

A CRITICAL STUDY OF ASPECTS OF THE POLITICAL, CONSTITUTIONAL,
ADMINISTRATIVE AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF INDIAN
TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA WITH PARTICULAR
REFERENCE TO THE PERIOD 1965 TO 1984

by

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B.A.; B.Com.; B.Ed.; M.Ed.; NTD.

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

Promoter : Professor J.M. Niven

PIETERMARITZBURG

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ABSTRACT

This study deals with the administrative and curricular development of Indian teacher education in South Africa for the period 1860 - 1984. It is set against the background of developments in the education system for Indians in this country. Historical and political events which have a direct bearing on Indian education are touched upon merely cursorily to give the reader the necessary background for a fuller appreciation of the Indian community's struggle for education in the country of their adoption.

The study is divided into three parts. Part one comprising the first two chapters, provides a brief historical perspective of Indian education from 1860 to 1965. Chapter One deals with a brief review of the coming of the Indians to Natal and the origins and early development of education for the Indians. Chapter Two carries on the historical review with the emphasis on the early development of Indian teacher education.

Part Two comprising four chapters deals with aspects of Indian education after it was transferred from provincial control to central State control in 1966. The Indian Education Act of 1965 (No. 61 of 1965) is taken as a point of departure.

Chapter Three begins with a very brief discussion of the principles underlying the nationalisation of education in South Africa. The de Lange Report and the Government's reaction to its recommendations are considered against the new political dispensation. Chapter Four deals with such aspects as control and administration, involvement of Indians in the control of their education, school accommodation, growth in pupil enrolment and the school curricula are examined to assess growth and progress. Chapter Five is concerned with the control and administration

of Indian teacher education after nationalisation of Indian education. Within the framework of this chapter recent developments such as the recommendations of the Gericke Commission leading to the National Education Policy Amendment Act (No. 75 of 1969) and the van Wyke de Vries Commission's recommendations for a closer co-operation with universities in respect of teacher education, are examined with a view to tracing their influence on Indian teacher education. Chapter Six attempts to examine demographic aspects which influence the demand for and supply of teachers in Indian education.

Part Three comprising four chapters, examines contemporary issues and perspectives in Indian teacher education. Chapters Seven and Eight examine critically the teachers' courses at the Colleges of Education and the University of Durban-Westville respectively. Chapter Nine examines on a comparative basis structural changes and new developments in methodological skills in teacher education. Finally, in Chapter Ten proposals and recommendations are formulated with a view to achieving a properly structured institutional arrangement such as the college council and college senate to facilitate Indian teacher education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS AND DECLARATION

No research of this nature is possible without the co-operation and assistance of others. It is with this in mind that I wish to thank the following people, namely:-

Professor J.M. Niven, my promoter, for his unstinted guidance throughout this research project. His thoughtful recommendations, interest, encouragement and thorough and able supervision of the research will always be appreciated.

Mr P.N. Done, Education Planners - Dr S.P Naicker, Mr G. Naidu and S. Pillay, and my son, Mr S.N. Naguran and my daughter, Mrs K. Odayar for their invaluable suggestions and encouragement. Mr H.B. Singh, Subject Adviser for checking the language of the text.

The Ernest Oppenheimer Memorial Trust and the Human Sciences Research Council for their financial assistance.

The British Council, Le Service Accueil, France and the Operation Crossroads, Africa (America), for the award of travel grants to study teacher education in their respective countries.

Mrs Radha Bunsee for undertaking the typing of the manuscripts at such short notice and for her personal interest in the task.

Finally, to my wife, Gonam and my children for their patience, inspiration and encouragement during the four long years' of this study.

The work was undertaken with trust in God and a faith in the role of teachers in the moulding of a growing generation.

I declare that the whole thesis is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references; and the opinions expressed or conclusions arrived at are those of the writer and are not to be regarded as a reflection of the views of the above-mentioned persons.



.....
C.A. NAGURAN

25 November 19.....
DATE

Durban.

*I dedicate this work to my father the
late MURUGAN NAGURAN as a tribute to
his profound faith in formal education
of which he had none.*

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PART ONE

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

Part One of this study seeks to examine the origins and early development of Indian education in Natal and the Transvaal. An attempt is made in Chapter One to give a general background to the coming of the Indians to Natal in 1860 and the political and social struggle they were subjected to. Against this background the Indian indentured labourers' struggle for education of their children is examined. In Chapter Two the training of Indian teachers to supply the growing demand for education is considered.

CHAPTER ONE

A BRIEF HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF INDIAN EDUCATION : 1860 - 1965

1. Introduction

The purpose of this Chapter is to place the development of Indian teacher education in its proper perspective by first considering the wider educational system in which it took root.

The history of Indian education relates largely to developments in the provinces of Natal and Transvaal. For it was only in these two provinces that their numbers justified the provision of educational facilities for Indians. In the Cape Province, because of the very small numbers, the education of Indians had until 1970, been linked to that of the Coloured community. In the Orange Free State there has never been more than a handful of Indians and the few children there attend schools for Coloured children.

For almost a decade after the arrival of Indians, there was nothing eventful in the development of their education. As the Indians were imported to this country solely for their labour, no provision was made for the education of the labourers' children. Such little secular education as there was, was due entirely to missionary enterprise. While the missionaries were doing their utmost to educate Indians, government assistance was meagre and was only consistent with growing antagonism against the Indian.

Under provincial control, Indian education was little more than an appendage of the provincial education departments of Natal and

Transvaal. Coupled with the authorities' apathy towards Indian education and the apparent lack of funds, education of Indian children did not progress at the desired rate. It was largely through efforts and self-sacrifice of the Indian community, especially in Natal, that some progress was made in Indian education.

Today, the Indian community of South Africa, despite considerable political and other handicaps, has progressed considerably. "Their educational achievements are indeed remarkable, considering the fact that most of their forebears, a century ago, consisted of an illiterate group of indentured labourers imported from India to work on Natal's sugar plantations" (1).

Therefore, if we are to understand the "outcome of forgotten struggles" and "of battles long ago"⁽²⁾ in Indian teacher education we need to consider its historical antecedents in relation to the wider context of Indian education in general.

2. The Arrival of Indians in Natal

Round about 1851 White farmers in Natal began the cultivation of sugar cane. The sugar industry held great promise provided, adequate and cheap labour was available. The local Zulus were not prepared to work on the sugar plantations. By virtue of their way of life, they were unaccustomed at the time to work for monetary rewards for continuous periods.

The farmers became aware of the successful use in Mauritius of Indian labourers from India. At a public meeting held in Durban in 1851 it

was decided to request the government to import Indian labourers from India⁽³⁾.

In 1859 the Natal Legislature passed two ordinances (Numbers 14 and 15) : one providing for the introduction of Indians into Natal at public expense, and the other enabling White colonists to introduce Indian labourers at their own expense⁽⁴⁾.

The Indian viceregal government after some hesitation agreed to allow Indian labourers to emigrate to Natal. It was stipulated that Indian immigrants would be entitled to a free return passage after their first three-year period of indenture; otherwise they could spend two further years under an employer of their own choice and then claim a grant of Crown land should the offer of a return passage not be taken up⁽⁵⁾. On completion of their indenture the Indians remaining were to be treated as all other citizens of Natal, i.e. "they shall be entitled to the vote and be free to own landed property"⁽⁶⁾.

