestions were made to the effect that students should gradually be given more responsibility in classrooms. This tallies well with the suggestion previously mentioned that the number of lessons taught by students should be progressively increased as they gain more experience. It is noteworthy, though, that students requesting progressive involvement do not merely want to teach more lessons; most of them want to eventually "take over all duties of the teacher" - at least for a day or two. The general impression gained from these proposals is that students feel "teaching is more than preparing lessons." They point out that "we are not accustomed to spend 7½ hours at work" and would like to be given opportunities to get used to it gradually.

3.2 Learning sequences

Utilizing the above findings regarding aims and objectives, it is possible to make rough estimates about the percentages of time that students appear to favour for various activities. But before the time implications of each one can be stipulated, general findings specifically related to learning sequences need to be outlined.

3.2.1 General findings related to learning sequences

A study of the data revealed six major changes which students apparently would like to see implemented :

3.2.1.1 Concentration on only one secondary school subject during a specific block session

The speed with which secondary school student teachers have to alternate between two teaching subjects seems to be a major stumbling block in their effort to link theory to practice. At first glance one might suppose this to be a trivial matter; from an academic standpoint the present system in which students learn to teach two subjects during a single block session seems a suitable means to promote diversity of perceptions. Yet comments from a considerable percentage of students revealed this to be a major source of discontent.

The main argument revolves around the different criteria used by different supervisors. Two subjects necessitate familiarity with at least six sets of criteria as laid down by six different instructors. This necessity is caused by the alleged fact that students who are

visited by the same Method lecturer who prepared them for Teaching Practice on campus are out-numbered by those who are visited by "strange" lecturers. This places most students in a situation of having to change the teaching strategies which they learned from their Method lecturer to suit the requirements of the one who actually visits them. Hence four sets of criteria need to be memorized (two for each subject). Furthermore, the criteria of the two teachers to whom they are attached have to be catered for. The problem is intensified when, as often happens, different tutors visit the student during the first and second block sessions, bringing the total number of instructors involved to eight. Evidently this leaves many students with a deep sense of insecurity.

The general feeling seems to be that concentration on only one secondary school subject during a particular block session would cut the number of instructors involved at a time, to three : the Method lecturer on campus, the lecturer who visits them, and the teacher to whom they are attached. It would also facilitate the mastery of one subject at a time, and make it easier for the class teacher to gradually increase the students' work load and responsibilities in the classroom.

3.2.1.2 Extension of block sessions

To substantiate the claim that students would like the block sessions to be extended, it is necessary to refer back to the results presented in Table XXVI, (Item 3). It will be noticed that the argument index of 55 indicates *a medium to low level of agreement with the present duration of block sessions*. In actual fact responses showed that 57%

of students would like the block sessions to be extended. Calculations of the data pertaining to the amount of weeks these students would prefer to spend at schools disclosed the following averages :

B.Paed-students : 16 weeks (spread over 3 years)

U.H.D.E.-students: 10 weeks (during one year)

3.2.1.3 Replacement of the January/February observation session with campus-based Teaching Practice

Responses regarding the times when block sessions occur revealed a similar situation as the one outlined above. (See Table XXVI, Item 4). Although a few objections were lodged about the suitability of the April/May-session, the majority of students (58%) reported severe dissatisfaction with the January/February observation session. It was repeatedly pointed out that schools are then in a state of disorganization and that students had great difficulty in teaching even the small number of lessons required by the faculty. The findings show that disagreement about this matter is even stronger than the agreement index of 55 - indicating a medium to low level of agreement - implies.

Fourteen students mentioned that they would have preferred to spend the time set aside for the January/February session on learning teaching skills on campus.

3.2.1.4 Provision for B.Paed-students to spend a substantial part of their third year at schools

A significant proportion of B.Paed-students requested opportunities

to spend a few days every week at schools while they are in their third year. Two reasons were frequently mentioned. First, the third year was experienced as being "rather empty" since students had "much time on their hands" (an observation that tallies with a previous finding in this study that the average third-year-student is only required to attend 10 lectures per week - See Chapter 3). Second, the fourth year is "overloaded with so many unnecessary subjects" that students find it difficult to come to grips with Teaching Practice. Some students found the imbalance so frustrating that they even proposed that the whole of their third year should be spent at schools. The majority of those who commented about this matter, however, advocated two or three days at schools per week, throughout their third year.

3.2.1.5 Opportunities for students to become acquainted with the school routine before lecturers start visiting them

An overwhelming number of students asked for either (a) an extension of their preliminary visits to schools, or (b) an agreement from lecturers that they will not visit students during the first week of a block session.

3.2.1.6 Opportunities for progressive involvement

Suggestions in this category seem to tie up with the above point, and has previously been discussed (See Section 3.1.2.4). The gist of this proposal is that provision should be made for students to progress from being mere observers in the classroom to eventually taking over all the duties of the teacher. This implies that students would like their

school-based programme to be divided into modules; the start of each module would mark the beginning of a period of deeper involvement, until all classroom responsibilities are given to the student. For instance :

First week : Module 1 - 0% involvement
Second week : Module 2 - 20% involvement
Third week : Module 3 - 40% involvement, etc.

An implementation of this suggestion would obviously bring about a change in the requirements for Teaching Practice : instead of expecting the *students* to teach, say, 84 lessons, *teachers* will be invited to place their responsibilities increasingly in the hands of students.

3.2.2 Learning sequence in the campus-based programme

In the absence of quantitative data, the learning sequences that are likely to give expression to students' ideas as set out in this section, are based on general impressions. They hold no claims of being an accurate reflection of students views. The time allocations merely represent *ONE* way in which the expressed needs of students might be catered for in a Teaching Practice curriculum.

Judging from the emphasis which respondents placed on the various activities, it seems as if they would want more time to be devoted to discussion-centred components (viz. the last four objectives mentioned in section 3.1.1) than on specific skills. For this reason it may be desirable to spend approximately 60% of campus-based time on the

discussion-centred components, and only 40% on the improvement of specific teaching skills. This leaves us with 60% of the programme that can be devoted to the achievement of the four discussion-centred objectives, i.e. ±15% for each. The time available for campus-based activities overall would then be divided as follows :

1.	Specific skills	± 40%
2.	Interpersonal skills	± 15%
3.	Discussion centred upon examples of teaching-in-action	± 15%
4.	Discussions of students' own T.P. problems	± 15%
5.	Micro-teaching	± 15%

Time available for campus-based modules

It will be remembered that the present allocations given to campus-based Teaching Practice is approximately 187 hours for B.Paed-students (50 hours for T.P. I, 50 hours for T.P. II, and 87 hours for T.P. III) and 87 hours for UHDE-students. However, if the students' suggestions that the January/February observation session be replaced by campus-based activities, is implemented, more time would become available. Since the observation session consists of approximately 60 hours (6 hours per day for 10 days), the overall time that might be spent on the programmes will then be 307 hours for B.Paed (187 + 120) and 147 hours for UHDE (87 + 60).

Further adjustments to accommodate student requests for an extension of block sessions would result in the following approximate times being available for Teaching Practice :

	CAMPUS-BASED	SCHOOL-BASED	TOTAL
B.Paed-course	288 (37%)	480 (63%)	768
UHDE-course	120 (28%)	300 (72%)	420

In correlating these time-allocations to those in the previous sub-section the percentages of the *total* Teaching Practice course that might be devoted to the various campus-based modules are as follows :

BPaed-course

Specific Skills	±15% (40% of 37%)
Interpersonal Skills	±5,5%(15% of 37%)
Teaching in action	±5,5%(15% of 37%)
T.P. Problems	±5,5%(15% of 37%)
Micro teaching	±5,5%(15% of 37%)

UHDE-course

Specific skills	±12% (40% of 28%)
Interpersonal Skills	± 4% (15% of 28%)
Teaching-in-action	± 4% (15% of 28%)
T.P. Problems	± 4% (15% of 28%)
Micro-teaching	± 4% (15% of 28%)

These are the times that will be used as guidelines in the Student Model of a Teaching Practice curriculum presented towards the end of this Chapter.

Learning sequences and specific skills

It has previously been established that there are 14 specific skills which students would like to be taught : 11 given skills and 3 suggested ones. (See Section 3.1.1.1)

In the first column of Table A in Appendix VI the results of the question about learning sequences have been summarized. Unfortunately these sequences needed to be adjusted to give expression to the apparent wish of students to only learn the 11 most important skills. Provision also had to be made for the three suggested skills. In Table XXVII the outcome of these adjustments is shown.

S K I L L S	% OF MODULE THAT MIGHT BE DEVOTED TO SKILL
1. Chalkboard	4,5
2. Classroom Management	7
3. Concept Learning	10
4. Evaluation	7
5. Groupwork	7
6. Guided Discussion	9
7. Lesson Preparation	10
8. Objectives	7
9. Questioning	11
10. Transparencies - O.H.P.	7
11. Worksheet Construction	7
12. Record-keeping	4,5
13. Typing	4,5
14. Wallcharts	4,5
	100

TABLE XXVII : APPROXIMATE TIME ALLOCATIONS FOR SPECIFIC SKILLS : STUDENT PERSPECTIVE

3.2.3 Learning sequences in the school-based programme

The fact that B.Paed-students favour 16 weeks for school-based experiences while UHDE-students opted for 10 weeks, reflects the necessity to treat the learning sequences of these two courses seperately.

3.2.3.1 Learning sequences in the B.Paed-course

A very useful contribution made by students was the suggestion that they should spend two to three days every week at schools during their third year. Although an implementation of this suggestion is bound to give rise to a series of problems related to the University time-table, it may be useful to accept it for the time being as a workable proposal. Under such an arrangement, third-year students might be placed in schools for approximately 40 days i.e. 2 days per week for 20 weeks. This would be equivalent to eight weeks school-based Teaching Practice to be done in their final year, viz. two block sessions of four weeks each.

With these assumptions in mind, attempts can be made to give recognition to their desire for progressive involvement, perhaps in the following manner :

Third-year-students
Time available - 40 days
Method Subject 1
Unit 1 - 4 days 0% involvement
Unit 2 - 4 days 25% involvement
Unit 3 - 4 days 50% involvement
Unit 4 - 4 days 75% involvement
Unit 5 - 4 days 100% involvement

Fourth-year-students
Time available - 2 x 4 weeks
First block session - Method Subject
Unit 1 - 1 week 25% involvement
Unit 2 - 1 week 50% involvement
Unit 3 - 1 week 75% involvement
Unit 4 - 1 week 100% involvement

Method Subject 2

Unit 1 - 4 days 0% involvement
Unit 2 - 4 days 25% involvement
Unit 3 - 4 days 50% involvement
Unit 4 - 4 days 75% involvement
Unit 5 - 4 days 100% involvement

Second block session - Method Subject 2

Unit 1 - 1 week 25% involvement
Unit 2 - 1 week 50% involvement
Unit 3 - 1 week 75% involvement
Unit 4 - 1 week 100% involvement

Despite the fact that this design is only relevant to secondary school students, it should not be difficult to work out one on similar lines for primary school student teachers.

In the event of this programme being implemented, provision will also have to be made for the four additional activities proposed by students : learning to keep records, interacting meaningfully with staff members, general group discussions, and personal conferences with tutors. It seems probable that the first two may be done during the third year, while the latter two could be implemented during school-based units in the fourth year.

3.2.3.2 Learning sequences in the UHDE-course

If one accepts the view that Teaching Practice in the UHDE-course is not meant to be as comprehensive as it is in the B.Paed-course, the above blueprint can merely be adjusted to suit the needs of UHDE-students. Because the latter group of students would not have had previous school experiences, each of their two block sessions might be extended to five weeks. The total programme could consist of the following units.

- *First block session*

Method Subject 1

Unit 1 - 1 week 0% involvement
Unit 2 - 1 week 25% involvement
Unit 3 - 1 week 50% involvement
Unit 4 - 1 week 75% involvement
Unit 5 - 1 week 100% involvement

Second block session

Method Subject 2

Unit 6 - 1 week 0% involvement
Unit 7 - 1 week 25% involvement
Unit 8 - 1 week 50% involvement
Unit 9 - 1 week 75% involvement
Unit 10 - 1 week 100% involvement

As in the case of the B.Paed-course, the four activities suggested by students can be incorporated into this framework.

3.3 Course content

Since the course content would correlate with the objectives previously identified, it seems unnecessary to outline the topics here. To avoid duplication as much as possible, the reader is referred to Section 3.1 for details about course content, as seen from a student perspective.

3.4 Teaching strategies

Three guidelines regarding teaching strategies emerged from the survey : suggestions about the theory : practice ratio, the desirability of micro-teaching, and the need for closer student-tutor relationship. Of these three the latter one received most of the emphasis and will therefore be examined in greater detail than the other two.

3.4.1 Suggestions about the theory : practice ratio

The results about the theory : practice ratios for specific skills are summarized in the second column of Table A in Appendix VI.

Calculations of the averages showed that the three skills in which students apparently need most practice are *Classroom management*, *Concept learning* and *Evaluation*.

The data further indicate that students would like to spend *an average of 3,48 periods* practising teaching skills on campus for every period in which they are taught theoretical aspects of teaching.

3.4.2 Micro teaching

One of the most definite trends revealed by the survey is the students' desire for more exposure to micro-teaching situations. As previously pointed out, the desire for more micro-teaching was so frequently expressed that students would probably agree to it if a whole module should be devoted to it. (See Section 3.1.1.5)

3.4.3 The need for a closer student-tutor relationship

Most curriculum books contain reference to the importance of a trusting relationship between students and tutor. According to K.E. Shaw, for instance, "Harmony is a major test of the effectiveness of course management." For this reason one of the most disturbing realities highlighted by the survey was the unmistakable hostility revealed by most students in their remarks about tutors.

The following remarks, chosen randomly from a whole array of possible examples, may illustrate the point. One student writes "I, together with other students, was faced with several nasty experiences with regard to the teaching practice course. Different lecturers require

different things from us. How are we to foresee their requirements?" Another one, complaining also about the difference in criteria, ends off by saying : "lecturers feel they just have to give you as many faults as possible." A third one explains : "I understand that lecturers are human, with feelings as I have, but they must also realize that just as they are unique, so are students." Another states it more explicitly : "Lecturers should not be allowed to upset student teachers when they visit them at schools. They should be instructed (commanded) to be tactful, sympathetic, and understanding at all times. Just like teachers are expected to be sympathetic towards pupils, so too should lecturers at least learn to be sympathetic to their students."

The harm done by such deep-seated feelings of distrust between students and tutors are obviously incalculable. The main danger is not so much that the relationship between two people might be strained, but that *it could encourage students to adopt a general attitude of defiance in all teaching-learning actions*. That such a hardening of positions has already set in on a limited scale is implied by remarks like "Why should we adjust to suit others?" and "Students should be left free to sort out their own problems." These utterances suggest that a rather severe inflexibility has arisen in the minds of some students - the very weakness they find intolerable in lecturers.

In attempting to find solutions to this problem, a variety of students recommended measures directed at establishing closer relationships between tutors and students. To relate to each other in a technically correct manner is not enough. They must learn "to communicate on an emotionally sensitive level." Opportunities should be created for them

to "talk informally", "socialize", "getting to know each other" - "the gap between the lecturing staff and students is too wide!" - One of the most persistent complaints was that, more often than not, student and tutor meet each other "as strangers for the first time at school." Apparently most of them remain strangers throughout the programme.

Closely linked to these suggestions is another one mentioned by a high proportion of students : *the same lecturer who teaches them in Method on campus should visit them at schools.* Being surprised at the large number of students who commented about this matter, the researcher followed it up by asking a group of about 100 UHDE-students during a lecture to indicate by a show of hands how many of them were *NOT* visited by their regular Method lecturers. More than half the class raised their hands. This implies that chilly relationships might well be at the root of the seeming hostility existing between students and lecturers.

It would probably be futile to recommend that only specific Method lecturers should visit students; the sheer numbers of students in some classes make this a virtual impossibility. But perhaps it could be arranged for students to be visited by their campus-based Teaching Practice tutor. *In fact, the ideal solution might be to allocate a small group of students to a particular Teaching Practice tutor and let this tutor guide them through most of their Teaching Practice experiences- on campus and at school.* It will be remembered that this is the procedure advocated by supporters of the Humanistic Approach (See Chapter 2).

The implementation of such a procedure is bound to present a number of

logistic problems. Evidently B.Paed-students would then from their first year onwards, be divided into small groups on the basis of their main teaching subject. In addition, the Teaching Practice tutor to whom they are allocated would have to be qualified to assist them in mastering the skills necessary for teaching that same subject. Yet these difficulties do not seem to be insurmountable. After all, this is exactly the kind of arrangement that is always used to ensure that all students are assessed. Why can this not be done at an earlier stage of their training?

The advantages of the above proposal appear to be remarkable. It would facilitate the establishment of a meaningful and enduring relationship between student and tutor; it would give the student a tutor with whom he can discuss his numerous Teaching Practice problems; it would enable the tutor to identify the student's weaknesses and strengths at an early stage, and give him clear guidance; it would create opportunities for students to support each other; it would create a close link between campus- and school-based Teaching Practice; it would reduce the tension regarding criteria for assessment; and, most important, it may restore the trust and respect that should exist between tutor and student.

In the Model curriculum constructed from data received during the student survey, this idea has been incorporated. It seems to be the most appropriate way in which the desire for a closer student-tutor relationship might manifest itself in a Teaching Practice curriculum.

3.5 Evaluation of students

It should be evident by now that the most important student grievances appear to be related to evaluation issues. Approximately 90% of the general remarks centred upon lecturers' evaluation of students during school-based Teaching Practice. Since the space available here is decidedly insufficient to throw full light on student views about evaluation, only the more salient criterial attributes will be touched upon.

3.5.1 Evaluation in campus-based programmes

It was found that students display almost no interest in procedures used to evaluate campus-based Teaching Practice. Perhaps they sensed that these programmes are still in a state of flux. Whatever the reason may be, not a single general comment was made about this matter. Fortunately the questionnaire contained a question in which students were pertinently asked to indicate which specific skills should, in their opinion, be formally assessed. The results of the question are summarized in the third column of Table A in Appendix VI. It would appear that there are *FIVE* teaching skills for which passing a performance test should be made compulsory; 25% or more students favour formal assessment in these areas. In order of importance, they are :

1. Questioning (45%)
2. Concept learning (39%)
3. Lesson preparation (35%)
4. Classroom management (27%)
5. Objectives (25%)

The only skill in this list which would be impossible to assess on campus, is Classroom management. Provision will therefore have to be made in the school-based programme for its assessment.

3.5.2 Evaluation in school-based programmes

Taking all the general remarks by students together, the survey yielded approximately 850 items that were recorded, coded, and categorized. Of these, more than 750 were directly or indirectly related to the evaluation of school-based activities.

At first glance most of these remarks appeared to be unspecific talk about "criteria for assessment." This gave rise to the question : *What do students mean when they talk about 'criteria for assessment'?* (As shown in Chapter 3, student complaints about criteria for assessment has almost become a tradition at UD-W.) With this question in mind, a detailed analysis was made of the categorized data.

During the analysis it was discovered, with much amazement, that few of the remarks were directly related to didactic concepts. The vast majority of students appear to perceive 'criteria' as *rules that should be laid down for tutors*. Didactic concepts such as lesson preparation, discovery learning, and pupil activity were referred to in only 19% of the data, while *the general conduct and assessment practices of tutors were emphasized in 76% of the data*. The remaining 5% of data was related to school practices and rules. It would appear, therefore, that when students talk about 'criteria for assessment', they refer to three kinds of criteria, viz. criteria that should be spelled out (a) to tutors,

(b) to students, and (c) to school personnel. The bare bones of their suggestions will be presented below.

3.5.2.1 Criteria that should be spelled out to tutors

It seems regrettable that the suggestions below cannot be substantiated by quotes from students. However, to give the reader some insight into the degree of importance students attach to these ideas, the proportion of remarks in each category is shown in Table XXVIII.

I T E M	% OF COMMENTS IN THIS SUB-CATEGORY
1. Discussions after lessons	21
2. Uniform criteria	20
3. Communicating Criteria	18
4. Method-centred Evaluation	16
5. Contextual factors	8
6. Personal bias	7
7. Emphasis on guidance	6
8. Negotiations with School Authorities	4
	100

TABLE XXVIII: CRITERIA THAT SHOULD BE SPELLED OUT TO TUTORS

Criterion 1 :

After observing lessons, tutors should spend a fair amount of time *discussing a student's lesson* with him/her *before* writing remarks in the student's book, filling in official forms, or allocating marks; during discussions tutors should be sympathetic and encouraging; tutors should not be allowed to make harsh comments, especially in writing.

Criterion 2 :

Tutors should have a *uniform system* for the evaluation of lessons; different tutors should not have different criteria (See Section 3.5.2.2)

Criterion 3 :

Criteria which lecturers use to assess students should be communicated to students well in advance, preferably in great detail and in printed form.

Criterion 4 :

If possible, the same *Method lecturer* who prepared students for Teaching Practice on campus should assess them; otherwise, tutors who assess students should use criteria laid down by the relevant Method lecturer, and not their own.

Criterion 5 :

Tutors should consider *contextual factors* when evaluating students, eg. they should not demand from students to change time-tables, should not *disrupt* lessons, should arrive in the classroom *at the beginning of lessons* and should be forced to observe *the whole lesson* before making any final judgement.

Criterion 6 :

Tutors should be prevented from forcefully imposing their own views on students regarding debatable issues, thus minimizing the role of *personal bias* in their assessment.

Criterion 7 :

The emphasis should be on *guidance* and not on assessment; no assessment scale should be used in evaluating individual lessons - only a Pass/Fail indication; at the end of the block session the overall performance of students should be assessed; students should be informed about the marks or symbols they obtained for the block session as a whole.

Criterion 8 :

Method lecturers should *negotiate with school authorities* (mainly inspectors and heads of departments) about criteria for the evaluation of students: lists of these criteria should be distributed to the class teachers to whom students are attached.

It will be noticed that some of these criteria contradict each other partially (for instance numbers 2 and 4). The reason for this is that different groups of students made different suggestions; with the data presently available it is impossible to determine which criteria would, in the final analysis, be preferred by the majority of students.

3.5.2.2 Criteria that should be spelled out to students

Differences in criteria for assessment are the result of a complex set of factors. One of the surest ways in which a group of educationists can be "persuaded" to adhere to a uniform set of criteria is to make an adherence to certain definite rules mandatory. It is probably true to say that this is the strategy adopted at most teacher training institutions where such a set of criteria is spelled out. But even under these circumstances it is inevitable that underground differences

persist very much like conflicting undercurrents found in political parties. A group of people in which everybody agrees about everything is non-existent. Therefore, the student wish that "different lecturers should not have different criteria" appears, on the surface, to be nothing but a pipe dream.

And yet, throughout the history of civilization individuals have formed groups in which members agreed to "bury their differences" in the realization that "unity is strength". It is inconceivable that a business can flourish if each employee should formulate his own rules. Church groups are based on agreements about codes of conduct. Judiciary systems revolve around laws. Political parties force their members to accept party-policy. A characteristic feature of every prosperous group has always been the ability of its members to create consensus despite disagreements about peripheral issues.

This is the kind of *agreement on criteria* which students seem to expect from tutors. As one student commented : "It is impossible for anybody to work if one boss says "Build the house" and another one says "Break it down." But this is exactly what lecturers do to us. What is the student learning in this situation? What does *anybody* achieve?" On the whole, students seem to regard the absence of an agreement on criteria as the ultimate proof that tutors have lost their commitment to educational principles. "When we returned from the block session and spoke to our TLC tutor, he mentioned that it would go against the principles of the academic world to dictate to academics how they should criticise lessons. What kind of principles are these? What right have they got to dictate to us if *they* won't accept the rules themselves?"

It is doubtful whether a tentative list of the alleged differences in criteria, gleaned from examples supplied by students, would throw full light on this matter. There must be countless differences of opinion. In fact, any critical statement made by any tutor is probably open to attack. A list of examples would, however, enable tutors to grasp the nature of discrepancies, and to examine the plausibility of creating a more uniform system.

Some of the differences appear to be more clearcut than others. But in order to help the reader to conceptualize ways in which *discrepant* belief-systems manifest themselves in the classroom, it may be best to concentrate on clearcut issues. For this reason the following list consists of questions with yes/no answers. According to students, some tutors rigidly cling to "yes" - answers to some of these questions, while the answer of other tutors is an emphatic "no".

1. Should students write *extensive lesson preparation* notes?
2. Should most lessons proceed according to a *set pattern* eg. set patterns for poetry lessons, reading lessons, mathematics lessons, science lessons, etc.?
3. Should *objectives* mostly be stated in behavioural terms?
4. Should the student's teaching style be *authoratative* i.e. should he avoid being openly friendly to pupils in the classroom?
5. Should most lessons revolve around *questioning* strategies, i.e. should an indirect, discovery-learning approach be adopted?
6. Should students cater for the needs of most teachers to *complete the syllabus?*

7. Should students be allowed to ask a fair amount of *lower order questions?*
8. Should most lessons make provision for *general pupil activity* such as written work or buzz-groups?
9. Should classes frequently be divided into *buzz-groups?*
10. Should most lessons centre upon *discussions and debates?*
11. Should most lessons be accompanied by a *chalkboard summary*, or some other form of chalkboard work?
12. Should pupils be encouraged and shown how to *take notes* in the course of a lesson?
13. Should *text-books* figure prominently in most factually-oriented lessons?
14. Should *non-volunteers* (i.e. pupils who do not raise their hands) be asked to respond to questions?
15. Should students follow up their teaching by *giving pupils a written tes or assignment* to determine whether objectives have been achieved?
16. Should students expect tutors to evaluate a lesson in which the *student administer a test?*

These are some of the areas in which tutors disagree, and consequently the kind of criteria which students want spelled out. Demands for a uniform system imply that all tutors should agree on all these criteria (with the possible exception of items 9 - 13 which appear to be only relevant to certain subjects). If such an agreement cannot be achieved, then tutors active in a particular subject-area (eg. all those providing guidance in the teaching of English) should agree on a uniform set of criteria. If such an agreement also cannot be achieved, the very least which students seem to expect is that each tutor should communicate

clearly to students - preferably in printed form - his/her stand on each of these and similar issues *before* the block session takes place.

3.5.2.3 Criteria that should be spelled out to school personnel

The point most frequently mentioned in remarks falling into this category was that students should not be required to do so many *relief duties*. A variety of students remarked that they should also be given a *set number of free periods per week*, just like teachers.

In addition, two other suggestions were made by a number of students. First, teachers should be provided by a list of the requirements for students during Teaching Practice, as well as one containing the criteria used for assessment. Second, school personnel should at times be available to observe a lesson in conjunction with a lecturer. It was suggested that one or two lessons of each student should be evaluated by a team consisting of one/two lecturers, the class teacher, and the principal or head of department.

3.5.2.4 Persons responsible for evaluation

Reference to Table XXVI will reveal that responses from students showed *a medium level of agreement* about the fact that assessment duties are shared by lecturers and principals (Agreement index : 66). However, approximately 26% of students would prefer an evaluation procedure in which assessment is also done by class teachers.

3.6 Strategies for improvement

Although this feature of the curriculum was not specifically covered by questions in the questionnaire, the measures set out in other parts of the report imply a series of strategies for improvement.

3.6.1 A continuous series of negotiations between Method lecturers and Teaching Practice tutors

The need for this has been outlined in Section 3.4.3 (The need for a closer student-tutor relationship).

3.6.2 A continuous series of negotiations between Method lecturers and school personnel

The need for this is evident from Criterion 8 in Section 3.5.2.1 (Negotiations with school authorities).

3.6.3 A series of negotiations between Teaching Practice tutors and class teachers

The need for this is implied by arguments set out in Section 3.2.1.6 (opportunities for progressive involvement).

4. STUDENT MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

To exemplify the findings of the survey, two model curricula have been designed : one for the B.Paed - and one for the UHDE-course. This model appears in Table XXIX (at the end of this chapter). Since the two models are so alike, they will be referred to, throughout this text, as if they were one, eg. "the model" or "the student model."

Most of the difficulties experienced in designing the model clustered around present constraints placed on the course. It should be noted that many of the students' ideas were rather revolutionary. The challenge to incorporate these ideas as far as possible into existing structures therefore proved to be a formidable one. It became increasingly clear that a full expression of student views would necessitate the removal of "old" boundaries and the introduction of "new" ones. Thus, although every effort was made to take present constraints into account, the model which eventually emerged is perhaps somewhat idealistic. It does, however, present educationists with a vivid picture of the kind of experiences that students apparently would like to encounter during a Teaching Practice course.

In an effort to keep the model as simple and clear-cut as feasible, two curricula features have been omitted : *aims*, and *strategies for improvement*. If this model was a full-fledged curriculum, it would have been accompanied by guidelines regarding these two features as well. Definite student views about them were identified (See Sections 3.1 and 3.6). They have merely been omitted here to reduce the complexity of the model.

5. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF MODEL

In Chapter 2 we looked at some desirable characteristics that should preferable be part and parcel of an effective Teaching Practice curriculum. Utilizing this theoretical basis, certain strengths and weaknesses of the Student Curriculum Model can be distinguished.

One of the most conspicuous merits of the model is that it reveals *a high level of professional relevance*. Approximately 40% of the campus-based programme (Module 1) lends itself to a CBTE-approach, while in approximately 45% of the programme the Humanistic Approach is evident. The remaining 15% of the campus-based programme consists of micro-teaching, in which either of the two approaches can be followed. In similar fashion, approximately 50% of the school-based programme tends to be humanistic (eg. Modules 5 and 6 in Table XXX), while prescriptions regarding the evaluation of students in the rest of this programme is reminiscent of CBTE-techniques (modules 10 and 12). All in all, the model seems to leave much scope for the fusion of partially discrepant educational theories.

In contrast to the School Authority Model, the Student Model also reveals a *strong linkage between campus- and school-based activities*. It seems as if students have succeeded in identifying the most critical pre-requisite for such a linkage : the same tutor who prepares them on campus must guide them at school. From this standpoint the model seems to create excellent opportunities for students to use their theoretical knowledge to enrich practical experiences, and vice-versa.

Two areas in which the model is perhaps not above reproach, are those of didactic and curricular relevance. Less than half the number of topics that appear to be didactically relevant have been included. Notably absent from the model are topics such as Demonstration, Extra-mural activities, Games, and Slides - topics that were regarded as being highly relevant by most respondents in the other surveys. Coupled to this are shortcomings in the curriculum structure itself. The survey

failed to yield enough evidence for the formation of certain objectives, teaching strategies, and evaluation practices (See the number of modular features "not established"). It would therefore appear that the model reveals *medium levels of didactic and curricular relevance*.

Probably the greatest impediment to a possible implementation of the model is its *disregard for existing constraints*. Both time-constraints and staff-constraints would make it difficult to put this model into practice. Modules 4 and 5 in Table XXX clearly require rather drastic changes to time allocations. Similarly, an arrangement in which the same tutor guides the student on campus as well as at school leaves many loose ends to be tied up. For instance, three groups of students would have to be taught for 30 hours per week during January/February each year : Teaching Practice I, Teaching Practice II, and UHDE. How many staff members would be willing to do this? How would students be divided between tutors? How could students at such an early stage be distributed among schools convenient to tutors? Although these questions are by no means unanswerable, they would require changes to existing constraints.

Another limitation of the model appears to be *a lack of practical propensity in the campus-based programme*. A large part of the programme would be devoted to discussions. Yet one of the major objections students had to the present programme was that it only consists of "talk, talk, and more talk." It therefore seems self-contradictory that they plead for so many discussion-oriented activities, as if they shy away from more active involvement. It will be recalled that one way in which "practical" was described in Chapter 2 was : "forcing

students to exert themselves mentally, emotionally, and physically, instead of merely requiring them to read, or write, or talk." Whereas *some* discussions may be "practical" in this sense, many may not. In the hands of a tutor who is well-versed in the art of leading discussions, such discussions may be very "practical". But (if we are to believe what students say) not many lecturers seem to fall into this category. Thus the programme may well turn out to be rather superficial and boring. *All in all, it does seem to be somewhat impractical to devote 72 hours to discussions, and only, 4 hours to lesson preparation!*

Finally, this model, like the others previously discussed, have not been democratically designed : only student views have here been taken into account, while those of educationists, school authorities, and tutors have been disregarded. This fact alone makes it an unfeasible preposition to use this model as a final document in the present project.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Students' desires and tutors' objectives are not mutually exclusive, but in the data obtained from the survey, this is what most students seem to believe. One need only take the example of the student who wrote : "lecturers must realize that just as they are unique, so are the students" to recognize the nature of the misunderstanding. Most tutors, regardless of their theoretical persuasion, would agree with the student. They would also probable stress that their approach to students bear evidence of this belief. And yet this survey revealed that the majority of students seem to perceive tutors as people who

do not respect the uniqueness of students; in fact, that they are rather insensitive to students' needs. The discovery of this gap between *what tutors believe* and *what students think tutors believe* was one of the most significant findings of the survey.

During the analysis of data two prime reasons for the gap were identified: First, there appears to be a certain semantic confusion; students apparently have different concepts of terms like "practical" and "criteria" than tutors. Although these were the only two terms examined in the survey, there may be many more. Second, the student-tutor relationship appears to be full of distrust - a situation partly caused by circumstances; a system which often forces student and tutor to relate on a person-to-person basis *for the first time in a stressful situation* (school-based Teaching Practice) is clearly counteractive to the development of trust. Under such circumstances it is not surprising if resentful attitudes between tutors and students exist. It was Emerson who said : "The glory of friendship is not the outstretched hand, nor the kindly smile, nor the joy of companionship; it is the spiritual inspiration that comes to one when he discovers that someone else believes in him and is willing to trust him." The results of the survey suggest that an absence of this kind of "friendship" may very well be at the heart of the alleged gap between student and tutor perceptions of Teaching Practice.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
MODULE 1 : SPECIFIC SKILLS							
			1		INTRODUCTION		-
1.			4		1. CHALKBOARD WORK		Informal
2.			8		2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT		Formal (at school)
3.			10		3. CONCEPT LEARNING		Formal (on campus)
4.			8		4. EVALUATION		Informal
5.			8		5. GROUPWORK		Informal
6.	As stated in Table XIII		9		6. GUIDED DISCUSSION	On campus -	Informal
7.			10	T.P.I	7. LESSON PREPARATION	Teaching Practice	Formal (on campus)
8.			8		8. OBJECTIVES	Tutor No. I (Tutor in first	Formal (on campus)
9.			12		9. QUESTIONING	main teaching subject).	Formal (on campus)
10.			10		10. TRANSPARENCIES & OHP		Informal
11.			10		11. WORKSHEET CONSTR.		Informal
12.	Not established.		4		12. RECORD-KEEPING		Informal
13.	Not established.		4		13. TYPING		Informal
14.	Not established.		4		14. WALL CHARTS		Informal
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 14	110				
MODULE 2 : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS							
1.	Not established.		40	T.P.II Jan./ Feb.	15. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	On campus - T.P. Tutor No.1	Not established
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 5	40				
MODULE 3 : TEACHING IN ACTION							
1.	To observe demonstration lessons given by T.P. Tutor and/or other teachers experienced in teaching First main teaching subject.		3	T.P.II Jan./ Feb.	16. OBSERVING AND DISCUSSING TEACHING IN ACTION	On campus - T.P. Tutor No.1, introducing criteria established by Method lecturer of this subject.	Not established
2.	To discuss lessons described in 3.1 above.		7				
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 1	10				
MODULE 4 : MICRO-TEACHING							
1.	Not established.			T.P.II Jan./ Feb.	17. MICRO-TEACHING	On campus - T.P. Tutor No.1 reinforce criteria (see Module 3)	Formal, using criteria stated in Module 3.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	± 1	10				
MODULE 5 : INTERMITTENT SCHOOL-BASED EXPERIENCES - SUBJECT I							
1.	1. To keep records. 2. To interact with teachers. 3. To observe school activities.		24	T.P.II twice per week for 10 weeks	18. RECORD-KEEPING 19. STAFF INTERACTION 20. OBSERVATION	At school - Class Teacher No. I (Teaching Subject I).	Informal, by class Teacher No. 1 and Principal.
2.	To do ± 25% of class teacher's duties.		24		21. 25% INVOLVEMENT - SUBJECT I		
3.	To do ±50% of class teacher's duties.		24		22. 50% INVOLVEMENT - SUBJECT I		
4.	To do ± 75% of class teacher's duties.		24		23. 75% INVOLVEMENT - SUBJECT I		
5.	To do ± 100% of class teacher's duties.		24		24. 100% INVOLVEMENT - SUBJECT I		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 16	120				
MODULE 6 : INTERMITTENT SCHOOL-BASED EXPERIENCES - SUBJECT II							
1-5.	Same as those for Module 5, except that different subject and different teacher is involved.		120	T.P.II (As in Module 5	25- AS IN MODULE 5, BUT IN 31. SUBJECT II.	At school - Class Teacher No. II (Teaching Subject II)	Informal, by Class Teacher No. II and Principal.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 16	120				
MODULE 7 : TEACHING PRACTICE PROBLEMS							
1.	To discuss personal Teaching Practice problems.		40	T.P.II Once per week for 20 weeks	32. TEACHING PRACTICE PROBLEMS	On campus - T.P. Tutor No.1	Continuous assessment by Tutor No. I on basis of discussions.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	± 5	40				
MODULE 8 : CONCLUDING TEACHING PRACTICE II							
1.	Same as for Module 3, Unit 1.		4	T.P.II Once per week for 6 weeks.	33. REINFORCEMENT OF CRITERIA (SUBJECT I) 34. REINFORCEMENT OF MICRO-TEACHING SKILLS	On campus - T.P. Tutor No.1	Formal, using criteria stated in Module 3.
2.	Same as for Module 3, Unit 2.		4				
3.	Same as for Module 4, Unit 1.		4				
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 8	± 2	12				
	TOTAL FOR TP I & TP II (c/f)	± 60	462				

TABLE XXIX. STUDENT MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM IN THE B.PAED-COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	TOTAL FOR TP I & TP II (b/f)	± 60	462				
	MODULE 9 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1.	Same as for Module 3.		10	TP III Feb.-March (5½x4)	35. DEMONSTRATION OF SKILLS - SUBJECTS	On campus - T.P. Tutor No. 1, reinforcing criteria previously taught	Formal, using criteria stated in Module 3.
2.	Same as for Module 4.		10		36. PRACTISING SKILLS - SUBJECT I (MICRO-TEACHING		
3.	To discuss ways in which a teacher can maintain discipline in the classroom while serving relief.		2		37. DISCUSSING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	T.P. Tutor No. I	Nil
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 9	± 3	22				
	MODULE 10 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1.	1. To maintain discipline in in the classroom.		4	TP III First block session (4 weeks)	38. PRACTISING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	Practising at school.	Formal - TP Tutor No. 1 sits in during a double period while student serves relief, and assess performance.
	2. To act as a teaching trainee by doing 25% of teacher's duties.		26		39. TEACHING TRAINEE - SUBJECT I		
2.	To act as a teaching assistant by doing 50% of teacher's duties.		30		40. TEACHING ASSISTANT - SUBJECT I		
3.	To act as a senior assistant by doing 75% of teacher's duties.		30		41. SENIOR ASSISTANT - SUBJECT I		Formal, as in Module 9 - TP Tutor I; principal reports on conduct; tutor to assess according to rules requested by students.
4.	To act as a teacher by doing 100% of teacher's duties.		30		42. TEACHER, SUBJECT I		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 10	± 18	120				
	MODULE 11 : PREPARATION FOR SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1.	To discuss personal teaching Practice problems.		4	TP III May-June (5x4)	43. FEEDBACK FROM FIRST BLOCK SESSION	On campus - T.P. Tutor No. II, reinforcing criteria established by relevant Method Lecturer	Informal
2.	To observe demonstration lessons given by T.P. Tutor No. II and/or other teachers experienced in teaching second main subject.		2		44. DEMONSTRATION OF SKILLS - SUBJECT II		
3.	To discuss lessons described in 11.2 above.		4		45. DISCUSSION OF SKILLS - SUBJECT II		
4.	To practice skills (micro-teaching.		10		46. PRACTISING SKILLS - SUBJECT II		Formal, using criteria of Method Lecturer
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 11	± 2	20				
	MODULE 12 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1.	To act as a teacher's trainee by doing 25% of teacher's duties.		30	TP III Second block session (4 weeks)	47. TEACHING TRAINEE (S.II)	At school - TP Tutor No. II, and Class Teacher No. II	Formal, using criteria of Method Lecturer; principal reports on conduct tutor to assess according to rules requested by students.
2-4.	As Units 2-4 in Module 10, except that Second Main Subject is involved.		90		48. TEACHING ASSISTANT (S.I) 49. SENIOR ASSISTANT (S.II) 50. TEACHER, SUBJECT II		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 12	± 16	120				
	MODULE 13 : CONCLUSION OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSE						
1.	To discuss personal Teaching Practice problems.		4		51. FEEDBACK FROM SECOND BLOCK SESSION	On campus - TP Tutor No. II	Not established.
2.	As in Module 11, Units 2 and 3.		6		52. FINAL ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT'S PERFORMANCE IN SUBJECT II		
3.	As in Module 11, Unit 4.		14				
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 13	± 3	24				
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	100	768				

TABLE XXIX. (cont.). STUDENT MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM IN THE B.PAED-COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	MODULE 1 : SPECIFIC SKILLS						
			1		INTRODUCTION		
1.			2,5		1. CHALKBOARD WORK		Informal
2.			3		2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT		Formal (at school)
3.			4		3. CONCEPT LEARNING		Formal (on campus)
4.			3		4. EVALUATION		Informal
5.			3		5. GROUPWORK	On campus - Teaching Practice Tutor No. 1 (Tutor in first main teaching subject)	Informal
6.	As stated in Table XIII.		4	Jan./ Feb.	6. GUIDED DISCUSSION		Informal
7.			4		7. LESSON PREPARATION		Formal (on campus)
8.			3		8. OBJECTIVES		Formal (on campus)
9.			5		9. QUESTIONING		Formal (on campus)
10.			4		10. TRANSPARENCIES & OHP		Informal
11.			4		11. WORKSHEET CONSTR.		Informal
12.			2,5		12. RECORD-KEEPING		Informal
13.	Not established.		2,5		13. TYPING		Informal
14.			2,5		14. WALLCHARTS		Informal
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 11	48				
	MODULE 2 : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS						
1.	Not established.		12	Jan./ Feb.	15. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	On campus - TP Tutor No. I	Not established.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 3	12				
	MODULE 3 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1.	To observe demonstration lessons given by TP Tutor and/or other teachers experienced in teaching first main teaching subject.		2	Feb-April (6x4)	16. DEMONSTRATION OF SKILLS - SUBJECT I	On campus - TP Tutor No. I, introducing criteria established by relevant Method Lecturer	Formal, using criteria stipulated by Method Lecturer.
2.	To discuss lessons described in 3.1 above.		6		17. DISCUSSING SKILLS - SUBJECT I		
3.	To practise skills (micro-teaching).		14		18. PRACTISING SKILLS (S.I.)		
4.	To discuss ways in which a teacher can maintain discipline in the classroom.		2		19. DISCUSSING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 5	24				
	MODULE 4 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION						
1.	1. To keep records. 2. To interact with teachers. 3. To observe school activities. 4. To maintain discipline in the classroom.		30	First block session (5 weeks)	20. RECORD-KEEPING 21. STAFF INTERACTION 22. OBSERVATION 23. PRACTISING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	At school - Class Teacher No.1. Practising at school	Formal - TP Tutor No. I observes a double period while student serves relief, and assess performance.
2.	To act as a teaching trainee by doing ± 25% of teacher's duties.		30		24. TEACHING TRAINEE - SUBJECT I	At school - TP Tutor No. I and Class Teacher	Formal, by TP Tutor No. I, using criteria stipulated by relevant Method Lecturer and according to rules requested by students; principal reports on conduct.
3.	To act as a teaching assistant by doing ± 50% of teacher's duties.		30		25. TEACHING ASSISTANT - SUBJECT I		
4.	To act as a senior assistant by doing ± 75% of teacher's duties.		30.		26. SENIOR ASSISTANT - SUBJECT I		
5.	To act as a teacher by doing ±100% of teacher's duties.		30		27. TEACHER - SUBJECT I		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	± 36	150				
	MODULE 5 : PREPARATION FOR SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1.	To discuss personal Teaching Practice problems.		4	May-June (4x4)	28. FEEDBACK FROM FIRST BLOCK SESSION	On campus - TP Tutor No. II, reinforcing criteria established by relevant Method Lecturer.	Informal
2.	Not established.		6		29. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS		
3.	To observe and discuss a demonstration lesson given by TP Tutor No. II or another experienced teacher.		2		30. DEMONSTRATION AND DISCUSSION OF SKILLS - SUBJECT II.		
4.	To practice skills (micro-teaching).		4		31. PRACTISING SKILLS.		Formal, using criteria stipulated by Method Lecturer
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 4	16				
	MODULE 6 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION						
1-5.	As in Module 4, except that Subject II & TP Tutor No. II are involved.		150	Block session (5 weeks)	32- AS IN MODULE 4, BUT 39. SUBJECT II.	As in Module 4, but Tutor II and Teacher No. II involved.	As in Module 4, by TP Tutor No. II, and principal.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 36	150				
	MODULE 7 : CONCLUSION OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSE						
1.	To discuss personal TP problems.		12	Sept.-Oct. (5x4)	40. FEEDBACK - 2ND SESSION	On campus - TP Tutor No. II.	Not established.
2.	As in Module 5, Unit 3.		8		41. FINAL ASSESSMENT (S.II)		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	± 5	10				
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	100	420				

TABLE XXX. STUDENT MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM IN THE UHDE-COURSE.