The first batch of Indians arrived in Durban on 17 November 1860. From then onwards there were regular arrivals of Indians to the Colony. Speaking a variety of languages and in the main belonging to the Hindu faith, they arrived hopefully in a strange land, "bringing with them their labour potential as their only wealth and their cultural heritage as luggage"⁽⁷⁾. They did not know then the scorn and discrimination they were to endure.

The indentured Indians were allocated to sugar planters. All employers were required to re-imburse the Government for its expenditure and, in addition, to pay each labourer a wage of ten shillings per month in the

first year, eleven in the second and twelve shillings in the third.

In the wake of the Indian immigrants there followed a number of professional and trading class Indians then known as "passenger Indians". These came at their own expense to serve the material needs of their countrymen. They were recognised as British subjects.

To the Whites in Natal, the new-comers were an undesirable element as they threatened to compete with them in the economic field. Thus began a feeling of antagonism towards Indians as a whole. Another factor which added to the growing hostility was the reluctance of many of the labourers to renew their indenture for further periods, nor were they willing to take up the offer of a free return passage home. Their long absence from India probably had a weaning effect upon their desire to return home.

Although they were free to offer their labour voluntarily at an increased rate of wages, many of them took to market gardening, basket-weaving, fishing and other forms of self-employment. Moreover, the children of the immigrant Indians were not interested in working in the cane fields.

This labour situation aggravated White hostility towards the Indians. The Government was compelled to lay down new terms of indentureship. These provided for two alternatives if the labourers refused to re-indenture. The labourers could return to India or remain in the Colony as free men upon the payment of a licence fee of three pounds (£ 3) per year⁽⁸⁾. In practice the new law compelled first the parents to re-indenture, and then their children as they reached sixteen years of age,

to serve a term of indenture. If they failed to do so they had to pay a three pound (£3) licence fee or be sent to India, separated from their parents, even though they might have been born in the Colony.

The closing years of the nineteenth century witnessed the full intensity of the hostility towards the Indians. In 1896 parliamentary franchise was withdrawn from the Indians and in the following year the immigration of "passenger" Indians was prohibited by law, although the importation of indentured labourers continued. Grants of Crown land to Indians was stopped. In 1903 Indians could not enter the Transvaal without a special permit. Earlier, in 1885, the Transvaal had withdrawn citizenship rights of Indians and imposed restrictions on their living and trading areas. In 1891 the Orange Free State excluded Indians altogether.

3. The Formation of the Union of South Africa and the Indian "Problem"

The Union of South Africa Act of 1909 united the four erstwhile colonies under a central government. The Indians hoped apprehensively that under Union they would be given parliamentary franchise. When the Draft constitution was published there was no provision for Indian franchise. This prompted the Indians to petition the Secretary for the Colonies in London. The petition expressed the community's disappointment at being "excluded from exercising those rights to which they, as natural-born subjects of His Majesty, are justifiably entitled

....."(9). The petitioners urged the British Government to make such amendments in the aforesaid Draft Act of South Africa as would give to every British Indian citizen in Natal equal civil and legal rights with other British subjects in South Africa.

The British Government was unable to persuade the South African authorities and the Union of South Africa Act was passed without any parliamentary franchise being given to the Indians. After Union the Indians continued to be treated as an alien people. Attempts were made to repatriate the Indians and to restrict their activities and movements. Several discriminatory laws aimed at discouraging them from settling in the country were passed.

About this time there appeared on the scene an Indian barrister named Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi. He first came to South Africa to settle a legal matter for an Indian merchant in the Transvaal. Gandhi, not only observed some of the injustices that were practised against the Indians, but he himself experienced several examples of physical assault and dehumanising treatment. He was so incensed by the harsh discriminatory laws against the Indians that he decided to remain in the country to help ameliorate the suffering of his countrymen. Gandhi initiated the non-violent Satyagraha or passive resistance movement which was to play a major role in bringing about justice and freedom not only in this country but in India as well. The passive resistance campaign in South Africa ended after eight years' of struggle with the signing of the Smuts-Gandhi Agreement on 30 June 1914⁽¹⁰⁾. After the Agreement the £3 licence fee imposed on the Indians earlier by the Natal government was abolished.

However, antagonism towards the Indians continued unabated. The Whites hoped that suitable measures would be adopted to restrict trading and business activities of Indians and the relative freedom of their movement curbed still further.



In 1925 Dr D.F. Malan introduced the Areas Reservation Bill which envisaged the creation of separate residential areas for Indians. The unexpressed intention was to encourage Indians to return to India. As a result of an outcry from the local Indian community, followed by protest from the Indian Government, the Bill was dropped. It was felt that the Indian "problem" could be solved by consultation between the governments of South Africa and India. To this end a Round Table Conference between the two governments was held in 1927 culminating in the famous Cape Town Agreement. The main provisions of the Agreement were⁽¹¹⁾ :

- (i) Voluntary repatriation of Indians, the Indian Government co-operating by making suitable arrangements for their reception in India;
- (ii) The advancement by the Government of South Africa of the social and educational interests of those remaining;
- (iii) The appointment by the Indian Government of an Agent-General in the Union in order to ensure continuous and effective co-operation between the two governments.

After the Cape Town Agreement, the necessary machinery was set in motion to enable Indians to leave South Africa in return for a free passage and the payment of a sum of £10 per adult. As the majority of Indians, by 1930, were South African born, very few took advantage of the assisted

repatriation scheme. In terms of the Agreement, schools for Indians were erected in different parts of the country, mainly in Natal.

The gradual upliftment of Indians through education brought about an improvement in living standards. In view of the fact that the local authorities, especially in Durban, neglected to provide basic amenities such as roads, drainage and the supply of water in areas where Indians predominated, the better educated and affluent Indians began to buy houses in White areas. This so-called Indian "penetration" into White areas brought about further resentment among the Whites. They began protesting about Indian penetration into their areas. The Government passed the Pegging Act in 1943 which precluded Indians from purchasing properties in White areas without a permit. In 1946 the Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act was passed. This law entrenched the principle of segregation of Indians. The Indians refused to accept the provisions of the Act. They organised a passive resistance campaign against the Law and persuaded the Government of India to recall its High Commissioner (formerly Agent-General) from South Africa.

The Indian Government went further by applying economic sanctions against South Africa and raised the question of the treatment of Indians in South Africa at the United Nations. All these actions brought no relief to the Indians.

In 1948 the Nationalist Government, headed by Dr D.F. Malan came into power and the new Government intensified the policy of segregation. Further developments in this regard will be discussed in Chapter Three of this study.

In the remainder of this Chapter it is proposed to trace briefly the history of Indian education in South Africa up to the time of transfer to the Division of Indian Education in 1966.

4. Developments in Indian Education in Natal

4.1 Early Beginnings

Although the majority of the Indian immigrants were illiterate by Western standards, they were not altogether uneducated. Some were able to read and write in their mother tongue and were able to impart some form of education to their children.

For almost a decade after the arrival of the Indians there was no organised provision of education for their children. In 1869 the Rev. S. Ralph Stott started a day school for the children of plantation Indians and an evening school for the older boys. The parents paid the teacher a small fee or gave him presents of food for his services. In 1871 another school was opened at the Lower Umkomanzi area for children on the sugar estates in the neighbourhood. The medium of instruction in these schools was English. The Superintendent of Education was prepared to permit the establishment of more schools provided Rev. Stott could find teachers. The salary paid to teachers was so low that teachers left their posts to seek more lucrative employment. The result was that in 1875 some schools on the plantations had to be closed for want of teachers⁽¹²⁾.

In 1877 laws 15 and 16 were passed to promote primary and secondary education among Europeans⁽¹³⁾. Indian children who conformed to

the dress and habits of Europeans were allowed to attend European schools, and some of them did so. Children of the poorer classes attended schools established by the missionaries.

4.2 The Indian Immigrant School Board

In 1878 the Natal Government passed Law 20 of 1878 and a special body known as the Indian Immigrant School Board was created to undertake the responsibility of promoting and administering the education of children of indentured immigrants. The Board was "to administer such sums of money as may be voted from time to time by the Legislative Council for the purpose of the education of the Indian children and to report annually to the Government on the progress of Indian education"⁽¹⁴⁾.

The affairs of the Colony at that time were dominated by farming interests and little money was made available to the Board. On sums which averaged £1 500 a year a cheap and inadequate system of Board and aided schools was established. The facilities provided by the School Board were inferior to those provided for Europeans of the Colony, and as a result, Indians of the more advanced class were reluctant to send their children to the Board schools which were generally known as the 'Indenture schools'.

4.3 Education under Responsible Government

In terms of the Constitution Act of 1893 Natal was accorded responsible government in 1894. Law 20 of 1878 was repealed and the Immigrant School Board was abolished. Indian education was

placed under the control of the Education Department.

Up to 1894 Indian children who conformed to European dress and habits were allowed to attend European schools in the Colony. After this date they could only be admitted to European schools provided that they had passed the fourth standard in schools subsidised by the government for the education of Indian children.)

It should be noted that at the time education in Indian schools did not go beyond Standard 4. In 1899, however, the government discontinued the admission of Indian male pupils to European schools. Girls, however, were allowed to attend these schools until 1905.

As a result of a persistent request made to him to have an Indian pupil admitted to a European school, the then Minister of Education, whilst regretting to comply with the request was, however, prepared to give a grant, or if need be, to establish a school in Durban equal in efficiency to the European schools. In accordance with this assurance a higher grade school for Indians was established in Durban in 1899 to be followed in 1902 by another in Pietermaritzburg. To meet the wishes of Indian parents who were averse to co-education, a separate school for girls was established under the charge of an experienced English woman teacher. This school was shortlived owing to lack of women teachers.

Indian education under responsible government did not see much progress. The rate of progress was extremely slow, as can be seen from the Table below:

TABLE 1

Growth of Indian Schools in Natal : 1895-1909

Year	No. of Schools	Enrolment
1895	28	2 919
1900	31	3 281
1905	31	3 149
1909	35	3 284

Source : Annual Reports of the Superintendent
of Education, Natal, 1895-1909.

Most of the schools reflected in the above table were government-aided schools. The annual reports however, do not indicate separately the number of schools that were established by the Christian missions and by the Indian community.

Of the 3 284 pupils in school in 1909, only 324 were girls, and more than half of the pupils in attendance were below Standard 2⁽¹⁵⁾. An education commission appointed by the Natal Government in 1909 drew attention to "the grave disabilities" under which the Indians of Natal were placed as regards education. These disabilities, which included overcrowding, shortage of schools and shortage of trained teachers, kept many children out of school⁽¹⁶⁾.

5. Indian Education After Union

Under Article 85 of the Union of South Africa Act of 1909, the provinces retained the right to control primary and secondary education. Very little change was brought about in the internal administration of the respective education departments of the four colonies when they merged into Union.

As a result of the participation of the individual provinces in the wider resources of the Union, more money became available for education resulting in unprecedented growth in the educational system in the decades following Union.

In so far as Indian education was concerned a languid educational policy was followed by the government. By the end of the first quarter of the century less than one-third of the Indian children of school-going age could be accommodated. Progress was painfully slow in the provision of schools by the government, as is evident in the table below:

TABLE 2

Growth of Indian Schools in Natal : 1912-1926

Year	Govt. Schools	Govt.-Aided Schools	School Population
1912	4	35	4 096
1915	4	35	5 189
1919	6	38	5 592
1925	9	43	8 706
1926	9	45	9 155

Source : Annual Reports of Superintendent of Education, Natal,
1912 - 1926.

It would be misleading to take the above figures by themselves as indicating a measure of progress. Throughout the period there were thousands of children of school-going age who were not at school. In 1921 the Superintendent of Education stated in his report that "the fact must be faced that we have a large and increasing population entirely unprovided for and totally neglected"⁽¹⁷⁾. In 1924, the Superintendent again reported, "The numbers are practically stationary, but the attendance probably does not represent half of the children in the Province. For some years no additions have been made to Government schools and there is little doubt that every classroom added would be filled at once"⁽¹⁸⁾.

At the Round Table Conference of 1927, of which mention was made earlier, the Indian Government was prompted to raise the issue of the Union Government's policy in respect of Indian education.

In the 'Upliftment' clause of the Cape Town Agreement, the Union Government agreed in principle that "in the provision of education and other facilities, the considerable number of Indians who remain part of the permanent population will not be allowed to lag behind other sections of the community"⁽¹⁹⁾. The assurance was given that the Union Government would see to it that the position of education among Indians, especially in Natal, would be investigated.

5.1 Indian Education Enquiry Committee, 1928

In terms of the Cape Town Agreement the Administrator of Natal was requested to set up a commission of enquiry into Indian education and to obtain the assistance of experts from India for the purpose of such an enquiry. Two educationists from India, Mr Kailas P.

Kichlu, the Vice Chancellor of the University of Agra, and Miss C. Gordon, a lecturer at the Teacher's Training College in Madras, were appointed to assist the Commission under the chairmanship of Mr J. Dyson.

5.1.1 Kichlu's Evidence on Subsidy

In terms of the Provincial Subsidies Act of 1925, grants were paid to each Province on the basis of average attendance of pupils. Mr Kichlu submitted a memorandum to the Dyson Commission in which he disclosed that the Natal Provincial Administration was actually benefiting at the expense of the Indian child. Kichlu submitted the figures quoted in the following table to show how the money provided for Indian pupils was used by the Natal Provincial Administration.

TABLE 3

Education Expenditures on Whites, Coloureds and Indians in Natal: 1925-1

Year	Race	No. of Pupils	Rate of Subsidy	Subsidy Earned	Actual Expenditure
1925/26	Whites	20 859	R33,50	R684 300	R881 872
	Coloureds	1 771	R11,00	R 17 406	R 40 556
	Indians	7 362	R11,00	R 72 358	R 55 836
1926/27	Whites	21 649	R33,50	R701 146	R841 402
	Coloureds	1 724	R11,00	R 17 356	R 40 138
	Indians	7 969	R11,00	R 77 970	R 56 858

Source : Memorandum on Indian Education in Natal (South Africa) by Kailus P. Kichlu, M.A. (Indian Education Service) 17 April 1928, p 26.