CHAPTER 7

TEACHING PRACTICE FROM A COURSE-TEAM PERSPECTIVE

1. INTRODUCTION

"A certain friction between the generations is inevitable. That's because the young and the old have all the answers and those in between are stuck with the questions."

This thought seems to capture the essence of the precarious situation in which the teacher educators at UD-W finds themselves. As shown in the previous two chapters, students and school authorities appear to have all the answers about Teaching Practice. Unfortunately their answers do not correspond. School authorities are clearly eager for tutors to prepare teachers that would fit into "the system", while students plead for a curriculum that would fulfil their "personal needs." To which goal should tutors direct their students?

Naturally, if a generally-acceptable theory for teacher education existed - a theory in which the conflicting needs of various beneficiaries were systemized and linked - this question would have been relatively easy to answer. It has already been pointed out, however, that such a definite body of thought does not exist (See Chapter 1). On the contrary, in most developed countries teacher education seems to be a source of friction. It is therefore understandable that the educationists at UD-W - like educationists all over the world - experience great difficulty in coping with conflicting demands made by theoreticians, students, politicians, etc. Their ultimate dilemma is that they are

expected to behave like experts in a field characterized by controversy. They are expected to describe the principles of a universal "scientific" theory of education that arguably does not even exist. Because they come from different schools of thought, they find themselves unable to agree on a uniform approach to teacher education. They are often forced to teach educational concepts which most of their colleagues reject. They find it difficult to communicate meaningfully with each other because a common terminology has not be developed.

Despite these interdisciplinary conflicts, the Teaching Practice tutors have shown themselves to be committed to the need for reform. The series of reform measures discussed in Chapter 3 bear witness to this. Due to these innovations UD-W is now - at a time when most teacher training courses seem to suffer from an imbalance between theoretical and practical components (See Chapter 4) - in a favourable position to launch highly effective praxis-oriented courses. Staff members have had four years of hard work in campus-based Teaching Practice planning and implementation behind them : programmes have been developed, time-table problems have been solved, students have become orientated, tutors have been channelled into the various courses, a good supply of resource material has accumulated - in short, all the necessary ground-work for further improvements have been created. Such advances would not have been possible if the course-team had a laissez faire attitude to teacher education. Furthermore, the desire of the team to maintain meaningful growth was one of the most important factors that led to the present investigation. It would therefore be erroneous to attribute weaknesses in the present system to a lack of commitment by tutors.

In this chapter the views of tutors regarding Teaching Practice will be brought into focus. The most important question to be asked is : What kind of curriculum do the majority of tutors seem to advocate? Before tentative answers to this question may be suggested, the nature of the survey conducted among faculty members needs brief attention. This will be followed by a report on the findings of the survey, and a model curriculum based on the findings. The last section of the chapter will be devoted to a short analysis of this model.

2. NATURE OF SURVEY

The survey was conducted in four phases. First, a set of questionnaires was distributed among tutors; second, a series of small group discussions was conducted; third, a number of tutors were interviewed; and fourth, a second set of questionnaires was distributed.

2.1 Basis of selection

For purposes of this survey, all academic staff members employed on a full-time basis at the Faculty of Education, UD-W, were considered to be part of the course-team. This meant that 47 tutors should have been involved. Due to practical difficulties, however, a number of tutors could not take part in the survey.

Tutors involved in the first phase

The first questionnaire was distributed to 38 tutors. Due to an oversight by the researcher, the five lecturers employed in the Physical Education Department did not receive questionnaires. Two other tutors were on study-leave and could thus not participate. Lastly, to minimize the

influence of subjective factors on the research findings, it was decided to omit the views of the two tutors that were intimately involved in the investigation, viz. the researcher and the promoter.

Tutors involved in the second phase

Of the 27 tutors who returned the first questionnaire, only one did not participate in small group discussions.

Tutors involved in the third phase

Five tutors were interviewed personally : the respondent who did not attend a group discussion, two respondents who did attend group discussions, but expressed a desire to elaborate on their views, and two non-respondents who were considered to be key-figures in Teaching Practice. This means the views of nine tutors who received the first questionnaire could not be obtained during the first three phases of the survey.

Tutors involved in the fourth phase

The second set of questionnaires was distributed to 43 tutors. Again the two tutors who were on study-leave and the two involved in the research did not participate.

2.2 Modus operandus

The first set of questionnaires was distributed during October 1984 and respondents were requested to indicate when they would be available to participate in a small group discussion consisting of 4-6 members. Utilizing this information, the structured group discussions were

organized, solely on the basis of availability of tutors during specific times. In an effort to prevent the discussions from becoming too vague, a programme of suggested topics was forwarded to group members beforehand. During each of the seven small group discussions the topics on the programme were used as stimulus-material. Notes and tape-recordings made during each discussion were later studied and comments categorized. Similar procedures were followed during interviews.

In February 1985 the second batch of questionnaires were sent out. To ensure a high response rate, three steps were taken : first, respondents were promised copies of the raw results; second, reminders were sent out to non-respondents after two weeks; third, additional copies of the questionnaire were sent to non-respondents one month after original despatch. This procedure yielded an excellent response rate, and in May 1985 the raw results of the survey were forwarded to all members of the course-team.

2.3 Format of the questionnaires

The first questionnaire consisted of six questions in which tutors were requested to indicate their views regarding certain aspects of *campus-based Teaching Practice programmes*. (See Appendix VII) The second questionnaire consisted of 12 questions which centred upon aspects of *school-based programmes*. (See Appendix VII) The questions in both questionnaires were formulated in ways that would facilitate linkage between findings of this survey to those of other surveys conducted during the investigation. As in the other questionnaire, ample space was provided for respondents to substantiate their views or make general comments.

2.4 Response rate

Response during the first phase

Of the 38 questionnaires that were distributed, 27 were completed and returned. This represents a response rate of 71%.

Response during the fourth phase

The second set of questionnaires yielded a response rate of 81% : 35 of the 43 questionnaires were completed and returned.

In the light of these high response rates, it seems reasonable to claim that the proportion of tutors who took part in the survey *constitutes a representative sample of the Teaching Practice course-team active at UD-W.*

2.5 Limitations of the survey

This survey suffered from similar limitations as those mentioned in the previous surveys, eg. data obtained from questionnaires have certain draw-backs, subjective judgements undoubtedly crept into the analysis of data, the Lickert-scale technique is not always reliable, etc.

The major weakness in this particular survey was probably the climate in which it took place. *Many tutors gave the impression that they were apprehensive about the investigation.* Some expressed reservations about the desirability of them having to participate in the "private research project" of a staff member. Others feared that the research findings might be a poor reflection on the lecturers' abilities, i.e.

throw doubts on the academic competence of staff members. A characteristic feature of these objections was that the methods used by the researcher were questioned, eg. "You are taking a very complex problem pertaining to teaching and teaching practice and looking at it in terms of very simplistic issues"; "You did not tell me *why* you focused on these items"; "There is no theory behind what you say"; etc. One member went as far as to object against research *per se* : "The improvements that have come about are mainly due to the application of common sense - not research." Notes were written to the researcher criticizing the survey. Complaints about the project were lodged with the Dean. Valuable time set aside for small group discussions was spent by members attacking the researcher. All in all - as one tutor said - "a lot of people feel very uneasy about this research."

Under such circumstances it is debatable whether the picture that emerges from the data is a true reflection of course-team views. Perhaps tutors felt too threatened to give their true opinions. As it is, about 80% of the remarks made during discussions were vague to the point of being meaningless : "I can't answer your questions. It depends on the topic, it depends on the class, it depends on the students"; "We must be flexible and open-minded"; "Teaching is largely an inborn ability"; "Heaven forbid that I tell my students what *I* think what *they* should do", etc. Although it is probably normal for people to make such remarks during discussions, it was disappointing that vague comments were not balanced by a good crop of definite ideas as, for instance, those forwarded by school authorities and students. It seems a logical conclusion that the lack of practical suggestions stemming from the survey might be due to the feelings of distrust which many staff members revealed during the project.

In addition to these major shortcomings, there were a few minor ones. The role of part-time lecturers in Teaching Practice was over-looked; lecturers not involved in Teaching Practice should probably not have taken part in the project since they had difficulty in grasping the nature of the problems; and the programme used during group discussions did not succeed in stimulating participants or in preventing aimless talk. These limitations, together with those described above, underscore the need of viewing the results with caution, and retaining a reasonable degree of scepticism regarding conclusions drawn.

2.6 Positive features of the survey

One of the most valuable contributions made by this survey was that a substantial amount of useful data was obtained. In comparison to the school authority and student surveys, the amount of qualitative data yielded by the course-team survey was limited. Most spaces provided on questionnaires for free remarks were left blank. However, the tutors who *did* make comments, did so in great detail and obviously spent much thought on the questions and their responses. The suggestions they made were extremely illuminating, and linked well with data obtained from discussions. Moreover, the quantitative data proved to be a "saving grace"; in many instances it gave the researcher a clear mandate to recommend certain innovations - something that has rarely been achieved since campus-based programmes were introduced.

Another significant factor is that the opinions of individual lecturers have been given full recognition. *For the first time a systematic inquiry was conducted to obtain the views of tutors regarding Teaching Practice.*

In the normal course of events tutors are obviously free to communicate their ideas to members of the Teaching Practice committee, but this procedure has shown itself to be rather haphazard and unsatisfactory. Tutors are usually too engaged in the immediate task of lecturing to take full advantage of such opportunities. This survey served the useful function of ascertaining the extent to which tutors agree about certain issues - an essential first step should a more democratic curriculum be introduced at some future stage.

The questions were carefully constructed to ensure that data from the survey would be relevant to the project as a whole. The data obtained also provided positive proof of their desire to enhance the quality of the Teaching Practice courses, and thus to improve teacher education as a whole.

2.7 Statistical procedures used

In this survey the same statistical procedures were used as in the school authority survey. The data yielded by the group discussions and interviews were studied and useful suggestions were recorded. Unfortunately these suggestions were so divergent in content that many of them defied categorization. Nevertheless, all those put forward by *more than one tutor* were, as far as possible, taken into account during the construction of the course-team model curriculum.

3. THE NATURE OF TEACHING PRACTICE COURSES : A COURST-TEAM PERSPECTIVE

The survey provided proof that the overriding concern of most tutors is that school-based and campus-based programmes should supplement

each other. Distinctions made between the two programmes in this report should therefore be seen as merely being categories of convenience, a way of presenting findings systematically. To all intents and purposes the two components should, according to most lecturers, form a single whole.

3.1 Aims and Objectives

3.1.1 Aims of Teaching Practice

In the course of the survey five concepts were repeatedly mentioned by a variety of lecturers : flexibility, practice, content, guidance, and integration. It would therefore seem that most tutors consider the following five aims as being of prime importance in a Teaching Practice course :

3.1.1.1 To acquire a flexible approach towards teaching and learning

This seems to be the aim about which tutors feel most strongly. Remarks like "we must let each student's individual style come out" and "we should not prescribe to students", were frequently made. Many tutors expressed concern about students having a "rigid" attitude towards classes (at school) and thus being unable to cater for the needs of individual children. For this reason "it is good for students to be exposed to different points of view" - it helps the student to be flexible and adaptable. There appears to be disagreement, however, about the desirability of exposing students to a variety of conflicting views. One tutor, for instance, stated "We should not be afraid to confuse the students", while another one wrote "(teaching) is an art that comes from a desire/need *to help somebody to understand something better.*" Such statements might seem to contradict each other.

3.1.1.2 To practice being a teacher

It is generally felt that the main purpose of a Teaching Practice course should be to provide students with opportunities to practise - not merely how to teach, but to be a teacher in the full sense of the word. A number of tutors remarked that the teacher education courses at UD-W are still too theoretical - "we can cut out a hang of a lot of theory that we throw at them in lectures." Many tutors appear to favour a strategy in which some theoretical components would be replaced by school-based experiences : "students need to become comfortable in the classroom"; "teaching isolated lessons is not enough - they must get into the rhythm of teaching"; "they must learn to teach a series of unprepared lessons, like a real teacher."

3.1.1.3 To use teaching methods that are suited to the content and subject being taught

A substantial number of tutors - the majority, it seems - are strongly in favour of content-based Teaching Practice courses. This means that they want students to be divided into groups determined by their main teaching subjects. As one tutor said : "If I take my Method-students for (campus-based) Teaching Practice, I'm sure I'd be able to help them much more."

It should be noted that the campus-based teaching practice course is of a seminar/discussion type construct. Tutors are assigned to groups of students irrespective of their subject preferences - hence the above remark.

3.1.1.4 To accept the guidance of experienced and knowledgeable professionals

There seems to be wide-spread concern among tutors that students appear to be unwilling to accept the advice of tutors. In the words of one respondent : "The problem is that students do not see us as competent professionals." To alleviate the problem various tutors suggested strategies that would be conducive to moulding closer student-tutor relationships. This could be achieved, for instance, "if we could see students more often - on campus and at schools" or by "getting to know the student thoroughly before meeting him in a lesson."

3.1.1.5 To use teaching skills in an integrated way

Various members of the course-team pointed out that it is not the purpose of a Teaching Practice course to merely change students into skillful performers. "True education is a very delicate thing that cannot be got hold of and reduced to sets of behaviours that can be taught and measured." To be really valuable, the course must make provision for students to use newly-acquired skills in an integrated way. One tutor explained it aptly : "If I have a pupil who wants to become a swimmer in the Olympic Games, and he comes to me for coaching ... I'm not goint to say "The first thing you've got to do now, is concentrate on your hand-movements in the water - practise that for a month or so, and then we take the next thing." Instead, I would say :"O.K. - swim." And then, having seen the individual swim, I'd identify his strengths and weaknesses, and use that as a basis to coach him." This idea, of identifying strengths and weaknesses, was brought up repeatedly during the survey.

3.1.2 Objectives of Teaching Practice

Utilizing the above evidence, it is possible to make conclusions regarding objectives that might give expression to the views of most tutors.

3.1.2.1 Objectives for campus-based programmes

It seems as if the course-team would like the campus-based programmes to revolve around three didactic concepts : integrated skills, specific skills, and student activity.

Integrated skills

On the whole tutors subscribe to the notion that campus-based modules should not be tightly defined with precise content presented within specific "boxes". At least half the time available should be devoted to students observing, discussing, and practising *a variety of skills simultaneously*. Much scope should be left for students to develop their abilities in a unique manner. In a similar vein, each tutor should be free to introduce his/her personal ideas to students, and to guide them through the subsequent stages of the programme without interference from other members of the course-team.

This does not mean that tutors would like the programme to be totally unstructured. Many members emphasized the crucial importance of an academic support programme. Apparently they would welcome more resource material (pertaining to their own subject) and the help of tutors on the staff who are knowledgeable about particular topics. A large proportion of lecturers expressed concern that they lack the time to prepare themselves adequately for tutorial sessions. In the light of

these complexities, it would appear that most tutors are not in principle against a structured programme, provided that it offers latitude for the implementation of their own ideas. In the words of one tutor : "straight-jacket, stereotyped arrangements should be avoided."

The net result of enquiries about the weighting that should be given to integrated skills in the programme was that approximately half the programme should be set aside for it. At the same time it was stressed that there should be a constant pattern of incorporating newly-acquired skills into the student's existing repertoire. There should not be, as one tutor said, "two distinct compartments - *integration* and *skills*. It should all be interwoven."

It would appear, therefore, that the views of the course-team about integrated skills co-incide to a large extent with those of teacher educators elsewhere (See Chapter 4). The main general objective of a campus-based programme should be : *to teach effectively by using a variety of teaching skills in an integrated and unique manner.*

In the course-team model curriculum - which will be presented towards the end of this chapter - an attempt will be made to incorporate these ideas.

Specific skills

Tutors were presented with the same list of possible course content topics as those in the three surveys previously discussed. They were

asked to indicate which items on the list they believe should be included in the programme. The data thus obtained were used as stimulus material during the group discussions that followed. Although most tutors indicated on the questionnaires that they would like *all* the items to be included, it soon became apparent (during the discussions) that this was not the case. (It seems as if many respondents merely ticked off all the items to prevent - as one tutor said - "hurting the feelings" of the researcher). In actual fact, most tutors seem to feel that only "general" skills should be taught, i.e. those skills applicable to *all* subjects. Skills such as role play, games, and excursions were seen by some method lecturers as being irrelevant to their subject.

Results of the second questionnaire confirmed this notion. In response to a question regarding the skills that should be assessed, 40% of the respondents refused to give a definite answer. On the basis of this evidence it seems logical to conclude that most tutors would only like certain priority skills to be included in the curriculum. What these priority skills are could be readily identified using data from the questionnaires. The following skills received the highest ratings :

1. Lesson preparation
2. Questioning
3. Evaluation
4. Concept learning
5. Objectives formulation
6. Classroom management
7. Guiding discussions
8. Worksheet construction
9. Chalkboard work
10. O.H.P. and transparencies - preparation and use
11. Pictures and charts - preparation and utilization

Student activities

In giving expression to the tutors' desire to help students "practise being a teacher" on campus, the programme should centre upon student activity. A number of tutors pointed out that the programme should help students to put the theoretical knowledge which they gained from their education lectures into practice. There should, for instance, "be a straight link between Didactics and Teaching Practice." As one tutor said : "In the present campus-based courses there is a significant lack of a scientific basis." If provision can be made for students to become acquainted with the theory, regarding a particular aspect of teaching, shortly before they are required to practice that aspect during a Teaching Practice tutorial, there would be no need for the Teaching Practice tutor to dwell on theory. This would, according to one tutor, be "the ideal situation". During campus-based programmes students can then *"teach as much as possible* in order to evolve their own styles."

Under such an arrangement it would be imperative for tutors to agree on the theoretical aspect that the Didactics lecturer should cover at specific times - a tall order for a course-team of this size. Moreover, a systematic approach will have to be adopted. Considering the fact that the term "flexibility" was the concept most frequently referred to in the survey, it seems unlikely that tutors would agree on such a systematic approach. On the other hand, the survey did not produce any alternative suggestions aimed at making the programme more practical. Thus, despite reservations about the viability of the idea, the curriculum structure recommended later in this chapter,

will be based on the assumption that most tutors favour a systematic approach. This implies that theoretical aspects of teaching will be covered during Didactics lectures, at specified times. It also implies that the Teaching Practice tutor would be free to concentrate on practical aspects all the time. Student activities, the objective stressed by so many tutors, would be at the core of the programme.

3.1.2.2 Objectives for school-based programmes

The Observation Schedule

Judging from comments made on questionnaires and discussions, a large proportion of tutors consider the written assignments which students have to do during school-based programmes to be of little use. As one respondent stated : "The only value in this is that it will give the student practice in the art of writing." It therefore seems appropriate to recommend that these assignments should be replaced by more practical activities.

The reader will recall that a similar sentiment was expressed by the majority of students.

Number of lessons observed

Responses indicated a medium level of agreement about the present number of lessons students are required to observe. The impression gained was that some tutors are strongly *for* this activity, and others strongly *against* it. Whatever the situation may be, it should be noted that in this area, as in others, most respondents expressed themselves in favour of "a flexible approach."

Number of lessons taught

Results showed a medium level of agreement about the present practice in which students have to teach a set number of lessons. Here, too, most tutors advocated flexibility.

Suggested objectives

Discussions with tutors revealed that the objectives which most of them would like to see in the school-based programme, are method-centred. There is concern within the faculty about the fact that method lecturers are expected to enforce rules and regulations laid down by educationists who have little insight into the nature of subjects being taught. Each method lecturer should be in a position to formulate his/her own objectives for the programme. The general feeling seems to be that, as far as objectives are concerned, lecturers should be treated as "competent professionals" and not be required to agree. Different subjects demand different approaches. "Why make everyone conform? Once they have conformed, what has been gained and by who?" It would appear, therefore, that members of the course-team want method lecturers to specify the objectives for the various subjects. No objectives should be prescribed by the faculty as a whole.

3.2 Learning sequences

3.2.1 Learning sequences in campus-based programmes

It will be remembered that most members of the course-team felt that at least 50% of the time available for campus-based programmes should be spent on integrated skills. The other 50% would then

presumably be devoted to the specific skills that tutors identified as being generally useful.

To incorporate these views, the quantitative data obtained from the first set of questionnaires needed to be converted into specific learning sequences. In Table XXX the average weightings which tutors gave to different skills have been used as a basis to determine the amount of time that will be available for the various activities.

A C T I V I T Y	% OF PROGRAMME SPENT ON ACTIVITY	APPROX. NUMBER OF HOURS-BPaed	APPROX. NUMBER OF HOURS-UHDE
1. LESSON PREPARATION	8	12	4
2. QUESTIONING	6	9	3
3. EVALUATION	7	10	4
4. CONCEPT LEARNING	6	9	3
5. OBJECTIVES	5	7	3
6. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	6	9	3
7. GUIDED DISCUSSION	6	9	3
8. WORKSHEET CONSTRUCTION	3	4	2
9. CHALKBOARD WORK	1	1	-
10. OHP AND TRANSPARENCIES	1	1	-
11. PICTURES AND CHARTS	1	1	-
12. INTEGRATION	50	72	25
TOTAL	100	144	50

TABLE XXX : LEARNING SEQUENCES IN CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMMES : COURSE-TEAM VIEW

It will be noticed that the total number of hours allocated for both B.Paed and UHDE students in this table is lower than the actual time available (187 hours for B.Paed and 87 hours for UHDE). This was done in response to requests from tutors to shorten the campus-based programme for final-year students. Many staff members felt that the campus programme should be terminated after the second block session; it would leave students free to prepare themselves for their final examinations.

3.2.2 Learning sequences in school-based programmes

Data obtained from questionnaires showed a medium level of agreement regarding the present learning sequences in school-based programmes. A breakdown of the answers received appears in Table XXXI .

I T E M	NUMBER OF RESPONSES IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES					AGREEMENT INDEX
	AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY	
1. DURATION OF BLOCK SESSION	-	20	3	10	1	65
2. TIMES WHEN BLOCK SESSIONS OCCUR	-	23	2	7	-	70

TABLE XXXI : LEARNING SEQUENCES IN SCHOOL PROGRAMMES : COURSE-TEAM VIEW

As is evident from the data in this table, the majority of the tutors seem to agree about the present sequences in the school-based programme. The same sequences would therefore be used as a basis for the model curriculum, viz.

BPaed-programme :

2 block sessions of 2 weeks each

and 2 block sessions of 3 weeks each

TOTAL 10 weeks

UHDE-programme :

1 block session of 2 weeks

and 2 block sessions of 3 weeks each

TOTAL 8 weeks

An overwhelming majority of lecturers who *disagree* with the present duration of block sessions seem to be in favour of an extension of school-based experiences. The periods by which they wish to see block sessions extended ranged from one to six weeks, in the final year, i.e. 7-12 weeks for both B.Paed IV and UHDE students. Many tutors in this category also pleaded for more school-based experiences during the first three years in the B.Paed-course.

3.2.3 Sequencing of course-content

Most tutors appear to have clear and definite views about the sequencing of course content.

3.2.3.1 Cyclic sequences

During the discussion of course-team views regarding objectives it was noted that most tutors seem to favour an approach in which specific skills are continuously incorporated into student's existing repertoire. It seems as if the course-team would like the campus-based programmes

to proceed in cyclic sequences. The cycle may, for instance, start by students looking at the video-recording of a lesson; this would be followed by a discussion in which the tutor increasingly draws the students' attention to a specific skill used in the lesson; students would then practise that skill themselves; the cycle would be completed by students being given the opportunity to demonstrate their degree of mastery within the context of a mini-lesson.

3.2.3.2 Continuous lesson preparation

A number of tutors felt that lesson preparation should be at the core of the campus-based programme. This view seems to be confirmed by the fact that in the results of both questionnaires *lesson preparation showed a higher average rating than any other skill.* Remarks from tutors indicated that a significant proportion of them would like students to practise lesson preparation during each stage of the programme. (The manner in which this should be done will be discussed in the section *Teaching Strategies*)

3.2.3.3 From the simple to the complex

A few tutors suggested that mechanical skills (i.e. the use of aids) should be covered before complex teaching skills, like questioning and concept learning.

3.2.3.4 Preparation for block sessions

A fair proportion of tutors expressed reservations about the fact that second-year B.Paed students are required to do their school-based

Teaching Practice before they have had any guidance from tutors. In fact, they have not even met their tutors. Consequently, they find themselves at a loss during their first school-based session. In the words of one tutor : "Students gain very little experience. The two weeks equal ten days of pupil minding." The problem is aggravated by the fact that schools are at that stage still somewhat disorganized (January/February). To alleviate this problem it seems logical to recommend that

(a) the first phase of the campus-based programme should *precede* the first school-based experience, and

(b) tutors should be available at schools to guide students during this period.

Closely related to this issue, is the relative unpreparedness of final-year students for block sessions. The majority of tutors seem to feel that the campus-based programme of final-year students should be linked more directly to the school-based programme. This implies that the few weeks students spend on campus before each block session should be devoted to activities that would prepare them for their pending school-based experiences.

These views of the course-team should, as far as possible, be given expression in the course-team model curriculum.

3.3 Course content

Since the course content would correspond with the objectives and desired learning sequences outlined above, it seems unnecessary to

list the topics here. For the sake of brevity the reader is referred to these sections (as well as to the model curriculum presented later in this chapter) for details about course content.

3.4 Teaching strategies

As might be expected from the nature of this survey, the most important findings are related to teaching strategies. Because of recognized shortcomings in the present Teaching Practice courses, members of the course-team made numerous suggestions to improve the quality of methods being employed. Unfortunately the store of possible reform measures stemming from these suggestions is too large to report in detail here. The points below, however, embody the most significant recommendations made by a substantial number of tutors.

3.4.1 General teaching strategies

The general teaching strategies that most tutors seem to favour, cluster around the four measures outlined below.

3.4.1.1 Meaningful interaction between student and tutor

The most important step that should be taken to improve Teaching Practice courses, according to tutors, is to reorganize student-groupings at a grass-root level : *the same tutor who guides students at school should take them during campus-based programmes.* This idea has already been fully discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 3.4.3).

Since arguments of tutors about this arrangement are basically the same as those of students, it seems unnecessary to repeat them here, but I do wish to re-iterate the problems occasioned by the large numbers of students in certain subject areas.

3.4.1.2 A method-centred approach

The majority of tutors appear to favour stringent measures to eliminate the dissidence existing between tutors, especially regarding approaches to teaching. In contrast to the frequent pleas for "flexibility" uttered during group discussions, the quantitative data obtained from the second questionnaire showed a surprising trend : *74% of tutors feel that there should be more agreement among lecturers about criteria.* Only 11% seem to be satisfied with the present situation regarding criteria for assessment. This finding is confirmed by the fact that a further calculation of responses to this item showed an agreement index of 78%, i.e. a high level of agreement.

At first glance one might suppose that this finding indicates a desire to follow a uniform approach to the evaluation of students. Further analysis of the data, however, suggested that this is not the case. Responses to another question revealed that respondents were strongly against tutors advocating the same format for lesson preparation. Calculations showed that 57% of the course-team are in favour of retaining different lessons formats.

The apparent paradox between these findings could only be explained by resorting to comments made by tutors. According to these comments,

tutors are mainly perturbed about conflicting criteria within specific subjects. Disagreements about desired student behaviours in different subject-areas (eg. in teaching of Mathematics and in the teaching of English) are clearly matters of minor importance to them. Such disagreement can always be explained by the slogan "different subjects demand different approaches." The real sore point is when tutors involved in the same subject give contradictory advice to students. Method lecturers rightly feel displeased when, after they had given students intensive, specialized instruction about the teaching of a particular subject, another lecturer undermines his/her influence during school-based Teaching Practice. It is at this point that tutors start advocating a "uniform approach".

Against this general background, it seems as if tutors would like more agreement - not only about criteria for evaluation, but about teaching strategies as a whole. The impression was given that *the course-team want all tutors who are active in specific subject-areas to reach consensus* about objectives, lesson formats, teaching methods, lesson content, tests, marking, classroom management aspects, etc. In the words of one tutor : "If a lecturer sits in judgement on a student's lesson the student has a right to know beforehand what is expected of him."

On the other hand, tutors appear to disapprove strongly of strategies aimed at establishing a uniform approach to teaching for the faculty as a whole, i.e. uniform measures cutting across the barriers between different method courses.

3.4.1.3 Equal weighting to student's main teaching subjects

Although this view was expressed by only four tutors, it seems probable that most lecturers would agree to it. As one tutor said : "How do we know which subject or subjects students are going to end up teaching? We must prepare them to be good teachers all-round."

On the basis of this argument the Teaching Practice curriculum needs to make provision for students to be guided by at least two tutors : one in each subject. These modules can take place concurrently or in succession, as the situation demands.

3.4.1.4 Intensive guidance during initial block sessions

Many tutors complained about the customary practice to place students at schools of their own choice. It is felt that tutors waste much time travelling from school to school, instead of giving students intensive guidance at schools. Various suggestions were made to the effect that students teaching the same subject should be placed in the same schools. This, of course, raises insurmountable practical problems - imagine a school being inundated with 100 plus English or History students!

An implementation of this idea would undoubtedly cause difficulties. Tutors responsible for organizing the placement of students at schools have repeatedly pointed out that a more centralized system for final-year students is virtually impossible to implement. But perhaps a centralized system could be worked out for the January/

February block sessions. At present students doing Teaching Practice at this time of the year are allowed to go to any school they wish. However, it has been recommended that tutors should, in future, visit these students (Section 3.2.3.4) - a strategy that would necessitate using schools which are in closer proximity to the university. To satisfy the need of tutors to spend more time with students at schools, it might be a good idea to follow the procedure advocated by supporters of the IT-INSET approach : *one tutor, one teacher, and about six students all work together in teaching ONE class for two weeks.*

Such a system would have many advantages : instead of finding six classes for six students, only one would be needed; since schools are disorganized in January/February, principals would probably welcome it if a team would take charge of at least one class; it would not interrupt the teacher's programme; the tutor would be in a position to give intensive guidance to students in a real classroom situation; each tutor could work out his/her own arrangement and strategy; the teacher may be given a choice to join the group or not; etc.

In primary schools this system may function well. In secondary schools more than one class would be needed, since it would be too taxing for a class to receive intensive instruction in only one subject for two weeks. It may also be necessary to allocate two groups of students to every tutor - one for every alternate day. Whatever the details of the system may be, the idea seems promising enough to put into practice for a trial period. From a professional

point of view it seems superior to "two weeks of pupil minding."

For final-year students the present procedure regarding block sessions and placement of students will probably have to be retained.

3.4.2 Teaching strategies for campus-based programmes

3.4.2.1 Analysis of teaching

To obtain an insight into teaching, course-team members suggested that students should analyse examples of teaching-in-action. Here, too, tutors' views co-incide with those of students (See Chapter 6, Section 3.1.1.3).

3.4.2.2 Micro-teaching

While most tutors expressed themselves in favour of micro-teaching, a number of members pointed out that this technique should not be used as a substitute for real classroom experiences.

3.4.2.3 Small groups

Evidence of the new concern among tutors for campus-based programmes was noticeable in suggestions regarding student-groupings. Quite a number of course-team members indicated that they disagree with the present system in which Teaching Practice I-students are divided into three large groups of 40-100 students each. These tutors were of the opinion that the minimum requirement for an effective campus-based programme is that all students should be divided into small groups of 10 - 15 students each. They based their opinion on the fact

that large groups are detrimental to student-tutor relationships. In 1985 the groups were made smaller, but the staff/student ratio did not allow for the considered ideal.

3.4.2.4 Academic support programme

Course-team needs for a strong academic programme have already been discussed (See Section 3.1.2.1).

3.5 Evaluation of students

Some of the course-team views about evaluation practices can be readily deduced from findings previously outlined : tutors seem to be *against* a uniform set of criteria, but *in favour* of an agreement about criteria applicable to specific subjects. (See Section 3.4.1.2)

In addition there seems to be agreement about three other issues : assessment on merit, continuous evaluation, and non-evaluation of specific skills.

3.5.1 Assessment on merit

As a result of the frequent comments made during group discussions in support of "flexibility in assessing students", it was decided to ask a number of pertinent questions about evaluation in the second questionnaire. Two of these questions were aimed at identifying general standpoints; tutors were asked whether they would favour a strategy in which students would be allowed to pass Teaching Practice not on merit, but only on attendance. Responses to these questions are summarized in Table XXXII .

	PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES					AGREEMENT INDEX
	AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY	
1. STUDENTS SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO PASS SCHOOL-BASED TP ONLY ON ATTENDANCE	1	0	4	14	15	35
2. STUDENTS SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO PASS CAMPUS-BASED TP ONLY ON ATTENDANCE	0	4	3	16	11	40

TABLE XXXII : GENERAL STANDPOINTS ABOUT ASSESSMENT : COURSE-TEAM VIEW

From the data in this table it is obvious that the overwhelming majority of tutors favour assessment on merit - for school-based as well as campus-based programmes.

3.5.2 Continuous evaluation

With reference to campus-based programmes, tutors were requested to indicate the number of sets of marks on which each tutor should base his/her final year mark. Although only 62% of respondents answered the question, this percentage appears to be high enough to show that the majority favour continuous evaluation in campus-based programmes. The average number of times a tutor should formally assess each student per year appears to be in the region of 4-5.

3.5.3 Non-evaluation of specific skills

In the second questionnaire an attempt was made to discover what the minimum requirements for the course should be. Respondents were asked to indicate which teaching skills they believe should be formally assessed. It was felt that without a statement of minimum

requirements, students might be able to pass Teaching Practice merely by avoiding certain difficult skills, such as questioning and test construction. Such a practice seems to be a violation of academic standards.

The results of this question appear in Table XXXIII. As evident from these figures, the majority of tutors are against the assessment of any teaching skills *per se*. In fact, 43% refused to answer the question. This suggests that a major proportion of respondents do not consider any teaching method or skill important enough to make a certain degree of mastery in it mandatory for all student teachers.

	S K I L L/M E T H O D	% OF TUTORS IN FAVOUR OF FORMAL ASSESSMENT
1.	LESSON PREPARATION	49
2.	GROUPWORK	43
3.	QUESTIONING	40
4.	USING THE O.H.P.	37
	DEMONSTRATION	37
5.	GUIDED DISCUSSION	34
	MAKING TRANSPARENCIES	34
6.	CONSTRUCTING WORKSHEETS	29
	USING THE CHALKBOARD	29
	SETTING AND MARKING TESTS	29
7.	USING TAPE RECORDERS	26
	MAKING PICTURES AND CHARTS	26
	FOSTERING CONCEPT LEARNING	26

TABLE XXXIII: EVALUATION OF SKILLS - COURSE-TEAM VIEW

The implication to be drawn from this evidence is that large numbers of students are able to qualify as teachers without necessarily being able to prepare lessons, manage classrooms, ask questions, or set tests effectively. This was therefore one of the most disturbing findings of the survey. Not only does it leave the course-team wide open for attack by outsiders, but it also seems to confirm the view of students that many tutors have possibly lost their commitment to some educational principles.

A final point regarding the evaluation of students is that a few tutors expressed concern about the standard of evaluation. This concern can be best illustrated by a remark made by one respondent : "I get the impression of *MANY* of the tutors concerned as being mother hens, being over sympathetic, "over empathic", and being very unwilling to fail people who really deserve to fail. A distribution spread of teaching practice should range from 0-100, not 50-100." Actually, in my experience, the range is more often from 50-60, and very rarely extend to 70 and beyond. Three other tutors echoed the same opinion. One of them rightly pointed out that "It's because we are not sure of our standards that we are not prepared to fail them." This implies that an agreement about criteria will lead to tutors being confident enough to be stricter in their assessment, and, it is to be hoped, more willing to recognise a really good lesson. Remarks such as these, however, were counteracted by others from tutors propagating an opposite approach, eg. "under no circumstances must any student be allowed to fail Teaching Practice; it is our responsibility to give weak students intensive guidance until they

attain the required standard." As a result of such conflicting comments, it seems reasonable to conclude that tutors are in severe disagreement about this issue. Further investigation will therefore have to be conducted before more definite proposals regarding an evaluation standard can be made.

Evaluation is obviously of a higher standard when structured evaluation criteria are used as, for instance, those identified by De Jager (1979). The framework recommended by De Jager enables tutors to base their judgement on personality aspects as well as on criteria related to Didactics, Subject Didactics, and learning outcomes.

3.6 Strategies for improvement

The findings of the survey suggest that tutors would like to see the following strategies for improvement to be implemented :

(a) All tutors responsible for Teaching Practice-students should be involved in improving the Teaching Practice curriculum.

(b) Regular workshops for tutors should be conducted to achieve an agreement about criteria and requirements for assessment within specific method subjects.

(c) Once agreement about criteria and requirements has been reached, the head of each Method subject should submit a printed booklet to all tutors, as well as to all students involved in his/her subject, regarding his/her team's approach to teaching.

(d) Academic support in the form of a collection of resources, documents, schemes of work, etc. should be made available to all tutors active in similar subject-areas.

(e) The sequence and content of the material covered by the Didactics lecturer should correspond with the sequence and content of topics in the campus-based Teaching Practice programme. This implies (a) a series of negotiations between the Didactics lecturer(s) and Method lecturers, and (b) a revision of the Didactics syllabus.

(f) The selection of students should not merely be based on their academic achievements, but also on their innate teaching abilities and interpersonal skills; but these can only be determined in the actual teaching/learning situation unless some form of interest questionnaire can be used at the interview.

4. COURSE-TEAM MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

The implications that can be drawn from the results of the survey, is that a Course-team Model Curriculum can be constructed. In such a model recognition might be given to the most common trends revealed by the survey.

The main features of such a hypothetical model are shown in Table XXXIV (at the end of this chapter). As in the case of the student model curriculum, the model consists of two parts : one pertaining to the B.Paed -, and the other to the UHDE - course. The two features that are absent from the model - *aims*, and *strategies for improvement* - have again been omitted to reduce the complexity of the design.

5. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF MODEL

The final point to be considered is whether this Course-team model of a Teaching Practice curriculum gives expression to the criteria laid down in Chapter 2.

One formidable obstacle in analysing the model is that it is difficult to envisage what exactly will take place in each module. This is due to the fact that most course-team members seem to opt for an independent approach. The quality of each module will therefore mainly be determined by the competence of individual tutors. How can one therefore judge the effectiveness of the programmes? It will be noticed that what is at stake here are not merely personality differences between tutors, but fundamental differences in approach. For instance, it is impossible to gauge whether any of these modules have a practical propensity in its features, because this depends on the various Method Teams. Some may design "practical" modules while others may have a high theoretical input. In similar vein, some may follow a CBTE-approach, while others may favour a Humanistic Approach. For these reasons many of the criteria previously identified cannot be applied to discern weaknesses and strengths of the model.

What is blatantly obvious is that it has *a low level of curricular relevance*. Most of the features are still undeveloped. We do not know, for example, much about the teaching strategies that would be employed by the individual tutors, nor the criteria they will use to evaluate students. In fact, as it stands, the model would be of very little use to members of staff.

If one accepts the view that a Teaching Practice curriculum should embody fundamental didactic principles, the model also appears to have *a low level of didactic relevance*. To be didactically relevant, a curriculum must have a scientific basis. Ideally, this means that it should be based on a generally acceptable theory of teaching. Unfortunately - Didactics being a science which is still in its infancy - the theories which do exist are not necessarily well grounded or are so subject specific - for instance the many and varied theories of teaching languages as second or foreign languages (Jardine, 1982;22-25) - that they cannot readily be applied at a more general level. Most didacticians accept, as De Corte does, that "Een *algemeen geldige* theorie van het onderwijs-situaties, ontbreekt tot dusverre" (1972:10). (Emphasis added) Consequently, the didactic scientific community bases its practices on the only other alternative : the *search* for a generally acceptable theory of teaching. In this search, the acceptance of a particular paradigm or model by a particular group of people, is considered to be of paramount importance. It is an essential first step any didactic community has to take if it wants to make a significant contribution to the improvement of teaching. If an academic's ideas about teaching are so insignificant that he cannot find even a small group of educationists to agree with him, his ideas are, from a scientific viewpoint, worthless. In the words of Kuhn : "they are simply read out of the profession, which thereafter ignores their work" (1970 : 19).