From the figures in Table 3 it is clear that in the case of European and Coloured education the Administration spent much more than the subsidy received. "But unfortunately, in the case of Indian education the figures show that, during the two years in question, not only was the whole subsidy received for Indian education not spent thereon, but that a sum of £18 817 was actually saved from the subsidy received for this branch of education and added to the Provincial revenues" ⁽²⁰⁾ stated Kichlu.

The view that the whole of the subsidy received for Indian education was not spent on that education was supported by the Superintendent of Education in his memorandum to the Commission ⁽²¹⁾.

In its report, the Commission concurred with the contention of Kichlu but it supported the view that "it was merely a basis of calculation and that the subsidy was not necessarily intended to be spent on the education of Indian children" ⁽²²⁾. This view is difficult to accept. What was the purpose of a subsidy if it was not to be spent on those who earned it?

5.1.2 The Commission's Recommendation

The Commission found that the existing facilities were inadequate, especially the Government-aided schools, which were poorly housed, and whose teachers' status and salaries were unsatisfactory. The Commission recommended that "in view of the expected increase in financial obligations, immediate

representations be made to the Union Government to grant the subsidy annually, taking into account the current year's increased attendance, in place of the deferred system which then prevailed"⁽²³⁾. It also recommended that facilities for Indian education should be extended by the establishment of government schools in large centres of Indian population, and when funds permitted, the extension of state-aided schools. The Commission advocated a more liberal salary scale and better conditions of service; the utilisation of the whole subsidy received for Indian education from the Union Government on Indian education; and the establishment of a training college for Indians as soon as possible⁽²⁴⁾.

There is no doubt that the Commission's recommendations resulted in certain improvements in Indian education. The number of schools increased from 52 in 1928 to 78 in 1931; Indian teachers' salaries were raised, but only in 1943 were the teachers in state-aided schools paid the same rate as teachers in government Indian schools.

5.2 Provincial Education Commission, 1937

In 1937 an Education Commission under the Chairmanship of Mr Justice F.N. Broome was appointed to enquire into education in Natal. The Commission made the following observation in respect of Indian education:-

"Viewing the rapidity with which the present system of Indian Primary education has sprung up and the shortness of the average school

life, it would appear that the vast majority of Indian children do not acquire the rudiments of primary education."⁽²⁵⁾

The Commission recommended : the creation of a sub-department to control and administer Indian education more effectively; the need for gradual introduction of a modified system of a free and compulsory education; the desirability of a larger subsidy from the Union Government for Indian education⁽²⁶⁾ .

Indian education made rapid strides after the Commission's Report. The important reforms included the payment of better grants to the government-aided schools and a system of building grants, the establishment of a special Indian section of the Department of Education with a Chief Inspector of Indian Education in charge; and more direct control of all schools by the Natal Education Department. However, free education was not extended to Indian children.

5.3 Indian Initiative

The endemic shortage of school accommodation in Natal which was aggravated by inadequate financing of Indian education gave rise to Indian initiative in providing school accommodation - regarded as one of the finest examples of self-help to an extent unparalleled in South African educational history. So eager were they for education that the number of schools provided by the Indian community themselves soon exceeded the number of mission schools

and schools built by the Provincial Administration. This pattern of local Indian community support of education continued well into the Twentieth century, so that in Natal four-fifths of the schools were State-aided, the money for the sites and buildings coming from the Indians themselves. To encourage Indian initiative in the provision of school facilities, the Natal Provincial Administration gave a building grant of one third of the cost of the buildings. With the increased building grant the Indian community gradually began to erect more schools for their children.

The following table gives the number of State schools against the number of State-aided schools together with their respective pupil enrolments for the period 1937 to 1941.

TABLE 4

Number of State and State-Aided Schools and Pupil Enrolment : 1937-1941

Year	State Schools	Pupils	State-Aided Schools	Pupils	Total
1937	17	4 418	85	17 693	22 111
1938	17	5 113	88	18 443	23 556
1939	17	6 000	94	19 366	25 366
1940	17	6 290	96	21 491	27 781
1941	17	6 474	98	22 694	29 168

Source : Province of Natal : Tables of Education Statistics.

Note: Mission schools are included in State-aided schools. The available statistics do not give separately the exact number of mission schools and aided schools established by the Indian community.

It will be observed from the above table that during the four years following the recommendations of the Broome Commission, the number of Government-aided schools shows a gradual increase, whereas the number of Government schools remained static at 17. The Broome Commission estimated that in 1937 there were about 27 000 children of primary school range who were not attending school largely because of a lack of accommodation⁽²⁷⁾. By 1952 the school population had increased to 61 529 although an estimated 30 000 children of school age were out of school due to lack of school accommodation⁽²⁸⁾.

In order to alleviate the problem of school accommodation the Natal Education Department introduced the system of "platoon" classes in 1942. Under the "platoon" system the senior classes in the primary division received their tuition in the first half of the school day, commencing at 07h00 and ending at 13h00. The infants were taught in the second half of the day. Although this system was educationally not satisfactory, it did, however, help to alleviate the accommodation problem to some extent.

5.4 Some Significant Improvements in the Early Forties

The period between 1942 and 1944 saw a number of significant improvements in Indian education. Briefly these were:

Natal Ordinance No. 23 of 1942 paved the way for Indian school medical inspection;

In 1942 a scheme for the gradual extension of free

education was introduced, beginning from the sub-standards in that year and going up to Standard 6. However, free books and stationery were not provided, although a limited number of indigent pupils in Government schools did receive free stationery;

In 1943 the building grant for the erection of Government-aided schools was raised from $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ to 50%;

As from 1943, all teachers in Government-aided schools became the employees of the Natal Education Department. They received improved salaries and conditions of service;

In 1944 a school meals service was made available to Indian children;

In part fulfilment of the recommendations of the Broome Commission, a sub-department of Indian education with a Chief Inspector at its head was created in 1944.

5.5 The Wilks Recommendation on Indian Education

The Provincial Education Committee of 1946 under the Chairmanship of Mr E.C. Wilks noted that the growing demand for school accommodation by Indian pupils placed a heavy burden on existing facilities. It noted that many children who desired admission had to be refused for want of accommodation. The Committee, however,

made no specific recommendation on this matter, other than noting that school accommodation for Indian children was a pressing need⁽²⁹⁾. The main recommendations in respect of Indian education were:

- (i) The introduction of compulsory education for Indian children once they were admitted to school until they passed Standard 6 or until their thirteenth birthday, whichever was the earlier date, with the proviso that further extension of the compulsory age should be reviewed from time to time;
- (ii) All education up to the highest standard should be free;
- (iii) Free books on loan should be supplied to Indian children up to Standard 10⁽³⁰⁾.

The Committee also made some far-reaching recommendations on Indian teacher education. These will be discussed in Chapter Two. The recommendation in respect of compulsory education for Indians was not put into effect probably because of the shortage of school accommodation. However, the Department did introduce tuition-free education up to Standard 10 on a staggered basis. Books and stationery were not provided free to Indian pupils. Indigent pupils received free stationery.

5.6 Private "Platoon" Schools

The fact that large numbers of children could not be accommodated in schools was a matter of grave concern to the Indian community. In and around Durban, unregistered private schools were established in a desperate effort to provide some sort of schooling for the unfortunate children who could not be admitted to the ordinary schools. Very poorly qualified teachers were employed in these schools which were conducted in dim, badly ventilated garages and disused sheds with inadequate sanitary facilities. No sooner were some of these opened than they had to be closed upon unfavourable reports from local medical officers.