It follows from this that no didactician can single-handedly improve the quality of teaching. He may, for a while, coerce a few students

into pretending that they agree with him, but the moment these students leave the university, they will almost certainly fall back on their "intuition" (as they saw their tutor doing). To bring about a fundamental improvement in teaching standards, a didactician needs the help of colleagues. He needs others to help him to formulate and reinforce a logical, consistent, non-contradictory set of ideas about teaching, i.e. a model. He needs to be a true scientist, in the sense described by Kuhn :

1. He must be concerned to *solve problems* about teaching.
2. The problems on which he works must be problems of *detail*.
3. The solutions that satisfy him may *not be merely personal* but must instead be accepted as solutions by many.
4. The group's members, as individuals and by virtue of their shared training and experience, must have *some equivalent basis* for unequivocal judgements. (Kuhn 1970 : 168)

The model curriculum presented in this chapter shows no signs of such a scientific basis. The only "principle" on which there appear to be agreement is "flexibility". In fact, the model gives the impression that there *are* no general didactic principles; that the phenomenon "teaching" is not worth investigating; that the only phenomena worth studying are "teaching of English", "teaching of Science", "teaching of Mathematics", etc. It seems as if the majority of the course-team are more concerned with passing on their own beliefs to students, than with the challenges posed by social and cultural changes. Instead of wrestling at length with the complex issues of teaching, in a

spirit of co-operation, they merely stake out their territories and ignore the rest of the didactic community. This implies a vote of no confidence in the time-tested principles of science, and seems to have left professors and lecturers bereft of legitimacy in the eyes of school authorities and students, as shown in the previous surveys.

Another aspect of the model curriculum is that a substantial number of essential teaching activities (as listed in Chapter 2) may not be covered at all. It seems unlikely, for instance, that in any Method lecturers would teach extra-mural activities, computer-assisted instruction, or classroom games. This further lowers the level of didactic relevance.

The suggestion that theoretical knowledge regarding Teaching Practice should be presented during Didactics lectures seems a good way to establish interdisciplinary links. It does raise doubts, however, about the role of Didactics. What is the function of Didactics in a teacher education course? The academic answer usually given is that Didactics should in part provide the student with an insight into the functional relationship between the theoretical components of Education - viz. Philosophy, Sociology, Psychology, and History of Education - and Teaching Practice, at the same time as teaching students about the relationships which exist between teacher and learner, learner and content and teacher and content; the part played by educational technology; curriculum studies; evaluation, etc. etc. It is difficult to see how this linkage could be achieved if only Teaching Practice requirements are taken into account, while the other Education disciplines are disregarded.

Regarding the criterion that existing constraints on the course should be taken into account, the model curriculum appears to have, at most, a medium level of effectiveness. To implement this model would require many changes to existing constraints : the whole staff structure would have to be re-shuffled to make provision for a method-centred approach; a new procedure for the placement of students at schools during January/February would have to be designed; and an extensive resource-production programme would be required.

The only requirement for which this model make ample provision is *a strong linkage between campus- and school-based activities*. Partly because of the method-centred nature of the model, and partly because tutors could give students intensive guidance at schools (See Module 8), students should be able to bridge the gulf between Method-courses on campus and school experiences most effectively.

As in the case of the previous models, the views of other groups - eg. school authorities and students - do not find expression in this model. *It is essentially a tutor-centred, autocratic model.* In order to design a democratic curriculum, a whole series of amendments would be necessary.

In the face of this impediment - as well as those discussed above - the model is clearly unsuitable to be implemented. On the other hand, it does provide the course developers with a valuable profile of tutors' views, which can act as a catalyst to establish a feasible curriculum.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter attention was given to perceptions of Teaching Practice as expressed by the course-team. If one considers that the members of this team come from divergent discipline backgrounds, it is understandable that they advocate divergent approaches to Teaching Practice. The survey revealed that there were two exceptions to the tendency of advocating a divergent approach : (a) a high degree of consensus exists about the necessity that in both campus-based and school-based Teaching Practice students should be assessed on merit, and (b) the vast majority of tutors are in favour of more agreement about criteria for the assessment of students. In the final analysis, these were the only details of the course about which the course-team seems to agree strongly. Needless to say, agreement about such basic beliefs falls far short of the total amount of agreement that would be required to establish a vibrant curriculum.

In Chapter 3 it was shown that the present policy of "non-interference" was mainly the result of a reaction against a previous "rigid" system under which many tutors found their styles severely cramped. Looking at the results of the various surveys, however, the new measures seem to have worked *too* well. Although a more flexible approach was perhaps desired and perhaps indeed desirable, it would seem that course team members have in some ways gone overboard in their endeavours to evince their "flexibility". Unfortunately it has become evident, to me anyway, that many students seem to have lost faith in the competence of their tutors, that school authorities, for whatever reasons, are too critical of the course, and even lecturers seem to

disagree about basic issues in teaching practice.

On the surface there seems to be co-operation, but from the questionnaires and interviews I sensed a contrary groundswell which I found bothersome. One clear recommendation, therefore, that can be made on the basis of the course-team survey, is that urgent steps should be taken to make the team aware of the detrimental effects of a policy of non-cooperation. Although one can sympathize with tutors who wish to respond to the challenge of Teaching Practice on the basis of their own beliefs, such an approach is essentially counter productive. In its endeavour to present a plurality of views, the course might well disintegrate. Moreover, it might affect the reputation of the entire Faculty. A determination to work towards a more coherent approach to Teaching Practice seems to be not only desirable but urgently needed.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	MODULE 1 : INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING PRACTICE (METHOD I)						
1-6	See Appendix VIII	± 3	12	T.P. I	1. LESSON PREPARATION 2. OBJECTIVES 3. CHALKBOARD WORK 4. INTEGRATED TEACHING	Groups of 10-15 students are taught on campus by First Method Tutor	According to procedures laid down by relevant Method Team; 4-5 sets of marks to be allocated in T.P.I.
	MODULE 2 : BASIC TEACHING AIDS (METHOD I)						
1-6	See Appendix VIII	± 3	12	T.P. I	5. WORKSHEET CONSTR. 6. O.H.P. 7. TRANSPARENCIES 8. LESSON PREPARATION 9. PICTURES AND CHARTS 10. INTEGRATED TEACHING	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1.
	MODULE 3 : CONSOLIDATION OF BASIC SKILLS (METHOD 2)						
1-4	See Appendix VIII	-	12	T.P. I	11. CONSOLIDATION	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1
	MODULE 4 : QUESTIONING (METHOD I)						
1-4	See Appendix VIII	± 2	8	T.P. I	12. QUESTIONING 13. INTEGRATED TEACHING	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1
	MODULE 5 : CONCEPT-LEARNING (METHOD I)						
1-4	See Appendix VIII	± 2	8	T.P. I	14. CONCEPT LEARNING 15. INTEGRATED TEACHING	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1.
	MODULE 6 : CONSOLIDATION OF COMPLEX SKILLS (METHOD I)						
1	See Appendix VIII	± 2	2	T.P. 1	16. CONSOLIDATION	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1
	MODULE 7 : PREPARING FOR FIRST BLOCK (METHOD I)						
1-2	See Appendix VIII	± 1	4	T.P. I	17. IMPROMPTU TEACHING 18. BLOCK SESSION ARRANGEMENT 19. ASSIGNMENTS	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1
	TOTAL FOR T.P. I	± 11	48				
	MODULE 8 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION (METHOD I)						
	Objectives to be stated by First Method Tutor under the guidance of the Method Team	± 14	60	T.P. II	20. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER (METHOD I)	Groups of + 6 students and one tutor take over the duties of a class teacher for two weeks.	To be stated by relevant Method Team.
	MODULES 9-15 : CAMPUS-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE (METHOD II)						
	Same objectives as Modules 1-7, but in Method II.	± 11	48	T.P. II	21- SAME AS TOPICS 1-19, 39 BUT IN METHOD II	Modules 1-7 are repeated by Second Method Tutor	Same as for Module 7.
	MODULE 16 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION (METHOD II)						
	As for Module 8, but in Method II.	± 14	60	T.P. III	40. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER (METHOD II)	Same as for Module 8.	Same as for Module 8.
	MODULE 17 : PREPARING FOR THIRD BLOCK						
1-7	See Appendix VIII	± 6	28	T.P. III (7 x 4)	41. CLASSROOM MANAG. 42. EVAUATION	Two Method-Centred T.P. components progress concurrently.	As in Module 1.

TABLE XXXIV: COURSE-TEAM MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM IN THE B.PAED-COURSE

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	MODULE 18 : THIRD BLOCK SESSION						
	As in current programme	± 20	90	T.P.III	43. PRESENTING LESSONS	As in current programmes.	As in current programmes.
	MODULE 19 : PREPARING FOR FOURTH BLOCK						
1-5	See Appendix VIII	± 4	20	T.P. III (5 x 4)	44. GUIDED DISCUSSION 45. SPECIAL METHODS	As in Module 17	As in Module 1
	MODULE 20 : FOURTH BLOCK SESSION						
	As in current programme	± 20	90	T.P. III	46. PRESENTING LESSONS	As in current programme.	As in current programme.
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE	± 100	444				
	MODULE 21 : FIRST UHDE-BLOCK SESSION						
	Objectives to be stated by First Method Tutor under the guidance of the Method Team.		60	Jan./ Feb.	47. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER	Groups of + 6 students and one tutor takes over the duties of a class teacher for 2 weeks. To allow for year-group teaching, UHDE's are grouped with T.P. II's and T.P. III's.	To be stated by relevant Method Team.
	MODULE 22 : INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING						
1-7	See Appendix VIII		28	Feb. - April (7 x 4)	48. LESSON PREPARATION 49. OBJECTIVES 50. QUESTIONING 51. CONCEPT-LEARNING	Groups of 10-15 students are taught on campus by same tutor that will visit them at school. Two T.P. components (one for each method) progress concurrently.	According to procedures laid down by relevant Method Team; 4-5 sets of marks to be allocated during year for campus-based programme.
	MODULE 23 : SECOND UHDE BLOCK SESSION						
	As in current programme		90	April - May	52. PRESENTING LESSONS	As in current programme.	As in current programme
	MODULE 24 : CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND TESTS						
1-6	See Appendix VIII		24	June - July	53. CLASSROOM MANAG. 54. WORKSHEET CONST. 55. EVALUATION 56. GUIDED DISC.	As in Module 22.	As in Module 22.
	MODULE 25 : THIRD UHDE BLOCK SESSION						
	As in current programme		90	July-Aug.	57. PRESENTING LESSONS	As in current programme.	As in current programme.

TABLE XXXIV : COURSE-TEAM MODEL OF A TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM IN THE UHDE-COURSE

CHAPTER 8

RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING AN EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM

1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we return to the two research problems stated in the first chapter :

(a) What would be the features of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum for the Teaching Practice course offered at the University of Durban-Westville? and

(b) Which guidelines can be laid down for the implementation of such a curriculum, given the existing constraints?

The investigation has produced such a wealth of data that it seems feasible to devote two chapters to the final recommendations : one pertaining to each of the research problems. I shall therefore first suggest possible solutions for the problem dealing with the *structure* of the curriculum, and then - in the next chapter - focus on questions related to a possible *implementation* of the proposed curriculum.

Of the many factors that influenced the course of this research project, the deepening of insight brought about by a reflection upon the data was one of the most rewarding. It gave rise to a variety of new perceptions not fully appreciated at the beginning of the project. Since some of the new perceptions exercised a powerful effect on the proposals emanating from the investigation, this chapter will commence with an outline of these.

2. NEW PERCEPTIONS GAINED DURING INVESTIGATION

2.1 Perceptions related to a sound theoretical basis for a Teaching Practice curriculum

During the investigation it became increasingly clear that an effective curriculum needs to be grounded on a firm theoretical basis. By theoretical basis I mean a rational account of, among other things :

(a) why teaching is considered to be an important human activity,

(b) the place of learning material in teaching situations,

(c) how teachers should teach, and

(d) why and how evaluation should be done in teaching (See Kuhn, 1970:43-51).

The quality of a Teaching Practice curriculum seems to depend largely on :

(a) the extent to which the course-team can *reach consensus about the qualities of a good teacher*,

(b) how these qualities can best be acquired, and

(c) the number of *details* the course-team can agree on.

It would seem to follow from this that the success of *any* Teaching Practice course is determined mainly by its theoretical basis, and not - as was thought at the beginning of this project - by the structure of the curriculum. Compared to a sound theoretical underpinning, the curriculum itself is less important.

Closely related to this issue was a new insight into the effect that discrepant belief-systems have on *the evaluation of students*. The tutor who commented "It's because we are not sure of our standards

that we are not prepared to fail the students" seemed to have hit the nail on the head. Is it possible, one wonders, to enhance the quality of a course in which students are not expected to fail?

This question led to enquiries about the examination results of students that took Teaching Practice courses at UD-W during 1984. The figures thus obtained appear in Table XXXV .

COURSE	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES						PASS-FAIL RATE	
	A	B	C	D	E+	UNAC-COUNTED	PASS	FAIL
TEACHING PRACTICE I	0	0	13	82	3	2	95	5
TEACHING PRACTICE II	3	6	48	40	0	3	97	3
TEACHING PRACTICE III	0	6	67	28	0	0	100	0
TEACHING PRACTICE (UHDE)	0	1	44	48	5	2	93	7

KEY : A - 75-100%; B - 70-74%; C - 60-69%; D - 50-59%; E+ - 45-49%

TABLE XXXV : TEACHING PRACTICE RESULTS, 1984 (obtained from Examination Section, UD-W)

The data in this table are obviously insufficient to draw general conclusions about the evaluation of students in Teaching Practice. One can only make tentative statements about patterns that seemed to be present during 1984 :

1. It is untrue that *all* students pass the course; during 1984 3% of Teaching Practice I - and 5% of UHDE-students failed the course.
2. If we assume that the numbers in the "unaccounted for" column are students who dropped out of the course, the second-and third-year courses seemed to have a 100% pass rate.

3. In all four courses the results clustered around the mean, which indicates that the results do not discriminate effectively between good and poor students.
4. The mean of Teaching Practice I - students appears to be lower than the mean of Teaching Practice II - students; in similar vein, the mean of Teaching Practice II seems lower than that of Teaching Practice III. This seems to be in line with the widely held view that students in first-year courses should obtain lower marks than second-year - students, and that second-year marks should be lower than third-year marks. (Behr, 1977:109-136) Unfortunately this trend is only noticeable in the mean; it would have been more significant if the same patterns were present in the categories that reflect distinctions and failures.

What are the implications of these examination results? Firstly, they clearly show that tutors are very lenient on students. Contrary to the many accusations made by students that tutors are harsh, over-critical, and unsympathetic, the examination results unmistakably prove the opposite to be true : few, if any, tutors are prepared to fail students doing Teaching Practice. The realization that such a failure could seriously jeopardize a student's future obviously weighs heavily on the minds of tutors. Lecturers are simply not as insensitive as students make them out to be.

Secondly, the high pass-rate in Teaching Practice suggests that tutors do not consider practical ability to be as important as theoretical knowledge. It implies that, if students can pass their written

examination at university, they will "automatically" be able to transfer their knowledge to children. The obvious question springing from this implication is : why do we offer a Teaching Practice course at all? Some educationists, of course, propagate the view that Teaching Practice should be seen as a "special" kind of course : unlike other university courses, they argue, this course should not be aimed at helping students to achieve a certain degree of mastery; on the contrary, students' abilities should not be evaluated at all; the sole purpose of the course should be to provide students with opportunities to experiment; the tutor should merely be a counsellor or adviser, not an evaluator. In reply to this argument I would say that it contradicts one of the most basic educational principles : the responsibility to work towards the improvement of society. It is hard to see how teacher educators can *improve the quality of teaching at schools* if they do not demand practical competence from prospective teachers.

Thirdly, the examination results of the UD-W Teaching Practice course imply that students may come to believe that the role of evaluation in an educational system is unimportant. If educationists themselves treat evaluation as a pointless exercise, it is a rather obvious connection that student teachers may follow suit. This, in turn, could lead to a school system in which teachers are so lenient that certification becomes increasingly meaningless as a basis to assess ability.

Finally, these results seem to confirm the notion that a weak theoretical basis results in unreliable evaluation practices. Conceptions of good and poor teaching obviously involve having a set of expectations that

student teachers should be able to meet. These expectations, however, can only be used effectively as criteria for evaluation if they acquire "legal status", i.e. become acceptable to the majority of a group. Just as a legal system presupposes a set of laws, an evaluation system presupposes a set of criteria against which performance can be weighed. And just as it is unfair to imprison a man who has not committed a crime, it is unfair to fail a student simply because his/her performance did not match the obscure expectations of a particular tutor. The course-team at UD-W seem to be well aware of this. Why else would they be so reluctant to fail students?

It would appear, therefore, that the statement "tutors are not prepared to fail the students" is only partly true. It would be more accurate to say that both the distinction and failure rates appear to be disturbingly low. Considering the untidy way in which criteria for assessment are used, it seems probable that one of the major causes for this state of affairs is uncertainty about criteria. It stands to reason that a course-team which doubts its own criteria would choose a middle-of-the-road approach - partly to prevent the group's uncertainty from becoming conspicuous, and partly to give students the benefit of the doubt.

In the light of these arguments it seems feasible to base the final recommendations flowing from this investigation on the assumption that the theoretical foundations of the course need to become increasingly more reliable and consistent.

2.2 Perceptions related to research problem

Another important consequence of the investigation was the realization that two slight amendments to the research problem would make the recommendations more realistic and viable. One concerns the curriculum while the other one is related to constraints.

2.2.1 The need for more than one proposed curriculum

During the investigation it became clear that a single proposed curriculum would not be as valuable as at least two proposed curricula. The problem with presenting a course-team with only one curriculum is that it creates a "for-or-against" atmosphere. Tutors might feel that a finished product is being imposed on them. Such feelings would impede the spirit of co-operation and excitement that should accompany curriculum growth. A more promising approach would be to suggest a number of curricula, all more or less equal in value, and to allow the course-team the choice of deciding which one should be adopted by the faculty as a whole. An added advantage is that it creates opportunities for the course-team to compose their own curriculum by putting together sections from the two models. In this way a spirit of exploration can be maintained.

Thus it was decided to treat the research problem as if its solution requires not one, but two model curricula. Admittedly, three or four would have been even better. But for reasons of space only two will be proposed.

2.2.2 The need to reconsider time-constraints on the course

In the original research problem it was unequivocally stated that the proposed curriculum should fit into the structure created by existing constraints on the course. This proved to be a tall order. Nevertheless, the proposals set out in the rest of this text appear to require no major changes to present constraints, with only one exception : the amount of time students spend at schools.

During the project it became increasingly clear that the present course is decidedly out of line regarding the duration of school-based experiences. Undergraduate students at some other institutions spend up to an average of five weeks longer at schools than students at UD-W. Furthermore, school authorities want the B.Paed programme to be extended from 10 to 15 weeks. Most significant of all, students themselves feel they should spend more time at schools : 16 weeks in the B.Paed- and 10 weeks in the UHDE- course. The only group who seem satisfied with the present programme are the tutors at UD-W. Yet even here it is worth noting that a third of the tutors expressed themselves in favour of an extension of "block" sessions.

In the face of such an overwhelming call for more school-based Teaching Practice, it seems appropriate to recommend at least one curriculum based on these lines. For this reason the second one of the two proposed curricula will be constructed on the assumption that the school-based programme for B.Paed-students is 16 weeks, and the programme for UHDE-students 10 weeks. The first curriculum, however, will take present time-constraints into account.

2.3 Perceptions related to criteria

To be operationally useful, the criteria established at the start of this project had to be translated into recognizable norms. As the project proceeded, the implications of each criterion became more conspicuous. This process eventually led to a kind of checklist that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a Teaching Practice curriculum.

The list consists of 20 items :-

1. Has adequate provision been made for the implementation of *CBTE-techniques?*
2. Has adequate provision been made for the implementation of the *Humanistic Approach?*
3. Does it have a *scientific basis*, i.e. is it didactically sound?
4. Does it make provision for students to acquire all the *skills and values propagated by leading didacticians* (as set out in the relevant section of this text)?
5. Is the *curriculum fully developed*, i.e. have all the features of all the modules been established?
6. Are the units and the modules arranged in a *logical order?*
7. Are there strong *links between the campus- and the school-based* programmes?
8. Has adequate thought been given to the *distribution of staff?*
9. Does it fit into existing *time constraints*, and is it clear which modules will be presented at which stage of the course?

10. Have *resource constraints* been taken into account, or is the curriculum accompanied by a realistic programme for the production of necessary resource materials?
11. Has adequate thought been given to *student groupings?*
12. Does it imply realistic arrangements for *the placement and supervision of students at schools?*
13. Do the *objectives and content* of the course reveal a *practical propensity?*
14. Do the *teaching strategies* make adequate provision for *all* students to *practice* real teaching skills (as opposed to dealing with theories in an abstract fashion)?
15. In the *evaluation of students* based on :-
    (a) their practical teaching abilities (as opposed to mere theorizing about teaching) and
    (b) on a scientific approach to teaching?
16. Is the curriculum more or less on a par with *teacher education courses at other institutions?*
17. Have the expressed needs of *school authorities* been given adequate recognition?
18. Have the expressed needs of *students* been given adequate recognition?
19. Have the expressed needs of the *course-team* been given adequate recognition?
20. Is the curriculum accompanied by *guidelines for implementation* that would ensure the observance of democratic procedures?

As is evident from the items in this list, the investigation has led to a refining and deepening of the eight criteria originally outlined

in Chapter 2. A more definite framework for the construction and evaluation of Teaching Practice curricula has emerged. Hence the final recommendations emanating from the investigation will be structured around the more explicit criteria implied by the above framework for evaluation.

2.4 General recommendations emanating from new perceptions

1. The course-developers should give urgent and persistent attention to the need for a uniform approach to teaching by all members of the course-team.
2. Such an approach should be based on a model theory of teaching (See De Corte et al., 1972:11 for the function of models in teacher education).
3. The model theory can either be one developed by a group of well-known didacticians (such as De Corte et al, Van der Stoep et al, or Gagné et al.) or one developed by members of the course-team themselves.
4. The evaluation of student teachers should be based on criteria that emerge from the model theory.
5. To improve the quality of teaching, more stringent measures should be introduced to evaluate student teachers' performances during Teaching Practice.
6. Teaching Practice I- and Teaching Practice II-students in particular should be assessed very strictly to make a 100% pass-rate in the final year more realistic and feasible. (Details to be discussed in Chapter 9)

7. To reduce the risk of B.Paed-students not being able to qualify at the end of their fourth year due to a failure in Teaching Practice I or II, the Teaching Practice course should commence in the student's first year of study.
8. The campus-based programme for UHDE- students should culminate in a rigorous performance test which students should be required to pass, to prevent the negative effects of a school-based programme being overshadowed by assessment practices. (Details to be discussed in Chapter 9)
9. Two models of effective Teaching Practice curricula should be presented as stimulus material to the course-team; the curriculum favoured by the majority of tutors should be implemented.
10. The faculty should be requested to consider an extension of the school-based programme, regardless of the actual curriculum being followed.
11. A Teaching Practice - curriculum will be regarded as being "effective" if evidence is produced to substantiate claims that affirmative answers can be given to the questions listed in Section 2.3 above.

This brings to a close the general recommendations stemming from the investigation. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to a presentation and analysis of the two proposed curricula.

3. PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 : FEATURES OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM BASED MAINLY ON THE VIEWS OF EDUCATIONISTS

3.1 Procedure used to construct Proposed Curriculum No. 1

Questions that seem to be of vital concern in the construction of a Teaching Practice curriculum are : How can the course-developers bridge the gap between vaguely expressed views about Teaching Practice, and establishing a vibrant Teaching Practice course? Whose views should figure most prominently in the curriculum? Which group is in the best position to make realistic suggestions regarding course content, learning sequences, teaching methods, etc.?

The curriculum proposed in this section is based on the assumption that a Teaching Practice course should first and foremost give expression to the views of educationists. They are considered to be in the best position to judge the needs of students. In our present frame of reference this means that the results of the Institutional and Course-team Surveys have been combined to determine the rudiments of this curriculum. Most of the course content and learning sequences are in line with present practices at other teacher training institutions which participated in the survey, as well as with the expressed needs of educationists at UD-W. But to eliminate recognised shortcomings in the courses suggested by these surveys, modifications had to be made. Using the criteria listed in Section 2.3 above as methodogical guidelines, ways were identified in which weaknesses in the model curricula presented in Chapter 4 and 7 could be overcome. The curriculum proposed below constitutes the product of these efforts.

Needless to say, there are many other ways in which a curriculum based mainly on the views of educationists could be constructed. It is therefore advisable to treat this model not so much as a firmly proposed curriculum, but rather as part of a plausible hypothesis that can be proved true or false by empirical research. The full hypothesis will more or less read : "Student teachers who follow this Teaching Practice curriculum will, at the end of their training, be better teachers than those who follow the Teaching Practice curriculum currently in use."

3.2 Proposed Curriculum No. 1

The major part of the first proposed curriculum appears in Table XXXVIII. Three important curriculum components that do not lend themselves to tabulation are :

1. the syllabus,
2. aims of the course, and
3. strategies for improvement.

These three are discussed below. The modules referred to later are a feature of Table XXXVIII(at the end of this chapter).

3.2.1 The Syllabus implied by Proposed Curriculum No. 1

It will be recalled that in this study the stance is taken that a new curriculum necessitates the simultaneous approval of a new syllabus (See Chapter 2). A syllabus, in this sense, is seen as a succinct summary of the purposes and content of a course, as it might appear in the university Calendar after it has been ratified by Senate. The syllabus implied by Proposed Curriculum No. 1 would be as follows :

Teaching Practice I

1. Interpersonal skills relevant to teaching.
2. Classroom management.
3. Introduction to lesson preparation.
4. Motivational aids.
5. Preparation for school-based Teaching Practice.

Teaching Practice II

1. First block session (2 weeks).
2. Pupil-centred and teacher-centred methods.
3. Effective lesson preparation.
4. Evaluation and record-keeping.

Teaching Practice III

1. Second block session (2 weeks).
2. Teaching Practice in the context of Subject Didactics.
3. Third block session (3 weeks).
4. Fourth block session (3 weeks).
5. Extra-mural activities.

Teaching Practice in the UHDE-course

1. Preparation for school-based Teaching Practice.
2. First block session (2 weeks).
3. Motivational aids.
4. Classroom management.
5. Interpersonal Skills relevant to teaching.
6. Second block session (3 weeks).
7. Pupil-centred and teacher-centred methods.
8. Third block session (3 weeks).
9. Evaluation and record-keeping.
10. Extra-mural activities.

3.2.2 Aims of the Teaching Practice course implied by Proposed Curriculum No. 1

3.2.2.1 General Aims

1. to bridge the gap between theories of education and their application in the classroom
2. to teach effectively by using a variety of teaching skills in an integrated and unique manner
3. to develop a sense of responsibility and an ability to maintain discipline
4. to cope with the official demands of a formal school system
5. to develop a sense of tolerance and understanding for other people's views, especially in the context of teaching-learning situations
6. to use teaching methods that are suited to the content and the subject being taught

3.2.2.2 Specific Aims

1. to master some interpersonal skills such as an understanding and appreciation of :

   (a) one's own strengths and limitations

   (b) one's own philosophy of life and education

   (c) the importance of self-confidence in real-life situations

   (d) the function of some written and unwritten rules of groups in society

   (e) the nature of conflict and confrontation

   (f) the role of prejudice in decision making

(g) other people's views

(h) community responsibilities

(i) verbal and non-verbal communication

2. to develop the ability to create a sense of security in the classroom and to maintain discipline by learning to :

(a) prevent disciplinary problems in the classroom

(b) cope with disciplinary problems in the classroom

(c) conduct private conferences with pupils

3. to perceive the basic elements of effective lesson preparation by practising to :

(a) state objectives

(b) introduce lessons in stimulating ways

(c) present new content effectively

(d) consolidate new knowledge and skills

(e) synthesize new knowledge

4. to experiment using the following motivational aids in teaching situations :

(a) the chalkboard

(b) worksheets

(c) the O.H.P. and transparencies

(d) the tape-recorder

(e) pictures and charts

(f) slide shows

(g) more modern aids such as T.V. and computer as these become available

5. to practice applying the following methods in micro-teaching situations :

(a) fostering concept learning

(b) programmed instruction

(c) educational games

(d) groupwork

(e) questioning

(f) guided discussion

(g) narration

(h) demonstration

(i) remedial teaching techniques

6. to practise constructing, analysing and marking tests, as well as some record-keeping techniques

7. to become familiar with basic practices in organizing and conducting at least one school sport

8. to practise using the teaching skills taught on campus in an integrated manner at school, for at least 10 weeks in the B.Paed-course and 8 weeks in the UHDE-course

9. to transfer the general teaching skills learned during the course to the teaching of specific school subjects for at least 6 weeks in real classroom situations

3.2.3 Strategies for improvement

Strategies for a continuous improvement of the course are so closely related to guidelines for implementation that this feature will be discussed in Chapter 9.

3.3 Analysis of Proposed Curriculum No. 1

3.3.1 Professional relevance

3.3.1.1 CBTE-Techniques

To operate in a CBTE-mode is to concentrate on helping students to master specific teaching skills. In this curriculum CBTE-techniques manifest themselves in the following modules :

Module 2 : Classroom Management

Module 5 : Motivational Aids

Module 8 : Pupil-centred Methods

Module 9 : Teacher-centred Methods

Module 10 : Evaluation and Record-keeping

3.3.1.2 The Humanistic Approach

Two of the key-features of the Humanistic Approach are that

(1) the campus-based programme should not be prescribed according to a preconceived plan, but in response to student needs, and

(2) that a group of students should be assigned to a tutor for a sustained period to foster the development of a trusting relationship. Both these requirements find expression in the proposed curriculum.

It will be noticed that in Modules 12, 20 and 22 the features of the curriculum have been purposefully left undeveloped to create opportunities for tutors and students to develop their own programme. Moreover, these modules constitute 50% of the total curriculum, with regards to the time allocation.

In the description of Teaching Strategies of Module 7 it is categorically stated that the same tutor who takes the student for Teaching Practice I, should take him/her for Teaching Practice II and for the first part of Teaching Practice III. Thus provision has been made for the creation of a close tutor-student relationship. This trend is continued in Teaching Practice III, since the same tutor will guide the student on campus and at school.

It has not been possible to achieve the same degree of continuity in the UHDE-course as in the B.Paed-course. A different tutor will supervise the student at school during the second and third block session to the one who takes him/her on campus.

However, a close bond could be established between tutor and student during Modules 14-19, when the same tutor will be involved in the campus as well as the school programme. Provision can also be made for the campus-based tutor to visit each student in his/her T.P.-group at least once during the last two block sessions.

3.3.1.3 The IT-INSET Approach

One of the most exciting features of this curriculum is that it has three IT-INSET components (Modules 7, 11 and 15). During these modules each tutor will be able to give students intensive guidance at schools. The group of ±12 students will be divided into two teams of ±6 students each, and each team will take over the responsibilities of a teacher for two weeks, under the close supervision of the tutor. The tutor will spend every alternate day with each team. It might be a good

idea to spend the last one or two hours of the day discussing the day's experiences and planning the next day's activities. The important point is that tutors will be free to design these modules in whichever way they see fit - a feature that should give rise to much enthusiasm and active involvement. An added advantage could be that one or two teachers may be invited to join the team, thus bringing about renewal in the school system itself.

3.3.2 Didactic relevance

3.3.2.1 Scientific basis

The critical requirement for a curriculum to have a scientific basis finds expression in the evaluation practices embodied in this curriculum. To combat the tendency of using one's intuition to evaluate students, this curriculum is based on a set of non-contradictory criteria agreed upon by the majority of the course-team. It presupposes that students acquire insight into basic didactic principles during their Didactics course which runs parallel with the Teaching Practice course. Needless to say, these principles should be theoretically linked to the knowledge imparted in the other disciplines of Education.

One module in which the scientific basis is prominent, is Module 4 (The Lesson Structure). To avoid as far as possible vagueness in the curriculum, tentative phases in the lesson structure have been identified. The idea was that the students should learn to apply basic concepts regarding the lesson structure at an early stage of the course. These concepts would then be systematically reinforced

during the subsequent modules - e.g. in Module 7 (Unit 2), Module 8 (Units 1.4, 2.2, 3.3 and 5) - during which lesson preparation is done.

However, should the course-team approve of a lesson structure that is different from this one, the objectives and course content of Module 4 would obviously be amended. The important point is that the course-team has to reach consensus on a lesson structure - as indeed, on as many other details as possible. Thus, even though the content of Module 4 may change, the rest of the curriculum makes provision for a systematic strengthening of the principles of the approved didactic model. This in turn would pave the way for these principles to be used as criteria in the final assessment of student performances.

3.3.2.2 Didactic relevance of content

Practically all the skills propagated by leading didacticians have been incorporated in this module. The only two teaching methods that are not specifically covered in either the B.Paed- or the UHDE-course, are Role Play and Excursions - and both of them obtained relatively low ratings in all the surveys.

3.3.3 Curricular relevance

3.3.3.1 Completeness of features

Apart from Modules 12, 20 and 22 - which have been deliberately left undeveloped to make provision for the Humanistic Approach - all the features in all the modules are complete. Although many details still

need to be worked out, this draft curriculum seems to constitute a strong framework around which further expansion can evolve.

3.3.3.2 Logical order of content

The sequencing of units and modules appears to be logical and systematic. Implicit in this curriculum is an inductive approach; the content bears evidence that tutors will proceed from the known to the unknown, and from the particular to the general (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1979, p. 104). This principle manifests itself in the proposed curriculum most clearly in the sequencing of the modules. The course commences with Interpersonal and Classroom Management skills - particulars most familiar to the student and with which a teacher needs to come to grips before proceding to such specialization fields as lesson preparation and teaching methods. These specialization fields gradually lead to the more general area of real classroom experiences (Initial block sessions). The course culminates when the students spend their final year analysing and practising *teaching as a whole*, within the context of Subject Didactics.

3.3.4 Linkage between campus and school programmes

Strong links between campus- and school-based activities are likely to be established. This would be brought about in two ways : First, the same criteria used to evaluate students at school will be used to evaluate their campus-based performances. Second, throughout the B.Paed-programme the same tutor who guided the students on campus will supervise them at school. In the UHDE-course this link is slightly weaker because different tutors would be involved. But given

the fact that only one tutor will guide the students during the first six modules of the UHDE-course, a fairly high degree of continuity will still exist. Moreover, all tutors will use the same criteria for assessment, linking theory with practice.

3.3.5 Constraints

3.3.5.1 Distribution of staff

It has previously been established that there are at present 35 full-time tutors involved in Teaching Practice. In reconciling the need for continuity with present staff constraints, it seems possible to divide these tutors into three equal groups, e.g. Group A, B, and C. Each year a different group of tutors can be responsible for Teaching Practice I - students, taking them through to Teaching Practice II and the first Module of Teaching Practice III. (Module 11) At the end of Module 11, the students will be regrouped. The same tutors who will visit the student at school later that year will take him/her on campus. This means that the student's campus programme will be in the hands of two tutors - one for each Method Subject - during the final year.

The UHDE-students could be catered for in a similar fashion. It will be recalled that Teaching Practice I will already start during the student's first year of study to make provision for students who need to repeat either Teaching Practice I or II (See Section 2.4). Most students, however, would pass - leaving their third year of study without a Teaching Practice course. During this year of "rest" their tutor could take UHDE-students for Teaching Practice. To show how

this system would affect the distribution of staff from year to year, Table XXXVI illustrates the process over a projected period of six years.

C O U R S E	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
TP I - B.PAED I	A	B	C	A	B	C
TP II - B.PAED II	C	A	B	C	A	B
- B.PAED III						
TP III - B.PAED IV	A	B	C	A	B	C
TP - UHDE	B	C	A	B	C	A

TABLE XXXVI : PROJECTED DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1

It will be noticed that the same group of tutors who take Teaching Practice I-students on campus, will take Teaching Practice III - students early that year (January/February) for school-based Teaching Practice. This is due to the fact that Teaching Practice I-students will *NOT* be placed at schools at all, while Teaching Practice III-students will *ONLY* do the January/February - session with their regular Teaching Practice tutor.

During the final two block sessions all tutors will be involved at schools, as is currently the case. This means that all tutors will be required to take two groups of students on campus : One group of TP I, TP II or UHDE-students, and one group of TP III-students (method-centred). Thus lecture loads could be evenly distributed among tutors. At the same time strong tutor-student bonds could be maintained. (In these plans I have not considered financial implications of such changes - these will obviously have bearing on the implementation).

3.3.5.2 Time-constraints

The proposed curriculum takes present time-constraints into account. Only one minor adjustment will be required : UHDE-students' campus-based programme will be extended by two days to accommodate Module 14.

3.3.5.3 Resource constraints

To guard against a tendency to make the curriculum too idealistic, two teaching aids have been rather tentatively added to the curriculum : computers and television equipment. In effect, the course will not include Computer-Assisted Instruction, nor Television Teaching for *all* students; present resources at the university are such that only a selected few are able to follow the CAI and CAL course. As facilities improve, so these courses will be offered.

The other resources necessary to put this curriculum into practice can readily be produced or made available to participants by the Resource Centre of the faculty. (Guidelines for the production of resources will be presented in Chapter 9).

3.3.5.4 Student groupings

It should be underscored that this curriculum can only function effectively if student groups are small, i.e. 10-15 per group. From the perspective of availability of tutors, it has already been shown that 10-12 tutors could handle each of the four year-courses. Since there are only 100-120 students in each year-course, it seems possible to assign small groups of 10-15 students to each tutor.

In settling questions of student groupings, it will be important to divide students mainly on the basis of subject choice. A characteristic feature of each tutorial group should be that *students from diverse subject areas are brought together in one group.* If this is not done, the whole curriculum may become irrelevant and meaningless. The major reason for this can be found in Modules 7, 11 and 15. In these modules small groups of 5-7 students will be required to take charge of a class of pupils for a full two weeks. Under such an arrangement, the group will have to teach various subjects to the same class.

It will obviously be useless if all the students in the group teach the same subject. On the contrary, the more versatile the group is, the more valuable the experience will be - for students as well as for pupils.

In the composition of groups the prime objective will therefore be the avoidance of overloading any group with students teaching the same subject. Keeping in mind that each tutorial group of ±12 students will be divided into two sub-groups of ±6 students at school, the ideal secondary-school tutorial group will be composed as follows :

2 students teaching English
2 students teaching Afrikaans
2 students teaching History
6 students teaching other subjects offered to Std VI, VII and VIII.

Groups consisting of students who are being prepared for primary

schools could reveal a similar structure, except that only subjects taught at primary schools will be relevant.

3.3.5.5 Placement at schools

This curriculum, with its stress on intensive supervision during initial school-based programmes, may at first create problems regarding placement at schools. Students will need to be placed at schools during the January/February sessions as well. Moreover, such placements will have to be at schools in close proximity to the university, to minimize travelling complications for tutors and students.

A question that naturally arises is : Would schools be able to accommodate requests from the university to place a class of pupils entirely in the hands of students for two weeks in January/February, under the close supervision of a tutor? We have already noticed that schools are, at that time of year, not yet in full swing. It would therefore be imperative for the faculty to negotiate with school officials at a high level before this curriculum can be successfully implemented in that important respect.

On the other hand, the arrangements implied by this curriculum would not be very different from present practices. As it is, schools accommodate students at this time of year. It seems feasible that principals may welcome, rather than reject, the notion of placing a number of pupils totally in the care of a university team during January/February. Regular class teachers will have a choice : they can join the university team and thus receive in-service training,

or they can help the school management to solve the many organizational and administrative problems confronting them at the beginning of a school year.

It has previously been noted that 30-35 tutors will be involved in this programme. If each school can accommodate two tutors and their students, only 15-17 schools will be required to implement this part of the course. A study of schools existing within a radius of ±10 km. from the university revealed that such placements can readily be arranged. This would mean that each school will be requested to relinguish the control of four classes (20-25 pupils each) to university teams - not an unreasonable request, it seems, since most schools have 20 or more classes to choose from.

An additional advantage of this system would be that closer tutor-school relationships can develop. The fact that a tutor will spend a sustained period at the same school may kindle closer bonds between tutor and school personnel. Such bonds could further be strengthened if the tutors return to the same schools every year.

Placement during the last two block sessions could be done in a similar fashion as in the present system. The only difference would be that these placements will have to be planned slightly earlier than at present. To ensure that the same tutor guides the students on campus and at school, tutorial groups will need to be composed on the basis of school placements.

3.3.6 Practical propensity

An essential guiding force in the construction of this curriculum was that it had to be a practical, activity-centred course. It will be noticed that strong measures have been introduced to ensure practicality. The only module in which the objectives seem rather abstract, is Module 1, Interpersonal Skills. To prevent this module from degenerating into a series of meaningless abstractions, tutorial activities such as those designed by a team of guidance specialists from the Lancashire Curriculum Development Centre,for instance, are recommended. These tutorial activities are of an extremely practical nature and have proved to be highly effective in helping older adolescents to develop interpersonal skills and social awareness (See Wells et al., 1983). These units will have to be slightly amended to fit the needs of South African student teachers.

Apart from this module, there appears to be a practical propensity in all the other developed features. The undeveloped part of the curriculum (Module 12) can only be evaluated after it has been implemented.

3.3.7 Democratic design of the curriculum

3.3.7.1 Incorporation of findings from the institutional survey

Evidence obtained from practices in other teacher training institutions has contributed to the format of this curriculum in at least two ways : Firstly, half the course will be devoted to integrated activities (Modules 12, 20 and 22) while the other half will be spent on specific

skills. It will be remembered that this was one of the most prominent features of the institutional module. Secondly, the learning sequences in this curriculum co-incide with those identified during the institutional survey. This means that the time allocations for specific skills obtained from the other surveys have been more or less disregarded; *the average time spent at other institutions on most of the specific skills has been the determining factor in the amount of time set aside for each skill in this curriculum.*

3.3.7.2 Incorporation of findings from the school authority survey

Recommendations stemming from the school authority survey find expression in this curriculum in at least five ways :

1. Tutors will supervise students during the January/February block sessions, as requested by principals.
2. The general professional behaviour of students will be evaluated. This will be done during Modules 7, 11 and 15.
3. Priority teaching skills will be formally assessed. It will be noticed that these skills - lesson preparation, classroom management, worksheet construction, objectives, evaluation, and questioning - are assessed in the proposed curriculum.
4. At least six of the activities suggested by school principles have been incorporated :
   (a) extra-mural activities (Modules 13 and 23),
   (b) record-keeping (Modules 3, 10, 14 and 23),
   (c) remedial teaching (Modules 10 and 23),
   (d) teaching aids (Modules 5 and 16),
   (e) maintaining discipline (Modules 2 and 17),
   (f) constructing worksheets (Modules 2 and 17).

5. School authorities will be more involved in the assessment of students. Utilizing the suggestions of school authorities, the promotion of students doing Teaching Practice I and II will be determined by panels on which school authorities will serve (See Modules 6 and 9).

3.3.7.3 Incorporation of findings from the student survey

To incorporate and implement some of the student views, a number of steps were taken. First, two topics requested by students were included: Record-keeping (Modules 10 and 23), and Pictures/Charts (Modules 5 and 16). Second, provision was made for a fair amount of micro-teaching. In the campus-based programme for B.Paed-students approximately 20% of contact time will be spent in micro-teaching situations. Third, students will be presented with examples of teaching-in-action (e.g. in Module 7.5, 8.1, and 9.1). Fourth, a module has been specifically designed to help students gain confidence, viz. Interpersonal Skills (Module 1). Finally, measures were introduced to ensure closer and more lasting tutor-student relationships. Serious student/tutor compatibilities will naturally have to be closely monitored so that swopping from one group to another can be arranged. The main reason why tutors will be channelled in ways suggested in Section 3.3.5.1 above, was to cater for student views on this matter.

Of special importance for students will be the fact that a uniform set of criteria for assessment will be used. Moreover, during initial block sessions students lessons will not be individually assessed. This will, it is hoped, reduce the tension during these sessions, setting the tutor free to concentrate on guidance rather than assessment.

3.3.7.4 Incorporation of findings from the course-team survey

Modules 12, 20 and 22 pinpoint the crucial part played by findings of the course-team survey. A characteristic feature of these modules is that they are flexible and method-centred - the two concepts emphasized by most tutors. Despite the necessity for tutors to use a uniform set of criteria, method teams will for all practical purposes, be left free to develop these modules in whichever ways they see fit. This means that half of the course will be entirely in the hands of method lecturers.

Another manifestation of course-team views is that most of the skill-oriented modules make provision for integration, as requested by tutors. The teaching of these skills - e.g. stating objectives (Module 3), using aids (Module 5), fostering concept learning (Module 8.1), etc. - is followed up by a general activity to help students integrate this skill into their existing repertoire. Firmly entrenched in the curriculum is a constant repetition of lesson preparation, mini-lessons, and discussions of general teaching skills. Thus students will repeatedly be expected to move beyond specific skills to action of a broader scope, preventing compartmentalization.

Finally, the distress caused by the fact that students do not see tutors as competent professionals, will be alleviated. This will, it is to be hoped, come about when tutors reach agreement about specific criteria, causing the whole team to advocate and enforce the same teaching principles. Such a system will necessarily contribute significantly to the credibility and growth of the faculty as a whole.

To sum up the analysis of Proposed Curriculum No. 1 : it seems as if it gives a different and more specific focus to the three main criteria that guided the investigation : relevance, practicality, and democratic design. In conjunction with the guidelines for implementation that will be discussed in Chapter 9, this curriculum seems to offer a high degree of effectiveness from a variety of perspectives.

3.4 Limitations of Proposed Curriculum No. 1

Difficulties that may impede the meaningful implementation of this curriculum are mostly related to areas that fall outside the scope of the present project. It would therefore be out of place to discuss them at length. Yet to ignore them completely would be tantamount to presenting the reader with a distorted picture. I will therefore briefly list some of the most problematic issues below :

1. *The BPaed II year*

The fact that most B.Paed-students will not take Teaching Practice in their third year - a year that is already rather light in terms of student input - is probably the most glaring weakness of this curriculum. To rectify this problem, some of the B.Paed IV-courses (eg. Education III, English Usage and Afrikaans Usage) could be transferred to the third year of study.

2. *Tutors time - Teaching Practice*

Many tutors will object to the requirement that students will have to be supervised in January/February, cutting tutors' holidays shorter.

3. *Tutors time - Lecture load*

Some tutors may find it difficult to take two Teaching Practice tutorial groups per week. However, it should not be impossible to exempt a few tutors from the necessity to take *two* groups; the curriculum makes provision for some tutors to take only *one* group (T.P. III-method-centred).

4. *The vagueness of the Subject Didactics components*

Modules 12, 20 and 22 could cause this part of the course to be ineffective; measures may have to be introduced to ensure that these modules are as robust as the rest of the curriculum.

5. *Coverage of specific teaching skills may be too superficial*

It will be noticed that, to allow time for Method-centred components, most of the teaching methods only received a 4-hour time-allocation. But to teach skills such as groupwork, guided discussion, and questioning properly one needs far more than four hours. In learning to conduct groupwork, for instance, only three or four students per group will get practice to lead discussions. What about the other group members? To rectify this, more time would have to be made available for campus-based programmes. This in turn would mean that the two-hours per week Teaching Practice would have to be extended to four hours per week - bringing the course in line with other courses offered at the university. But could this be achieved? And is it advisable?

6. *Subjective judgements undoubtedly influenced the structure of this curriculum*

While every effort was made to be as objective as possible, a number of decisions had to be made regarding questions that were left unanswered by the surveys. For instance, 3% of the course will be devoted to Interpersonal Skills. One may well ask : Why not 4%, or 5%, or 6%? In similar vein one may question the relevance of various other details in the curriculum. The hard reality is that the surveys did not yield enough data to shed light on these matters. To prevent the investigation from ending in a meaningless combination of words, I had no other option than to become creative. These details are the way they are, just because they "seemed right".

In the light of these possible shortcomings I would again emphasize the importance of regarding this curriculum merely as a stimulus for further discussions. No doubt suggestions made by the course-team as a whole have a better chance of hitting the mark than "solutions" proposed by a single member of the team.

4. PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 : FEATURES OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE CURRICULUM BASED MAINLY ON THE VIEWS OF STUDENTS

4.1 Procedure used to construct Proposed Curriculum No. 2

The key element in this curriculum is that the Student Model was used as a vehicle to determine its basic structure. To accommodate the views of other groups, however, a substantial number of changes were necessary. Thus comparative studies were made between the various

models; methods were devised to systemize and link the findings of the different surveys. Gradually a new model emerged. This model was further refined by eliminating deficiencies related to criteria of relevance and practicality. Against this general background, it is hoped that this curriculum offers a high degree of effectiveness.

It should be emphasized again that no two curricula designed by two different people could be wholly identical. The curriculum proposed here is only an *example* of a course-plan for Teaching Practice based mainly on the views of students. Needless to say, many other models could prove to be equally valid.

4.2 Proposed Curriculum No. 2

As we have already noted in the previous section, there are three components in a curriculum that do not lend themselves to tabulation : the syllabus, aims of the course, and strategies for improvement. These components are explained below. The rest of the curriculum appears in Table XXXIX (at the end of this chapter).

4.2.1 The Syllabus implied by Proposed Curriculum No. 2

This curriculum suggests an approval of the following syllabus :
Teaching Practice I

1. Orientation to Teaching Practice
2. Elementary teaching skills
3. Introduction to complex teaching skills

Teaching Practice II

1. Interpersonal skills
2. Complex teaching skills
3. Intermittent Teaching Practice at schools (2 days per week for 20 weeks)
4. Teaching as an integrated activity

Teaching Practice III

1. Exploring issues related to teaching
2. Teaching Practice in the context of Subject Didactics
3. First block session (4 weeks)
4. Second block session (4 weeks)

Teaching Practice in the UHDE-course

1. Orientation to Teaching Practice
2. Preparation for block sessions
3. First block session (5 weeks)
4. Second block session (5 weeks)
5. Support programmes during block sessions
6. Interpersonal Skills

4.2.2 Aims of the Teaching Practice course implied by Proposed Curriculum No. 2

4.2.2.1 General Aims

Since this curriculum is built on the same theoretical foundations as Proposed Curriculum No. 1, the general aims are the same as those specified in the previous curriculum.

4.2.2.2 Specific Aims

1. To become orientated to Teaching Practice by learning to :
   (a) improve some basic interpersonal skills
   (b) organize and conduct extra-mural activities
   (c) prepare and teach simple lessons
2. To master elementary teaching skills such as :
   (a) record-keeping and drawing up schemes of work
   (b) using classroom aids
   (c) conducting games, excursions, and demonstrations
   (d) constructing objective tests
3. To master complex teaching skills, viz. explanation, questioning, guided discussion, fostering concept learning, programmed instruction, groupwork, lesson preparation, evaluation, remedial teaching, and classroom management.
4. To develop advanced interpersonal skills such as an understanding of :
   (a) one's own strengths and limitations
   (b) personal philosophies
   (c) prejudice
   (d) emotive situations
   (e) community responsibilities
   (f) verbal and non-verbal communication

(g) democracy

(h) trust and empathy

(i) friendship

(j) coping with new situations

5. To become progressively involved in fulfilling the duties of a classroom teacher - B.Paed students by spending 2 days per week at schools for 20 weeks, and UHDE-students during their block sessions.
6. To discuss personal teaching practice problems in an uninhibited way in small group situations.
7. To observe and discuss a series of effective lessons.
8. To present a short but highly effective critique lesson.
9. To explore a variety of issues related to teaching.
10. To practice using the teaching skills taught on campus by teaching relevant school subjects during two block sessions of 4 weeks each (B.Paed-students), or two block sessions of five weeks each (UHDE-students) at schools selected by the faculty.

4.2.3 Strategies for improvement

See Chapter 9.

4.3 Analysis of Proposed Curriculum No. 2

4.3.1 Professional relevance

4.3.1.1 CBTE-techniques

The desire to implement CBTE-techniques played an important part in the construction of the Teaching Practice I, II and UHDE-programmes

for campus-based activities. Modules 1, 2, 3 and 5 pinpoint the crucial parts of these programmes aimed at developing specific teaching skills. Looking at the curriculum as a whole, it will be noticed that ±128 hours in the B.Paed-course, and 72 hours in the UHDE-course are devoted to specific skills. This constitutes 17% of both courses.

4.3.1.2 The Humanistic Approach

The Humanistic Approach figures far more prominently in this curriculum than CBTE does. Throughout Teaching Practice II the field experiences of students are used as a central means to help the student discover himself in relation to teaching (Module 8). This process is repeated in the UHDE-course, when students return to campus one day per week during the block sessions to discuss teaching problems with their tutors (Modules 17 and 20).

In the final year students are provided with experiences to explore general issues related to teaching (Modules 10, 12 and 20). During these units the faculty can make the resources of the community to expose students to ideas about teaching maximally available. It would even be possible to draw up a weekly calendar of events and allow tutors/students to choose which events they want to attend, as done in Humanistic programmes.

Moreover, the curriculum makes provision for a particular tutor to be allocated to a particular group of students for a sustained period : the same tutor would take the students for Teaching Practice I and II. In the UHDE-course ±80% of the campus-based programme will be handled

by a particular Teaching Practice tutor. The campus-based tutor will also play a crucial part in the assessment of students, since 50% of the student's final mark in the Teaching Practice I, II and UHDE-courses will be determined by a panel evaluating the critique-lessons of students *on campus* (Modules 3, 9 and 21). This is in accordance with the Humanistic Approach. Supporters of this approach advocate that students should be in a position to "stage a show" with the help of their tutor. Although the tutor may not serve on the assessment panel, he/she will obviously play a major part in the preparation of the student, creating strong bonds between tutor and students. To a large extent this alleviates the burden of responsibility placed on the tutors to discriminate between weak and strong students, setting them free to focus more on guidance than on assessment during the course. The major advantage, obviously, is that weak students can either be phased out or required to repeat, on the grounds of objective criteria applied by an objective panel.

4.3.1.3 The IT-INSET Approach

Proposed Curriculum No. 2 does not have an IT-INSET - component. It will be recalled that such a component is not considered to be an essential part of an effective curriculum (See Chapter 2).

4.3.2 Didactic relevance

4.3.2.1 Scientific basis

As might be expected from the fact that this curriculum has the same general aims as Proposed Curriculum No. 1, it also has the same

scientific basis as the previous one. It requires a firm theoretical framework. This would naturally lead to the application of a uniform set of criteria in the evaluation of students.

4.3.2.2 Didactic relevance of content

Utilizing the suggestions of leading didacticians, a rich variety of teaching skills have been included in this curriculum. Only two skills have been omitted : Models and Role Play. The low ratings given to these two skills by participants in the surveys, coupled with their relative unimportance in *some* subjects areas, explain their omission. The 23 other skills that would receive attention seem sufficient to warrant the claim that the curriculum is didactically relevant (Modules 1-5 especially).

4.3.3 Curricular relevance

4.3.3.1 Completeness of features

It should be clear that this curriculum has a high degree of completeness - even higher than Proposed Curriculum No. 1. The only features that have been left undeveloped are the teaching strategies of units classified under Complex Skills (Modules 3 and 5) and the few method-centred units taught on campus (Modules 10.2, 12.2, 15.6 and 18.3). From the perspective of staff involvement it seems imperative to leave opportunities for specialist lecturers to design some units themselves.

4.3.3.2 Logical order of content

On close analysis, the differences between this curriculum and the previous one mainly centre upon the sequencing of content. In the

present design various modules or units run concurrently and not successively. For example, the module "Teaching as an Integrated Activity" (Module 8) runs concurrently with Intermittent Teaching Practice (Modules 6 and 7) : apart from spending two days per week at schools, students will also attend a two-hour campus-based session per week to discuss their school experiences. In similar vein, the two units in Module 10 - "Exploring Issues", and "Method-centred T.P." runs concurrently : two hours each per week. In various other parts of the programme this trend is continued. The main purpose behind it is that it helps to establish strong links between the components, e.g. between general Teaching Practice and method-centred Teaching Practice.

Broadly speaking, however, the subject matter is again arranged in a sequence that facilitates an inductive approach : specific skills are taught before integrated skills. This is done to prevent students from being overwhelmed by the complexity of teaching as a whole at an early stage of the course. Besides, a deductive approach all too often leads to gaps in the student's knowledge. For instance, suppose one should start the course with the unit "Exploring issues related to teaching" (Module 10) by using the film "To Sir with Love" as stimulus material. The idea might be to let the student discover some basic principles of classroom management. Yet in the discussion (that follows the film) the students may latch onto something totally different, say, the socio-economic background of pupils. It is at this point that the tutor finds himself in a dilemma : should he forcibly lead the students to discuss classroom management, or pursue the students' interest in socio-economic factors? There are obviously a variety

of ways in which different people would handle the situation. What this example seeks to prove is that a deductive approach often forces a tutor to choose between two evils : either to lose his credibility by compelling the group to "discover" the tutor's preconceived notions about classroom management, or to totally abandon the idea of discussing classroom management, leaving a gap in the student's knowledge.

When a curriculum makes provision for an inductive approach, this dilemma is avoided. The process is more honest. Students are told from the beginning : "This is not an exploratory exercise. We want you to learn classroom management skills and in this film you see an example of how these skills can manifest themselves in a classroom." In a similar fashion, all important teaching skills are taught first, to help the student acquire healthy teaching habits. When the student later moves from particular to integrated teaching skills (from Module 6 onwards), he/she is in a position to discuss issues from an informed point of view. The tutor, too, can then afford to let the student explore issues freely, without imposing his/her own views on them.

I have dwelt at length on this aspect of the curriculum because it seems to be a sensitive issue among teacher educators. But this argument is only of interest in explaining the *order of content* in the curriculum. It does not mean that a deductive approach is avoidable inside the modules. From the perspective of *teaching strategies*, it should be clear that some units lend themselves more to an inductive approach, and others more to a deductive approach.

4.3.4 Linkage between campus and school programmes

There are many ways in which campus programmes in this curriculum are directly linked to school programmes. Teaching Practice I, of course, is but a prelude to the school-based experiences that take place in Teaching Practice II; no direct links exist because the whole programme is campus-based. But in Teaching Practice II close curricular links are maintained between the two programmes : not only do they run parallel, but specific times are set aside weekly for students to discuss their school experiences on campus. A similar strategy is followed in the UHDE-course when students on block sessions periodically return to campus to discuss their ongoing school activities with their tutor (Modules 17 and 20). In addition to these discussions, supporting experiences are continuously provided for the student to apply immediately on his/her return to school (e.g. Module 17, Unit 2 - Guided Discussion). In fact, the two programmes would be totally integrated.

This trend is continued in Teaching Practice III and parts of the UHDE-course. Each student would spend 8-12 hours with his/her supervisor *before* the block session (Modules 10.2, 12.2, 15.6 and 18.3). Although this may not be sufficient to establish a trusting tutor-student relationship, it is a considerable improvement on the present system in which tutor and student often meet each other for the first time at school. Moreover, all Teaching Practice I, II and UHDE-students would, as far as possible, meet in method-centred groups. (See *Student Groupings* later on). This should forge closer campus-school links because tutors in a particular method are more likely to agree on priorities than tutors from different methods.

The strongest link between campus and school would obviously be the same as the one in Proposed Curriculum No. 1 : a uniform set of criteria would be used on campus as well as at school. Even if no other links existed, this one would have been sufficient to bind the two programmes together.

4.3.5 Constraints

4.3.5.1 Distribution of staff

It has already been pointed out that the same tutor would take the students for Teaching Practice I and II (Section 4.3.1.2), and that this tutor would be knowledgeable about at least *ONE* of the method subjects of *all* the students in his/her tutorial group (Section 4.3.4). Such an arrangement would again necessitate the 35 Teaching Practice tutors to be divided into three groups of ±12 tutors each, viz. Group A, B and C. Since most of the student groups would be method-centred, each of Groups A, B and C would contain representives from major subject areas.

As in the case of the previous proposed curriculum, there would be one year in the B.Paed-course when most students will not take Teaching Practice. In the present case, however, *it would be almost mandatory for students to take Teaching Practice II in their third year of study*, since this is the only year that students can do intermittent School-based Teaching Practice (Modules 6 and 7). The number of academic courses in the other years are too high. It would seem, therefore, that the year of "rest" - during which students who failed Teaching Practice I repeat the course - would be in the second B.Paed-year.

Under such circumstances, the distribution of staff from year to year, may more or less follow the system illustrated in Table XXXVII

C O U R S E	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
TP I - B.PAED I	A	A	B	B	A	A
B.PAED II						
TP II - B.PAED III	B	B	A	A	B	B
TP III - B.PAED IV	C	C	C	C	C	C
TP - UHDE	C	C	C	C	C	C

TABLE XXXVII: PROJECTED DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2

An obvious advantage of this system is that it allows for some tutors to specialize in Teaching Practice I and II, while others can specialize in Teaching Practice III and T.P. (UHDE). At the same time, a close tutor-student bond could be forged during Teaching Practice I and II - an important requirement, since those are the years in which evaluation of students would be most strict, causing high anxiety among students. In the final year this bond is broken, but since weak students have already been phased out, assessment would be relatively unimportant; the emphasis would be on practice - somewhat similar to the "hospital-year" medical students spend at the end of their training.

Apart from the need for each tutor to teach one group of Teaching Practice students (as explained above), he/she would have to teach a method-centred component (in Modules 10, 12, 16 and 18). Yet this component only constitutes half the campus programme (22 hours for T.P. III and 14 hours for T.P. (UHDE)). The lecture loads of staff

is therefore even lighter in this curriculum than in the previous one. All in all, it seems possible to implement this curriculum without making many changes to existing lecture loads of staff members. It should also be possible to exempt a few tutors from all other campus-based duties except one method-centred component.

4.3.5.2 Time-constraints

This aspect has already been examined. The fact that existing time-constraints would have to be changed to implement this curriculum is perhaps its main weakness. On the other hand, many observers would regard this as a major breakthrough, making the curriculum more practical, feasible, and effective.

4.3.5.3 Resource constraints

Given the present resources available in the faculty, it was necessary to exclude Computer-Assisted Instruction and Television Teaching from the curriculum.

Furthermore, not enough resources are available to implement Module 1 (Orientation to Teaching Practice) in the order suggested. It seems advisable to present the units in this Module on a rotational basis. Unit 3 (Extra-mural activities) and Unit 6 (Micro-teaching) in particular would present difficulties, since 100-120 students would need to use the same facilities at the same time. This problem can be solved by dividing the students (with their tutors) into three large groups, eg. Group I, II and III. The units of Module 1 can

then be presented in the following order :

Group I :	Units 4	5	6	2	3
Group II :	Units 3	4	5	6	2
Group III :	Units 2	3	4	5	6

Since Units 4, 5 and 6 need to be presented in succession to maintain a step-by-step approach, this rotation scheme should not detract from the effectiveness of the module.

Another resource implication of the curriculum is that a variety of protocol materials would be needed to put Modules 10 and 12 (Exploring Issues related to Teaching) into practice. To ensure that these and other resources are available, a Resource Production Plan will have to be devised (See Chapter 9). But on the whole it seems as if present resources will be adequate to cope with resource demands implied by the proposed curriculum.

4.3.5.4 Student groupings

The minimum requirement regarding student groupings would once again be that there are only 10-15 students per group. Yet contrary to the arrangement suggested in Proposed Curriculum No. 1, this curriculum requires that the *groups should be method-centred from the start*. Only in Teaching Practice III would part of the course *NOT* be method-centred, viz. those units dealing with "Issues related to teaching." In all the other years the aim would be to place together students who have at least *one* common teaching subject.

Apart from this group construction guideline, it seems advisable to resist the temptation to impose additional restrictions on group construction procedures. For instance, it would be risky to allow students much choice. A strategy in which students can choose which of their two major teaching subjects should be the one that determines their group, would perhaps make the process too complex. Furthermore, they may choose to "specialize" in rare subjects like Urdu, Zulu or Technical Drawing - method-courses that involve part-time lecturers. It would therefore be easier to use *practicality* as the only other determining factor in group construction e.g. availability of tutors, time-table restrictions, etc.

The main purpose behind the groups being method-centred is that it creates a common basis for meaningful discussions. It should *NOT* be seen as an opportunity to give the students additional instruction in their Method Subjects. *The course would still focus on general aspects of teaching.* This notion manifests itself most noticeably in Module 7. During this module the students school-based experiences would centre upon his/her *second teaching subject.* However, the Teaching Practice groups would remain unchanged, forcing students from diverse subject-areas to concentrate on general teaching concepts. Since the tutor's knowledge of these subjects would probably be limited, a favourable climate would be created for group/discussions (Module 8) about teaching as a whole.

It is also noteworthy that the strongest element of the course at this point would be relationships within the group - not the subject being taught. The teaching subject changes, but the group stays

together. In an indirect way the message being conveyed might be : human relationships are more enduring and more meaningful than the artificial barriers created by subjects. This seems to be a useful way to prepare aspirant teachers for the congenial relationships that should exist between various staff members at a school.

In the UHDE-course group formation would follow a similar pattern. Although groups would be method-centred from the start, 80% of the campus-based programme would revolve around general teaching concepts.

4.3.5.5 Placement at schools

One of the advantages of this curriculum is that placement of students should be fairly easy. Since tutors would not visit students at school during Teaching Practice II (Intermittent Teaching Practice), it is really immaterial whether students are placed by the faculty, or whether they organize placement themselves. In the final year placement can be done as at present.

4.3.6 Practical propensity

It would seem superfluous to reproduce here all the details in this curriculum that are of a practical nature. Suffice to restable some of the characteristics of a *practical* curriculum (identified in Chapter 2) as they manifest themselves in the proposed design :

1. "Objectives should, as far as feasible, be stated in behavioural terms." Most of the objectives in this curriculum contain action verbs such as *practise*, *prepare*, *teach*, and *discuss*.

In units where behavioural objectives are not stated (e.g. Interpersonal skills) special measures have been taken to ensure that students will be active (e.g. suggesting for instance the use of Active Tutorial materials designed by Wells et al.). It seems clear that this is an activity-centred curriculum.

2. "The desired behaviours should force students to exert themselves mentally, emotionally, and physically." It will be noticed that the curriculum demands considerable effort from students; for instance, during Intermittent Teaching Practice a gradually larger proportion of the teachers' duties are taken over by the students, until they carry the full responsibility of "being teachers."

3. "The course content should not be boring." It remains to be seen whether participants would enjoy the course; many details still have to be worked out. But judging from appearances, the course content seems to be stimulating.

On the strength of this evidence, the proposed curriculum appears to have a high degree of practicality.

4.3.7 Democratic design of the curriculum

4.3.7.1 Incorporation of findings from the institutional survey

Three regions in which findings from the institutional survey contributed to the curricular structure are : learning sequences, course content, and evaluation.

4.3.7.1.1 Learning sequences

It has already been pointed out that the overwhelming majority of other institutions provide more school-based experiences to students than UD-W does. Findings from the institutional survey contributed significantly to the extension of school-based Teaching Practice implied by the proposed model.

4.3.7.1.2 Course content

The most prominent finding of the institutional survey was that at least 50% of the course should be spent on integrated skills. At many other institutions the entire course consists of integrated skills. In this curriculum 77% of the time available for Teaching Practice in the B.Paed course, and 80% of it in the UHDE-course, will be devoted to integrated skills.

4.3.7.1.3 Evaluation

A very useful contribution in this area was made by the institutional survey. It will be recalled that most institutions outside South Africa favour a simple Pass/Fail assessment scale. Institutions inside South Africa, on the other hand mostly favour percentages. To incorporate these findings it was decided to recommend percentages/ symbols in the assessment of Teaching Practice I, II and UHDE-students, while in Teaching Practice III a simple Pass/Fail scale is proposed. In this way the UD-W course would be in line with most other institutions.

4.3.7.2 Incorporation of findings from the school authority survey

To construct a curriculum which would closely fit the needs of school

authorities, a number of steps were taken. First, school authorities were included in the assessment panels that will evaluate students (Modules 3, 9 and 21). Second, the observation sessions that take place at schools in January/February were removed from the curriculum and replaced by campus-based modules. The reader may recall that this was the practice that principals found more irritating than any other activity in the present course. Third, the block sessions were extended and a more useful school programme for Teaching Practice II was introduced. Judging from recommendations made by principals, this move should be a popular one among school authorities.

The most important manifestation of school authorities' views, however, can be found in the campus-based programmes. *The weighting given to all the specific teaching skills in this curriculum coincides with the average weighting recommended by principals.* It is solely on the basis of school authority views, for instance, that the highest weightings were given to Lesson Preparation (Module 5), Classroom Management (Module 5), and Evaluation (Modules 1.4.3, 2.5, and 5.4). This is also the reason why four hours will be spent on Chalkboard Work (which received low ratings from educationists) but only two hours on Games (See Module 2). Furthermore, *all the campus-based activities recommended by school authorities were incorporated :* Record-keeping, Schemes of Work, Remedial Teaching, The Education Act, etc.

In short, school authorities have a substantial input in this curriculum.

4.3.7.3 Incorporation of findings from the student survey

Perhaps the main appeal of this curriculum is that it is chiefly based on student views. The fundamental structure of the Student Model Curriculum has been retained. To mention but a few obvious similarities :

1. A large proportion of the campus programme will be devoted to Interpersonal Skills - 41 hours in the B.Paed-course, and 22 in the UHDE-course. The importance of the "self" of the teacher will be recognized and encouraged to grow.
2. Intermittent Teaching Practice will constitute a major part of the course.
3. Students will be able to discuss their *own* Teaching Practice problems - not those of the faculty (Module 8).
4. A series of demonstration lessons will help students to see how abstract didactic principles can manifest themselves in real classroom practices (Module 8).
5. Students will spend 8-12 hours with their supervisors on campus before each block session.
6. The school-based programmes will be extended.
7. A uniform set of criteria for evaluation will be applied across the spectrum of all teaching subjects.

4.3.7.4 Incorporation of findings from the course-team survey

Of special importance for tutors would be the method-centredness of Teaching Practice groups. Although a structured programme will be followed, tutors will nevertheless be able to relate more meaningfully to the students. For example, when students prepare audio equipment

and charts in Module 2.2, they could concentrate on techniques relevant to that particular subject. Discussions and evaluation practices, however, will still centre upon specific guidelines laid down by the faculty as a whole.

It may be objected that the method-centredness of the course will be detrimental to its didactic relevance. Participants may come to believe that Subject Didactics is more important than General Didactics. I think it is useless to try to refute this argument. Indeed, it would have been more didactically justifiable if the groups were *NOT* method-centred. But the arguments *against* such a move seem to me stronger than the arguments *for* it. There are at least three underlying justifications for making the groups method-centred :

First, to say that tutors may come to believe that Subject Didactics is more important than General Didactics is an anachronism. The majority of tutors at UD-W believe this already. I am of the opinion that the main reason why the course-team felt so extremely threatened by this investigation was that it took place under the auspices of a General Didactics team. Few, if any, of the Method lecturers have advanced qualifications in General Didactics, yet many are highly qualified in Subject Didactics. What is more natural for them than to show preference for Subject Didactics? The rivalry between adherents of general and subject didacticians in the faculty seems so strong, that I do not believe a curriculum without a substantial Subject Didactic input will have any chance of being approved by the Board of the Faculty. Where would that leave us? To recommend method-centred

groups is therefore more realistic, because it takes into account *the situation as it is*. It also provides positive proof to tutors that their needs have been taken into consideration.

Second, even if the Teaching Practice Committee should force tutors to implement a General Didactic-oriented curriculum, it will probably not work. Many of the tutors' hearts will not be in their work. As it is, one of the crippling factors of the present course is that most tutors seem to be disinterested in the campus-based programmes. Only the few lecturers who design the modules are really interested. This inevitably leads to a situation in which two or three individuals frequently burn the midnight oil to design programmes, which the rest of the tutors half-heartedly put into practice because they cannot identify with the material. It seems to me that this process fosters symbiotic relationships that borders on the pathological - almost as if the designer says : "If you will put my ideas into practice, I promise, you don't have to do any work." To break this chain of uninvolvement it seems imperative to make the groups method-centred. Even if it is done only temporarily it is likely to get *ALL* tutors more motivated and enthusiastic. To have an enthusiastic tutor would at this point be more beneficial to students, I think, than to have a General Didactics - oriented course. Besides, the tutors would still follow a structured, general programme based on a legally - binding syllabus approved by Senate.

Lastly, I would contend that this curriculum is didactically relevant even though the groups are method-centred. Arguments to this effect have already been put forward in Section 4.3.2.2.

The method-centredness of the groups is the most significant contribution made by the course-team survey in the present design. If this requirement is changed, hardly any of the ideas expressed by tutors would find expression in this curriculum. On the other hand, if the method-centredness is retained, many of the expressed views of tutors would be incorporated.

4.4 Limitations of Proposed Curriculum No. 2

Possible weaknesses in this curriculum can be summarized as follows :

1. The small proportion of the curriculum that is devoted to the teaching of specific teaching skills is probably insufficient to enable full mastery. (As explained in Section 3.4)
2. The Teaching Strategies of Modules 3 and 5 that will be designed by tutors may result in that part of the course being ineffective.
3. Tutors may resent the fact that they need to give intensive instruction (6 hours per day for 10 days) to students before the academic year has started, i.e. in early February.
4. During Teaching Practice II - taken by BPaed-students in their third year of study - some students may have to attend part-time lectures in one of their majors. It is difficult to say how many students will *not* have two days per week free to attend school. All we know at present is that the majority of third-year students have only 10 scheduled periods per week. But to establish how the spread of these periods would affect the proposed Intermittent Teaching Practice programme, further investigations will be needed.

5. The extension of block sessions in the final year would affect the academic courses presented on campus. Some lecturers may find the curtailment of these courses unacceptable.
6. As in the case of Proposed Curriculum No. 1, my own subjective judgements influenced the structure of this curriculum.

5. CONCLUSION

As was stated in the opening paragraph of this chapter, tentative solutions were found to the research problem. The first set of possible solutions - covering the structure of a relevant, practical, democratically-designed curriculum - was dealt with in the present chapter. In the final chapter of this text recommendations regarding the possible implementation of an important curriculum will be presented.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
MODULE 1 : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS (B.PAED)							
1.	To grasp the nature of the course.		1	T.P.I - one 2-hour session per week for 8 weeks	1. INTRODUCTION	Tutor explains and organizes groups.	Continuous assessment: At the end of each session the tutor allocates a symbol or percentage to each student on the basis of his/her contribution to the activities. These symbols/ marks are not divulged to the students. The criteria used are agreed upon by all tutors presenting this module, and are communicated to students in printed form before the module commences.
2.	To become aware of a tutor-group identity.		1		2. WHO WE ARE AND WHAT WE ARE LIKE	Tutor uses programmes designed by Wells et al, Active Tutorial Work.	
3.	To examine the nature of authority and reactions to it.		1		3. AN EXPLORATION OF AUTHORITY	See Wells et al p. 64-67.	
4.	To show interest in and concern for major philosophical and moral issues, and begin to formulate his/her own philosophy.		1		4. RULES AND RIGHTS - WRITTEN AND UN-UNWRITTEN	See Wells et al p. 68-74	
5.	To develop an understanding of human relationships and what is involved in dealing with people.		1		5. LOOKING AT GROUPS: HOW A GROUP FUNCTIONS	See Wells et al p. 75-77.	
6.	To develop a sense of tolerance and understanding and sympathy for other people's views.		1		6. ALL YOU NEED IS UNDERSTANDING: CONFLICT AND CONFRONTATION	See Wells et al p. 93-94.	
7.	To develop the power to argue a case, and yet see other points of view.		1		7. PERSONAL PHILOSOPHIES	See Wells et al p. 95-97.	
8.	To identify personal strengths and weaknesses and come to a higher degree of self-acceptance.		1		8. THIS IS ME	See Wells et al p. 100-102.	
9.	To develop a degree of self-confidence in challenging situations.		2		9. IDENTIFYING PERSONAL QUALITIES	See Wells et al p. 103-107.	
10.	To recognize his/her own areas of prejudice.		1		10. PREJUDICE AND EMOTIVE SITUATIONS	See Wells, et al p. 112-115.	
11.	To appreciate the concerns of others in the community.		1		11. COMMUNITY CONCERNS	See Wells, et al p. 116-118.	
12.	To develop an insight into the responsibilities of those in charge of community problems.		1		12. COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITY	See Wells, et al p. 119-121.	
13.	To examine to what degree people are the product of their experiences.		1		13. PARENTS AND OTHER ADULTS	See Wells, et al p. 127-131.	
14.	To listen and interpret meaning accurately.		1		14. VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION	See Wells, et al p. 141-147.	
15.	To accept responsibility for the welfare of another person.		1		15. PUTTING YOURSELF IN SOMEONE ELSE'S SHOES	See Wells, et al p. 153-155	
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 3	16				
MODULE 2 : CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT (B.PAED)							
1.	To practise how to prevent disruptive behaviour in the classroom.		2	T.P.I- one 2-hour session per week for 5 weeks	16. PREVENTING PROBLEMS (1)	Micro-teaching and simulation, reinforcing ideas of Good & Brophy, Looking in Classrooms, p. 163-185.	Tutor assesses Units 1,3 and 5 by allocating a symbol or percentage to each student on the basis of his/her performance during micro-teaching sessions. Criteria are established and treated as in Module 1.
2.	To develop an insight into ways of preventing disciplinary problems in the classroom.		2		17. PREVENTING PROBLEMS (2)	Groupwork - discussion of examples of real classroom problems, reinforcing Good & Brophy, p. 163-185.	
3.	To practise how to cope with prolonged and/or disruptive behaviour in the classroom.		2		18. COPING WITH PROBLEMS (1)	Micro-teaching and simulation, reinforcing Good & Brophy, p. 196-240.	
4.	To develop an insight into ways of coping with disciplinary problems in the classroom.		2		19. COPING WITH PROBLEMS (2)	Groupwork - discussion of examples of real classroom problems, reinforcing Good & Brophy, p. 196-240.	
5.	To practise how to conduct investigations and private conferences with misbehaving pupils.		2		20. PRIVATE CONFERENCES	Micro-teaching and simulation, reinforcing ideas of Good & Brophy, p. 204-206, and p. 238.	
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 2	10				
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	± 5	26				

TABLE XXXVIII PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 IN THE B.PAED - COURSE

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 5	26				
	MODULE 3 : INTRODUCTION TO LESSON PREPARATION (B.PAED)						
1.	To understand and practise logical sequencing of subject matter for a series of lessons.		2	T.P.I- one 2-hour session per week for 3 weeks	21. SCHEMES OF WORK	Students draw up Schemes of Work according to guidelines provided by school authorities. Students write behavioural objectives for a variety of lessons; under the guidance of the tutor they discuss and evaluate their work. Students write out the content of a number of lessons directed at achieving relevant behavioural objectives.	Tutor assesses the written work of students and allocate a symbol or percentage to each piece of work. Criteria are established and treated as in Module 1.
2.	To practise stating behavioural objectives.		2		22. BEHAVIOURAL OBJECTIVES		
3.	To prepare the content of a number of lessons directed at achieving relevant behavioural objectives.		2		23. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OBJECTIVES AND LESSON CONTENT		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 1	6				
	MODULE 4 : THE LESSON STRUCTURE (B.PAED)						
1.	To practise designing stimulating ways to introduce a lesson by relating the content to pupils' interest.		1	T.P.I- one 2-hour session per week for 2 weeks	24. INTRODUCING A LESSON	Groupwork: students design stimulating ways to introduce Right Living lessons, followed by discussion of efforts.	Tutor assesses the quality of work produced by each group. All members of a particular group are given the same symbol or percentage. Criteria are established and treated as in Module 1.
2.	To practise designing stimulating ways to present new content.		1		25. PRESENTING NEW CONTENT	As for Unit 1 above.	
3.	To practise designing effective ways to consolidate and/or apply new content.		1		26 CONSOLIDATION	As for Unit 1 above.	
4.	To practise concluding lessons effectively by synthesizing the new content and pointing out its relevance to the pupils' lives.		1		27. SYNTHESIS	As for Unit 1 above.	
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	± 1	4				
	MODULE 5 : MOTIVATIONAL AIDS (B.PAED)						
1.	1. To practise writing on the chalkboard.		1	T.P.I- one 2-hour session per week for 5 weeks	28. CHALKBOARD WORK	Students practise writing on the chalkboard.	Tutor assesses the mini-lessons, allocating symbols or marks for each one.
	2. To teach 5-min. mini-lessons using the chalkboard.		1		29. THE CHALKBOARD IN CONTEXT.	Students present mini-lessons using the chalkboard.	
2.	1. To practise writing a number of worksheets.		1		30. WORKSHEET CONSTRUCTION	Students write copies of their worksheets on transparencies and discuss their efforts.	Tutor assesses the worksheets and transparencies, allocating marks or symbols. As in Module 4.
	2. To use the OHP and write transparencies.		3		31. THE OHP AND TRANSPARENCIES		
3.	To design ways in which the tape-recorder can be used during a lesson.		1		32. THE TAPE-RECORDER IN CONTEXT	Groupwork: students prepare lessons in which the tape-recorder is used, followed by guided discussions.	
4.	To produce pictures and charts that can be used for purpose of teaching or classroom decoration.		2		33. PICTURES AND CHARTS	Students produce one picture or chart each; groups of students assess groups of charts; using set criteria; then each student produces a second picture/chart.	Tutor assesses the second set of charts.
5.	1. To select slide shows. 2. To practise using slide projectors. 3. To practise presenting slide shows.		2		34. SLIDE SHOWS	Groupwork: each student selects a slide show and presents it to his/her small group.	No assessment
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 2	10				
	MODULE 6 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION (B.PAED)						
1.	To prepare and present 10-min mini-lessons, stating objectives, and using at least one motivational aid.		4	T.P.I- one 2-hour session per week for 2 weeks	35. PREPARING MINI-LESSONS USING AIDS.	Micro-teaching.	Panel consisting of 2 tutors and 1 school authority assess each student's mini-lesson; this mark constitutes 50% of the student's final mark for the year.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 1	4				
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	±10	50				

TABLE XXXVIII (cont.): PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 IN THE B.PAED - COURSE

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UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES: % OF COURSE	LEARNING SEQUENCES: APPROX. HOURS	LEARNING SEQUENCES: STAGE	COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 10	50				
MODULE 7 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION (B.PAED)							
	1. To practise managing one or more classes. 2. To prepare effective lessons. 3. To use motivational aids effectively in the classroom. 4. To teach 7-10 lessons. 5. To observe 30-40 lessons taught by fellow students, a teacher, or the tutor. 6. To write evaluatory comments about lessons observed. 7. To discuss lessons taught by members of the group.		60	T.P.II-Two weeks Jan./Feb.	35. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER	Groups of ± 6 students, one tutor and perhaps one teacher take over the duties of a class teacher for two weeks. Each student should teach a different subject. Each tutor has TWO such groups and spends every alternate day with a given group. The same tutor who took the group for TP I takes them for TP II.	Informal assessment by group; emphasis is on guidance rather than assessment. At end of block session tutor (and teacher) decides on a symbol or percentage for each student, based on his/her general conduct and performance during the session, using set criteria.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	± 11	60				
MODULE 8 : PUPIL-CENTRED METHODS (B.PAED)							
1.	1. To observe and discuss a lesson revolving around concept learning. 2. To draw a concept map. 3. To design experiences which will help pupils to learn a relevant concept. 4. To prepare a stimulating lesson revolving around concept learning.		4	T.P.II-one 2-hour session per week for 10 weeks	36. CONCEPT LEARNING	Students observe and discuss a lesson revolving around concept learning Each student draws a concept map for a topic relevant to his/her subject, design experiences that would help pupils to learn the concept, and prepare a lesson to teach this concept.	As in Module 3.
2.	1. To draw up a linear programme consisting of 20 frames, according to the principles of programmed instruction. 2. To prepare a lesson in which the above programme can be used.		2		37. PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION	Groupwork: each small group draws up a linear programme consisting of 20 frames, and then prepare a lesson in which it can be used.	As in Module 4.
3.	1. To initiate learning and motivational games in the classroom. 2. To practise initiating such games. 3. To prepare a lesson in which a game is used.		4		38. EDUCATIONAL GAMES	Groupwork: students take turns in initiating a game, using games suggested in a textbook; afterwards each student prepares a lesson using this game, and the group discuss efforts.	As in Module 3.
4.	1. To organise and conduct small group discussions. 2. To discuss and evaluate examples of small group discussions.		3		39. GROUPWORK	Micro-teaching: 3 or 4 students conduct small group discussions which are videod and discussed.	No assessment.
5.	1. To prepare and teach 15-min. mini-lessons using one of the pupil-centred methods covered in this module 2. To evaluate the mini-lessons of other group members.		7		40. PUPIL-CENTRED METHODS.	Micro-teaching covering ± 2 students per hour.	As in Module 5, Unit 1.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 8	± 4	20				
MODULE 9 : TEACHER-CENTRED METHODS (B.PAED)							
1.	1. To observe and analyse a lesson in which questioning is used effectively. 2. To practise preparing stimulating questions. 3. To learn to react appropriately to responses from pupils.		5	T.P.II-one 2-hour session for 44 weeks	41. QUESTIONING	Students observe and discuss a lesson in which questioning is used effectively; then they prepare questions in small groups and discuss their efforts, finally they do micro-teaching in which the Stirling Univ. reacting programme is used.	Tutor assesses student performances during micro-teaching; criteria are established and treated as in Module 1.
2.	1. To prepare a lesson in which guided discussion is used. 2. To practise guiding discussions.		4		42. GUIDED DISCUSSION	Students prepare and discuss relevant lessons; then practise in small groups.	No formal assessment.
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	± 27	130				

TABLE XXXVIII(cont.): PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 IN THE B.PAED - COURSE

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UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 27	130				
	MODULE 9 (cont.) : TEACHER-CENTERED METHODS (B.PAED)						
3.	1. To practise giving short, stimulating lectures. 2. To use variation techniques as described in Stirling programme.		2		43. NARRATION AND VARIATION	Micro-teaching: Variation package of Stirling Univ.	As in Module 5, Unit 1.
4.	1. To practise teaching by using real-life examples. 2. To demonstrate. 3. To prepare a lesson in which demonstration is used.		2	T.P.II- one 2-hour session per week for 5½ weeks	44. DEMONSTRATION	Groupwork: in small groups members take turn in teaching by using a real-life example; each student prepares a lesson using the demonstration method.	Tutor assesses written work of students.
5.	1. To prepare and teach 15-min. mini-lessons using one or more of the teacher-centred methods covered in this module. 2. To evaluate the mini-lessons of other group members.		7		45. TEACHER-CENTRLD METHODS	Micro-teaching, covering about 2 students per hour.	Panel assessment, as in Module 6.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 9	± 4	20				
	MODULE 10 : EVALUATION AND RECORD-KEEPING (B.PAED)						
1.	1. To analyse tests. 2. To discuss aspects of test administration. 3. To evaluate and discuss marking practices.		6	T.P.II- one 2-hour session per week for 5 weeks	46. TESTS AND MARKING PRACTICES	Students examine and discuss a variety of objective and essay tests; observe and discuss the video of a teacher administering a test effectively mark sets of tests and compare results - discuss.	As in Module 1.
2.	To teach and discuss remedial lessons.		2		47. REMEDIAL TEACHING	Micro-teaching.	As in Module 5, Unit 1.
3.	To practise record-keeping		2		48 RECORD-KEEPING	Students practise record-keeping according to a guidelines provided by school authorities.	As in Module 3
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 10	± 2	10				
	MODULE 11 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION (B. PAED)						
1.	To teach effectively by using a variety of teaching skills in an integrated and unique manner.		60		49. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER (2)	As in Module 7.	As in Module 7.
2.	As in Module 7.						
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 11	± 13	60				
	MODULE 12 : TEACHING PRACTICE IN THE CONTEXT OF SUBJECT DIDACTICS (B.PAED)						
1.	Objectives to be stated by various Method Teams.		120	T.P. III Feb.- Aug.	50. TEACHING METHOD OF SUBJECT I	To be stated by Method Teams. Some tutors who teach student on campus take him/her for school-based.	According to detailed criteria agreed upon by the course-team as a whole. Evaluation method simple pass/ fail.
2.	Objectives to be stated by various Method Teams.		120		51. TEACHING METHOD OF SUBJECT II		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 12	± 51	240				
	MODULE 13 : EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES (B.PAED						
	To be familiar with rules, facts and basic skills needed to organize and conduct school-programmes in ONE of the following sports: 1. Volley Ball 2. Netball 3. Soccer 4. Cricket		12	T.P. III Six 2-hour sessions Sept./ Oct.	52. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES	Programmes to be presented by the Physical Education Dept. UD-W.	P.E. Method tutors allocate a percentage or symbol to each student.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 13	± 3	12				
	TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE (B. PAED)	± 100	472				

TABLE XXXVIII (cont.): PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 IN THE B.PAED - COURSE.