In 1950 the Director of the Natal Education Department proposed a scheme to establish private "platoon" schools, whereby Government-aided schools would commence their school day at, say, 07h00 and end at 13h00, thereby making the buildings available for conducting "platoon" classes. The latter would have a shorter school day by virtue of the fact that its pupils would all be infants in the first instance. The teachers would be paid by the proprietors who would in turn be subsidised by the Administration. This scheme found immediate favour with the Indian community, which confidently hoped that the measure would be purely a temporary one. In 1952 there were 17 such schools established. This figure increased to 63 in 1958, with 15 734 children accommodated in these schools in that year⁽³¹⁾.

No minimum qualifications for teachers in these schools were laid down. The proprietors or grantees of these schools decided on the minimum qualifications subject to the approval of the Director.

The very low salary offered to teachers in the "platoon" schools did not attract suitably qualified teachers.

In 1959 all private "platoon" schools were incorporated into their respective Government-aided schools and the education Department became responsible for the appointment and control of teachers in all "platoon" schools. The Department was compelled to retain the services of a large number of poorly qualified "platoon" teachers in a temporary capacity.

5.7 Post-Primary Education

The establishment of the Higher Grade School for Indians in 1899 saw the beginning of post-primary education for Indians in Natal. Here provision was made for pupils to proceed up to Standard 7. As there were not enough pupils to proceed beyond Standard 7, the Education Department did not institute classes beyond this standard. The small number of pupils who were competent and willing to proceed beyond Standard 7 were admitted at European schools. However, in view of the growing colour prejudice, very few Indians were successful in gaining admission to European schools.

In 1911 through the initiative of Mr H.L. Paul, a retired Indian court interpreter, the Indian Educational Institute was established. This was a private venture. Qualified teachers were brought from India to teach at this school. The pupils were prepared for the Cape Junior Certificate examination. When the teachers returned to India and no substitutes could be found to replace them, the school was forced to close down in 1914.

Following the closure of the Institute, Indians made representations to the Provincial Administration to make provision for Indian pupils to proceed with their education after Standard 8. Thus in 1919 the Administration established the Carlisle Street Indian School. Up to December 1929 this was the only government sponsored school which offered education to Indians up to the matriculation level.

Another privately initiated secondary school was the Marine College. The principal of this school was Mr A. Lamont, who later became the Mayor of Durban. This school which began in 1925 had to close down in 1930 for want of teachers and funds.

In 1930 through the efforts of Srinivasa Sastri, the then Agent-General of India in South Africa, Sastri College was built. The building was financed and equipped by the Indian community and offered to the Natal Administration for the purpose of providing secondary education up to the matriculation level as well as teacher training. As Sastri College was solely a boys' school, the Natal Education Department established a separate secondary school for Indian girls in 1931. This was the Dartnell Crescent Indian Girls' Secondary School which later came to be known as the Durban Indian Girls' High School. Initially Indian parents were reluctant to send their daughters to school. The majority of parents could not afford to send their daughters to school partly because of the fees to be paid and partly because of the need for the girls' services at home. There was also a strong aversion to older girls attending co-educational schools and to being taught by male teachers. However, from 1934 onwards there was a gradual increase in the number of

Indian girls seeking secondary education.

There was also a considerable demand for secondary education in Pietermaritzburg. Consequently the Natal Education Department started secondary classes at the York Road Government Indian School in 1935. This school later came to be known as the Greytown Road Indian School.

For a period after 1946, a large number of boys in and around Durban were unable to gain admission to Sastri College, as it was the only high school for boys in Durban. The same situation pertained to a lesser degree for girls, whose numbers were growing steadily. The position became so serious that it prompted the Natal Indian Congress (a political body founded by Gandhi in 1894 which later played a leading role in rejecting Smuts' Indian Representative and Land Tenure Act of 1946 and continues to play a leading role in Indian politics) to convene a meeting of all interested parties and educationalists to consider how best the problem could be solved. The outcome was the establishment of a private secondary school for some of the pupils who were unable to gain admission at the Government secondary schools. For this purpose the Education Department readily allowed the use of a primary school in Durban. The Natal Indian Congress assumed full responsibility for establishing and conducting the school. The school was known as the Congress High School. It was a co-educational institution; classes commenced at 15h30 and ended at 18h30. The pupils paid a tuition fee of R2 per month. Classes went up to Standard 8 and the pupils completing this Standard were assured of a place at the local high schools. The Natal Education Department was so impressed with the standard

of work done at this school that from 1951 a 75% subsidy towards the teachers' salaries was made available.

In August 1955 the Education Department established the Clairwood Indian High School and the pupils of the Congress High School were transferred to the newly opened co-educational school in Clairwood. As in the provision of facilities for primary education the characteristic self-help of the Indian community is evident also in the case of secondary education. Apart from the high schools established by the Indian community at Umzinto, Verulam and Tongaat, the community also established other high schools to meet the growing demand for accommodation. These were the Stanger High School, Gandhi Desai High School (Durban) and Orient High School (Durban).

However, the establishment of these schools did not relieve the pressure on secondary school accommodation. It is recorded that in 1958 out of a total school population of 90 000 pupils, some 4 000 were in secondary schools, that is, 4,4% of the total school population. (The comparative figure for Whites in the same year was 24%) (32).

The Natal Provincial Administration realising the need to provide the necessary secondary school facilities, progressively began to build secondary schools. Between 1957 and 1963 the Provincial Administration built five secondary schools - an average of one school per year.

5.7.1 Secondary School Curriculum

The secondary school curriculum in Indian schools was narrow and severely limited. The choice of subjects was restricted to English, Latin, biology, mathematics, history, geography and Afrikaans. The latter subject, although one of the official languages of the country, was not compulsory for all pupils. The majority of the pupils chose Latin as the second language. For example during the period 1962 to 1965, an average of 95,2% of candidates for the Natal Junior Certificate examination offered Latin. One of the main reasons for the very low percentage of pupils offering Afrikaans was that there were very few teachers in Indian schools qualified to teach Afrikaans. It should also be borne in mind that before the Nationalist Party came into power in 1948 the pressure in Natal for proficiency in Afrikaans was not as it is today. In the absence of any such pressure for Afrikaans, Indian pupils opted for Latin as second language to satisfy the matriculation requirement

The main reasons for the narrow curriculum in Indian secondary education was largely due to the fact that it was becoming increasingly difficult to obtain teachers with the necessary qualifications. In most cases teachers with university qualification had courses in English, history and geography. However, there were a few teachers who possessed science degrees obtained at the University College of Fort Hare. Quite often Latin, biology and mathematics were taught by teachers who had to rely on knowledge gained from their own schooling. The restricted curriculum could also be attributed to the core requirements of matriculation examination. Matriculation was the goal, which all pupils and teachers

strove to attain. During the race many pupils dropped by the wayside, largely owing to hurdles like the Standard 6 and the Junior Certificate examinations which eliminated them during the course of the race⁽³³⁾. For example in 1963 only 2 Indian pupils out of every thousand pupils completed the secondary school course⁽³⁴⁾.