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UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% OF COURSE	APPROX. HOURS	STAGE			
MODULE 14 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
1.	To grasp the nature of the course.		½	2 days tuition before Feb. block session	1. INTRODUCTION	Tutors explain; and organize groups.	No assessment.
2.	To develop an understanding of the requirements for effective lesson planning.		1½		2. THE THEORY OF LESSON PLANNING	Lecture by Diadactics Lecturer	No assessment.
3.	As in Module 3 (B.Paed).		6		3. INTRODUCTION TO LESSON PREPARATION	As in Module 3.	As in Module 3.
4.	As in Module 4 (B.Paed).		4		4. THE LESSON STRUCTURE	As in Module 4.	As in Module 4.
5.	As in Module 6, but not using motivational aids.		4		5. PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION	As in Module 6.	As in Module 6.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 14	± 5	16				
MODULE 15 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
	As in Module 7.		60	Feb. block	6. PRACTICE BEING A TEACHER	As in Module 7	As in Module 7.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 15	± 17	60				
MODULE 16 : MOTIVATIONAL AIDS (UHDE)							
	As in Module 5.		10	5 afternoon sessions of 2 hour each in Feb.	7. MOTIVATIONAL AIDS	As in Module 5.	As in Module 5.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 16	+ 3	10				
MODULE 17 : CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT (UHDE)							
	As in Module 2.		10	As in Module 16	8. CLASS MANAGEMENT	As in Module 2.	As in Module 2.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 17	± 3	10				
MODULE 18 : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS (UHDE)							
	As in Module 1.		16	Four 4-hour sessions March	9. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	As in Module 1.	As in Module 1.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 18	± 5	16				
MODULE 19 : PREPARATION FOR SECOND BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
1.	As in Module 8, Unit 1.		4	Two 4-hour sessions April	10. CONCEPT LEARNING	As in Module 8, Unit 1.	As in Module 8, Unit 1.
2.	As in Module 9, Unit 1.		4		11. QUESTIONING	As in Module 9, Unit 1.	As in Module 9, Unit 1.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 19	± 2	8				
MODULE 20 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
	As in Module 12.		90	Apr./ May block	12. TEACHING PRACTICE IN CONTEXT OF SUBJECT DIDACTICS	To be stated by Method Tutor.	As in Module 12.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 20	± 26	90				
MODULE 21 : PREPARATION FOR THIRD BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
1.	As in Module 8, Unit 2.		2	Six 4-hour sessions May/ June	13. PROGRAMMED INSTR.	As in Module 8, Unit 2.	As in Module 8, Unit 2.
2.	As in Module 8, Unit 4.		3		14. GROUP WORK	As in Module 8, Unit 4.	As in Module 8, Unit 4.
3.	As in Module 8, Unit 5.		7		15. PUPIL-CENTRED METHOD	As in Module 8, Unit 5.	As in Module 8, Unit 5.
4.	As in Module 9. Unit 2.		4		16. GUIDED DISCUSSION	As in Module 9, Unit 2.	As in Module 9, Unit 2.
5.	As in Module 9, Unit 5.		8		17. TEACHER-CENTRED METHOD	As in Module 9, Unit 5.	As in Module 9, Unit 5.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 20	± 7	24				
MODULE 22 : THIRD BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)							
	As in Module 20.		90	Aug. block	18. AS IN MODULE 20	As in Module 20.	As in Module 20
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 22	± 26	90				
MODULE 23 : EVALUATION AND RECORD-KEEPING (UHDE)							
1.	As in Module 10.		10	Five 4-hour sessions Sept.	19. EVALUATION	As in Module 10.	As in Module 10
2.	As in Module 13.		12		20. EXTRA-MURAL ACT.	As in Module 13.	As in Module 13
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 23	± 6	22				
TOTAL FOR TEACHING PRACTICE (UHDE)		100	346				

TABLE XXXVIII(cont.): PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 1 IN THE UHDE - COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	MODULE 1 : ORIENTATION TO TEACHING PRACTICE (B. PAED)						
1.	to grasp the nature of the course.		1		1. INTRODUCTION	Tutors explain and organize groups.	Continuous assessment: At the end of each unit the tutor allocates a symbol or percentage to each student on the basis of his/her contribution to the activities. The criteria used are agreed upon by all tutors presenting this module, and are communicated to students in printed form before the module commences.
2.	to develop initial interpersonal skills, viz. to develop an understanding of:-					Tutor uses activity programmes designed by Wells et al, Active Tutorial Work, p. I.	
	2.1 tutor-group identity		1		2. WHO WE ARE		
	2.2 coping with anxiety		1		3. COPING WITH ANXIETY	Wells et al, p. 29.	
	2.3 self-discipline		1		4. LISTENING TO SOMETHING BORING	Wells et al, p. 48.	
	2.4 leadership		1		5. LEADERSHIP	Wells et al, p. 60.	
	2.5 the nature of authority		1		6. AUTHORITY	Wells et al, p. 64.	
	2.6 rules and rights		1		7. RULES AND RIGHTS	Wells et al, p. 68.	
	2.7 how a group functions		1		8. LOOKING AT GROUPS	Wells et al, p. 75.	
	2.8 the school system		1		9. UNDERSTANDING THE SYSTEM	Wells et al, p. 78	
	2.9 standpoint taking		1		10. STANDPOINT TAKING	Wells et al, p. 84.	
	2.10 personal identity		1		11. PERSONAL IDENTITY	Wells et al, p. 90.	
	2.11 conflict and confrontation		1	T.P. I Early Feb. on campus : 6 hours per day for 10 days	12. ALL YOU NEED IS UNDERSTANDING	Wells et al, p. 93.	
3.	to become familiar with rules, facts, and basic skills needed to organize and conduct school programmes in ONE of the following sports: Volley ball netball, soccer or cricket.		12		13. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES	Programmes to be presented by the Physical Education Dept., UD-W.	
4.	to practise four basic teaching skills, viz.					Groups are divided on basis of Method Subject I, teaching is method-centred.	
	4.1 to state behavioural objectives		3		14. OBJECTIVES	Students write and discuss a variety of behavioural objectives.	
	4.2 to prepare lesson content		3		15. LESSON CONTENT	Students prepare content of lesson.	
	4.3 to construct worksheets		3		16. WORKSHEETS	Students construct and discuss.	
	4.4 to set objective tests		3		17. OBJECTIVE TESTS	Students practise and discuss.	
5.	to prepare simple 15-min. lessons, gaining practice in:-				18. LESSON PREPARATION	Students prepare and discuss a variety of lessons in Method Subject I.	
	5.1 starting lessons in a stimulating way						
	5.2 presenting factual content						
	5.3 consolidating factual content						
	5.4 evaluating factual content						
6.	6.1 to teach a mini-lesson		12		19. MICROTEACHING	Micro-teaching.	
	6.2 to teach a secon mini-lesson which includes a short test.						
	6.3 to discuss and evaluate the lessons of other members						
	6.4 to mark short tests						
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 1	± 8	60				
	MODULE 2 : ELEMENTARY TEACHING SKILLS (B. PAED)						
1.	1.1 to practise record-keeping		4		20. RECORD-KEEPING	Students practise record-keeping and draw up Schemes of Work according to guidelines provided by school authorities.	Tutor assesses written work of students.
	1.2 to draw up Schemes of Work				21. SCHEMES OF WORK		
2.	to motivate pupils intrinsically by organizing learing experiences centred upon:-			T.P. I 11 two-hour sessions		Groupwork: In small groups of ± 4 student (a) prepare and present 10-min lessons using these aids (b) play classroom games, and (c) plan an excursion in detail	Tutor assesses the quality of work produced by each group.
	2.1 Audio equipment		1		22. AUDIO EQUIPMENT		
	2.2 Pictures and charts		1		23. PICTURES/CHARTS		
	2.3 GAMES		2		24. GAMES		
	2.4 EXCURSIONS		2		25. EXCURSIONS		
3.	to practise teaching new content by using a steplby-step approach, concentrating in turn on:					Tutor demonstrates how these skills are used in the classroom; students practise each skill separately and/or in the contest of lessons.	Tutor assesses each students' mastery of these skills.
	3.1 using the chalkboard		4		26. CHALKBOARD		
	3.2 the OHP and transparencies		3		27. OHP and TRANSP.		
	3.3 presenting slide shows		2		28. SLIDE SHOWS		
	3.4 demonstration as a teaching technique		3		29. DEMONSTRATION		
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	± 8	60				

TABLE XXXIX. PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 IN THE B.PAED-COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 8	60				
	MODULE 2 (cont.) : ELEMENTARY TEACHING SKILLS (B. PAED)						
4.	to practise constructing worksheets specifically aimed at helping pupils consolidate new content.		2	T.P. I 2 two-hour sessions	30. WORKSHEETS AS AIDS FOR CONSOLIDATION	Students construct relevant worksheets and evaluate each other's work.	Tutor assesses the written work of each student.
5.	to practise constructing objective tests		2		31. TEST CONSTRUCTION	Students construct tests and evaluate each other's work	
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 2	± 4	26				
	MODULE 3 : COMPLEX TEACHING SKILLS : PART ONE (B. PAED)						
1.	1.1 to explain subject matters lucidly 1.2 to give short, stimulating lectures 1.3 to use variation techniques		4	T.P. I 12 two-hour sessions	32. EXPLANATION	The teaching strategies that are used in the first five units of this module are designed by small "expert" teams of tutors; then discussed and refined by all T.P. I - tutors before being implemented.	Tutor assesses each student's mastery of these skills, using criteria established by each "expert" team of tutors, and approved by the course team as a whole.
2.	2.1 to ask congitive-memory, convergent and divergent questions 2.2 to use questioning skills such as prompting & redirection 2.3 to react appropriately to responses		6		33. QUESTIONING		
3.	3.1 to guide discussions 3.2 to lead pupils to generalisations and inferences 3.3 to stimulate inquiry about normative issues		4		34. GUIDED DISCUSSION		
4.	4.1 to provide experiences which will help pupils to learn concepts 4.2 to sequence subject matter		4		35. CONCEPT LEARNING		
5.	5.1 to select programmes for learning 5.2 to prepare programmes based on the principles of programmed instruction 5.3 to assist pupils to learn through programmed instruction		4		36. PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION		
6.	to show evidence that one or more of these complex skills are effectively used in a 10-min. mini-lesson		2		37. MICROTEACHING	Microteaching.	Panel consisting of ± tutors and one school authority assess; this mark constitutes 50% of student's final year mark.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 3	± 3	24				
	MODULE 4 : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS (B.PAED)						
1.	to develop a sense of tolerance and understanding for other people's views		1½	T.P. II Early Feb. on campus : 6 hours per day for 5 days	38. PERSONAL PHILOSOPHIES	Wells et al, p. 95. Some tutor who took students for TP I takes them for TP II.	Continuous assessment: At end of each 6-hour session tutor allocates a symbol or percentage to each student on the basis of his/her contribution to the activities. The criteria used are agreed upon by all tutors presenting this module.
2.	to encourage personal assessment and identify limitations		1½		39. ENCOURAGING IMAGINATION	Wells et al, p. 98.	
3.	to identify personal strengths and weaknesses		1½		40. THIS IS ME		
4.	to develop a degreee of self-confidence in challenging situations		1½		41. IDENTIFYING PERSONAL QUALITIES	Wells et al, p. 100.	
5.	to examine his/her reactions to people who are "labelled"		1½		42. LABELLING, STEREOTYPING, PREJUDICE	Wells et al, p. 103.	
6.	to recognize his/her own areas of prejudice		1½		43. LOOKING AT OUR OWN PREJUDICES	Wells et al, p. 108.	
7.	to become aware of the feelings of others		1½		44. EMOTIVE SITUATIONS	Wells et al, p. 112.	
8.	to appreciate the concerns of others in the community		1½		45. COMMUNITY CONCERN	Wells et al, p. 114.	
9.	to demonstrate a desire to make an unselfish contribution to the community		1½		46. COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITY	Wells et al, p. 116.	
10.	to become better informed upon how individual citizens organize themselves		1½		47. ORGANISING OPINION	Wells et al, p. 119.	
11.	to examine to what degree people are the product of their experiences		1½		48. PARENTS AND ADULTS	Wells et al, p. 122.	
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	± 15	110			Wells et al, p. 127.	

TABLE XXXIX (cont.) : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 IN THE B.PAED-COURSE.

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 15	110				
	MODULE 4 (cont.) : INTERPERSONAL SKILLS (B. PAED)						
12.	to understand how facts can be distorted		1½		49. TRUTH AND RUMOUR	Wells et al, p. 132.	As in first part of this module.
13.	to identify feelings expressed non-verbally		1½		50. NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION	Wells et al, p. 140	
14.	to listen and interpret meaning accurately		1½		51. VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION	Wells et al, p. 141	
15.	to develop some skills in negotiating		1½	T.P. II	52. DEMOCRACY	Wells et al, p. 148.	
16.	to develop critical awareness		1½	Early	53. GROUP DECISIONS	Wells et al, p. 151.	
17.	to show sensitivity to other people's feelings		1½	Feb. (cont.)	54. TRUST AND EMPATHY	Wells et al, p. 153.	
18.	to understand the nature of friendship		1½		55. FRIENDSHIP	Wells et al, p. 156.	
19.	to develop a coping philosophy for future employment as a teacher		1½		56. JOB FORUM	Wells et al, p. 160.	
20.	to develop a repertoire of strategies for coping with new situations		1½		57. A LEAP INTO THE FUTURE	Wells et al, p. 160.	
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 4	± 4	30				
	MODULE 5 : COMPLEX TEACHING SKILLS - PART TWO (B.PAED)						
1.	to organize and conduct small group discussions		4		58. GROUPWORK	As in Module 3.	As in Module 3, excluding the panel-assessment of Unit 6.
2.	to prepare, discuss and evaluate a series of lessons relevant to the pending school-based programme		10	T.P. II Early Feb on campus 6 hours per day for 5 days	59. LESSON PREPARATION		
3.	to construct and mark a series of tests relevant to the pending school programme		4		60. EVALUATION		
4.	to teach and discuss remedial lessons		2		61. REMEDIAL TEACHING		
5.	to discuss implications of the Educational Act		2		62. EDUCATIONAL ACT		
6.	6.1 to maintain discipline and control in the classroom 6.2 to establish rapport with pupils 6.3 to use aids without disrupting lessons		8		63. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 5	± 4	30				
	MODULE 6 : INTERMITTENT TEACHING PRACTICE AT SCHOOLS - SUBJECT I (B. PAED)						
1.	to participate in general school activities such as: 1.1 interacting with teachers 1.2 conducting extra-mural activities 1.3 keeping records 1.4 observing lessons 1.5 examining the Resource Centre		24	T.P. II - two days per week for 10 weeks	64. STAFF INTERACTION 65. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES 66. RECORD KEEPING 67. OBSERVATION 68. RESOURCE CENTRE	During the first four days students teach no lessons. Thereafter they gradually take over class teachers' duties as indicated. Supervision is done by class teachers on guidelines communicated in printed form by course-team to all teachers involved. Students concentrate only on subjects taught by the class teachers, i.e. in secondary schools students teach only ONE method subject during this module.	Informal, by class teacher and principal.
2.	to do ± 25% of class teachers' duties - Subject I		24		69. TEACHING TRAINEE		
3.	to do ± 50% of class teachers' duties - Subject I		24		70. JUNIOR ASSISTANT TEACHER		
4.	to do ± 70% of class teachers' duties - Subject I		24		71. SENIOR ASSISTANT TEACHER		
5.	to do ± 100% of class teachers' duties - Subject I		24		72. BEING A TEACHER		
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 6	± 16	120				
	MODULE 7 : INTERMITTENT TEACHING PRACTICE AT SCHOOLS - SUBJECT II (B. PAED)						
	As in Module 6, except that different subject and/or teacher is involved.		120	T.P. II - two days per week for 10 weeks	73- AS IN MODULE 6, BUT 81. IN SUBJECT II	As in Module 6, but different subject and/or class teacher involved.	As in Module 6.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 7	± 16	120				
	TOTAL CARRIED FORWARD	± 55	410				

TABLE XXXIX (contd.) : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 IN THE B. PAED-COURSE.

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UNITS	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	TOTAL BROUGHT FORWARD	± 55	410				
	MODULE 8 : TEACHING AS AN INTEGRATED ACTIVITY (B. PAED)						
1.	to explore and attempt solving the problems students experience during their school-based experiences (Modules 6 and 7).		20	T.P. II one hour per week for 20 weeks	82. TEACHING PRACTICE PROBLEMS	Free and open discussions are held according to agendas compiled by students in each group.	Continuous assessment by Tutor on basis of discussions.
2.	to observe and discuss lessons given by T.P. tutor or other experienced and competent teachers.		20	T.P. II one hour per week for 20 weeks	83. OBSERVING EFFECTIVE LESSONS	Live and video demonstrations are shown and discussed, covering a variety of school subjects.	No assessment.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 8	± 5	40				
	MODULE 9 : CONCLUDING TEACHING PRACTICE II (B. PAED)						
	to show evidence that he/she can teach a mini-lesson of 15 min. to a small group of children by: 9.1 planning and discussing a good mini-lesson 9.2 getting acquainted with the pupils 9.3 teaching the mini-lesson to this group of pupils, applying criteria laid down by the course-team		2 2 6	T.P. II Sept./ Oct. - 5 two-hour sessions	84. PLANNING A CRITIQUE LESSON 85. ESTABLISHING RAPPORT WITH A GROUP OF CHILDREN 86. PRESENTING A CRITIQUE LESSON	Tutor explains procedure: group will be divided into three small groups; each member will prepare a mini-lesson and improve it with the help of the group. A group of +6 pupils will be invited to the university; before each student presents his/her critique-lesson, time will be spent on the students becoming acquainted with the children. Finally, the critique lesson will be videod.	Panel assessment as in Module 3, Unit 6. Panel will view video-recordings of the mini-lessons. 50% of the students's year mark will be determined by this panel.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 9	± 2	10				
	MODULE 10 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION (B. PAED)						
1.	to deepen their understanding of of teaching and related issues by observing and discussing a variety of protocol materials.		12	T.P. III Feb. - Apr. 12 two hour sessions	87. EXPLORING ISSUES RELATED TO TEACHING	The T.P. III-team of tutors weekly make available a number of protocol materials for students to analyse and discuss.	No assessment.
2.	objectives to be stated by various Method Teams		12		88. METHOD-CENTRED T.P. (Subject I, or in Primary School)	Methods to be designed by Method Teams. Some tutor on campus and at school.	To be determined by Method Teams.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 10	± 3	24				
	MODULE 11 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION (B. PAED)						
	to teach approx. 14 lessons per week for 4 weeks		120	T.P. III Apr. - May (4 weeks)	89. PRACTISE BEING A TEACHER IN SUBJECT I OR IN PRIMARY SCHOOL	Primary school students concentrate on all subjects, but secondary school students only on 1 subject.	According to detailed criteria agreed upon by the course-team as a whole Scale: Simple Pass/ Fail.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 11	± 16	120				
	MODULE 12 : PREPARATION FOR SECOND BLOCK SESSION (B. PAED)						
1.	as in Module 10, Unit 1		10	T.P. III May - June (10 x 2)	90. EXPLORING ISSUES	As in Module 10, Unit 1.	No assessment.
2.	as in Module 10, Unit 2		10		91. METHOD-CENTRED T.P. (Subject II, or in Primary School)	As in Module 10, Unit 2.	As in Module 10, Unit 2.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 12	± 3	20				
	MODULE 13 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION (B. PAED)						
	As in Module 11		120	T.P. III Aug. (4 weeks)	92. BEING A TEACHER	As in Module 11, but for secondary students, different subject is involved.	As in Module 11.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 13	± 16	120				

TABLE XXXIX (cont.) : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 IN THE B. PAED-COURSE

UNIT	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING SEQUENCES			COURSE CONTENT	TEACHING STRATEGIES	EVALUATION
		% of course	Appr. hours	Stage			
	MODULE 14 : ORIENTATION TO TEACHING PRACTICE (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	As in Module 1, Unit 2 As in Module 1, Unit 3 As in Module 2, all Units As in Module 3, Unit 1 As in Module 3, Unit 2		12 12 26 4 6	Jan/Feb. 6 hours per day for 10 days	1. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS 2. EXTRA-MURAL ACT. 3. ELEMENTARY TEACHING SKILLS 4. EXPLANATION 5. QUESTIONING	As in relevant Modules in B.Paed-course. Same tutor takes the group throughout the year, except for Module 15 (Unit 6) and Module 18 (Unit 3).	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 14	± 14	60				
	MODULE 15 : PREPARATION FOR FIRST BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	As in Module 5, Unit 2 As in Module 5, Unit 6 As in Module 2, Unit 5 As in Module 5, Unit 4 As in Module 5, Unit 5 As in Module 10, Unit 2		4 4 2 1 1 12	Feb. - Apr. 12 two-hour sessions	6. LESSON PREPARATION 7. CLASSROOM MANAG. 8. EVALUATION 9. REMEDIAL TEACHING 10. EDUCATIONAL ACT 11. METHOD-CENTRED T.P. (SUBJECT I)	As in Module 5, but in a more condensed form. Different tutor as in other Modules. Same tutor who takes student for this unit visits him/her at school, 1st block.	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 15	± 6	24				
	MODULE 16 : FIRST BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	As in Module 6, Unit 1 As in Module 6, Unit 2 As in Module 6, Unit 3 As in Module 6, Unit 4 As in Module 6, Unit 5		24 24 24 30 30	Apr. - May (5 weeks)	12. OBSERVATION 13. TEACHING TRAINEE 14. JUNIOR ASST.TEACHER 15. SENIOR ASST.TEACHER 16. BEING A TEACHER	As in Module 6.	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 16	± 31	132				
	MODULE 17 : SUPPORT PROGRAMME DURING FIRST BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	to examine and discuss problems students experience during the first three wekks of the block session As in Module 3, Unit 3 As in Module 3, Unit 4 As in Module 3, Unit 5 As in Module 5, Unit 1 As in Module 3, Unit 6 As in Module 5, Unit 3		6 2 2 2 2 2 2	Apr. - May: Fridays on campus during first three weeks of block	16. TEACHING PRACTICE PROBLEMS 17. GUIDED DISCUSSION 18. CONCEPT LEARNING 19. PROGRAMMED INSTR. 20. GROUPWORK 21. MICROTEACHING 22. EVALUATION	During three 2-hour sessions there are free discussions according to agendas compiled by students themselves. As in relevant modules but in a more condensed form.	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 17	± 4,5	18				
	MODULE 18 : PREPARATION FOR SECOND BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3.	As in Module 17, Unit 1 As in Module 8, Unit 2 As in Module 10, Unit 2		2 6 8	June : 8 two-hour sessions	23. T.P. PROBLEMS 24. OBSERVING EFFECTIVE LESSONS 25. METHOD-CENTRED T.P. (SUBJECT II)	Free discussion. As in Module 8, Unit 2. As in Module 15, Unit 6	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 18	± 4	16				
	MODULE 19 : SECOND BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
	as in Module 16, but Subject II involved for secondar school students		132	July - Aug. (5 weeks)	26- SAME AS IN MODULE 30. 16, BUT IN SUBJECT II.	As in Module 16, but different tutor involved.	As in relevant Modules
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 19	± 31	132				
	MODULE 20 : SUPPORT PROGRAMME DURING SECOND BLOCK SESSION (UHDE)						
1. 2. 3.	As in Module 17, Unit 1 As in Module 18, Unit 2 As in Module 10, Unit 1		6 6 6	Aug. : (as in Module 17)	31. T.P. PROBLEMS 32. OBSERVING EFFECTIVE LESSONS 33. EXPLORING ISSUES RELATED TO TEACHING	As in relevant Modules in B.Paed-course.	As in relevant Modules.
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 20	± 4,5	18				
	MODULE 21 : CONCLUDING TEACHING PRACTICE (UHDE)						
1. 2.	Any 10 topics selected from the units in Module 4. As in Module 9, all units		10 10	Sept. - Oct. (10 x 2)	34. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS 35. PRESENTING A CRITIQUE LESSON	As in relevant Modules in B.Paed-course.	As in relevant Modules
	TOTAL FOR MODULE 21	± 5	20				
	TOTAL TEACH PRACTICE FOR UHDE	100	420				

TABLE XXXIX(cont.) : PROPOSED CURRICULUM NO. 2 IN THE UHDE-COURSE

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CHAPTER 9

GUIDELINES FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN IMPROVED CURRICULUM

1. INTRODUCTION

This final chapter will be confined to a discussion of possible solutions to the second research problem, viz. "Which guidelines can be laid down for the implementation of an improved curriculum?" As might be expected from the results of the surveys, these guidelines will revolve around rather sensitive issues, and this will necessarily require a shift in the focal point of the research. Whereas the main emphasis, up to this point, has been on pattern recognition as revealed by the data, we now move to the complex domain of human relationships. The basic problem inherent in this shift is that there could be discrepancies between proposals made in the previous chapter, and suggestions for their implementation. To combat this problem as far as possible, the chapter will commence with an outline of the complexities related to the implementation of improved curricula in teacher education.

The guidelines themselves will centre upon three phases seen to be essential in reform processes of this nature : *a research project*, *a negotiation phase*, and *an implementation phase*. To explain the process in greater detail, an outline of the initiatives needed in each of the three phases will be presented.

2. COMPLEXITIES RELATED TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW CURRICULA IN TEACHER EDUCATION

It is common in research to end the report with a series of recommenda-

tions. Such recommendations are, however, seldom implemented because of a possible distorted view of the complexities inherent in the situation. In this project the likelihood of reaching such a cul-de-sac appears to be particularly strong.

This is not to say that obstacles cannot be overcome - on the contrary, this whole investigation can be read as an attempt to surmount difficulties of this nature - but merely to emphasize that problems do exist. Keeping these realities in mind may serve a number of purposes : it may offer the reader a more realistic picture of the problems involved; it will explain the reasoning behind many of the proposals; it could prepare the course-team - and others in similar situations - for difficulties that may arise; it may prevent dead-lock situations arising during negotiations; and it could enable other researchers to benefit more from this case study. All in all, this section is aimed at making explicit some of the critical factors that often seem to impede developments in teacher education.

The problems will be looked at from two angles, viz. those arising from (a) case study design, and (b) the political nature of curriculum change.

2.1 Complexities arising from the particular nature of case study design

Although the pro's and con's of case studies as a research method were already outlined at the beginning of this text, the investigation brought to the fore a number of *practical* problems not previously recognized.

2.1.1 The problem of incompleteness

One reason why recommendations flowing from this and similar types of research will be difficult to implement is that they stem from an incomplete view of the situation. Case studies, evidently, are never complete. To show how this problem may be counter-productive to renewal, it seems fitting to briefly return to the question : "What is wrong with teacher education?" The reader will recall that, in the opening paragraphs of this thesis, this question served as a prime motivational force behind the investigation. One of the major things "wrong" with teacher education was then seen to be that "constant, conflicting demands made on teacher educators are sapping the strength of teacher education courses ... causing problematic relationships between tutors, students, and school authorities." To what extent has this suspicion been borne out?

Perhaps the main conclusion one can draw from the findings contained in this text is that they are insufficient to make many general judgements. It is, and remains to be, a single case study. Although a whole plethora of possible weaknesses, problems, and solutions were identified, these findings *are mainly relevant to the University of Durban-Westville*, but they might just as well feature, to a greater or lesser degree, at many other institutions where teachers are "trained" for the profession. Moreover, only one aspect of teacher training, viz. Teaching Practice, has been examined. What about the other subjects involved in the course? How effective are the curricula of the various sub-disciplines of Education? Are the courses offered by other faculties relevant to teaching? What can universities do to improve their teacher education courses *as a whole?*

Unless valid answers to these questions are found, we cannot, with any certainty, say what is wrong with teacher education *even at the University of Durban-Westville*.

An awareness of these realities will inevitably have an adverse effect on academics who may consider implementing the proposals. Teacher educators from other institutions may react negatively to the investigation even before reading the case, simply because they see the findings as being irrelevant to their own situation. As a result of such reasoning, only a minute percentage of teacher educators in South Africa may end up reading the case. The possibility of some of these proposals being implemented at other institutions is therefore remote.

From the viewpoint of the UD-W course-team, the problem of incompleteness may not be too difficult to overcome. It is, after all, *their* case, *their* students, *their* courses that have been examined. Does it really matter on which curriculum an institution concentrates at any particular time during a continuous process of reform? The only factor that needs to be kept in mind is that weaknesses in other subject areas could complicate the implementation of reform measures in Teaching Practice. It is well-known that when a group of people are overwhelmed by too many demands for drastic changes, the temptation to adopt a defeatist attitude becomes almost irresistable. Yet given the particularly tight-knit nature of teacher education course, it will be equally difficult to concentrate on renewal of the Teaching Practice curriculum only. The stalemate situation caused by these two conflicting demands could - and no doubt did in the past - bring reform processes at many institutions temporarily to a standstill. Thus, the problem of incompleteness

remains a major 'roadblock' in the path to teacher education reform.

2.1.2 The problem of generaliseability

It should also be underscored that the findings of the institutional survey were not based on a representative sample. Only ±29% of South African teacher training institutions were involved, while the percentage of institutions from abroad was quite insignificant - not even 1%, I would think. From a quantitative research point of view, therefore, this project is of limited value to teacher education as a whole. It lacks a comparative basis. We do not know, for instance, how many other institutions in South Africa are even worse off than the University of Durban-Westville. For all we know, this university's Teaching Practice course may be one of the best in the country. (It will be remembered that approximately 75% of teacher training institutions in the sample reported that there was no campus-based Teaching Practice at their institutions). Account for it as we may, the hard fact is that this investigation did not produce a feasible set of answers to some of the most crucial questions in teacher education.

On the other hand, viable solutions have been found to the two critical research problems stated at the start of the project. Provided that the results are viewed within the framework of qualitatative research methodology, they can be a source of insight for a great number of teacher educators. It was Goethe who said : "Give me the benefit of your convictions, if you have any : but keep your doubts to yourself, for I have enough of my own." In similar vein, teacher educators elsewhere may say : "Give us the benefit of the discoveries you made at

Durban-Westville; it could help us to disentangle the web of possible weaknesses in our own courses."

It will certainly be unrealistic to claim that all the problems experienced at the University of Durban-Westville are unique. There must be dozens of other institutions struggling with factors such as : resistence to scientific principles; fragmentation of curricula; misunderstanding of the needs of students; and conflict between staff members - to mention but a few. It is in this sense that the present project can be of benefit to teacher education in general.

The problem of generaliseability lies mostly in *the effect that the case study might have on the course-team at UD-W* (See the problem of victimization below). They are the ones who will be most intensely aware of the fact that the study lacks a comparative basis. Could one blame them if they feel they are being *coerced* into implementing changes? Chances are that there are dozens of other institutions in South Africa that need changes to their Teaching Practice curricula far more urgently than this university does. Besides, the present Teaching Practice course at UD-W is continuously being revised. Is it not better to continue this process of gradual refinement? Because there is much truth in arguments like these, future innovations in Teaching Practice at UD-W may very well be on different lines to those suggested in this thesis. Should this be so, the problem of generaliseability could be one of the most powerful counterarguments that may be put forward to justify a rejection of these suggestions.

2.1.3 The problem of victimization

In a way the findings contained in this text could prove to be more useful to outsiders than to the staff of the University of Durban-Westville. Academics from elsewhere will be able to look at the results more objectively (after all, it is not *their* status and reputation that are at stake). They will also be in a position to compare their own courses with those of the University of Durban-Westville. No such solicitude will be extended to the educationists at the University of Durban-Westville. Since case studies such as this one are a rarity, the Durban-Westville group may easily be cast in the role of victims - simply because they were brave enough to break the secrecy usually surrounding teacher training courses.

It is not difficult to envisage the harmful effects that a process of victimization may have - not only on the course-team, but on teacher education as a whole. If, for instance, members of the media should see it fit to use the findings of this investigation in a derogatory manner, all teacher training institutions may find themselves under a cloud of suspicion. Although the possibility of such a development is remote, the educationists at UD-W seem to consider it a real threat. One might think that this feeling of anxiety may lead to a speedy implementation of some of the proposals, but it could have an opposite effect. Experience has shown that when a group of people are threatened, it often results in a heightening of friction between group members themselves. Whatever the case may be, the possibility of victimization seems to add to the complexities brought about by an application of the case study method.

2.1.4 The problem of isolation between teacher educators

If strong links existed between the different teacher training institutions in South Africa, recommendations flowing from case studies such as this one may have had a better chance to be implemented than they do at present. In this case, for example :

* the results of any of the four surveys could have been used as stimulus material during seminars and conferences
* comparative studies between this Teaching Practice course and others could have been made
* similar case studies could have been conducted, using the approach followed in this one
* the proposed curricula could have been analysed, discussed, or implemented
* similar surveys could have been conducted among other population groups, eliminating mistakes made during the surveys discussed in *this* text
* new training institutions could implement the recommendations flowing from this and other similar studies

As it is, however, most institutions seem to operate in isolation. This makes it difficult for any course-team to benefit from developments in other institutions.

Naturally, initiatives such as those mentioned above may still be taken by any individual institution. But the vast amount of organization needed to create communication channels for such activities is an inhibiting factor.

The above argument could be met with the retort that closer co-operation between teacher training institutions is inadvisable - a threat to academic freedom. Naturally, if "closer co-operation"means that big institutions must forcefully impose their own ideologies onto smaller institutions, "co-operation" could be a disaster. What is being advocated here is the development of a general support system. Perhaps an association, journal, or newsletter in which *all* teacher educators can exchange ideas, should be established. (The forums that do exist seem to be extremely ideology-bound and somehow exclusive). Is it not true that a lack of foresight and cross-fertilization lie at the root of the present crisis in teacher education? And should not teacher educators, during such times - like family members around a critically ill person - draw closer together?

2.2 Complexities arising from the political nature of curriculum change

During the course of this investigation it has become increasingly clear that the tensions existing between teacher educators are far stronger than they are normally assumed to be. In fact, these tensions appear to be the single most important reason why the pace of developments in teacher education is often so painfully slow. On closer analysis most of them seem to centre upon four concepts : scattering of energies, clashing belief-systems, group dynamics, and scientific realities.

2.2.1 Problems caused by a scattering of energies

It is fairly common to find that groups of teacher educators function like political parties. K.E. Shaw, in his excellent article, *Negotiating*

Curriculum Change in a College of Education described one such group :

> "Those in the right-hand clusters tended to be staff with experience of schools, who were orientated to the professional formation of the students and whose work included teaching on classroom biased courses and the professional course. Of the thirty-four, ten were educationists. The most extreme scores in the other direction were drawn from the English, music, science and mathematics departments. They were highly specialized in their work areas. They represented a 'hard-line' outlook, cherishing their academic discipline and personal expertise, and feeling severely the limitations imposed upon them by the need for a professional formation for the students. They held that true professional formation came from love of the subject." (Shaw, 1975:60)

It seems that teacher educators at most institutions fall into similar categories. In such a situation it is obviously difficult for processes to maintain a common direction, to make strategic policy choices by agreement, and to bring about integration. In the case described by Shaw it took the staff two years of heated discussions to change the curriculum. Shaw concedes, however, that it would have taken them much longer were it not for the fact that their college was put under pressure by the Department of Education to make their courses more professionally competent (as a result of the James Report, 1972).

If one considers that the educationists at UD-W have for the past five years enjoyed a high degree of freedom in their approach to students during Teaching Practice, it is understandable that the situation has

led to a scattering of energies. Tutors seem to be divided into a variety of informal groups. Since some groups seem to work independently from one another, it could be a formidable task to convince them of the necessity to work together as one team.

2.2.2 Problems caused by clashing belief-systems

It is not hard to understand why the field of teacher education is riddled with disagreements about criteria for the assessment of students. To reach agreement about sensitive issues inevitably means being willing to face conflict. Many academics may feel that it is more important to maintain peace and harmony in their working environment than to destabilize the situation by provoking conflict. Whereas one can sympathize with lecturers who feel this way, it also leads one to ask : At what point do student needs become more important than harmony among staff? And to what extent is such harmony merely artificial? Could it not create more tension to leave conflicts unresolved, than to force issues?

Modern psychological theorists are almost in complete agreement about the detrimental effects of people who regularly and voluntarily suppress their natural emotions, especially in group contexts. Even a quick reading of the works of distinguished psychologists such as Erich Fromm, Carl Rogers, Victor Frankl, and Kübler-Ross brings this message home. The key word in arguments like these, however, is "voluntary." In the final analysis, the way people wish to deal with conflicts remains a matter of personal choice.

The proposals contained in this thesis revolve around the concept of *democracy*. Thus, implementation of proposals will be dependent on democratic procedures. But if the majority of any given course-team should exercise their democratic rights by refusing to implement - or even consider - any of these proposals, this investigation will obviously turn out to be just another theoretical study. Although this might be regrettable, it could very well prove to be a more desireable turn of events than to enforce implementation in an autocratic manner.

2.2.3 Problems related to group dynamics

In recent years writers about the teaching-learning situation have increasingly related psychological theories to group factors in teaching. Two such writers are Hopson and Scally. In their book *Lifeskills Teaching* (1981), they show, among other things, the relevance of Tuckman's theory of group dynamics to teaching. According to this widely-accepted theory, healthy groups tend to go through four stages :

Stage 1 - The forming stage :
During this phase the group members do little real work, appear suspicious of the task and of each other, attempt to intellectualize, and tend to talk about irrelevancies.

Stage 2 - The storming stage :
During this phase the members begin to display hostility, aggression, or frustration; they resist work that involves self-disclosure, and appear defensive; they become either very active or passive.

Stage 3 - The norming stage :

The members begin to be more open with each other, begin to redefine the task, help, rather than hinder, the work, begin to feel like a group and develop special relationships.

Stage 4 : The performing stage :

The members begin to work keenly and effectively to accomplish the task, avoid interpersonal issues because these have been resolved, and feel confident in what they are doing.

(Hopson and Scally, 1981:194)

If one accepts this theory, one could argue that curriculum change needs to be preceded by a negotiation process in which these ideas find expression. All the stages have to be worked through properly. If there is a danger of weakness in this procedure, it is that the negotiation process may end abruptly during the storming stage. Whereas such a development seems unlikely to occur among a group of academics, the possibility cannot be ruled out entirely. Can one blame participants in any group discussion if they become so frustrated that they polarize into becoming either "very active" or "very passive"? According to Tuckman this a natural development. It is at this point that the urge to make superficial decisions - "Why don't we just agree to disagree?" - may become irresistable.

In the light of group dynamics theories like the Tuckman theory, progress in curriculum development is to a large extent determined by a course-team's knowledge of group dynamics. The more knowledgeable a course-team is about the rules for, and the stages in, healthy group discussions, the

higher the probability of establishing an effective curriculum. It is obviously easier for instance, to face conflict if one knows this is only a passing phase. By the same token, it is easier for a group that is experienced in dealing with conflict to reach compromises than it is for a newly-formed group.

Because of variables like these, it is generally impossible to correctly predict the outcome of projects in curriculum development. Taking too much for granted often turns out to be counter-productive, stifling growth instead of spurring new developments.

2.2.4 Problems caused by scientific realities

Perhaps the main appeal of Education is that it appears to be strongly individualistic and sensitive to world trends. Waves similar to waves of cholera have swept around the world, swaying large numbers of educators to become exceedingly passive (e.g. during Medieval Europe), radical (e.g. Jean Jacques Rousseau et al), industrious (e.g. after the Reformation), obedient (e.g. the Jèsuits), or progressive (e.g. Pestalozzi et al). Could this be the reason why Education, as a science, has dragged its feet? Is Education perhaps too often seen as a slave to world trends? A manipulation method? A passing trend? A fashion? The weight of the evidence contained in this text suggests that confirmative answers to these questions could very well be at the root of the present seemingly worldwide crisis in teacher education.

The obvious solution to problems of this nature is that educationists should subject themselves more strongly to the disciplines of their

science, instead of merely swaying with world trends. In essence, this notion seems to offer the best possible alternative to the great number of disturbing elements prevalent in teacher education today. Could there be any doubt that this is the direction in which teacher education should move? Few educationists will dispute the necessity that teacher training institutions should be manned by academics well versed in the principles of Education. Instead of trying to persuade each other about the merits of science, they should persuade their students. Instead of being locked in disagreement, they should be engaged in scientific research. Instead of adopting a laissez-faire attitude to educational issues, there should be a complete commitment to scientific inquiry and democratic principles. Works of distinguished educationists are rife with remarks such as these.

However, we live in an imperfect world. How relevant are these "solutions" to present problems in teacher education? One cannot get away from the fact, for instance, that an overwhelming number of teacher educators have had little or no grounding in Education as a science. Can universities and colleges afford to lose such a large number of academics? Or to embark on wide-scale training programmes? How can these difficulties be overcome in a humane manner? Human relationship problems caused by scientific developments are too complex to be resolved overnight.

It also has to be accepted that back-and forth movements are normal in the establishment and growth of any science. Kühn went as far as identifying "considerable resistance to paradigm change" as a characteristic feature of scientific revolutions : "In science ... novelty

emerges only with difficulty, manifested by resistance, against a background provided by expectation" (1970:64). It is therefore logical that resistance against the implementation of research proposals in Education is often encountered. In order to give the science of Education - still fragile rooted - time to grow and establish itself as a generally recognized specialization field, delays in reform will often be inevitable.

If one considers these complexities regarding implementation, it should be clear that the findings of this project are as likely or unlikely to be shelved as those of any other educational research project. Perhaps the most important implication of this investigation could turn out to be a finding similar to the one stated by Kluckhohn :

> "... the profound truth that you can never start with a clean state so far as human beings are concerned. Every person is born into a world defined by already existing culture patterns. Just as an individual who has lost his memory is no longer normal so the idea of a society's becoming completely emancipated from its past culture is inconceivable." (1949:137)

The truth seems to be as relevant to teacher education as it is to other human enterprises.

The next three sections will be devoted to guidelines that might be helpful should a course-team wish to consider an implementation of the proposals contained in Chapter 8. To guard against the setting of guidelines that may prove to be too idealistic and abstract, the present situation at UD-W will be used as a starting point. All the

subsequent steps will also be formulated with the conditions prevailing at UD-W in mind. This, however, does not rule out the possibility that teacher educators from other institutions may find some of these suggestions useful in their own situations.

Seen within the context of this case study, a good place to start may be for the Teaching Practice Committee to appoint two *ad hoc* committees, viz. a T.P. Research Committee and a T.P. Curriculum Committee. During the first two phases the two *ad hoc* committees would function more or less independently of one another. Both would concurrently pave the way for meaningful change - the Research Committee by conducting empirical research to strengthen the scientific basis of the project, and the Curriculum Committee by spearheading the negotiation process needed to reach agreement about criteria and the structure of the curriculum.

After a fixed period, pre-determined by the Teaching Practice Committee - say, two or three years - the two *ad hoc* committees would submit their final reports to the Teaching Practice Committee, and be dissolved. Using the recommendations of the *ad hoc* committees as a starting point, the course-team can start the implementation phase.

3. GUIDELINES REGARDING FURTHER RESEARCH

Teacher educators are often presented with curriculum innovations that rest on little more than theoretical arguments. It is only natural that there will be many opinions pro and con such innovations. But one of the strongest arguments *FOR* an innovation remains empirical evidence that supports the proposed change.

The reader will recall that the most powerful argument used by supporters of the Humanistic Approach was that *empirical studies repeatedly proved its superiority*. In the process, the influence which this approach had on world trends in teacher education has greatly outstripped the influence of, for instance, CBTE. This despite the fact that the Humanistic Approach does not seem to be based on a particularly strong teaching theory. Combs et al make claims like : "No teachers' college can make a teacher. The best it can do is provide students with problems" (1974:8) and : "Objectivity is a valuable asset for a researcher, but it is not very useful for workers in the helping professions, such as teaching. What is needed instead is the opposite of objectivity - concern and caring." (1974:147). Whereas this is not the place to analyse such statements, they appear to be scientifically questionable. Compared, for instance, to the teaching theory formulated by Van der Stoep et al, the Combs - theory seems rather flimsy. And yet it has won world-wide acclaim. Why? Mainly, it seems, because its supporters have proved beyond all reasonable doubt that it works - better, anyway, than the traditional approach. Van der Stoep et al, on the other hand, have not to my knowledge conducted research to prove the superiority of their teacher training courses. Consequently, the majority of teacher training institutions in South Africa - notably, the English - oriented ones - flatly refuse to acknowledge its merits.

All this goes to prove the importance of such research. It therefore seems appropriate to follow this investigation up with additional research, conducted on the same lines as the projects carried out by Combs et al. Not only will it provide the scientific world with

hard evidence for or against the findings contained in this text, but - if the results are positive - it could make a definite impact on the course-team itself.

3.1 Nature of research

It obviously falls outside the scope of this investigation to provide full details of the next project. At this point it seems sufficient to state brief guidelines only in so far as they may be related to the implementation of proposals contained in the previous chapter.

The dominating objective of further research would be *to prove that any curriculum based on the findings of this investigation would result in newly-qualified teachers being more effective than those following the present Teaching Practice curriculum at UD-W.* There appears to be no better method to prove this than to conduct an experiment. It would be relatively easy to divide UHDE-students into an experimental and a control group, and to compare the teaching abilities of students at the end of the year. To make the experiment as scientific as possible, at least three conditions need to be met :

1. Students from the two groups need to be paired off on the basis of three variables : sex, initial communication skills, and school subject.
2. The same tutor(s) should teach both groups.
3. The final assessment of students should be done by an objective panel in which school authorities, educationists, and subject specialists are equally represented.

3.2 Designing the experiment

Members of the course-team should be invited to help the project leader in designing the experiment. This will be a good opportunity for tutors with an innate interest in Teaching Practice to reconcile themselves with the idea of a "new" curriculum. The 18 elements or stages in curriculum development identified by Rowntree could act as guidelines throughout the experiment (See Chapter 2).

3.3 Conducting the experiment

The smallest number of students that will be needed to make the experiment valid, would be about 40 : 20 in the experimental group, and 20 in the control group. Since this number is too large for one tutor, at least two tutors would be directly involved; each one will then take two groups of 10 students each.

The most difficult requirement to be met would be to reach agreement about criteria. As we have already seen in Chapter 8, this would be the most significant difference between the two approaches. It will therefore be necessary for the Teaching Practice tutor to obtain the co-operation of Method lecturers involved.

3.4 Analysing the results

If the results show a positive correlation between the proposed curriculum and learning outcomes, it would obviously be a major breakthrough. It can then be followed up by other experiments eg. between B.Paed-students at UD-W, between students at another

institution, or between two competing institutions. Most important of all, it could have a powerful effect on the search for a more generally-acceptable theory for teacher education in South Africa.

The value of the experiment will be less if the results are negative or arbitrary. But to then claim that the experiment was worthless, would be to adopt a defeatists' attitude. It would simply mean that one "solution" has been proved wrong, opening the way for further research.

4. GUIDELINES REGARDING NEGOTIATIONS ABOUT THE CURRICULUM

The guidelines regarding the negotiation process suggested below have been formulated with Tuckman's group dynamics theory as a basis (See Section 2.2.3).

4.1 The forming stage : Creating a climate for co-operation

To address the problem of alienation among tutors involved in different specialization fields, it may be beneficial if the the T.P. Curriculum Committee starts by introducing a staff development programme. The logical point at which this programme can commence would be a module aimed at developing interpersonal skills amongst staff members.

At least three underlying justifications support this proposal : First, it may put an end to the semi-deadlock position in which the course-team finds itself due to unused channels of communication. Second, it would prepare tutors for teaching interpersonal skills to students, in their own subject-areas as well as in Teaching Practice. Third, it may orientate staff members for the storming stage.

Perhaps the course-team would be more inclined to support such a programme if a series of seminars were to be organized around the theme Interpersonal Skills in Teaching. In the aftermath of enthusiasm usually created by such a series of seminars, a fair proportion of tutors may embark on a structured programme to develop their interpersonal skills, e.g. the one of Wells et al recommended earlier. Staff members can take turns in presenting workshops every week. The important point is that participation in the programme should be voluntary.

4.2 The storming stage : Identifying method-centred criteria

As the staff development programme progresses, tutors may increasingly be made aware of the harmful effects of contradictory criteria on students. Since the reaching of agreement on criteria for the evaluation of students will be the most important goal during the negotiation process, the T.P. Curriculum Committee may need to embark on a lengthy formative programme. The details will obviously be worked out by members of this committee. It seems adviseable, though, to start with an awareness phase, and then to request each of the 23 subject method teams to produce a document summarizing their team's criteria for assessment. In this way each team will be free to decide which teaching values they wish to emphasize in Teaching Practice.

Obviously, when only one lecturer is involved in a subject method course and evaluation, he/she will simply spell out his/her own criteria for evaluation. But when more lecturers are responsible

for students in a specific subject area - either on campus or at school - a series of discussions will be necessary. Thus in subjects like English Method, History Method, Mathematics Method, etc. it could take six months or longer for subject method teams to complete negotiations before the required document can be drawn up.

Among the more important prerequisites for the successful completion of this phase, six guidelines seem particularly relevant :

4.2.1 Decisions regarding procedure

To prevent the discussions from degenerating into unspecific talk, ground-rules need to be agreed upon from the beginning, e.g.

* the duration of meetings
* the frequency of meetings
* the maximum time-limit for speakers
* the total number of meetings (preferably 8-12)
* how note-taking duties can be shared
* the agenda

In addition, members will probably appreciate it if they are informed in advance about the stages of healthy group discussions. It would be relatively easy to print copies of Tuckman's theory - or any other suitable one - and distribute them to group members beforehand.

4.2.2 The role of group leaders

It seems reasonable that the lecturer with the most senior position among the lecturers *teaching that subject on campus* should act as group leader during negotiations.

4.2.3 The possibility of pseudo-agreements

Because of recognized shortcomings stemming from clashing belief-systems (as discussed in Section 2.2.4) the possibility of reaching pseudo agreements may need to be discussed. It will be remembered that in the system followed at UD-W up to 1980 an official document did exist in which uniform criteria were spelled out (See Chapter 3). Nevertheless, doubts have been raised whether these criteria were actually applied during Teaching Practice. Perhaps, because the system was so rigid, a dichotomy existed between officially recognized criteria and those used when student performances were evaluated.

To avoid a possible recurrence of such a situation, it may be important for members to pertinently discuss this problem early during the storming phase. Pseudo-agreements could obviously cause the whole bargaining process to disintegrate.

4.2.4 An active listening phase

Thomas Gordon, one of the leading writers in the field of communication, identified the listening skill as one of the most powerful means to defuse deadlock situations. In his book *Leader Effectiveness Training (1977)* he discusses the technique of Active Listening :

> "Active listening is based on understanding that communication between people is a difficult process - we frequently do not say what we mean or do not understand someone else's meaning. Active listening entails listening for the latent, underlying message and then checking to see if you understood it correctly." (1977:52)

This technique, of course, is nothing new. Something like it is probably taught to most people who enter counselling - type work. What is perhaps new is the detailed exposition Gordon gives of applying this technique during negotiations, and the successful way in which many people in the helping professions have used it to bring about meaningful change in large organizations (Puryear, 1979: 51-56).

In the light of this evidence it may be profitable to make provision for an active listening development phase during the negotiation process. In effect, it requires from the leader of the negotiation group to keep a very low profile during the middle part of the process.

Stated in more practical terms, the storming phase could be structured as follows :

1. At first the discussions may revolve around the necessity to formulate method-centred criteria and decisions regarding procedure.
2. Each member may be requested to draw up a list of criteria for assessment that he/she considers important.
3. The members return to the negotiation table with their personal criteria in written form.
4. A series of discussions takes place in which all members are given full opportunity to state their views, except the leader.
5. Throughout this listening phase the leader merely listens actively, digests views, facilitates discussion, and acts as an impartial counsellor.

6. A list is drawn up containing all the suggestions made by members of the team.
7. The listening phase ends; the leader adds his/her personal criteria to the list and discusses them with the group.
8. The team works systematically through the list, retaining only those items with which most members agree.

Needless to say, there are numerous other ways in which negotiations of this nature can be conducted effectively. The above steps are merely mentioned here as an example, to minimize the possibility of the storming phase degenerating into collecting empty abstractions.

4.2.5 Compromising

One of the distinctive features of the final phase (Step 8 above) would be the necessity to compromise. As in the other phases, optional strategies may be adopted to aid the decision-making process. A simple but important guideline in resolving conflicts may be for the leader to incorporate as many of the members' views into the final document as feasible, without giving rise to contradictions.

The order in which problem areas can be discussed, would inevitably vary from group to group. Four alternatives that seem promising are :

* Using protocol materials such as lesson preparation notes of students, lesson transcripts, and video recordings of lessons. Criteria could then be discussed in a random order, as the situation demands, and finally be classified under appropriate headings.

* The lists of criteria identified by students (See Chapter 6) could serve as a starting point and gradually lead to other criteria being placed on the agenda by group members themselves.
* The leader can compare the personal criteria contained in the lists of individual members and lift out contradictions to serve as a basis for debates.
* The major didactic areas listed in Chapter 2 could be converted into a detailed checklist which can be worked through systematically.

4.2.6 Concluding the storming stage

It seems important that the storming phase should end on a constructive note. This will help members to appreciate the rewards of successful negotiation and orientate them for the norming stage. Thus, at the last method-centred meeting the final document can be discussed, achievements of the group can be evaluated, and the necessity of continuing the negotiation process across the boundaries of various subject methods can be brought into focus.

4.3 The norming stage : Establishing general didactic criteria

One of the major problems of growth for a large institution is to make individuals feel part of the decision-making process. In the previous section it has already been shown how this can be achieved by adopting small group strategies. At some stage, however, small group decisions need to be converted into large group decisions.

Since democratic concepts figure prominently in this study, the best way to start the norming stage may be for the whole faculty to

to have a general discussion about the procedures that should be followed to establish a uniform set of criteria.

In the strategy outlined below, an effort has been made to reconcile two needs : the need to observe democratic procedures, and the need to forge ahead with reforms. It needs to be stressed, however, that this is only *ONE* possible way in which agreement can be achieved.

Step 1 : The Curriculum Committee could *appoint ten lecturers in Education* (from the undergraduate and postgraduate levels) to study the documents received from the Method Teams. It will be recalled that there are at present 23 Method subjects being offered by the faculty; thus, 23 documents would be produced at the end of the storming stage. The ten Education lecturers that might be appointed to analyse these documents, would - during the rest of this outline - be referred to as the ES-Team (Educational Specialist Team).

Step 2 : To guard against overloading any individual with work, each member of the ES-Team can be allocated one of the nine major didactic areas in which uniform criteria need to be established :

1. The purposes of teaching (Aims and objectives)
2. The entering situation (Human relationships in teaching)
3. Learning content and lesson preparation
4. Didactic methods
5. The use of media in teaching
6. Learning psychology in didactic perspective
7. Classroom management
8. Evaluation in teaching
9. The conduct of lecturers and teachers supervising students during Teaching Practice.

The tenth member of the team could act as co-ordinator.

It stands to reason that the Education disciplines in which particular members are active would be a determining factor in the allocation of areas. For instance, the purposes of teaching may be allocated to a lecturer in Philosophy of Education, the entering situation to a lecturer in Sociology of Education, learning content to a lecturer in Didactics, etc. But perhaps a reversal of such plans could lead to much fruitful cross-fertilisation!

Step 3 : Since the areas are fluid in character, a meeting will have to be held to prevent overlapping or gaps; specific areas need to be clarified.

Step 4 : Each member of the ES-Team would then analyse the 23 method-centred documents, focusing specifically on criteria relevant to his/her area. *The main purpose would be to incorporate as many views as possible from the documents produced by Method Teams into a set of non-contradictory criteria.* There can be no question about the necessity of using qualitative research methods during this phase. Each member needs to approach the task with an open mind and "allow the facts to speak for themselves."

Step 5 : After the analysis, each member should submit a report containing a list of ten or more statements for Teaching Practice regarding that particular area. The more specific and controversial these are, the better. For example, a list containing statements about the area *Didactic methods* may include :

1. *Most* lessons should make provision for general pupil activity, e.g. written work.
2. A good teacher *hardly ever* uses narration or explanation in the classroom; instead he/she allows pupils to discover facts for themselves *most of the time*.
3. Pupils should be taught to raise their hands before they answer a question.
4. Teachers should *often* ask questions to pupils who do not volunteer to answer.
5. If a pupil gives an "I-don't-know"- answer, the teacher should *usually* prompt the pupil until he/she answers.

The reader will notice that these "rules" are quite arbitrary. But to ensure that the inquiry results in more than a mere list of streotyped generalizations, this type of statement seems to be essential. Without such clear guidance, students would still be left in the dark, and the criteria issue will remain unresolved.

Step 6 : Once each member of the ES-Team has produced his/her list of criteria, the co-ordinator or the team as a whole could scrutinize the lists. Items that are too vague or too obvious can be referred back to the relevant member, discussed, rephrased, or deleted.

Step 7 : All the criteria could then be listed on one or more questionnaires and distributed to members of the faculty.

Step 8 : Each lecturer (including part-time lecturers involved in Method Courses) should indicate with which criteria on the list he/she agrees or disagrees. Since the list will be quite lengthy - say, 300

to 400 items - it may be best to distribute them in two or three batches.

Step 9 : The analysis of results could be done by members of the ES-Team as a whole; each member can be allocated a certain number of items. The prime objective will be to establish the percentage of lecturers who agree or disagree with each criterion on the list.

Step 10 : The basis for the interpretation of results could be decided by :

(a) the ES-Team,

(b) the Teaching Practice Committee,

(c) the Board of the Faculty of Education, or

(d) the faculty as a whole.

The most democratic way may be to approve only those criteria which at least two-thirds of all faculty members accept. For example, if there are 47 academics who "voted", only proposals supported by 32 or more academics should perhaps be included in the final report. This is to prevent a large number of lecturers from being dissatisfied.

Step 11 : A new *Guide for Teaching Practice* could be written in which all the "approved" criteria are incorporated. This could be done by the Head of Teaching Practice or some other person(s) appointed by the Teaching Practice Committee. Guiding forces in the construction of this draft would be the necessity to :

* transform bluntly-stated rules into positive, discreet guidelines of how a student teacher should teach
* substantiate suggested actions by explaining the reasoning behind each one

* eliminate contradictions
* avoid ambiguity as far as possible
* blend fragmented statements into coherent paragraphs, under appropriate headings, written in readible language
* include a list of those criteria on which agreement have *NOT* yet been reached (i.e. items which were accepted by less than two-thirds of the faculty)
* give full credit to faculty members who contributed to the establishment of the criteria as well as to the writer of the final document

Step 12 : A conference or seminar could be held during which tutors discuss the draft Guide for Teaching Practice; suggestions and improvements should, as far as possible be incorporated.

Finally, the improved Guide for Teaching Practice should be submitted to the Board for approval. If approved, it can be printed and distributed to all students and staff members. A more effective approach to Teaching Practice at UD-W may have been born - and with it, perhaps, a scientific model of teaching as taught at UD-W.

Strategies for the continuous improvement of criteria

It must be admitted quite frankly that, at the end of the above process, many issues would still be left unresolved. For instance, agreement about the lesson structure may not have been reached yet. It appears to be a very sensitive issue. To bring about improvements in these and other controversial areas, negotiations about criteria will probably have to continue on a permanent basis. The faculty may

therefore have to map out a long-term strategy for the continuous improvement of criteria. Perhaps one or two days every year should be devoted to the issue of conflicting criteria. The possibilities for keeping the issue alive through stimulus material seem endless, e.g.

* Public debates about specific criteria between two educationists.
* Formal debates between tutors and students.
* Guest speakers from other teacher training institutions.
* Panel discussions between academics and school authorities.
* Discussions about research projects done by students regarding contradictory criteria, etc.

In the process annual surveys can be conducted among staff members to establish whether general shifts in attitudes have occurred. Gradually the theoretical basis of Teaching Practice may be strengthened.

4.4 The performing stage : Negotiating an improved curriculum

To a large extent agreement on general criteria in itself is likely to transform any curriculum presented by a large group of lecturers into a more coherent course. An improved curriculum will automatically emerge.

If, however, members of a course-team wish to use all the necessary means to establish *a highly successful course*, structural changes to the curriculum itself will probably be required. In the context of this case study, the following guidelines may prove helpful :

4.4.1 Examining research results

By the time that agreement about criteria may have been reached, the

results of the experiment (discussed in Section 3) should be known. These could be examined by the Teaching Practice Committee. Recommendations flowing from the research could be discussed and circularized.

4.4.2 Considering an open approach

The Teaching Practice Committee could invite all members of the course-team to help designing a new curriculum. The question of whether the results of investigations like this one should be taken into account can be left open; the course-team may function better as a group if only their own ideas are implemented.

4.4.3 Considering a partially open approach

Alternatively, the course-team may use the general findings of the four major surveys included in this study, ignoring the recommendations contained in the last two chapters. A curriculum can then be constructed using similar methods as those used in Chapter 8, but yielding a different product. This seems to be the most promising approach, for at least three reasons : First, because the curriculum will be based on research findings. Second, the course-team will be directly involved in designing the curriculum. And third, a curriculum designed by a group of people is more likely to be effective than one designed by a single individual because it is obvious that a richer crop of ideas can be incorporated.

The drawback of this approach is that it may be time-consuming.

4.4.4 Considering a research-based approach

Lastly, the recommendations contained in Chapters 8 and 9 of this text can be used as a basis for further developments. The two proposed curricula can be discussed. A major task will be to determine which one of the two is favoured by most members. This can be followed up by more detailed decisions related to specific modules, units, and features in the approved model. Perhaps a completely new model, based on a combination of the two proposed curricula, will be constructed. Whatever the case may be, the final results of this investigation can be used as a starting point to introduce an improved curriculum.

The major advantage of this approach is that it will probably speed up developments. Most of the work has already been done. On the other hand, it may not offer much latitude for individuals to feel involved in helping to design the curriculum.

It will be remembered that Rowntree identified four themes around which curriculum development should revolve : planning the purposes, designing the learning, evaluating the students, and planning improvement (See Elements of the Curriculum Process, p. 77). Out of these themes flowed 18 steps that need to be followed while a course is being planned and implemented. Whereas all these elements are still relevant to the present investigation - indeed, they were guiding forces throughout the study - it seems pointless to cover them in detail here. The whole investigation took an unexpected turn. Discoveries like the criteria issue led to a shifting of priorities

from the curricular structure to the need for rather intensive negotiations. Consequently only guidelines that appear to be *most relevant* to a possible implementation of the proposed curricula will be briefly outlined below.

Planning the purposes

The course-team could decide which one of the two proposed curricula or which modules, should be implemented. This will automatically lead to the formulation of objectives and course content.

Designing the learning

A series of decisions will have to be taken by the course-team. Especially pertinent will be decisions about :

1. The *pace* at which the new curriculum should be implemented, viz. gradually (starting with first-year students only) or suddenly (all courses at once).
2. The procedure that should be followed to *divide students* into appropriate tutorial groups, and the allocation of *tutors*.
3. *Placement* of students at schools. Both proposed curricula imply changing the present system of placing students : If Proposed Curriculum No. 1 is implemented, special provision will have to be made to accommodate the IT-INSET-component; if the other curriculum is implemented, further investigations need to be conducted to work out ways in which students can attend schools twice a week for one year.
4. The construction of *undeveloped modules*. Strategies will have to be designed to determine how, when, and by whom these modules will be developed.

5. The production of *resources*. Both curricula require a number of resources and details regarding the distribution of work loads need to be clarified.

Evaluating the students

Vital decisions in this area will include :

1. Establishing ways in which a high standard can be maintained in the assessment of first-year and second-year B.Paed-students. To enhance the quality of students reaching the final year, it seems adviseable that assessment panels should be requested to aim at *a failure rate of 15-30% during the first one or two years*. It has already been shown that this would not seriously affect the length of a student's training programme; it will only ensure that students are better prepared for the teaching profession.
2. Establishing ways in which a high standard can be maintained in the assessment of UHDE-students. Here, too, an expected failure rate of 10-20% seems appropriate. Although this *may* lead to an extension of the student's training programme, it will not be as disastrous as it appears to be. A student who fails Teaching Practice may for instance be required to attend part-time classes in Teaching Practice (soon to be introduced at UD-W) during his/her first year of teaching. Again, it could have a marked influence on the quality of teachers educated at UD-W.
3. Ensuring that the panels of specialists that will be responsible for the evaluation of Teaching Practice I, II and UHDE-students are fairly objective. Procedures will have to be

worked out to ascertain that a video-lesson of each student is assessed by a panel consisting of,

(a) one lecturer (a different one than the tutors who guided him/her during the year),

(b) one school authority (principal, inspector, or head of department), and

(c) one subject specialist (preferably from another faculty).

Although a variety of objections may be raised against this suggestion, one cannot deny the intrinsic value of external examiners, for students as well as for tutors. Furthermore, it has been successfully put into practice by Combs et al.; the only difference is that Combs et al insist on panel assessment of a *real* lesson in a *real* class - an even more complex procedure to organize.

Planning improvement

Strategies need to be designed to ensure that the curriculum is revised annually. The course-team will also have to pay attention to the fact that principals and class teachers should be kept informed of developments and requirements.

Constraints

The possible amendment of a number of constraints may be considered. Some of the most important ones are :

1. Time constraints (discussed in Chapter 8)
2. The composition of the Teaching Practice Committee (will be discussed later in this chapter)

3. The possibility of appointing a senior member of staff *who has no other duties*, to act as Head of Teaching Practice. At present the Head of Teaching Practice at UD-W is practically inaccessible because he has numerous other duties that constantly demand his attention. This is one of the most acute weaknesses in the present system. In fact, research done by Turney et al showed that the tendency at universities to treat Teaching Practice as a kind of afterthought is a general problem. They strongly recommend that every institution should appoint a full-time co-ordinator to organize effective Teaching Practice programmes. (Turney et al. 1977:42)
4. The effect which an extension of school-based experiences will have on academic courses. Before time constraints can be changed, this matter will need attention.
5. The effect which a new Teaching Practice course will have on the Didactics and other Education courses.

This brings to a close the section *Guidelines regarding negotiations about the curriculum*. All that remains to be covered before this report can be concluded, are guidelines for implementation.

5. GUIDELINES REGARDING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN IMPROVED CURRICULUM

5.1 Approval of new syllabus

The implementation process will obviously start by submitting the new Teaching Practice syllabus for approval - first to the Board of the Faculty of Education, and then to Senate.

5.2 Distribution of workloads

It is apparent that an improved curriculum will require effective teamwork. A good strategy may be to divide the 35 lecturers responsible for Teaching Practice into a variety of smaller teams, as indicated below :

5.2.1 Teaching Practice Support Team

The main task of this team will be to organize and conduct staff development programmes for tutors. Some of its key functions should be :

* to arrange academic debates, seminars, workshops, and other activities aimed at strengthening the theoretical basis of the course, i.e. to help tutors reach more agreement about criteria.
* to train new members of staff, especially in preparing them to supervise students at schools and to present campus-based programmes.
* to liaise with school principals, class teachers, other school officials, and students, e.g. by organizing seminars, workshops, and other communication channels.

5.2.2 Staff Relations Team

Explicit steps should be taken to make each tutor feel involved in, and useful to, the course as a whole. The duties of this team will therefore be similar to those of a public relations officer : to explain actions taken by the various teams to all staff members; to listen to criticism; to conduct surveys; to publish articles; to encourage community projects - in short, to make each tutor feel proud to be part of UD-W Teaching Practice team.

5.2.3 Modular Design Team

There will always be new modules to design and outdated ones to upgrade. Once these modules have been identified by the Assessment and Revision Team (See section below), the Modular Design Team will be responsible to work out ways in which they can be amended or improved. The team can consist of five or six lecturers that are imaginative; each one can gradually specialize in certain sections and become an expert to which other tutors can turn for advice in those areas. Once a new module has been designed, it could be passed on to the Staff Relations Team who could sound out the entire course-team about it before it is submitted to the Teaching Practice Committee for consideration.

5.2.4 Resource Production Team

This team could be responsible for the production, accumulation, and distribution of resources needed to put the programmes into action. They will obviously work in close liaison with the Modular Design Team, and perhaps these two teams should combine. The reason why they are here seperated, is because a combined team will perhaps make the group too large and awkward to function smoothly. It is also fairly common to find that imaginative people (designers of modules) often lack practical ability to put their ideas into action, while we need practical people to produce resources.

5.2.5 School Placement Team

The function of this team will be to organize school placements. Such a "team" probably already exists in most teacher education institutions thus their duties need not be spelled out here.

5.2.6 Assessment and Revision Team

It is true that the effectiveness of the entire course depends on a competent evaluation system. To assign this vital task to an individual tutor can seriously affect standards. As argued previously in this text, teaching is too complex an area for one person to evaluate attainment properly. It needs a team of highly competent lecturers to design procedures that will ensure high standards of evaluation. Since product and process evaluation are closely related, it seems advisable to appoint one team of lecturers that can handle, organize, and plan both kinds of evaluation practices.

5.2.7 The Teaching Practice Committee

As we have already seen in Chapter 3 (p. 127) the Teaching Practice Committee at UD-W at present consists of four members : the Head of Teaching Practice, two members responsible for school-based programmes, and one member responsible for campus-based programmes. The member in charge of campus-based programmes makes use of three co-ordinators : one for Teaching Practice I, one for Teaching Practice II, and one for the combined course Teaching Practice III/UHDE. Noticeable weaknesses in this structure are :

1. The co-ordinators of campus-based programmes do not serve on the Teaching Practice Committee; no formal body exists in which they can link their courses with each other. This can lead to severe fragmentation between the three courses.
2. The co-ordinators - who seem to design and/or approve most of the modules - do not get credit for their efforts. The programmes

are often printed without mentioning the designers; paradoxically, members of the Teaching Practice Committee - who hardly do any of the work - get the credit. This seems unfair.

3. The course-team is not truly represented by anybody in the Teaching Practice Committee. They have no official "voice".
4. The campus- and school-based programmes are handled by different people, causing a rift between these two components.

One way in which these difficulties can be overcome is to divide the entire course-team into smaller teams, as suggested above. However, to maintain proper links and continuity between the teams, it seems sensible that *the leader of each team should serve on the Teaching Practice Committee*. Since there will be five teams, this will cause the Teaching Practice Committee to consist of six members (the Head of Teaching Practice plus five leaders). In this way the whole course-team will not only be intimately involved, but each member will be represented on the Teaching Practice Committee by his/her team leader.

In this way a system can be established in which :

* each tutor is given a choice to decide in which team(s) he/she wishes to be active;
* the Staff Relations Team sees to it that all the tutors are kept informed about the activities of the other teams;
* every contribution of every member is officially acknowledged, enabling each lecturer to improve his/her academic status;
* the different components of the course are treated as a complete whole.

6. CONCLUSION

It seems fitting at this point to try to take a brief look into the future of teacher education in South Africa in the light of the challenges posed by rapid social, political, and economic changes. What can South African teacher educators do to help resolve the evident crisis in Education?

If political changes in South Africa during 1985 taught me anything, it was that research is heavily dependent on national developments. When this project was launched towards the end of 1983, the investigation seemed highly relevant. The South African political scene was reasonably stable. However, while the research was being conducted - especially during this last year - the situation deteriorated rapidly. The net result of these changes was that now, at the end of 1985, we find ourselves in the midst of a political, economic, and educational crisis that makes this project seem like a misdirected activity. It seems now as if it would have been more useful if it had dealt with possible solutions for the educational dilemma in which we find ourselves.

One of the research areas that at present needs urgent attention is the contribution educationists can make to help resolve the crisis. It may be argued that educationists are powerless in this situation - that everything depends on political and legislative forces in the country. But to accept this argument would be to adopt a defeatist attitude. We may well ask : If education was such an important factor in *causing* the crisis, why can it not play an equally vital role in leading us *out* of the crisis? Educationists, school authorities,

and teachers may well find themselves in key positions to help build bridges between opposing powers in the country : between the government and its people; between oppressive measures and democratic ideals; between outmoded practices and genuine reform; between parents and children; young and old; Black and White. We are all close to the point of origin of many forces that will eventually shape this society.

If one accepts the view that South Africa should be a united country with "one citizenship and a universal franchise for all" (as recently stated by the President), there can be little doubt that we face a period of drastic change. It seems likely that the reform process will proceed in three phases : one of intensified pressure, one of rapid adjustment, and one of gradual consolidation.

The behaviour of teacher educators during these phases could have a marked effect on the future development of the country. A simple calculation would prove this point : if 200 students per institution qualify as teachers each year at 100 institutions, then approximately 20 000 teachers are trained per year in South Africa. (The Institutional Survey suggested that these figures were, during 1984, in fact much higher). If we further assume that each of these newly trained teachers will, during their first year, teach an average of 50 children, it means that they will come into contact with *one million children* in their first year alone. This means that teacher educators have an almost immediate influence on the lives of millions of people - children, parents, fellow-teachers, and future employers. We should not underestimate our power.

There seems to be a substantial amount teacher educators can do to generate goodwill and harmony. During the present phase it seems crucial that we should start to employ methods aimed at alleviating the tension building up between various groups. The situation may be too sensitive for open debate between race groups, but much can be done in the lecture theatre to demonstrate to students the futility of rigid, inflexible attitudes. Is it not ludicrous to keep ignoring the national crisis in our lectures and general curricula? Perhaps we should incorporate topics like :

* teacher behaviour during boycott actions
* democratic procedures to elect student leaders
* political debates (in which some participants are obliged to act as representatives of other race groups)
* negotiation games with political undertones
* the economic implications of a non-discriminatory educational system
* teaching children from other race groups, etc.

On a higher level there seems to be a need for teacher educators to make urgent and persistent pleas for the abolition of apartheid in teacher training institutions. The need for this has repeatedly been pointed out by educationists and politicians. In the *Sunday Tribune* of November 24, 1985, for instance, the following report appeared :

> "Dr Oscar Dhlomo, KwaZulu Minister of Education and Culture, said: "Our eight teacher training colleges are full and we are building a ninth but we still can't train as many teachers as the system requires. Yet you have colleges of education which are half empty and they can't take black trainee teachers."

He said Edgewood was "very keen" to admit students of other races but "the authorities are not willing to co-operate."

Dr Dhlomo said there was "a desperate shortage" of teachers in KwaZulu schools and he would welcome applications from the white teachers whose contracts were not being renewed."

In the same newspaper a politician expressed the same sentiment even more pertinently.

"Roger Burrows, PFP MP and education spokesman, said the whole of Bechet Teachers' Training College could be fitted into Edgewood and "it would still rattle around". A major reason for the student boycott at the coloured Bechet was because of overcrowding and the lack of proper facilities.

Mr Burrows said there was "something very funny" going on with teacher-training colleges.

* At the whites-only colleges (Edgewood and Durban Onderwysers' Kollege, DOK), admissions had dropped dramatically. Edgewood had room for 1 500 students yet the present enrolment was only 650 and the numbers would drop further next year. At DOK there was an R8 million to R10 million construction project, yet admissions had dropped to 70 to 80 students.
* The Indians-only Springfield Teachers' Training College reached "bursting point five or six years ago". There were plans for an R80-R100 million new college in Cato Manor but now the demand for Indian teachers had dropped.

* At Bechet College there was a boycott over lack of facilities. "They want new buildings but plans were not even on the waiting list in 1984 when it still fell under the Department of Coloured Education."
* In KwaZulu, black teacher-training colleges could not cope with the demand for teachers.

Mr Burrows said : "The termination of the services of a further 120 to 150 fully qualified, experienced teachers by NED highlights the need for close co-operation and consultation in teacher supply in Natal/KwaZulu and elsewhere.

"South Africa is crying out for more teachers - not black or white - just teachers and we must accept that the whole nation must help supply that need."

It is therefore at teacher training institutions that the real reform process in education should start. If schools are declared open for all races overnight, it could lead to the generation of unforeseen difficulties. On the other hand, if teachers are properly prepared to cope with racial conflict the transition can be made and be relatively peaceful. It seems imperative that a vigorous national programme should be mounted to help student teachers come to grips with their own racial prejudices before entering the teaching profession. What better way is there to do this than to let members of different population groups study together? The present system, in which White student teachers can only get bursaries if they study at White universities,

Blacks if they study at Black institutions, etc., is clearly counter-active to the fostering of tolerant attitudes between the various subcultures. A more promising approach would be that of consociation : the racial distribution at institutions could then be proportionally representative to the population distribution in South Africa.

On the face of it these two steps - adjusting our curricula and advocating multiracial training programmes - appear to be meaningful contributions which we, as teacher educators can make during the present phase of intensified pressure.

Once legislative changes have been introduced - and, it is to be hoped, stability returns - teacher education will obviously be at the epicentre of reform. During this phase of rapid adjustment, education may be in great demand. Depending on political and economic factors, Black education may become one of the greatest challenges this nation will ever have to face.

Should this happen, a rather severe shift in priorities is likely to occur. New schools may mushroom all over the country, creating a disparity between the supply and demand of teachers; a great need will probably exist for teachers who speak African languages; a new flood of minimally qualified Black teachers may be required to man the schools; the standard of teaching for White children may drop dramatically; television teaching may become a widely-used method; intergroup relationships may become a regular school subject; and there will probably be an unprecedented demand for newly-written textbooks.

Whatever form the changes may take, it seems certain that there will be a need for innovative teacher training programmes. It may even be necessary to resort to a system in which large numbers of itinerary teacher educators present intensive short courses to practising teachers at schools, as they do in many other parts of Africa (Coombs, 1985:272). To develop strategies that will help teacher educators to cope with changes such as these, more crisis-related research is of the utmost importance.

Provided that financial and political support for a robust educational system exist, teacher educators should be able to enter the third phase of the crisis - gradual consolidation of reform measures - with reasonable confidence. A more just educational system could emerge. A system in which every Black, Brown, or White child will have the opportunity to lead a meaningful existence. A system in which dedicated teachers may lift the spirit of new South African generations. Most important of all : a system in which differences are resolved by the force of argument rather than by the argument of force.

CHAPTER 1

END-NOTES

1. Alvin Toffler in *Future Shock*, London : Pan Books, 1981, p. 436.
2. Fromm (1979).
3. Frankl (1978:108).
4. As quoted by Fromm (1979:1).
5. Commission on Teacher Education, *Teachers for our Times*, American Council on Teacher Education, Washington, 1944, p. 2. Emphasis added.
6. Reported in The Daily News, October 11, 1984.
7. Chisholm (1984:402).
8. Galton et al. (1980:49) quoting from the Plowden Report.
9. As reported by Bone (1980:67).
10. As reported by Bone (1980:59).
11. As reported by Wragg (1974:vii).
12. As quoted by Kruger (ed.) (1980:19).
13. Some of the terms used here are borrowed from Puryear (1979).
14. Vide The World Book Encyclopedia, Vol. V, Chicago:Field Enterprises, 1974, p. 104.
15. Denzin, N.K., 1978, *The Research Act*, 2nd ed., New York:Mc-Graw-Hill, p. 291, as Quoted by Jick (1983:135).
16. As described by Dockrell (1980:19), Cohen & Manion (1980:27), and Mintzberg (1983).
17. Best (1977), Cohen & Manion (1980), Dyer (1979).

18. This view is supported, inter alia, by Best (1977), Cohen & Manion (1980), Dyer (1979), Jick (1983), and Nisbet (1980).

19. As propagated, for instance, by McIntyre (1980), Cohen & Manion (1980), Van Maanen (1983), Mintzberg (1983), Salancik (1983).

20. Van Maanen (1983:10).

21. Glazer and Strauss (1967:21).

22. Jick (1983:142).

23. Jick (1983:142).

24. Vide the numerous examples of successful research projects reported on in the collection of papers, *Qualitative Methodology*, edited by John Van Maanen (1983).

25. Miles (1983:118).

26. Miles (1983:122).

27. Nisbet (1980:5).

28. Reiss, (1968), Best (1977), Dyer (1979), and Miles (1983), to mention but a few.

29. Cohen & Manion (1980) and Jick (1983).

30. As quoted by Cohen and Manion (1980:26).

31. Nisbet (1980:5).

32. McIntyre (1980:302), Best (1980:12), Dockrell (1980:14), Nisbet (1980:6).

33. Best (1980:12).

34. The argument, paraphrased by me, comes from Nisbet (1980:5), but the definition of hypothesis is that of Kerlinger, as quoted by Cohen & Manion (1980:21).

35. Cronbach as quoted by Walker (1980:60).

36. Quoted by Mintzberg (1983:110).

37. Ibid.

38. McIntyre (1980:294).

39. Shaw (1975), Walker (1980), Nisbet (1980), Merritt (1981), and Mintzberg (1983).

40. Vide the overview which Sanday (1983) gives re . the training of anthropologists.

41. Nisbet (1980:6).

42. Walker (1980:33), quoting Malinowski.

43. Smith as quoted by Walker, (1980:41).

44. Walker (1980:41).

45. Dockrell (1980:21), Walker (1980:34), Nisbet (1980:6), Mintzberg (1983:112).

46. Merritt (1981:11).

47. Mintzberg (1983:113).

48. Ibid., p. 109 & 110.

49. Ibid., p. 107.

50. Cronbach as quoted by Walker (1980:60).

CHAPTER 2

END-NOTES

51. Turney (1977:32).

52. Gage (1972:200).

53. For example, Langeveldt, Perquin and Van der Stoep confine themselves to the humanistic-didactic, school of thought, while Skinner, Van Cube, and Gagne confine themselves to the cognitive-behaviouristic school of thought.

54. Turney (ed) (1977:17) and Gresse (1981:26).

55. Orlosky (1980:273).

56. Cooper et al (1974:14).

57. AACTE (1974).

58. Goodwin and Coates (1976).

59. AACTE (1974). However, the fact that this was done in 1973 raises doubts as to the truth of this in 1985.

60. Turney (ed) (1977:17). Ten states had already done so, and at least 10 were contemplating to do so. This survey was also conducted in 1973.