The narrow and restricted secondary school curriculum was not peculiar to Indian schools. This was a common feature of most education systems in South Africa at the time. "Owing to limitations of teaching staff, the secondary schools, with only a few exceptions could not offer the whole menu of subjects they generally (especially in rural schools) offered only that central core of academic subjects required for matriculation. Thus it came about that the interests of the 3% who went to university largely dictated the nature of the education of the 97% who did not get there, but who, at the same time, did not receive an education which was worthwhile for them as far as it went"⁽³⁵⁾. This situation gave rise to the search for some form of differentiated education. Within the limitations imposed by the Vocational Education Act of 1955 the provinces made serious attempts at providing differentiated education for adolescents.

Even in most European countries the provision of secondary education for all was achieved only in the first decade after World War II. In Britain for example, the Hadow Report of 1926 stressed the necessity for the education of the adolescent followed by the Spens Report of 1938 which indicated the nature

of syllabuses and curricula which should be followed in the extended system of secondary education, while Norwood suggested that "education at this level required to be differentiated to provide most satisfactorily for the three broad human types to be recognised in schools of England"⁽³⁶⁾.

With the passing of the Education Act of 1944 in Britain provision for secondary education has been mainly of three types to which entry has to be gained by a process of selection based on tests taken between 10 and 11 years of age. The most academic have been drafted to the grammar school, the next most able to secondary technical schools, the remainder to the secondary modern school. There had been increasing dissatisfaction with eleven plus selection procedures and the tripartite division of all children at this early age. Many local authorities soon began experimenting with the creation of a comprehensive school system. In 1965 the Government urged all local education authorities to develop the comprehensive system on several approved lines. The most usual pattern for a comprehensive school is that which covers the whole range from 11 to 18; some authorities, however, have chosen to have comprehensive education from 11 to 16 followed by sixth-form specialist colleges; others have two-tier systems with an all-in comprehensive school from 11 to 14 (high schools) followed by alternative schooling either to the school-leaving age of 16 or leading to advanced studies to the age of 18 in an upper school⁽³⁷⁾.

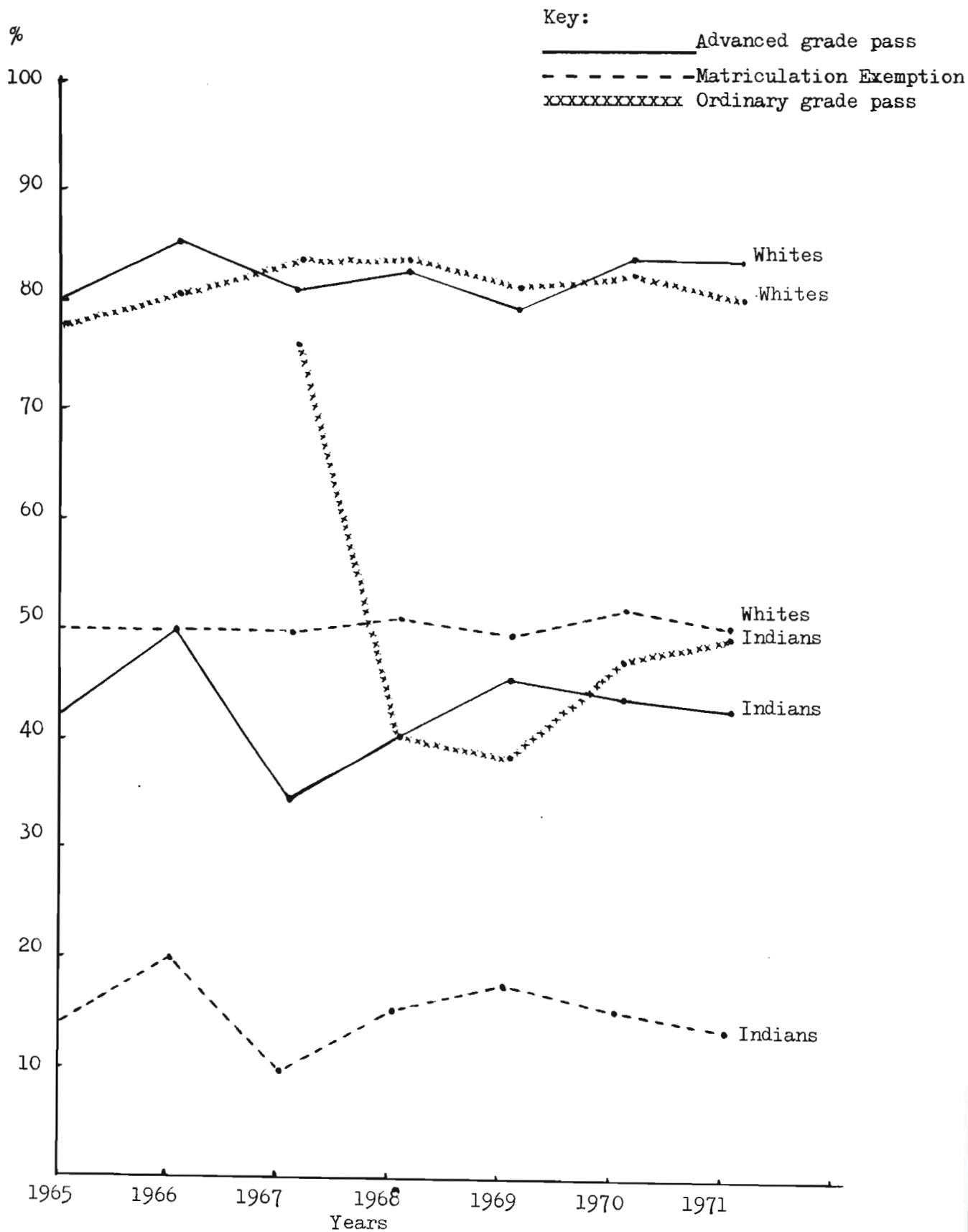
5.7.2 Differentiated Education in Natal

In 1962 the Natal Education Department introduced a two stream system of differentiated education. The two streams designated "advanced" and "ordinary" were kept together in one and the same school. The "advanced" stream, which absorbed about two-thirds of the secondary school population, led to the Senior Certificate with or without Matriculation Exemption; the "ordinary" stream led to the Senior Certificate only. Admission to the two streams took place at the end of Standard 6, based on the overall examination results.

Although the Wilks Committee felt that the education programme of Indians should not differ fundamentally from those of Whites, the two stream system was not introduced in Indian schools. As a result Indian pupils had no option but to enter for and write the Senior Certificate examination on the "advanced" level. The examination papers set for the "advanced" level pupils were aimed at pupils with a higher ability range than that of the "ordinary" pupils. In the absence of any form of differentiation the pass rates in Indian schools were very poor as can be seen from Figure 1 on the next page. It should be noted that after transfer of Indian education to the Department of Indian Affairs in 1966 Indian candidates as a result of an agreement between the Natal Education Department and the Department of Indian Affairs continued to write the Natal Senior Certificate examination of the Natal Education Department until 1974. As from 1975 the Department of Indian Affairs conducted its own Senior Certificate examination.

FIGURE I

Percentages of passes in the Natal Senior Certificate Examination
1965 to 1971; Whites and Indians in Natal Schools.