61. Turney (ed.) (1977:18).

62. Vide Gresse (1981:33).

63. Goodwin and Coates (1976:144).

64. Orlosky (1980:274).

65. Turney (1977:18).

66. Atkin and Rath (1974).

67. Gage and Winne (1975:157).

68. Turney (1977:20).

69. Freeman (1977:26-27).

70. Gage and Winne (1975:26).

71. Gresse (1981:26).

72. Turney (1977:17).

73. Turney (1977:25).

74. Combs et al (1974:37).

75. Ibid.

76. Turney (1977:26).

77. Combs et al (1974:27).

78. Combs et al (1974:149-152); Turney (1977:27).

79. Combs et al (1974:153).

80. Turney (1977:27).

81. Combs et al (1974:153).

82. Turney (1977:27).

83. Turney et al (1977:27).

84. Turney et al (1977:27). Busby's findings were published in 1970.

85. Turney et al (1977:28).

86. By Fuller, as quoted by Turney et al. (1977:30).

87. By Durcharme and Nash, (as quoted by Turney et al (1977:29)).

88. By Petersen et al, as quoted by Turney et al (1977:30).

89. Combs et al (1974:147), Turney et al (1977:31).

90. McIntyre (1980:295).

91. If there is, it is not readily available for study and analysis. Although an intensive search for such material has been made, hardly any could be traced. Writers tend to either support the approach, or ignore its existence.

92. See Chapter 3.

93. It is noteworthy that Combs and his colleagues were well-versed in Rogerian psychology. (Turney, 1977:26). The vital importance of special training for staff is also evident in the excellent study by Dussault (1970), who bases his whole theory of supervisory techniques during teaching practice on Rogers' psychology.

94. Vide Chapter 6.

95. Justification for this view is given later, (vide p. 83 and 84).

96. As a result of findings by Bennet et al (1976), Deardin (1980), Dean (1980), Harlen (1980), and others.

97. Ashton (1983:7).

98. Ashton (1983:9).

99. As quoted by Ashton (1983:16).

100. Ashton (1983:19).

101. Ashton (1983:9, 19).

102. Ashton (1983:21).

103. Ashton describes eight cases (1983:43-75). In addition there are the INSET-cases reported by Hamilton (1981), Crispps (1981), Heppel (1981), and Lees (1981).

104. Ashton, (1983:45).

105. Vide Merritt (1981) and Hendersen (1981).

106. De Corte et al (1972:10).

107. Beauchamp (1981:37).

108. Described by Duminy (69:5) and Hyman (1974:16).

109. I take this stand with a certain amount of reservation, and only in the face of the reality that many teacher educators favour extrinsic motivation. But Good and Brophy's argument (1978:15 and 169) that extrinsic motivation (e.g. mention of marks or tests) severely undermines intrinsic motivation (i.e. believing that learning is exciting) is extremely convincing. If one accepts this view, a combination of the two seems rather self-defeating. However, even Good and Brophy propogate a school-system in which tests and examinations are essential (1978:267-271). This implies a mixture of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. It is merely the frequent mentioning of tests, marks, etc. as a motivation technique that these writers dislike - a view that seems feasible.

110. The meaning given to this category in the present study differs radically from the meaning De Corte et al give to it. Under the heading "Grouping of pupils and teachers" De Corte discusses factors such as vertical and horizontal grouping, main streaming, etc. In this text, however, the category is used to discuss factors related to classroom management - a facet that is seen to be more important in a basic teacher education course than classification systems.

111. Note for instance Ashton's remarks (1983:22) "the curriculum for pupils is what they actually experience"; curriculum evaluation is seen as "arguably the most important of all areas of professionalism"; and "Developing the curriculum consists of making changes in the experience of pupils so that their learning is enhanced."

112. Hyman (1974:40).

113. See Wheeler's definition - one of many in which "planned experiences" is the key phrase.

114. Constraints are discussed more fully later on, Vide criteria of practicality, p. 80.

115. Leaving Wheeler's structure out, for reasons mentioned earlier.

116. Vide Rowntree (1982:18-29).

117. Vide Chapter 1, p. 9.

118. These research findings have been reported by Turney et al (1977: 50-53).

119. Shaw (1975:84).

120. Ibid p. 82.

121. Vide differences between curriculum and syllabus, p. 23.

CHAPTER 3

END-NOTES

122. This distinction may appear to contradict the view taken in the previous chapter where these two components were seen as being a single entity. But the historical development of the two components was so dissimilar that a temporary differentiation seems plausible.

123. F.W. Waring, Minister of Indian Affairs in 1969 as quoted by Behr (1984:17).

124. All the information in this paragraph obtained from Oosthuizen (1981:32) and Behr (1984:17-18).

125. UD-W Brochure, printed and circulated by UD-W Public Relations Department.

126. Oosthuizen (1981:35).

127. Data obtained from Oosthuizen (1981:205-207) and the Registration Section, UD-W.

128. Behr (1984:20).

129. Behr (1984:22).

130. Behr (1984:24).

131. Data obtained from the Examination and Registration Sections of UD-W.

132. Minor discrepancies between these figures and those contained in Table III are due to enrolments for BPaed (Home Economics) - a course that has since been phased out.

133. 16 from Category A Plus 4 from Category C add up to 20. Out of the 47 full-time academics, it is 42,6%.

134. Those with D.Ed, (13) and M.Ed (5) and B.Ed (14) degrees from Categories A and C equal 32 out of 47; this is 68%.

135. See Total : Academics with Education degrees : 13 + 4 + 4 + 11 = 33. Two members with a D.Phil also have a B.Ed, thus 35.

136. Category A : 5 + 2 + 2 + 1 = 10, minus one staff member with a D.Phil who also has a B.Ed, equals 9 out of 35; this represents 26%.

137. Since part-time staff is not involved in campus-based Teaching Practice, they have been considered half-a-tutor for purposes of establishing this ratio.

138. Data obtained from Registration Section, UD-W.

139. Information received from personal interview with Prof Bennett, Vice-Rector of UD-W.

140. In their final year, Teaching Practice - students attend two one-hour sessions in small groups, and two one-hour sessions in one big group per week. In addition, they spend 10 hours per year receiving instruction in the use of audio-visual equipment-hence the extra half-an-hour per week.

141. The time allocations have been calculated as follows :

English I (4 hours per week for 25 weeks)	100 h
Psychology I : As for English I	100 h
History I, II & III (4 hours per week for 75 weeks)	300 h
Geography I, II & III (as for History)	300 h
Education I, II & III (4 hours per week for 50 weeks)	
(Ed I & Ed II)	200 h
(5 hours per week for 19 weeks missing 6 weeks Teaching Practice)	95 h
	1095

History Method : 4 hours per week for 19 weeks	76 h
Geography Method : As for History Method	76 h
English Usage : As for History Method	76 h
Afrikaans Usage : As for History Method	76 h
Teaching Practice I : 2 h per week for 25 weeks	50 h
6 h per day for 10 days during block session	60 h
Teaching Practice II : As for Teaching Practice I	110 h
Teaching Practice III: 4 h per week for 19 weeks	76 h
10 h audio-visual	10 h
6 h per day for 30 days during block sessions	180 h
TOTAL	1885 h

Converting these hours into percentages of the total no. of hours, yield the following results :

English	5,31 %
Psychology	5,31 %
History	15,91 %
Geography	15,91 %
Education	15,65 %
History Method	4,03 %
Geography Method	4,03 %
English Usage	4,03 %
Afrikaans Usage	4,03 %
Teaching Practice	25,79 %
TOTAL	100,00 %

142. Vide the breakdown of student-numbers in B.Paed-courses, p. 5.

143. As is apparent from the calculations in Note 141 above, *ALL* the time spent in schools is seen as contact time. Although University lecturers only visit the students sporadically, they are under constant supervision by school staff which creates a controlled situation similar to contact time with lecturers.

144. These time allocations have been calculated as follows :

Principles of Education : 5 hours per week for 19 weeks	95 h
Method I : 4 hours per week for 19 weeks	76 h
Method 2 : 4 hours per week for 19 weeks	76 h
English Usage : As for Method 1	76 h
Afrikaans Usage : As for Method 1	76 h
Teaching Practice : 4 hours per week for 19 weeks	76 h
10 hours Audio-visual	10 h
6 hours per day for 10 days (1st Block Session)	60 h
6 hours per day for 30 days (2nd and 3rd Block Sessions)	180 h
TOTAL	725 h

Converting these hours into percentages of the total number of hours, yield the following results :

Principles of Education	13,1 %
Method 1	10,48%
Method 2	10,48%
English Usage	10,48%
Afrikaans Usage	10,48%
Teaching Practice	44,98%
	100 %

145. Using the example of a student majoring in History and Geography :

		HOURS	%
1st year	: 5 courses consisting of 100 hours tuition each	500	28,99 %
2nd year	: 3 courses consisting of 100 hours tuition each	300	17,39
3rd year	: 2 courses consisting of 100 hours tuition each	200	11,59
4th year	: Teaching Practice as set out in Note 144.	326	18,9
	Other Education-related subjects (See Note 144)	399	23,13
	TOTAL	1725	100,00

146. Records that could be traced only go back as far as 1967. By that time Teaching Practice was clearly a well-established part of these courses.

147. Guide to Practice Teaching, UD-W, 1970, p. 2.

148. Practice Teaching Guide to Students, UD-W, 1970, p. 7.

149. Guide for Practice Teaching, for the use of tutors.

150. The document that replaced the "old" Guide is discussed below under Rules and Regulations.

151. Minutes of the meeting of the Board of the Faculty of Education, 23.2.67 and 22.6.67.

152. Guide to Practice Teaching, UD-W, 1971, p. 5. Infrequent mention of this programme in the minutes of the Board during subsequent years prove that this was done for quite a few years, but no trace could be found of an actual decision to discontinue it.

153. Minutes of the Board of the Faculty of Education, 22,3,78.

154. At first Fridays were used, then Wednesdays, then Fridays again, then Mondays. At some stages it was implemented for only one or two terms, and at others for the entire year. Staff members also had much trouble to obtain travel allowances to visit the students. See Minutes of the Faculty of Education on 23.2.67; 22.11.68; 25.10.71; 8.7.77; 22.3.78.

155. Minutes of Board, 2.9.80.

156. Guide to Practice Teaching, UD-W, 1979, p. 5.

157. Ibid. See also minutes of the Board 11.12.74 and 22.3.78.

158. Minutes of Board, 23.2.67.

159. Minutes of Board, 22.6.67.

160. Minutes of Board, 4.6.70.

161. Minutes of Senate, 9.9.71; Guide to Teaching Practice, UD-W, 1971, p. 6.

162. Minutes of Board, 22.3.78.

163. Minutes of Board, 9.2.68, 22.11.68, and 21.9.70.

164. Minutes of Senate, 19.10.70.

165. Minutes of Board, 19.10.72; also see Guide to Teaching Practice, 1971, p. 15.

166. Guide to Teaching Practice, 1971, p. 22.

167. Minutes of Board 17.4.67; 16.2.68; 21.9.70; 10.6.77; etc.

168. This practice started in 1982.

169. Minutes of Board, 11.8.67 and 9.2.68.

170. Minutes of Board, 20.8.70.

171. Guide to Teaching Practice, 1971, UD-W, pp. 2-9 and 16-18; Practice Teaching Guide to Students UD-W, pp. 8-18.

172. Minutes of Board, 12.8.77.

173. Minutes of Senate, 2.10.78.

174. Minutes of Senate, 12.5.80.

175. Minutes of Senate, 2.9.80.

176. The Senate's approval of these courses could not be traced. I have been informed, however, by senior members of the faculty that these courses were in fact approved in the course of 1981, and that their inclusion in the Calendar of 1982 presupposes approval by Senate.

177. Letter of B.J.Lodge that accompanied his proposal to introduce the said courses, 30.7.80, as paraphrased by me.

178. Minutes of Practical Didactics Planning committee throughout 1981.

179. According to 1984 figures 13 hours in Teaching Practice I, II and III has been devoted to Micro-teaching out of a total of 416 hours spent on campus - and school - based Teaching Practice for B.Paed-students, effectively 3,13% of the course. For UHDE-students the percentage was far less.

180. Information received from the Teaching Practice committee, 1985. Two staff members are involved in both Teaching Practice II and Teaching Practice III. They have here been placed as participating in T.P. II only to avoid confusion.

181. Vide p. 125.

182. From Observation Schedule I.

183. T.P. I Hand-out, 1985.

184. T.P. II Hand-out, 1984.

185. T.L.C. Hand-out, 1985.

186. See p. 127.

187. These topics are touched upon in certain units, and students are free to put them into practice if they so wish, but these skills are apparently not taught explicitly, except in an accidental or superficial way.

GLOSSARY

In this thesis the following working definitions of key terms served as a basis for discourse :

1. *Action research :* research concerned with the difficulties involved in following new approaches and with the distinctive consequences of attempting these approaches (McIntyre, 1981:301).

2. *Aims :* long-term goals, stated in general terms.

3. *B.Paed-course :* course designed to help students obtain their Baccalaureus Paedagogiae degree; it is a four-year undergraduate course offered at UD-W to students who wish to qualify as primary or secondary school teachers.

4. *Case study :* an educational study that focuses on educational institutions or on educational processes within other institutions; it is characterized, inter alia, by a concern with real events in real contexts, the meanings of these events for the actors in the situation, and participation by the researcher in the social processes he/she wishes to understand (Miller, 1984).

5. *CBTE :* an approach to teacher education that specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing students' compentencies, and holds the student accountable for meeting those criteria (Cooper et al, 1973:2).

6. *Constraints :* factors that may prevent a course-team from mounting exactly the course they would prefer (Rowntree, 1981:10).

7. *Course :* a series of learning activities structured around a particular theme or subject for a period of at least one year. Depending on the context, it can denote degree course, diploma course, subject course or year course; thus "Teaching Practice I - course" indicates *all* the activities that a first year Teaching Practice student is likely to encounter during contact time made available for this subject; the term "Teaching Practice-course", however, refers to Teaching Practice courses in general, e.g. all four the year courses at UD-W combined.

8. *Course content :* the "topics" that are or will be covered in a course.

9. *Criterion :* the principle or standard that something is judged by, i.e. a premise which people can use to determine the value and effectiveness for instance of a didactic variable (De Corte et al, 1972:238).

10. *Curriculum :* a written plan depicting the scope and arrangement of a projected educational course (Beauchamp, 1981:206). A curriculum is progressively divided into programmes,modules,and units. Each of these components should display specific features (See *Features of a curriculum).*

11. *Curriculum development :*

    (a) all the processes and activities necessary to establish, maintain, and improve a curriculum.

    (b) a study of these processes. (Beauchamp, 1981:206)

12. *Curriculum process :* all the activities necessary to plan and implement a curriculum.

13. *Democratic :* pertaining to the concept of democracy; democracy is seen as a configuration of concepts such as division of power, free elections, freedom of expression, freedom of choice, and decision-making based on majority votes.

14. *Didactics :* the scientific study of teaching-learning actions, usually pertaining to formal education.

15. *Didactic relevance* : a strong correlation that exists between a process and widely-accepted sub-theories in Didactics.

16. *Didactic theory:* a generally valid theory of teaching that forms a logical, systematic, and consistent whole. (De Corte, 1972:10)

17. *Education :*

    (a) helping a person to learn

    (b) spelt with a capital, it usually indicates the scientific study of concepts and processes related to the act of guiding people towards self-realization.

18. *Evaluation :* an observation and appraisal of the context, the effects, and the effectiveness of an object, action, or process. (Rowntree, 1981:243)

Product evaluation indicates an evaluation of the products of a teaching process, i.e. judging the effects it has on the behaviour of students.

Process evaluation refers to an evaluation of the process of teaching, i.e. judging the effectiveness of a course or parts of a course.

19. *Features of a curriculum :* essential constituents of a curriculum aimed at helping a course-team to achieve their aims; in this text an effective curriculum manifests itself, among other things, in a description of six features : aims and objectives, course content, learning sequences, teaching strategies, evaluation of students, and strategies for improvement. (Rowntree, 1982)

20. *Humanistic approach :* an approach to teacher education that stresses the "self" of the teacher. It is characterized by

(a) continuous, active involvement at schools,

(b) exposing students to a wide variety of ideas and resources related to teaching,

(c) keeping students and tutors informed as to resources available,

(d) assigning a specific group of students to a tutor for the duration of their training, and

(e) continuous evaluation. (Combs et al, 1965)

21. *IT-INSET approach :* an approach to Teaching Practice in which initial training and in-service education are brought together in a school-focussed pattern; teams consisting of one or two teachers, a tutor, and 2-6 students spend a term together in a classroom, teaching pupils and involving the team in "co-operative curriculum evaluation and development" (Ashton, 1983).

22. *Learning :* the acquisition of insight or knowledge through contact with external events, accompanied by changes in thought, attitude, and behaviour. (Hoyle, 1980)

23. *Learning sequences :* order in which course content is or will be presented to students, slotted into available time-units.

24. *Model :*

    (a) in a physical sense : likeness of a real thing.

    (b) in a theoretical sense : a simplified explanation of a part of reality, which makes it possible for us to come to conclusions about such reality. It is not a scientific theory, but an aid to scientific theory, which can lead to the development of a scientific theory; the more generally acceptable a model is, the more useful a scientific community considers it to be. (De Corte, 1972:11)

25. *Module :* major components of an instructional programme. Depending on the context, it can either denote a part of the instructional plan, or a part of the instructional activities themselves.

26. *Objectives :* short-term goals, stated in specific terms (behavioural or non-behavioural).

27. *Practical aspects of a Teaching Practice course :* that part of a Teaching Practice course in which the student is, on the whole, more creative and physically active than the tutor, e.g. the student teaches, prepares teaching materials, practises teaching skills, or is actively involved in a workshop.

28. *Professional relevance :* a strong correlation that exists between a process and widely-accepted beliefs and practices in teacher education.

29. *Programme :* in curricular context, the major components of a course, e.g. at UD-W all Teaching Practice courses consist of two programmes - one school-based and one campus-based programme. Programmes are sub-divided into modules and units. The term "programme" can denote a major part of an instructional plan, *or* a major part of the activities themselves.

30. *Strategies for improvement :* a plan of action aimed at continuously evaluating, revising, and renewing a curriculum.

31. *Syllabus :* a prescriptive, legally binding document published by an educational institution to make the purposes and/or content of a course explicit.

32. *Teaching :* an intentional, deliberate series of actions aimed at inducing learning. Central to the concept of teaching are, first, a manner on the teacher's part that implies respect for the student, and, second, a use of intelligence, by both teacher and student, that involves reason-giving and truth. (Hyman, 1974:16)

33. *Teaching Practice :*

(a) that body of professional experiences during which student teachers apply, test, and reconstruct the personal teaching theories which they are evolving, and during which they further develop their competence as teachers. (Turney et al, 1977:32)

(b) the subject in which students are provided with experiences described above. At UD-W it consists of four year courses : Teaching Practice I, II, III, and for UHDE-students. Each Teaching Practice course is divided into a campus-based and a school-based component.

34. *Teaching Strategies :* the methods and media that are or will be used to teach students.

35. *Theory :* a set of related ideas. In this text three kinds of theories are recognized :

Personal theory : a set of subjective ideas and beliefs held by an individual.

Model : See Model, interpretation (b).

Scientific theory : a generally valid set of ideas and beliefs about a sufficiently important part of reality that forms a logical, systematic, and consistent whole. (Kuhn, 1970:168)

36. *Triangulation :* a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

37. *UD-W :* Abbreviation for the University of Durban-Westville.

38. *UHDE-course :* course designed to help students obtain their University Higher Diploma in Education; it is a one-year post-graduate course offered at UD-W to students who wish to qualify as primary or secondary school teachers.

39. *Unit :* Component of an instructional module, designed to fill the shortest time-sequences in the curriculum. It can denote part of the instructional plan *or* part of the activities themselves.

EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME OF INSTITUTION :

ADDRESS :

COUNTRY :

PART ONE

PURPOSE : To establish the size and nature of the institutions included in the study.

PROCEDURE : Please answer the following questions :

1. Does your institution offer one or more education course(s) for students planning to teach pupils at the senior primary and/or secondary school level? (i.e. from the fourth school year onwards).

YES ☐ — Go to Question 2

NO ☐ — Please leave the rest of this questionnaire blank and forward to nearest Teacher's Education Institution or return to sender

2. How many full-time lecturers/tutors are employed at your institution specifically for the purpose of providing professional training to student teachers, eg. lecturers who lecture in Education or Teaching Methods, but not in the content of school subjects?

ANSWER : (Approximate numbers, if you wish) [ ]

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

3. How many part-time lecturers/tutors are employed at your institution for the purpose mentioned in Question 2 above?

ANSWER : (Approximate numbers, if you wish) [ ]

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

4. How many full-time students are there in your Faculty/Department of Education?

ANSWER : (Approximate numbers, if you wish) [ ]

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

5. How many part-time students are there in your Faculty/Department of Education?

ANSWER : (Approximate numbers, if you wish) [ ]

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

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6. What quantities of the following types of equipment do you have available on campus to help student teachers to develop their skills?

ANSWER :

TYPE OF EQUIPMENT	APPROXIMATE NUMBER
a. Chalkboard units	
b. Overhead projectors	
c. Record players	
d. Tape recorders	
e. Cameras	
f. Slide projectors	
g. Filmstrip projectors	
h. Motion film projectors	
i. TV-monitors	
j. TV-cameras	
k. Video recorders	
l. Computers	

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

7. What other types of equipment do you have available on campus, specifically to help student teachers develop teaching skills?

ANSWER :

TYPE OF EQUIPMENT	APPROXIMATE NUMBER

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

8. Please list the most popular teacher's diploma and/or degree-courses offered at your institution (as illustrated in the example)

ANSWER :

NAME OF DIPLOMA/DEGREE	DURATION OF COURSE	UNDERGRAD. OR POSTGRAD.	DIRECTED AT PRIMARY OR SECONDARY SCHOOL OR BOTH	APROX NO. OF STUDENTS IN FINAL YEAR
Example 1: BPaed (Arts)	4 Years	Undergrad.	Secondary	50
Example 2: UHDE	1 Year	Postgrad.	Both	100
a.				
b.				
c.				
d.				
e.				
f.				
g.				
h.				

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

END OF PART ONE

PART TWO

PURPOSE : To establish the nature and intensity with which the "average" student teacher is prepared for teaching skills at the institutions included in the study.

PROCEDURE :

1. Select just one course from those listed in your to Question 6 (Part One) above, that is aimed at training students to teach pupils at senior primary and/or secondary school level.
2. Imagine a specific student with a specific combination of subjects taking this course. (You may, for instance, wish to choose the most usual or likely combination of subjects of this course.)
3. Answer the questions below as they would apply to this imaginary student.
4. Consult the attached completed questionnaire if it is not clear how a question should be answered.

9. What is the name of the diploma or degree for which the student is studying?

ANSWER : _____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

10. What target school classes would probably be taught by this student?

ANSWER : Please draw a circle around the South African school standards that are roughly equivalent to the standards/grades/forms/etc. of the appropriate target groups in your school system.

	LEVEL	AVERAGE AGE OF PUPILS	SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOL STANDARD
JUNIOR PRIMARY PHASE	First school year	6 years old	Class I
	Second school year	7 years old	Class II
	Third school year	8 years old	Standard I
SENIOR PRIMARY PHASE	Fourth school year	9 years old	Standard II
	Fifth school year	10 years old	Standard III
	Sixth school year	11 years old	Standard IV
JUNIOR SECON-DARY PHASE	Seventh school year	12 years old	Standard V
	Eighth school year	13 years old	Standard VI
	Ninth school year	14 years old	Standard VII
SENIOR SECON-DARY PHASE	Tenth school year	15 years old	Standard VIII
	Eleventh school year	16 years old	Standard IX
	Final school year	17 years old	Standard X
	Other (Please specify) _____		

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

11. (a) Does this student specialize in the teaching of certain school subjects?

ANSWER :

YES		NO	

(b) If YES, in which school subjects does he/she specialize?

ANSWER :

1.
2.
3.

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

12. To help us to visualize this student's curriculum, please draw a rough flow chart of its course requirements. (See example in completed questionnaire.)

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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13. How many lecture periods per week does the student have to attend classes (i.e. lectures/workshops/practicals) when he/she is NOT doing teaching practice at schools?

ANSWER :

Total No. of periods on student's weekly time-table :

1st year	.....	
2nd year	.....	
3rd year	.....	
4th year	.....	
5th year	.....	
6th year	.....	

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

14. What is the length of each lecture period? minutes

REMARKS : (if any) _____

_____

15. Refer back to your answer of Question 10 and please draw circles around those courses specifically aimed at helping the students to develop practical teaching skills. (As in completed questionnaire) (See Appendix I for working definition of practical).

REMARKS : (if any) _____

_____

_____

_____

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16. How many weeks does the student spend doing teaching practice at schools?

ANSWER : 1st year of study _____

2nd year of study _____

3rd year of study _____

4th year of study _____

5th year of study _____

6th year of study _____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

17. Approximately how many lessons per week would he/she be required to teach at schools (i.e. during teaching practice)?

ANSWER : TOTAL NO. OF LESSONS TAUGHT PER WEEK

1st year of study _____

2nd year of study _____

3rd year of study _____

4th year of study _____

5th year of study _____

6th year of study _____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

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10

18. Approximately how many lessons would he/she be required to observe but not teach, at schools?

ANSWER :

1st Year	
2nd Year	
3rd Year	
4th Year	
5th Year	
6th Year	

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

19. What other compulsory assignments would he/she be required to do while busy with teaching practice at schools?

ANSWER : 1st Year _____

_____

_____

2nd Year _____

_____

_____

3rd Year _____

_____

_____

4th Year _____

_____

_____

5th Year _____

_____

_____

6th Year _____

_____

_____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

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20. By whom would his/her performance be evaluated during school-based teaching practice?

ANSWER :

1st Year _____

2nd Year _____

3rd Year _____

4th Year _____

5th Year _____

6th Year _____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

21. Approximately how many individual lessons taught by this student would be observed and evaluated by your own staff members while the student is doing school-based teaching practice?

ANSWER :

1st Year	
2nd Year	
3rd Year	
4th Year	
5th Year	
6th Year	

REMARKS : (If any) _____

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22. How many <u>different</u> members of staff would evaluate the student's school-based teaching performance per year?

ANSWER :

1st Year	
2nd Year	
3rd Year	
4th Year	
5th Year	
6th Year	

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

23. Do you use an assessment scale to evaluate the student's school-based teaching performance in his/her final year?

YES		NO	

IF YES

↓

Please indicate with a tick what kind of assessment scale is used :

Simple Pass/Fail	
Symbols, eg. A,B,C	
Percentages	
Other (Specify)	

_____

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

24. Approximately how many periods per week* do lecturers spend on teaching the student the theoretical aspects of teaching, and how many periods on teaching the practical aspects of teaching? (See Appendix I for working definitions of these terms).

ANSWER :

	THEORETICAL ASPECTS	PRACTICAL ASPECTS
1st Year		
2nd Year		
3rd Year		
4th Year		
5th Year		
6th Year		

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

25. The following grid constitutes a crucial part of the present research project, viz. determining the course content of the practical components of teacher education courses. Kindly assist us by completing the grid.

STEP ONE : Read Skill 1 in conjunction with the question in Column A.

STEP TWO : If your answer is YES, place a tick in the block under A opposite Skill 1; if your answer is NO, leave the block blank.

STEP THREE: Complete the blocks under A, B, C, D, E and F opposite Skill 1 in a similar manner.

STEP FOUR : Complete Column G by writing down the appropriate number.

STEP FIVE : Complete the blocks opposite the other skills in a similar manner.

NB : See Appendix II for a closer description of each skill

*As it holds true while the students are on campus, i.e. whey they are NOT busy doing teaching practice at schools.

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KEY TO COMPLETE GRID

COLUMN A : Is knowledge regarding the theoretical aspects of this skill presented to the student?

COLUMN B : Does the student take part in group discussions specifically designed to discuss this skill? If YES, state approximate number of students in a group : _____

COLUMN C : Is this skill actually demonstrated to the student?

COLUMN D : Is the student given a compulsory assignment to practice this skill individually?

COLUMN E : If groupwork is used, is the group given a compulsory group assignment to practice this skill?

COLUMN F : Is the student's degree of mastery of the skill evaluated? (i.e. is the assignment mentioned in Column D or E formally assessed?)

COLUMN G : Approximately how many periods in total are spent to help the student develop this particular skill, throughout the course (i.e. from his first to his last year)?

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YOUR ANSWER :

(Remember, a tick means YES in any column in respect to the list of skills)

COURSE CONTENT GRID

S K I L L S	DEPTH OF COVERAGE						
	THEORY	GROUPS	DEMONSTRATION	INDIVIDUAL ASSIGNMENTS	GROUP ASSIGNMENTS	EVALUATION	NO. OF PERIODS
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1. Chalkboard work							
2. Classroom management							
3. Computer-assisted instruction							
4. Concept learning							
5. Demonstration							
6. Evaluation							
7. Excursions							
8. Extra-mural activities							
9. Games							
10. Groupwork							
11. Guided discussion							
12. Lesson preparation							
13. Models							
14. Narration							
15. Objectives							
16. Overhead projectors							
17. Programmed instruction							
18. Questioning							
19. Role play							
20. Slide shows							
21. Transparencies							
22. Television teaching							
23. Worksheet construction							

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

26. Which other practical teaching skills, not mentioned in your previous answer, are taught to the students at your institution? Use the same procedure for these items as used in Question 25.

ANSWER :

S K I L L	DEPTH OF COVERAGE						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G

REMARKS : (If any) _____

_____

_____

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27. What strategies do you employ for the revision and renewal of your teaching practice programme?

ANSWER : _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

28. Kindly states the names of books, learning packages, teaching programmes, and other software available on the free market which you have found particularly useful in helping students to master practical teaching skills.

TITLE OF BOOK/PROGRAMME	AUTHOR/COMPILER	PUBLISHER	SKILL TAUGHT

END OF PART TWO

APPENDIX II

TABLE A : BREAKDOWN OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS 12, 13 AND 14 INTO FOUR CATEGORIES (Institutional Survey)

NB: The 52% institutions not represented here either cater mainly for post-graduate students, or left these questions unanswered, or fall outside these categories.

RESPONDENT NUMBER	NUMBER OF COURSES					NO. OF CONTACT HOURS PER WEEK				
	1st YEAR	2nd YEAR	3rd YEAR	4th YEAR	TOTAL	1st YEAR	2nd YEAR	3rd YEAR	4TH YEAR	TOTAL
24	13	11	11		35	32	32	32		
29	18	15	11		44	30	30	30		
33	14	11	8		33	30	30	30		
34	11	10	10		31	27	27	27		
37	18	16	14		48	34	34	34		
38	9	7	7		23	30	30	30		
39	13	10	10		33	30	30	30		
41	9	10	8		27	27	27	27		
46	15	14	12		41	31	31	31		
47	12	12	10		34	30	30	30		
AVERAGE :	13,1	11,3	9,8		34,2	30,1	30,1	30,1		30,1
21	10	9	5		23	23	23	23		
26	5	5	5	4	18	16	17	16	17	
40	12	11	7	7	30	24	22	20	18	
43	7	7	6	5	25	24	23	23	21	
45	5	3	3	3	14	27	27	27	27	
49	9	8	7	6	24	28	23	21	20	
AVERAGE :	8	7,2	5,3	5	22,3	23,6	22,5	21,6	20,6	22,1
23	4	5	4	7	20	12	11	12	19	
30	5	4	3	8	20	17	13	10	17	
31	5	3	2	6	16	17	17	17	17	
AVERAGE :	4,7	4	3	7	18,6	15,3	13,6	13	17,7	14,9
1	5	6	6	2	19	23	23	15	8	
2	3	3	3	4	15	15	15	15	15	
13	6	8	3	4	21	13	13	13	13	
14	5	3	3	4	15	28	28	28	22	
16	10	7	6	5	30	15	15	18	18	
18	5	6	4	5	20	12	12	12	13	
AVERAGE :	5,7	5,5	4,2	4	20	17,7	17,7	16,8	14,8	16,8

APPENDIX II (CONT) TABLE B OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING PRACTICE (Institutional Survey)

NOTE : 5 respondents from overseas and 3 from South Africa left this question unanswered

INSTITUTIONS OUTSIDE SOUTH AFRICA																INSTITUTIONS INSIDE SOUTH AFRICA																													TOTAL	TOTAL	%	%	%
RESPONDENT NUMBER	1	2	4	5	6	8	10	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	23	24	25	26	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	AVE.
1. CHALKBOARD	x	x	x	x				x			x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	9	25	60	86	73
2. CLASS MANAGEMENT	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	15	29	100	100	100
3. COMPUTER-AIDED INST.		x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x			x	x	x			x	x	x				x			x		x			x	x	x	x	x	12	16	80	55	68
4. CONCEPT LEARNING	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x	13	25	87	86	87
5. DEMONSTRATION	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x	12	24	80	83	82
6. EVALUATION	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x	15	25	100	86	93
7. EXCURSIONS		x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x				x	x			x	x		x	x	x					x		x		x				x	x	10	14	67	48	58
8. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVI.	x		x	x	x			x		x	x	x		x		x	x	x			x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x			x	x	x	9	22	60	76	68
9. GAMES	x		x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x		x	x	11	22	73	76	75
10. GROUPWORK	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	14	25	93	86	90
11. GUIDED DISCUSSION	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	14	23	93	79	86
12. LESSON PREPARATION	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	15	28	100	97	99
13. MODELS	x	x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x		x	x	x			x	11	20	73	69	71
14. NARRATION	x	x	x	x				x		x	x	x	x	x		x		x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x			x	x	x	10	21	67	72	70
15. OBJECTIVES	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	15	23	100	79	90
16. O.B.P.		x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	11	24	73	83	78
17. PROGRAMMED INSTRUC.	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x			x	x				x		x				x		x			x	x	x	x			x	x	13	14	87	48	68
18. QUESTIONING	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	15	29	100	100	100
19. ROLE PLAY	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x		x		x			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	13	20	87	69	78
20. SLIDE SHOWS	x	x	x	x			x	x		x	x	x		x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x		x		x		x		x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	10	21	67	72	70
21. TRANSPARENCIES		x	x	x			x	x		x	x	x		x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	9	23	60	79	70
22. T.V. TEACHING	x	x		x			x	x		x	x	x		x		x	x	x			x		x			x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	9	20	60	69	65
23. WORKSHEET CONSTRUC.	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x			x	x	x		x	x				x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x		x			x		x	x		11	16	73	55	64

1. CAMPUS-BASED

NUMBER OF PERIODS INSTITUTIONS SPEND ON TEACHING GIVEN SKILLS ON CAMPUS

ITEM	INSTITUTIONS OUTSIDE SOUTH AFRICA										INSTITUTIONS INSIDE SOUTH AFRICA																						TOTAL NO. OF PERIODS INSTITUTIONS COMBINED USE TO TEACH THIS SKILL		% OF TIME SPENT ON THIS SKILL IN RELATION TO TOTAL		
RESPONDENT NO.	1	2	5	13	14	15	16	17	18	20	23	24	26	29	30	31	32	33	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	45	47	49	50	52	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	AVERAGE
1. CHALKBOARD	2	2	1	1	4	0	2	1	1	2	3	1	45	20	1	1	3	20	1	14	2	1	16	15	1	25	26	1	48	2	15	1	16	262	1,1	7,6	4,4
2. CLASSROOM MANAG.	40	14	12	8	55	15	12	12	10	10	2	14	40	80	12	15	2	5	3	14	2	3	40	18	3	50	10	15	80	8	6	14	188	436	13,1	12,6	12,9
3. COMPUTER-AIDED INS.	0	6	20	4	50	0	6	45	8	50	1	1	0	1	1	10	5	0	16	2	0	0	0	5	0	25	10	2	0	0	0	1	199	80	13,1	2,3	7,7
4. CONCEPT LEARNING	2	1	12	3	12	5	6	4	5	50	2	4	0	20	5	0	15	5	2	2	4	0	0	15	4	50	10	10	40	3	4	4	100	199	7,0	5,8	6,4
5. DEMONSTRATION	4	1	12	2	18	2	2	2	0	35	2	4	60	12	5	4	3	5	8	2	2	10	5	20	3	25	6	10	10	3	2	4	78	205	5,4	5,9	5,6
6. EVALUATION	12	8	6	6	25	30	6	2	5	0	3	2	25	5	2	2	6	5	2	2	3	2	5	10	1	25	2	0	20	3	4	2	100	131	7,0	3,8	5,4
7. EXCURSIONS	0	1	12	1	10	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	3	0	0	1	1	20	1	2	0	1	50	0	5	0	0	1	26	89	1,9	2,6	2,2
8. EXTRA-MURAL ACT.	2	0	20	1	2	5	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	2	8	5	8	1	3	0	2	15	2	25	50	0	60	0	1	1	32	188	2,2	5,4	3,8
9. GAMES	2	0	12	1	10	2	1	1	0	30	0	1	90	1	1	2	8	0	8	14	3	0	2	5	2	25	48	10	60	1	0	1	60	282	4,2	8,2	6,2
10. GROUPWORK	10	4	6	2	12	3	3	3	4	15	2	8	0	5	6	0	25	5	6	4	3	0	2	3	4	25	20	20	18	2	4	8	62	170	4,3	4,9	4,6
11. GUIDED DISCUSSION	20	4	12	6	4	3	2	4	2	5	0	2	0	5	2	0	10	5	2	4	2	0	2	5	0	25	10	10	18	2	2	2	62	98	4,3	2,8	3,5
12. LESSON PREPARATION	30	8	12	4	12	15	2	3	5	5	2	2	50	15	4	2	30	30	10	4	3	5	2	20	4	25	14	20	15	3	5	2	96	267	6,7	7,7	7,2
13. MODELS	2	1	25	3	4	3	1	1	0	0	1	1	10	1	2	1	4	0	1	4	3	10	1	5	0	25	2	0	20	1	0	1	40	93	2,8	2,7	2,7
14. NARRATION	2	1	40	0	0	3	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	4	6	10	4	1	1	3	4	4	0	25	8	0	20	0	2	2	48	99	3,3	2,9	3,1
15. OBJECTIVES	6	1	40	8	12	10	2	3	5	10	2	1	0	2	3	0	2	20	2	4	1	2	0	3	0	25	8	0	20	0	4	1	97	100	6,7	2,9	4,8
16. O.H.P.	1	1	12	0	12	2	1	1	1	2	2	4	10	3	1	2	2	15	1	1	2	5	9	3	0	25	4	15	2	1	6	4	33	117	2,3	3,4	2,8
17. PROGRAMMED INSTR.	2	1	15	0	3	3	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	0	25	0	0	10	0	0	1	29	46	2,0	1,3	1,7
18. QUESTIONING	2	4	12	4	6	6	6	2	2	0	3	9	10	5	2	4	10	10	3	4	1	10	4	10	4	25	10	0	20	3	8	9	44	164	3,1	4,7	3,9
19. ROLE PLAY	6	0	20	0	4	2	1	2	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	2	4	5	0	1	1	10	0	3	0	25	0	0	10	3	0	1	37	68	2,6	2,0	2,3
20. SLIDE SHOWS	4	1	12	0	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	5	8	2	1	2	2	5	1	1	1	10	0	3	0	25	4	0	2	0	6	5	25	84	1,7	2,4	2,0
21. TRANSPARENCIES	0	1	12	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	0	4	8	4	1	2	2	15	0	4	3	5	9	3	0	25	4	0	5	0	4	4	21	102	1,5	3,0	2,3
22. T.V. TEACHING	2	1	12	0	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	1	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	4	1	30	6	2	0	25	4	10	20	0	2	1	21	112	1,5	3,2	2,4
23. WORKSHEET CONSTR.	2	4	12	0	1	1	0	0	2	10	1	1	0	0	1	0	10	0	2	2	1	10	2	4	0	25	6	0	0	0	2	0	32	67	2,2	1,9	2,1
	153	65	349	54	260	117	60	93	53	234	31	71	356	190	55	57	161	165	80	91	43	136	112	178	28	601	306	113	503	35	77	76	1438	3459	100	100	100

2. SCHOOL-BASED

NUMBER OF WEEKS STUDENTS SPEND DOING TEACHING PRACTICE AT SCHOOL

RESPONDENT NO.	UNDERGRADUATE AND/OR DIPLOMA STUDENTS: OUTSIDE SOUTH AFRICA									INSIDE SOUTH AFRICA																							POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS: TOT OSA	TOT ISA	$\bar{X}$ OSA	$\bar{X}$ ISA	$\bar{X}$ OUTSIDE SOUTH AFRICA											INSIDE SOUTH AFRICA										$\bar{X}$ OSA	$\bar{X}$ ISA
	1	2	11	13	16	17	18	19	20	21	23	24	26	29	30	31	33	34	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	49	40	52						3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	14	15	22	32	35	36	48	51					
	11	20	13	17	23	19	18	8	30	15	10	15	17	16	9	10	11	10	10	8	14	9	8	8	20	8	16	8	10	12	16	10	159	270	17,7	11,7	14,7	11	6	14	13	12	12	18	10	12	12	13	7	8	9	7	10	7	133	48	12,1	8	10

APPENDIX II (CONT) TABLE D : TEACHING STRATEGIES IN CAMPUS-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

(Institutional Survey)

	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS USING DIFFERENT STRATEGIES												AVERAGE		
	DEPTH OF COVERAGE AT INSTITUTIONS OUTSIDE SOUTH AFRICA						DEPTH OF COVERAGE OF INSTITUTIONS INSIDE SOUTH AFRICA								
ITEM	A	B	C	D	E	F	A	B	C	D	E	F	O.S.A.	I.S.A.	OVERALL
1. CHALKBOARD	2	5	4	2	2	0	1	8	6	11	2	0	1	3	2
2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	0	0	6	4	4	1	0	5	12	8	2	2	2	2	2
3. COMPUTER-AIDED INSTRUCTION	2	1	3	3	2	4	11	7	8	3	0	0	5	0	2-3
4. CONCEPT LEARNING	1	4	2	2	2	4	5	6	4	6	8	0	3	4	3-4
5. DEMONSTRATION	0	4	3	4	2	2	2	4	8	9	5	1	2	3	2-3
6. EVALUATION	0	3	2	7	1	2	3	9	8	6	2	1	3	1	2
7. EXCURSIONS	3	6	0	0	1	3	11	11	4	1	1	1	1	0,5	0-1
8. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES	4	6	3	0	0	2	5	7	11	4	2	0	1	2	1-2
9. GAMES	3	6	1	1	0	4	5	8	10	4	1	1	1	2	1-2
10. GROUPWORK	0	3	2	6	0	4	3	2	8	7	6	3	3	2	2-3
11. GUIDED DISCUSSION	1	2	6	2	1	3	5	5	11	4	3	1	2	2	2
12. LESSON PREPARATION	0	2	1	4	5	3	1	0	5	7	9	7	4	4	4
13. MODELS	3	6	1	2	0	3	7	6	7	3	2	4	1	1	1
14. NARRATION	4	4	3	2	0	2	7	5	9	1	6	1	1	2	1-2
15. OBJECTIVES	0	4	3	2	2	4	6	6	7	4	4	2	3	2	2-3
16. O.H.P.	0	5	6	1	1	2	3	1	12	7	5	1	2	2	2
17. PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION	0	5	6	2	0	2	14	7	6	2	0	0	2	0	1
18. QUESTIONING	0	3	1	6	2	3	0	4	9	3	9	4	3	3	3
19. ROLE PLAY	1	4	4	2	1	3	8	10	7	1	1	2	1,5	1	1
20. SLIDE SHOWS	1	7	4	1	0	2	5	5	10	4	3	2	1	2	1-2
21. TRANSPARENCIES	2	7	2	2	0	2	5	3	10	6	3	2	1	2	1-2
22. T.V. TEACHING	2	7	3	1	0	2	8	5	11	4	0	1	1	2	1-2
23. WORKSHEET CONSTRUCTION	2	3	7	1	0	2	12	4	3	6	4	0	2	0	1

KEY : A - NOT TAUGHT B - USING 1 METHOD C - USING 2 METHODS

D - USING 3 METHODS E - USING 4 METHODS F - USING 5 METHODS

APPENDIX II (CONT) TABLE E EVALUATION OF STUDENTS

SPECIFIC SKILLS THAT ARE EVALUATED AT VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS

	INSTITUTIONS OUTSIDE S.A.															INSTITUTIONS INSIDE S.A.																													TOTAL O.S.A.	TOTAL I.S.A.	% O.S.A.	% I.S.A.	% AVER.
RESPONDENT NO.	1	2	4	5	6	8	10	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	23	24	25	26	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52					
ITEM																																																	
1. CHALKBOARD									x						x	x	x	x		x	x	x			x	x		x		x	x			x	x				x	x		x	x		2	17	13	59	36
2. CLASSROOM MANAGE.	x		x				x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x		x	x		x		x	x	x	x										x		10	14	67	48	58
3. COMPUTER AIDED-INSTR				x					x		x	x		x	x			x									x																		6	2	40	7	24
4. CONCEPT LEARNING				x				x	x	x	x		x	x	x			x			x			x	x	x								x								x			8	7	53	24	39
5. DEMONSTRATION									x	x				x	x		x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x				x					x				x		4	14	27	48	38
6. EVALUATION	x		x	x				x	x	x			x	x			x	x		x	x			x	x	x			x				x	x			x						x		8	12	53	41	47
7. EXCURSIONS										x	x			x												x									x								x		3	3	20	10	15
8. EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVI.										x				x			x						x		x		x		x					x											2	6	13	21	17
9. GAMES									x	x	x			x	x	x				x						x	x	x	x					x	x				x						5	9	33	31	32
10. GROUPWORK	x								x				x	x	x		x		x						x	x		x			x			x						x		x			5	9	33	31	32
11. GUIDED DISCUSSION	x							x	x	x	x		x	x	x			x							x	x		x						x					x				x		8	7	53	24	39
12. LESSON PREPARATION	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x		x	x	x	11	25	73	86	80
13. MODELS				x				x	x	x	x			x		x		x				x				x		x			x			x											6	7	40	24	32
14. NARRATION				x						x				x		x		x		x					x	x									x			x							3	7	20	24	22
15. OBJECTIVES			x					x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x				x			x	x		x	x					x	x			x				x	x	x	8	13	53	45	49
16. O.H.P.									x	x				x	x	x		x		x			x		x	x									x		x					x			4	9	27	31	29
17. PROGRAMMED INSTRUC.										x	x			x				x																x											3	2	20	7	14
18. QUESTIONING			x					x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x		x			x		x	x		x			x			x	x				x				x		8	12	53	41	47
19. ROLE PLAY	x								x	x				x				x							x	x																			4	3	27	10	19
20. SLIDE SHOWS	x									x				x				x		x					x																	x			3	4	20	14	17
21. TRANSPARENCIES										x				x		x	x	x		x					x	x		x				x					x					x			2	10	13	35	24
22. T.V. TEACHING										x	x			x				x																								x			3	2	20	7	14
23. WORKSHEET CONSTR.	x									x			x	x	x			x								x	x	x			x	x		x	x							x	x		5	10	33	35	34
	8	0	5	6	0	0	2	8	15	20	11	2	9	22	13	9	9	19	1	11	6	4	6	4	16	18	6	12	5	4	7	4	3	14	9	0	4	2	6	3	0	10	10	2	121	204			

AVERAGE NO. OF SKILLS EVALUATED : O.S.A. = 8,1
I.S.A. = 7,0
$\bar{\bar{x}}$ = 7.6

APPENDIX III

SCHOOL AUTHORITY QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

INITIALS AND SURNAME OF RESPONDENT : DR/MR/MS : .....