With reference to Figure 1, it will be observed that in the Natal Senior Certificate "advanced" grade examination, the overall pass rate in respect of White candidates shows very slight fluctuations - between 80 and 85 per cent. On the other hand the overall pass rate of Indian candidates shows extreme fluctuations. In 1965, the pass rate was 42% then it rose slightly to 50% in the following year and then it took a plunge to a mere 34% in 1967 and then began to rise in the next two years, reaching some stability after 1969.

The percentage of Indian candidates passing with matriculation exemption also shows extreme fluctuations. In 1967 only 10% obtained matriculation exemption against the 50% obtained by the White candidates. In 1970 and 1971 the percentage of White candidates passing with matriculation exemption rose to above 50% whereas the percentage for Indians in these two years shows a drop to about 15%.

The position is even worse in respect of the "ordinary" pass rate. Again the "ordinary" pass rate for Whites appears to be stable, ranging from 78% in 1965 to 80% in 1971. The Indian pass rate on the other hand shows extreme fluctuations. In 1967 the pass rate was 77% and it dropped to 40% in the following year, suffered a further drop in 1969, and then rose to 50% in 1971.

As there are several reasons and factors that influence pass and failure rates especially when one is considering unequal educational opportunities, the following generalisations

in respect of the poor performance of the Indian candidates in comparison with their White counterparts should be noted:

- (i) White candidates in 1965 had the advantage of streaming since 1962. Indian candidates did not have this advantage;
- (ii) When streaming was first introduced in White schools teachers were given the necessary orientation to cope with streaming. Indian teachers had none;
- (iii) The "advanced" grade course was too academic and did not suit a large number of Indian candidates;
- (iv) Too many Indian candidates, in the absence of any form of academic and career guidance, opted to write the "advanced" grade examination;
- (v) Owing to a lack of diversification of subjects and the influence of the matriculation exemption requirements, most Indian candidates studied Latin and mathematics. In Latin, common examination papers were set for both grades. In 1968 77,7% of the Indian candidates failed Latin in the "ordinary" grade and 42% failed "ordinary" grade mathematics;
- (vi) Prior to 1972, the Natal Education Department did not permit the appointment of Indians as examiners or sub-examiners. Thus Indian teachers were not

- given the opportunity of gaining experience in marking techniques, mark allocation and standardisation of evaluations;
- (vii) Lack of suitable and adequately qualified teachers in Indian secondary schools was a factor that was generally advanced as a contributory cause of pupil performance in the examinations. This was evidenced in the late 1960 s by the call from the teachers' association as well as community leaders for an urgent need for a qualitative and quantitative upgrading of the teaching force in Indian schools;
- (viii) The poor and sometimes the lack of specialist facilities such as science laboratories, domestic science kitchens, libraries and audio-visual aids;
- (ix) Overcrowding in Indian schools leading to a very high pupil-teacher ratio;
- (x) The long-term effects of the "platoon" school system on pupil performance;
- (xi) The population movement in terms of the Group Areas Act no doubt could have had a disruptive influence on school children who had to move from one school to another.

In Chapter Four of the present study it will be observed that

with the introduction of differentiated education in Indian schools as from 1967 and with Indian teachers' greater involvement as examiners and sub-examiners the pass rates in the Senior Certificate examinations improved significantly.

6. The Development of Technical Education for Indians

At the time of the signing of the Cape Town Agreement the literacy rate among adult Indians was very low. Many parents especially of the lower income group found it more profitable to encourage their children to seek employment to supplement the family income. In 1928 the Natal Workers' Congress was formed to assist people of the working class, who were denied the opportunity or facilities, to acquire a modicum of education. Technical education was envisaged for the youth and adults and the idea was conceived at a time when the Indians were at the cross-roads between economic survival and political despair. In those times of uncertainty, when repatriation of the Indians was the avowed policy of the Government, leaders emerged to give direction to the Indian people⁽³⁸⁾. Among them were Albert Christopher and P.R. Pather who were responsible for establishing the first part-time adult classes. With the assistance of the then principal of the Natal Technical College, Dr B.M Narbeth, they established the Indian Technical Institute in 1930. Part-time classes in general, commercial and technical education were started at Sastri College in 1931. Teachers were available after regular school hours to offer their services at these part-time classes. Students found it convenient to attend classes after normal working hours.

A branch of the Institute was opened in Pietermaritzburg in 1939. In

1942 M.L. Sultan, an Indian philanthropist, joined the management committee of the Technical Institute and made a generous offer to contribute half the cost of a new technical college in Durban, estimated at R50 000. The Durban City Council readily agreed to donate a suitable building site. The Minister of Education approved a rand for rand building grant. The new technical college was officially opened in 1956 and in recognition of its benefactor, it was named the M.L. Sultan Technical College. In terms of the Higher Education Act, No. 23 of 1923, the Technical College was declared an institution of higher education. Thus the establishment of the Indian Technical Institute in 1930 laid the foundation for a fully-fledged full-time technical college for Indians. Here, once again is a magnificent example of Indian initiative in providing educational facilities for their youth.

The M.L. Sultan Educational and Charitable Trust set up by the Late M.L. Sultan established branches at Stanger and Pietermaritzburg. The main centre and the two branches offered full-time and part-time tuition ranging from Standard 6 of the ordinary school curriculum to post-Senior Certificate technical and commercial courses.

In the early 1950's the M.L. Sultan Technical College established part-time classes in Clairwood, Merebank, Umzinto, Port Shepstone, Umkomaas, Mount Edgecombe, Verulam, Tongaat, Glencoe, Ladysmith, Newcastle and later in Chatsworth. These classes were conducted in Government schools in the evenings and on Saturday mornings. Tuition ranged from literacy classes to a full range of subjects leading to the National Senior Certificate. These part-time classes no doubt played a valuable role in providing education to thousands of Indians

who had to discontinue their formal education for a variety of reasons. The year 1957 saw the College firmly established with a full-time enrolment of 400 students in its day courses and some 5 500 students attending part-time classes. The College rapidly developed into an institution of major importance in the life of the Indian community. The increasing demand for adequate training facilities compelled the College to embark upon an extensive expansion programme. A School of Catering Services to train personnel for the hotel and catering industry was established in 1957. Over the years this School has become a foremost institution providing top class catering and hotel management personnel. In the same year a School of Technology and a School of Commerce and Secretarial Practice were established. In 1964 the College introduced physical education. Due to its rapid growth it became necessary to build an additional gymnasium. A separate homecrafts block was established in 1965.

Not only did these classes enable the youth and adults to improve their formal education but they helped them also to qualify in special areas in commerce, industry and the public sector.

Starting from a humble beginning in 1931 without any fixed premises or funds but with men of faith and vision, technical education for Indians has made rapid progress especially after the establishment of the M.L. Sultan Technical College, an institution which has become well known not only in South Africa but abroad as well.

Through the generosity of its founder, the Late M.L. Sultan, the Technical College for Indians features hopefully in the eyes of the present generation of students as an institution designed to offer to the youth unprecedented opportunities for self-realisation and desired technological goals undreamt of a generation ago. That technical education for Indians has blossomed beyond all expectations is "attributable to the dedication, perservance and public spiritedness of the men and women of a unique institution in a recognisably unique community"⁽³⁹⁾.