.....

OFFICIAL ADDRESS : .....

.....

OFFICIAL POSITION HELD IN DEPARTMENT OF INDIAN EDUCATION :

.....

SECTION A

PURPOSE : to become familiar with the views of Indian school authorities regarding the campus-based teaching practice courses offered at the University of Durban-Westville

NB : Your answers to these questions constitute a crucual part of the present research project, viz determining what, in your opinion, the course content of our campus-based teaching practice courses should be.

1. Which practical teaching skills do you think should be taught to our BPaed-students on campus? What weighting should be given to the various skills?

   Please write down the percentage of time that should, in your opinion, be spent on each skill.

For your information

1. Feel free to disregard skills which you consider irrelevant and to add as many skills as you deem necessary.
2. Note that the university time-table for BPaed allows us approximately 120 hours to teach practical teaching skills, spread over three years (viz ±40 hours per year).
3. See Appendix I for a more detailed description of each skill.

ANSWER

	S K I L L	% OF TIME
1.	Chalkboard work	
2.	Classroom management	
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	
4.	Concept learning	
5.	Demonstration	
6.	Evaluation	
7.	Excursions	
8.	Extra-mural activities	
9.	Games	
10.	Groupwork	
11.	Guided discussion	
12.	Lesson preparation	
13.	Models	
14.	Narration	
15.	Objectives	
16.	Overhead projectors	
17.	Programmed instruction	
18.	Questioning	
19.	Role Play	
20.	Slide Shows	
21.	Transparencies	
22.	Television Teaching	
23.	Worksheet construction	
24.		
25.		
26.		
27.		
28.		
29.		
30.		
31.		
32.		
33.		
		100 %

Remarks, if any : _____

2. Which practical teaching skills do you think should be taught to our UHDE-students on campus? Which weighting should be given to the various skills?

For your information

1. Note that the university time-table for UHDE allows us approximately 50 hours to teach practical teaching skills.
2. Complete the form as you did for Question 1.
3. If your answer for this question is the same as for Question 1, leave the form blank.

P.T.O./Page 4

ANSWER

	S K I L L	% OF TIME
1.	Chalkboard work	
2.	Classroom management	
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	
4.	Concept learning	
5.	Demonstration	
6.	Evaluation	
7.	Excursions	
8.	Extra-mural activities	
9.	Games	
10.	Groupwork	
11.	Guided discussion	
12.	Lesson preparation	
13.	Models	
14.	Narration	
15.	Objectives	
16.	Overhead projectors	
17.	Programmed instruction	
18.	Questioning	
19.	Role play	
20.	Slide shows	
21.	Transparencies	
22.	Television Teaching	
23.	Worksheet construction	
24.		
25.		
26.		
27.		
28.		
29.		
30.		
31.		
32.		
33.		
		100 %

Remarks, if any : _____

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block:

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

9. Number of lessons observed

The minimum number of lessons each student is required to observe of class or subject teacher in action is as follows :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : 10 lessons
3rd year : 20 lessons
4th year : No, not specified

UHDE course

Final year : No, not specified

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alterna arrangement which you recommend :

(b) Who should be involved in the evaluation and revision of these courses?

ANSWER

(c) How should the courses be evaluated/revised? (eg. Through meetings? Symposia? Questionnaires?)

ANSWER

END OF SECTION A

SECTION B

PURPOSE : to become familiar with the views of Indian school authorities regarding the school-based teaching practice courses offered at the University of Durban-Westville.

6. Duration of block sessions

The duration of the block sessions (periods spent at school) are at the moment as follows :

BPaed-degree course (4 years)

1st year of study	:	nil
2nd year of study	:	2 weeks
3rd year of study	:	2 weeks
4th year of study	:	6 weeks
TOTAL	:	10 weeks

UHDE course (1 year)

Final year of study	:	6 weeks
TOTAL		6 weeks

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternativ arrangement which you recommend :

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. Times when block sessions occur

Student-teachers are required to do their block sessions at the following times :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : Any two weeks at the beginning of the year before the university opens

3rd year : As in 2nd year

4th year : Three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three week at the beginning of the third term

UHDE course

Final year : Two weeks in January/February. Then three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three weeks at the beginning of the third term

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend.

8. Number of lessons taught

The minimum number of lessons for each session each student is required to teach, is as follows :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : 4 lessons

3rd year : 10 lessons

4th year : 84 newly prepared lessons (14 per week, spread out evenly amongst student's teaching subjects)

UHDE course

Final year : 84 newly prepared lessons (As for 4th year BPaed)

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block:

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. Number of lessons observed

The minimum number of lessons each student is required to observe of class or subject teacher in action is as follows :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : 10 lessons
3rd year : 20 lessons
4th year : No, not specified

UHDE course

Final year : No, not specified

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alterna arrangement which you recommend :

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Assignments during school-based teaching practice

Apart from teaching and observing lessons, most students are required to discuss the following topics with experienced teachers and to hand in written reports about them at the end of the block session. Please indicate how important you consider each of these topics to be by placing an X in the appropriate block opposite each item :

ANSWER

	I T E M	UNIMPORTANT	NOT TOO IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	VERY IMPOR-TANT
1.	Class registers				
2.	School assemblies				
3.	Teachers' duties besides teaching				
4.	School stock and it's control				
5.	Place of Journals, Schemes of Work, and Prep. books				
6.	Services available at Resource Centre				
7.	Out-of-school excursions				
8.	Administering tests and examinations				
9.	Observing and interpreting the classroom behaviour of three individual pupils				

Assignments (continued)

Which other kinds of assignments do you think should be given to student-teachers to do during their block sessions?

ANSWER : (Please add additional page if this space is inadequate)

11. Assessment

The assessment of a student's school-based teaching practice is based on the following data :

BPaed-degree course	UHDE course
2nd year : (a) Principal's report, (b) student's written assignments (c) tape-recording of one lesson	As for BPaed 4th year
3rd year : (a) Principal's report and (b) Student's written assignments	
4th year : (a) Principals report, (b) the evaluation of 10-15 lessons observed by various lecturers, and (c) any other relevant information regarding the student's conduct during the block session	

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as alternativ arrangements which you recommend. If you feel inspectors, principals. H.O.D.'S and/or teachers should be more actively involved in the assessment of students, please make specific suggestions to this effect.

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX IV - TABLE A

Average percentages of time that should be spend on teaching skills : school authority perspective

SKILL	% OF TIME	% OF RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL A PERFORMANCE TEST FOR THIS SKILL SHOULD BE COMPULSORY
1. Chalkboard work	5	46
2. Classroom management	7	64
3. Computer-assisted instruction	4	9
4. Concept learning	5	25
5. Demonstration	4	29
6. Evaluation	7	58
7. Excursions	2	5
8. Extra-mural activities	3	12
9. Games	2	3
10. Groupwork	3	19
11. Guided discussion	5	36
12. Lesson preparation	11	88
13. Models	2	10
14. Narration	3	19
15. Objectives	7	59
16. Overhead projectors	2	12
17. Programmed instruction	4	19
18. Questioning	6	51
19. Role Play	2	12
20. Slide Shows	2	9
21. Transparencies	3	14
22. Television Teaching	3	9
23. Worksheet construction	5	63
24. Other	3	12
	100	

APPENDIX IV - TABLE-B

NAME OF TEACHER : ..... REF. NO. .....

MERIT ASSESSMENT : CONTINUOUS EVALUATION

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A.	CURRICULAR EFFICIENCY							
1.	How effective is teacher's pupil control							
2.	How effective is delivery and presentation lesson							
3.	How effective is planning and presentation							
4.	What is the Std. of organisation							
5.	Std. of control, evaluation and rem. teaching							
6.	Achievement of educational objectives							
7.	How does he succeed in applying knowledge							
8.	Effectiveness of oral communication							
9.	Display of initiative and originality							
10.	Use of educ. aids to enhance Std. of teaching							
11.	Success of effectiveness & remedial programme							
12.	How successful does he involve pupils in les.							
13.	Effectiveness of presence of teacher in classroom							
14.	Teachers approach to pupils & concern - pupil							
15.	Concern for Dept. & school property & equipment							
B.	EXTRA-CURRICULAR EFFICIENCY							
1.	Effectiveness discipline & control over group							
2.	Extent involved in school activities							
3.	Std. of organisation and administration							
4.	QUality of his guidance/std. of instruction							
5.	MOtivation & inspiration - pupils extra-curri.							
C.	PERSONALITY, CHARACTER TRAITS & QUALITY							
1.	Quality of personality traits							
2.	Quality of his character traits							
3.	His human relationships can be described as							
4.	Personal image projected can be described as							
5.	Leadership qualities & leadership potential							
D.	PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDE							
1.	Extent/degree endeavoured to promote profess.							
2.	Conduct/behaviour towards pupils, col, author							
3.	Degree/extent involved in prof. act/matters.							
4.	Recent endeavours to improve prof. efficiency							
5.	Standing enjoyed in community							

APPENDIX IV - TABLE C

BREAKDOWN OF UNITS IN FIRST BLOCK SESSION - B.PAED COURSE

		APPROX. HOU ALLOWED
UNIT 1 : WORKSHEETS IN TEACHING		
1.	Prepare and teach 5 lessons; in at least 3 lessons worksheets must be used; at least 1 lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons an assignment must be given.	12
2.	Mark one set of assignments and record marks	3
3.	Observe 5 lessons and write down comments	3½
4.	Learn to type and duplicate worksheet	7
5.	Practice accurate record-keeping, especially pupil's Record Cards, Marking books, Journals, and Schemes of Work	2
	TOTAL	27½
UNIT 2 : QUESTIONING IN TEACHING		
1.	Prepare and teach 5 lessons; in at least 3 lessons questioning must figure prominently; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons a test must be administered	12
2.	Mark one set of tests and record marks	3
3.	Observation as in Unit 1.3	3½
4.	Study compulsory Educational Act and rules contained in Principal's handbook	3
5.	Conduct and organize one extra-mural activity, preferably sport	4
6.	Record-keeping as in Unit 1.5	2
	TOTAL	27½
UNIT 3 : DIFFERENTIATION IN TEACHING		
1.	Prepare and teach 5 lessons; in at least 3 lessons differentiation must figure prominently; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons an assignment must be given	12
2.	Marking as in Unit 1.2	3
3.	Observing as in Unit 1.3	3½
4.	Practice to help problem-children with the assistance of Guidance teacher, and study problem cases	7
5.	Record-keeping as in Unit 1.5	2
	TOTAL	27½

APPENDIX IV - TABLE C (continued)

	APPROX. HOURS ALLOWED
UNIT 4 : USING TEACHING AIDS	
1. Prepare and teach 5 lessons; in at least 3 lessons various teaching aids must be used; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons a test must be administered	12
2. Marking as in Unit 2.2	3
3. Observing as in Unit 1.3	$3\frac{1}{2}$
4. Problem-children as in Unit 3.4	2
5. Extra-mural activity as in Unit 2.5	3
6. Make an in-depth-study of the school history of one pupil, preferably a slow learner	2
7. Record-keeping as in Unit 1 - 5	2
TOTAL	$27\frac{1}{2}$
UNIT 5 : DEVELOPING A PERSONAL STYLE	
1. Prepare and teach 5 lessons using the methods that you consider best; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons an assignment must be given	12
2. Marking as in Unit 1.2	3
3. Observation as in Unit 1.3	$3\frac{1}{2}$
4. Practice classroom management skills by serving relief $\pm$ 6 times	4
5. Extra-mural activity as in Unit 2.5	3
6. Record-keeping as in Unit 1.5	2
TOTAL	$27\frac{1}{2}$

APPENDIX IV - TABLE D

BREAKDOWN OF UNITS IN SECOND BLOCK SESSION - B.PAED COURSE

	APPROX. HOURS
UNIT 1 : WORKSHEETS IN TEACHING	
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons; in at least 3 lessons worksheets must be used; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lesson an assignment must be given	10
2. Mark one set of assignments and record marks	3
3. Organize and conduct one cultural activity, eg. a debate, play, or excursion	5
TOTAL	28
UNIT 2 : QUESTIONING IN TEACHING	
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons; in at least 3 lessons questioning must figure prominently; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons a test must be administered	20
2. Mark one set of tests and record marks	3
3. Make an in-depty-study of the school history of one pupil, preferably a bright child	2
4. Conduct and organize one extra-mural activity, preferably sport	3
TOTAL	28
UNIT 3 : DIFFERENTIATION IN TEACHING	
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons; in at least 3 lessons differentiation must figure prominently; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons an assignment must be given	20
2. Marking as in Unit 1	3
3. Make an in-depth-study of the school history of one pupil, preferably an average learner	2
4. Conduct and organize one extra-mural activity, preferably sport	3
TOTAL	28

APPENDIX IV - TABLE D (continued)

UNIT 4 : USING TEACHING AIDS	APPROX. HOURS
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons; in at least 3 lessons various teaching aids must be used; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons a test must be administered	20
2. Marking as in Unit 2.2	3
3. Organise and conduct a workshop with staff members; parents and students	5
TOTAL	28
UNIT 5 : DEVELOPING A PERSONAL STYLE (1)	
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons using the methods you consider best; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons an assignment must be given	20
2. Marking as in Unit 1.2	3
3. Practise classroom management skills by serving relief at least 7 times	5
TOTAL	28
UNIT 6 : DEVELOPING A PERSONAL STYLE (2)	
1. Prepare and teach 10 lessons using the methods you consider best; at least one lesson must be a remedial lesson; in one of the lessons a test must be administered	28
2. Marking as in Unit 2.2	3
3. Become familiar with requirements regarding the promotion of pupils	5
TOTAL	28

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME OF STUDENT: ..... **REG. NO.:** .....

Purpose: **To identify views held by final year student teachers regarding teaching practice courses offered at this University.**

1. Which of the following skills do you think should be taught explicitly to student teachers?

(See Appendix A for a closer description of each skill).

KINDLY TICK THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK

1.	Chalkboard work	
2.	Classroom management	
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	
4.	Concept learning	
5.	Demonstration	
6.	Evaluation	
7.	Excursions	
8.	Extra-mural activities	
9.	Games	
10.	Groupwork	
11.	Guided discussion	
12.	Lesson preparation	
13.	Models	
14.	Narration	
15.	Objectives	
16.	Overhead projectors	
17.	Programmed instruction	
18.	Questioning	
19.	Role play	
20.	Slide shows	
21.	Transparencies	
22.	Television teaching	
23.	Worksheet construction	

2. Apart from helping students to master the above skills, what other objectives do you think a Teaching Practice course should have?

ANSWER :

3. What do you think the ratio theory : practice should be in trying to achieve each objective? Please indicate how many practical periods there should be for each theoretical period, by filling in the appropriate block.

(See Appendix B for working definitions of theoretical and practical).

P.T.O./page 3

	No of Periods	
	Theory	Practical
1. Chalkboard work	1	
2. Classroom management	1	
3. Computer-assisted Instruction	1	
4. Concept learning	1	
5. Demonstration	1	
6. Evaluation	1	
7. Excursions	1	
8. Extra-mural activities	1	
9. Games	1	
10. Groupwork	1	
11. Guided discussion	1	
12. Lesson preparation	1	
13. Models	1	
14. Narration	1	
15. Objectives	1	
16. Overhead projectors	1	
17. Programmed instruction	1	
18. Questioning	1	
19. Role play	1	
20. Slide shows	1	
21. Transparencies	1	
22. Television teaching	1	
23. Worksheet construction	1	
Other (please specify): 24.	1	
25.	1	
26.	1	
27.	1	
28.	1	

Remarks, if any : _____

4. What weighting do you think should be given to the various objectives in a campus-based teaching practice course? Please fill in your version on page 5.

Example

		%
1.	Chalkboard work	2
2.	Classroom management	5
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	1
4.	Concept learning	5
5.	Demonstration	3
6.	Evaluation	8
7.	Excursions	2
8.	Extra-mural activities	3
9.	Games	4
10.	Groupwork	7
11.	Guided discussion	7
12.	Lesson preparation	8
13.	Models	2
14.	Narration	4
15.	Objectives	4
16.	Overhead projectors	1
17.	Programmed instruction	2
18.	Questioning	8
19.	Role play	2
20.	Slide shows	4
21.	Transparencies	3
22.	Television teaching	3
23.	Worksheet construction	2
	Other (please specify):	
24.	Integration of above skills	10
		100

P.T.O./page 5

5

YOUR ANSWER

%

1.	Chalkboard work	
2.	Classroom management	
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	
4.	Concept learning	
5.	Demonstration	
6.	Evaluation	
7.	Excursions	
8.	Extra-mural activities	
9.	Games	
10.	Groupwork	
11.	Guided discussion	
12.	Lesson preparation	
13.	Models	
14.	Narration	
15.	Objectives	
16.	Overhead projectors	
17.	Programmed instruction	
18.	Questioning	
19.	Role play	
20.	Slide shows	
21.	Transparencies	
22.	Television teaching	
23.	Worksheet construction	
	Other (please specify):	
24.		
25.		
26.		
27.		
28.		
		100

Remarks, if any : _____

5. Which of the skills mentioned should be formally assessed, i.e. for which skills should passing a performance test be made compulsory for all students?

6.

For your information

Often students are allowed to choose which skills they want to put into practice during their school-based experience, thus enabling them to pass merely by avoiding certain skills.

ANSWER

_____

_____

_____

6. Duration of block sessions

The duration of the block sessions (periods spent at school) are at the moment as follows :

BPaed-degree course (4 years)			UHDE course (1 year)		
1st year of study	:	nil	Final year of study	:	6 weeks
2nd year of study	:	2 weeks	TOTAL		6 weeks
3rd year of study	:	2 weeks			
4th year of study	:	6 weeks			
TOTAL	:	10 weeks			

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternativ arrangement which you recommend :

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. Times when block sessions occur

Student-teachers are required to do their block sessions at the following times :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : Any two weeks at the beginning of the year before the university opens

3rd year : As in 2nd year

4th year : Three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three week at the beginning of the third term

UHDE course

Final year : Two weeks in January/February. Then three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three weeks at the beginning of the third term

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend.

8. Number of lessons taught

The minimum number of lessons for each session each student is required to teach, is as follows :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : 4 lessons

3rd year : 10 lessons

4th year : 84 newly prepared lessons (14 per week, spread out evenly amongst student's teaching subjects)

UHDE course

Final year : 84 newly prepared lessons (As for 4th year BPaed)

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block:

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

9. Number of lessons observed

The minimum number of lessons each student is required to observe of class or subject teacher in action is as follows :

BPaed-degree course

2nd year : 10 lessons
3rd year : 20 lessons
4th year : No, not specified

UHDE course

Final year : No, not specified

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

9.

10. Assignments during school-based teaching practice

Apart from teaching and observing lessons, most students are required to discuss the following topics with experienced teachers and to hand in written reports about them at the end of the block session. Please indicate how important you consider each of these topics to be by placing an X in the appropriate block opposite each item :

ANSWER

	ITEM	UNIMPORTANT	NOT TOO IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	VERY IMPOR-TANT
1.	Class registers				
2.	School assemblies				
3.	Teachers' duties besides teaching				
4.	School stock and it's control				
5.	Place of Journals, Schemes of Work, and Prep. books				
6.	Services available at Resource Centre				
7.	Out-of-school excursions				
8.	Administering tests and examinations				
9.	Observing and interpreting the classroom behaviour of three individual pupils				

Assignments (continued)

Which other kinds of assignments do you think should be given to student-teachers to do during their block sessions?

ANSWER : (Please add additional page if this space is inadequate)

11. Assessment

The assessment of a student's school-based teaching practice is based on the following data :

BPaed-degree course	UHDE course
2nd year : (a) Principal's report, (b) student's written assignments (c) tape-recording of one lesson	As for BPaed 4th year
3rd year : (a) Principal's report and (b) Student's written assignments	
4th year : (a) Principals report, (b) the evaluation of 10-15 lessons observed by various lecturers, and (c) any other relevant information regarding the student's conduct during the block session	

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as alternative arrangements which you recommend. If you feel inspectors, principals, H.O.D.'S and/or teachers should be more actively involved in the assessment of students, please make specific suggestions to this effect.

_____

_____

_____

12. General

Do you have any other suggestions, criticism, or general comments to make about our teaching practice courses? Kindly do so in the space below.

ANSWER (Please add additional page if this space is inadequate):

APPENDIX VI

TABLE A : STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE (Questions 1-5)

		AVERAGE % OF TIME THAT SHOULD BE DEVOTED TO SKILL	AVERAGE NO. OF PRACTICAL PERIODS FOR EACH THEORETICAL ONE	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT WANTS THIS SKILL FORMALLY ASSESSED	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO WANTS THIS SKILL TO BE TAUGHT ON CAMPUS
1.	CHALKBOARD	3	4	17	57
2.	CLASS MANAGEMENT	5	5	27	79
3.	COMPUTER ASSISTED-INSTRUCTION	4	4	2	31
4.	CONCEPT LEARNING	7	5	39	85
5.	DEMONSTRATION	4	4	8	42
6.	EVALUATION	5	5	14	57
7.	EXCURSIONS	3	4	0	27
8.	EXTRA-MURAL ACTIVITIES	3	4	1	26
9.	GAMES	3	4	1	28
10.	GROUPWORK	5	4	9	46
11.	GUIDED DISCUSSION	6	4	19	68
12.	LESSON PREPARATION	7	4	35	98
13.	MODELS	3	3	1	26
14.	NARRATION	3	2	1	25
15.	OBJECTIVES	5	4	25	76
16.	O.H.P.	2	2	1	32
17.	PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION	3	2	1	30
18.	QUESTIONING	8	4	45	100
19.	ROLE PLAY	3	2	2	21
20.	SLIDE SHOWS	3	2	1	22
21.	TRANSPARENCIES	3	2	6	49
22.	T.V. TEACHING	4	2	5	39
23.	WORKSHEET CONSTRUCTION	5	4	12	53
	OTHER	3	?	?	?

TEACHING PRACTICE QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME OF RESPONDENT : .....

PURPOSE : To identify general views held by educationists at the University of Durban-Westville regarding the purposes of a Teaching Practice course.

NB : School-based Teaching Practice will be dealt with during small group discussions.

1. Which of the following skills do you think should be taught explicitly to student teachers?

(See Appendix A for a closer description of each skill).

KINDLY TICK THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK

1.	Chalkboard work	
2.	Classroom management	
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	
4.	Concept learning	
5.	Demonstration	
6.	Evaluation	
7.	Excursions	
8.	Extra-mural activities	
9.	Games	
10.	Groupwork	
11.	Guided discussion	
12.	Lesson preparation	
13.	Models	
14.	Narration	
15.	Objectives	
16.	Overhead projectors	
17.	Programmed instruction	
18.	Questioning	
19.	Role play	
20.	Slide shows	
21.	Transparencies	
22.	Television teaching	
23.	Worksheet construction	

2. Apart from helping students to master the above skills, what other objectives do you think a Teaching Practice course should have?

ANSWER :

3. What do you think the ratio theory : practice should be in trying to achieve each objective? Please indicate how many practical periods there should be for each theoretical period, by filling in the appropriate block.

(See Appendix B for working definitions of theoretical and practical).

P.T.O./page 3

	No of Periods	
	Theory	Practical
1. Chalkboard work	1	
2. Classroom management	1	
3. Computer-assisted Instruction	1	
4. Concept learning	1	
5. Demonstration	1	
6. Evaluation	1	
7. Excursions	1	
8. Extra-mural activities	1	
9. Games	1	
10. Groupwork	1	
11. Guided discussion	1	
12. Lesson preparation	1	
13. Models	1	
14. Narration	1	
15. Objectives	1	
16. Overhead projectors	1	
17. Programmed instruction	1	
18. Questioning	1	
19. Role play	1	
20. Slide shows	1	
21. Transparencies	1	
22. Television teaching	1	
23. Worksheet construction	1	
Other (please specify):		
24.	1	
25.	1	
26.	1	
27.	1	
28.	1	

Remarks, if any : _____

4. What weighting do you think should be given to the various objectives in a campus-based teaching practice course? Please fill in your version on page 5.

Example

		%
1.	Chalkboard work	2
2.	Classroom management	5
3.	Computer-assisted instruction	1
4.	Concept learning	5
5.	Demonstration	3
6.	Evaluation	8
7.	Excursions	2
8.	Extra-mural activities	3
9.	Games	4
10.	Groupwork	7
11.	Guided discussion	7
12.	Lesson preparation	8
13.	Models	2
14.	Narration	4
15.	Objectives	4
16.	Overhead projectors	1
17.	Programmed instruction	2
18.	Questioning	8
19.	Role play	2
20.	Slide shows	4
21.	Transparencies	3
22.	Television teaching	3
23.	Worksheet construction	2
	Other (please specify):	
24.	Integration of above skills	10
		100

P.T.O./page 5

YOUR ANSWER

546

%

1. Chalkboard work	
2. Classroom management	
3. Computer-assisted instruction	
4. Concept learning	
5. Demonstration	
6. Evaluation	
7. Excursions	
8. Extra-mural activities	
9. Games	
10. Groupwork	
11. Guided discussion	
12. Lesson preparation	
13. Models	
14. Narration	
15. Objectives	
16. Overhead projectors	
17. Programmed instruction	
18. Questioning	
19. Role play	
20. Slide shows	
21. Transparencies	
22. Television teaching	
23. Worksheet construction	
Other (please specify): 24.	
25.	
26.	
27.	
28.	
	100

Remarks, if any : _____

5. Please indicate which of the following times you would be able to participate in a small group discussion regarding Teaching Practice programmes. Each member will be requested to attend only one session of 60 minutes. Kindly tick the time slots when you will be available :

DAY & DATE	P E R I O D S			
	1 & 2	3 & 4	5 & 6	6 & 7
Monday, 29 October				
Tuesday, 30 October				
Wednesday, 31 October				
Thursday, 1 November				
Friday, 2 November				
Monday, 5 November				

6. Should you wish to make any general comments regarding Teaching Practice or this research project, please do so in the space below.

CONCLUSION

We thank you most sincerely for the time, effort, and patience which you have invested in completing this questionnaire. I shall contact you again as soon as we are ready to put the second phase into operation.

TEACHING PRACTICE - TUTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME OF TUTOR : .....

PURPOSE : To identify views held by staff members regarding teaching practice courses offered at this University.

SECTION I : SCHOOL-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

1 DURATION OF BLOCK SESSIONS

The duration of the block sessions (periods spent at school) are at the moment as follows :

BPAED-DEGREE COURSE (4 YEARS)

1st year of study	:	Nil
2nd year of study	:	2 Weeks
3rd year of study	:	2 Weeks
4th year of study	:	6 Weeks
TOTAL	:	10 Weeks

UHDE COURSE (1 YEAR)

Final year of study	:	8 Weeks
TOTAL		8 Weeks

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER (PLEASE MARK AN "X" IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK) :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

_____

_____

_____

2 TIMES WHEN BLOCK SESSIONS OCCUR

Student-teachers are required to do their block sessions at the following times :

BPAED-DEGREE COURSE

2nd year : Any two weeks at the beginning of the year before the university opens

3rd year : As in 2nd year

UHDE COURSE

Final year : Two weeks in January/ February. Then three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three weeks

4th year : Three weeks at the beginning of the second term and three week at the beginning of the third term at the beginning of the third term

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER (PLEASE MARK AN "X" IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK) :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend.

3 NUMBER OF LESSONS TAUGHT

The minimum number of lessons for each session each student is required to teach, is as follows :

BPAED-DEGREE COURSE

2nd year : 4 lessons

3rd year : 10 lessons

4th year : 84 newly prepared lessons (14 per week, spread out evenly amongst student's teaching subjects)

UHDE COURSE

Final year : 84 newly prepared lessons (As for BPaed 4th year)

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER (PLEASE MARK AN "X" IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK) :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

4 NUMBER OF LESSONS OBSERVED

The minimum number of lessons each student is required to observe of class or subject teacher in action is as follows :

BPAED-DEGREE COURSE

2nd year : 10 lessons

3rd year : 20 lessons

4th year : Not specified

UHDE COURSE

Final year : Not specified

What are your views about this arrangement?

ANSWER (PLEASE MARK AN "X" IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK) :

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

If you disagree, kindly state your reasons, as well as an alternative arrangement which you recommend :

5 ASSIGNMENTS DURING SCHOOL-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

Apart from teaching and observing lessons, most students are required to discuss the following topics with experienced teachers and to hand in written reports about them at the end of the block session. Please indicate how important you consider each of these topics to be by placing an "X" in the appropriate block opposite each item :

P.T.O./PAGE 4 ...

APPENDIX VII (CONT.)

ANSWER

	I T E M	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	RATHER IMPORTANT	NOT TOO IMPORTANT	UNIMPORTANT
1.	Class registers					
2.	School assemblies					
3.	Teachers' duties besides teaching					
4.	School stock and it's control					
5.	Place of Journals, Schemes of Work, and Prep. Book					
6.	Services available at Resource Centre					
.	Out-of-school excursions					
8.	Administering tests and examinations					
9.	Observing and interpreting the classroom behaviour of three Individual pupils					

REMARKS, IF ANY : _____

P.T.O./PAGE 5...

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following three statements by placing an "X" in the appropriate block opposite each statement :

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY
6	During block sessions it should be optional for students to use the methods and techniques they consider to be most appropriate in their situation.					
7	To improve the quality of our students' teaching there should be more agreement among lecturers about criteria for the evaluation of lessons.					
8	Students doing school-based Teaching Practice should be allowed to pass only on attendance, i.e. on the strength of a satisfactory report from the school.					

REMARKS, IF ANY : _____

SECTION II : CAMPUS-BASED TEACHING PRACTICE

9 What are your views about the following statement :

Students should be allowed to pass campus-based Teaching Practice only on attendance, i.e. if they have attended 80% of the T.P. workshops (as prescribed by the Calender).

AGREE STRONGLY	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

NB : If you AGREE or AGREE STRONGLY, please skip Questions 10 and 11, and proceed to Question 12.

REMARKS, IF ANY : _____

_____

_____

_____

10 Which of the units below should be formally assessed, i.e. for which ones should passing a performance test be made compulsory for all students?

Please underline the units which you feel should be assessed.

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

Often students are allowed to choose which skills they want to put into practice during their school-based experience, thus they are able to pass merely by avoiding certain "difficult" skills.

TEACHING METHODS	TEACHING SKILLS	COMPLEX SKILLS
Demonstration	Making Models	Conducting excursions
Games	Making pictures & Charts	Constructing worksheets
Groupwork	Making slide shows	Fostering concept learning
GUided Discussion	Making transparencies	Preparing lessons
Narration	Using the chalkboard	Questioning
Programmed Instruction	Using the O.H.P.	Setting & Marking tests
Role Play	Using tape recorders	Stating objectives

REMARKS, IF ANY : _____

_____

_____

11 On approximately how many sets of marks should a Teaching Practice tutor (on campus) base the final year mark which he/she allocates to a student?

Please indicate your preference by placing an "X" in the appropriate block.

0	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 - 6	7 - 8	9 - 10	MORE

REMARKS, IF ANY : _____

12 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement :
All lecturers involved in Didactics, Subject Didactics, and Teaching Practice should encourage students to use the same format in their lesson preparation notes.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	DISAGREE STRONGLY

REMARKS, IF ANY _____

GENERAL

Do you have any other suggestions, criticism, or general comments to make about our Teaching Practice courses? Kindly list these in the space below.

REMARKS

Thank you very much for giving us some of your time to fill in this questionnaire.

APPENDIX VIII : BREAKDOWN OF MODULES FOR CAMPUS-BASED PROGRAMME : COURSE-TEAM VIEW

MODULE 1 : INTRODUCTION TO T.P.

Unit 1
1. Observe a lesson on video
2. Discuss the lesson, focussing on aspects of lesson preparation
3. Write a probable lesson note for the lesson
4. Write a lesson note for your own lesson

Unit 2
1. Discuss each other's lesson notes; tutor introduces concept of objectives
2. Discuss pro's and con's of behavioural objectives
3. Learn to write (behavioural) objectives

Unit 3
1. Discuss the objectives written during Unit 2.
2. Observe a second lesson on video.
3. Discuss lesson, focusing on the function of objectives
4. Practise writing objectives

Unit 4
1. Observe a third lesson (in which the teacher uses the chalkboard)
2. Discuss the lesson, focusing on lesson preparation, objectives and the chalkboard
3. Practise chalkboard work
4. Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons

Unit 5 Micro-teaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss each one; each lesson should centre upon an objective and the chalkboard, and be accompanied by a lesson note.

Unit 6 Micro-teaching(cont.)

As in Unit 5.
Homework: Prepare a worksheet for a fictional lesson.

MODULE 2 : BASIC TEACHING AIDS

Unit 1
1. Discuss each other's worksheets
2. Observe and discuss examples of worksheets presented by tutor, identifying important features
3. Practise skill of worksheet construction

Unit 2
1. Observe a fourth lesson (in which worksheets as well as an OHP is used)
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on the use of the OHP
3. Practise using the OHP and making transparencies, identifying important features
Homework: Make transparencies

Unit 3
1. Discuss each other's transparencies
2. Write the lesson note of a fictional lesson in which the OHP and worksheets are used.
3. Discuss each other's lesson notes
Homework: Make a chart.

MODULE 2 (cont.) : BASIC TEACHING AIDS

Unit 4
1. Observe a sixth lesson (in which pictures and charts are used)
2. Discuss each other's charts
3. Make other charts, improving on faults
4. Prepare mini-lessons (8 min. each)

Unit 5 Micro-teaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss each one; each lesson should centre upon an objective and at least two of the three skills learned during this module

Unit 6 Micro-teaching

As in Unit 5.
Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons (free style)

MODULE 3 : CONSOLIDATION

Students teach their mini-lessons to one half of group, using whichever methods they wish; tutor and other half of group observe and write comments.

MODULE 4 : QUESTIONING

Unit 1
1. Observe seventh lesson (in which questioning is used)
2. Discuss the lesson, focusing on aspects of questioning
3. Prepare own questions and discuss them.
Homework: Prepare a lesson using questions

Unit 2
1. Discuss each other's questions
2. Observe eight lesson (questioning)
3. Discuss lesson
Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons

Units 3 and 4 Micro-teaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss them; each lesson should centre upon an objective and questioning

MODULE 5 : CONCEPT-LEARNING

Unit 1
1. Read transcript of a lesson in which a concept is taught effectively.
2. Discuss transcript, identifying important features
3. Prepare a lesson in which an important concept is taught.

MODULE 5 (cont.) : CONCEPT-LEARNING

Unit 2
1. Discuss lessons prepared in Unit 1.
2. Observe ninth lesson (in which concept learning figures prominently)
3. Discuss lesson
4. Prepare another lesson, focusing on concepts
Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons

Units 3 and 4 Micro-teaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss them; each lesson should centre upon an objective and concept learning)
Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons (free style)

MODULE 6 : CONSOLIDATION

Unit 1 Students teach their mini-lessons to one half of group, using whichever methods they wish; tutor and other half of group observe and write comments.

MODULE 7 : PREPARING FOR INITIAL BLOCK

Unit 1 Students present unprepared mini-lessons of + 5 minutes on an impromptu-basis, and discuss them.

Unit 2 Tutor explains procedure he/she will follow while guiding students during the forthcoming block session, and distributes homework to students

MODULE 17 : PREPARING FOR THIRD BLOCK

Unit 1
1. Observe lesson in which classroom management skills figure prominently
2. Discuss lesson, identifying important classroom management skills

Unit 2
1. Read list of co-mon classroom problems related to punishment.
2. Discuss possible solutions to these problems
Homework: Prepare lesson note on a transparency

Unit 3 Students take turns in explaining the lesson he/she planned; group-members discuss possible management problems that might arise

Unit 4
1. Analyse a variety of tests presented to group by tutor.
2. Discuss tests, focusing on important aspects.
Homework: Construct a test

MODULE 17 (cont.):PREPARING FOR THIRD BLOCK

Unit 5
1. Discuss each other's test.
2. Discuss aspects of test administration, e.g. conduct of teacher at beginning and end of a test; classroom mangement

Homework: Mark a set of ±20 test scripts

Unit 6
1. Evaluate each other's marking
2. Discuss problems related to marking tests and assignments.

Homework: Prepare lesson note on transparency.

Unit 7
1. Students take turns in explaining the lesson he/she planned, followed by discussions.
2. Tutor explains procedure for pending block session

MODULE 19 : PREPARING FOR FOURTH BLOCK

unit 1
1. Read transcript of lesson in which guided discussion is conducted effectively
2. Discuss transcript, focusing on discussion
3. Observe video of lesson in which discussion is used.

Homework: Prepare 8-minute mini-lessons

MODULE 19 (cont.) : PREPARING FOR FOURTH BLOCK

Units 2 & 3 — Microteaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss them; each lesson should demonstrate the technique of guided discussion.

Units 4 & 5 — Microteaching

Tutor helps students to practise methods not covered during TP course but highly relevant to his/her subject

MODULE 22 : INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING

Unit 1
1. Observe a lesson on video
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on aspects of lesson preparation
3. Practise writing lesson preparation notes and objectives

Unit 2
1. Observe second lesson (in which questioning is used)
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on aspects of questioning
3. Practise lesson preparation and questioning

Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lesson.

Unit 3 & 4 — Microteaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss each one; each lesson should centre upon an objective and questioning, and be accompanied by a lesson note.

Unit 5
1. Observe third lesson (in which concept learning figures prominently).
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on concept learning
3. Practise preparing lessons in which concepts are taught

Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lessons.

MODULE 22 (cont.) : INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING

Unit 6 & 7 — Microteaching

Students teach their mini-lessons and discuss each one; each lesson should centre upon concept learning and be accompanied by a lesson note.

MODULE 24 : CLASS MANAGEMENT AND TESTS

Unit 1
1. Observe fourth lesson (in which classroom management and worksheets are used)
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on classroom management
3. Discuss management problems from a given list.

Homework: Construct one or more worksheets.

Unit 2
1. Discuss each other's worksheets.
2. Analyse a variety of tests presented to group by tutor

Homework: Construct one or more tests.

Unit 3
1. Discuss each other's tests.
2. Discuss aspects of test administration, e.g. conduct of teacher at beginning and end of a test

Homework: Construct one or more test.

Unit 4
1. Observe fifth lesson (in which guided discussion figures prominently
2. Discuss lesson, focusing on guided discussion
3. Read and discuss transcript of a lesson in which guided disc. is conducted effectively

Homework: Prepare 8-min. mini-lesson.

Unit 5 & 6 — Microteaching

Students teach and discuss their mini-lessons; each lesson should demonstrate the technique of guided discussion).

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