7. Developments in the Transvaal and the Cape Province

7.1 The Transvaal

A small number of Indians first entered the Transvaal in 1881. The new-comers could be divided into three categories. Firstly, there were the "free" Indians who, after completing their period of indenture in Natal, had not returned to India. Some of the more adventurous of these had proceeded from Natal to the Transvaal to become domestic servants, waiters, hawkers and so on. The second group were the "passenger" Indians to whom reference was made earlier in this Chapter. These Indians had come to explore new fields of endeavour and settled as traders and merchants. Their activities were primarily intended to meet the needs of the Indian community but soon extended to the local Blacks as well as the White farmers⁽⁴⁰⁾. The Portuguese Indians from Mozambique formed the third group. With the discovery of gold, like the Whites more and more Indians came to settle in the Transvaal. The government of the Transvaal did not, in the beginning, make any

provision for the education of the Indians nor for that matter, the Coloureds and the Africans. Education for these groups was started by missionary venture.

In 1902 the Transvaal which was then known as the South African Republic became a British Colony and in the following year Lord Milner, the Lieutenant Governor of the colony approved a new law known as Ordinance 7 of 1903 which made provision for the establishment of schools for Whites and other children, but excluding Blacks. The policy of separate schools for the different population groups became entrenched in April 1903 when a request by an Indian, Dr P.A. Periera, to allow his children to attend schools for the Whites was refused by Milner⁽⁴¹⁾. Provision was then made for the establishment of government schools for Coloureds and for the payment of grants to mission schools. Indian children were allowed to attend these schools, which in fact they did. Education was free as for the Whites.

In 1907 new regulations provided for the creation of school boards. As Coloureds and Indians did not have parliamentary franchise they were not eligible to vote for the election of board members. Indian and Coloured schools came under the local control of the same school board which served White schools in the district. The general function of the boards was of a supervisory nature over schools in their district.

In 1912 a move to establish a purely Indian school in Johannesburg came from a group of Moslem traders under the leadership of Habib Motan. It was put to the Witwatersrand Central School Board, that

due to difference in language, religion and culture between Coloureds and Indians, the establishment of a separate school for Indians was desirable and, indeed justifiable. The Board acceded to the request with the proviso that the Indian community offered a suitable building and undertook the supervision of the school through an elected school committee. The staff selected by the school committee was to consist of a White principal and Indian teachers. The salaries were to be paid by the Transvaal Education Department. It was a condition that the school admit children from every section of the Indian community, irrespective of language or religion, and at first Gujerati was to be the language used as a medium of instruction.

As a result the first separate school for Indians in the Transvaal was opened in Newtown, Johannesburg on 14 February 1913 with an enrolment of 136 pupils. As this school was primarily intended for the Gujerati-speaking section of the community, another school known as the Tamil Vedic Government School was established in Pretoria in January 1921 to cater for the Tamil-speaking pupils. It started with an enrolment of 90, mainly boys⁽⁴²⁾.

Indian schools were established in the Transvaal whenever requests for them were made by the community, provided that it gave assurance that accommodation was available. The buildings which were used as schools belonged mostly to secular bodies. The Provincial Administration paid a rental for the hire of the buildings so that, in effect, every Indian school in the province was a government institution. There were no Government-aided schools in the Transvaal similar to those in Natal.

In 1928 the Administrator of the Transvaal invited Kailas Kichlu of whom mention was made earlier, to look into the system of education for the Indians in the Transvaal and to make recommendations with a view to improving Indian education.

Kichlu found that the Indian schools did not conform to the regulations laid down by the Transvaal Education Department. He disapproved strongly the use of Gujerati and other Indian languages as media of instruction. Therefore he recommended the abolition of the sectarian type of schools and instead he advocated the establishment, in the larger centres of Indian population, of separate schools for the community as a whole and that Indian children in other centres be educated with Coloured pupils. He recommended strongly that the medium of instruction be the official language of the country. Kichlu's recommendations were accepted in their entirety by the Administrator and Indian education advanced steadily. In a matter of two years the content of education for Indians was identical to that imparted in Coloured and White schools⁽⁴³⁾.

In 1937 a provincial education commission - The Nicol Commission was appointed to "enquire into the educational system of the province with the view to making such recommendations as may increase its efficiency, bring it into line with modern developments in educational practice and enable it to meet satisfactorily the requirements of all sections of the population"⁽⁴⁴⁾. The Nicol Commission made the following far-reaching recommendations in regard to the education of Coloureds and Indians⁽⁴⁵⁾.

- (i) Establishment of separate schools for Coloureds and Indians where their numbers justified them;
- (ii) Establishment of Parents' Boards under the local council of education;
- (iii) Replacement of hired buildings by government buildings;
- (iv) Staffing of Coloured and Indian schools by teachers of these groups be expedited;
- (v) Adoption of the principle of compulsory education to be made applicable to children living within three miles from the nearest school;
- (vi) Centralisation of post-Standard 5 education outside the city of Johannesburg;
- (vii) Improvement in government subsidy;
- (viii) Establishment of a school of industries;
- (ix) Provision of library services; and
- (x) Introduction of health services.

The Transvaal Education Department endorsed the recommendations but felt that the matter should be deferred for future consideration. However, by 1940 the recommendations implemented included⁽⁴⁶⁾

- (i) The increase in state subsidy;
- (ii) The provision of separate schools for Coloureds and Indians although a number of "mixed" schools remained, particularly

in the rural areas;

- (iii) The replacement of European teachers by Coloured and Indian teachers, although a number of European and Coloured teachers remained in schools for Indians.

In 1945 according to the report of the Transvaal Education Department there were several schools being conducted in hired buildings. The condition of some of the buildings was so bad that the work of the children and teachers was affected adversely. Similar complaints were repeated in the Director's report for 1949, 1953 and 1959.

During 1952, the Transvaal Provincial Administration announced two important decisions affecting the Indian child. These were (47) :

The Administrator accepted the principle of encouraging the formation of parents' associations for Indian and Coloured schools under the jurisdiction of school boards;

School principals were empowered to exclude pupils who failed to attend school regularly.

In 1940 there were fourteen separate schools for Indians with an enrolment of 2707 pupils, and nineteen mixed schools providing education to Coloured and Indian children. Ten years later there were 27 Indian schools with 8 148 pupils and an unknown number in 22 mixed schools. In 1958 the school population was 12 877 but only two new schools had been added since 1950. In 1960 there were 32 Indian schools with an enrolment of 15 000 pupils, excluding a small number still attending schools for Coloureds⁽⁴⁸⁾.

Although the overall position with regard to the standard of education and the increase in enrolments was satisfactory, it was hampered by two factors: the average school life of the pupils was short and there was a grave shortage of adequately qualified Indian teachers.

In 1951 the Griffiths Committee which was appointed to investigate and report on Coloured and Indian education in the Transvaal, recommended that an inspector should be appointed solely for Coloured and Indian schools. It also recommended the formation of parents' associations at these schools⁽⁴⁹⁾. In 1952 there were only 38 such associations out of 94 Coloured and Indian schools. There appeared to be a general apathy on the part of the parents. Soon afterwards the Education Department was forced to withdraw recognition of these bodies because principals complained that members of these bodies interfered with the internal matters of the schools, such as syllabuses, methods of teaching and the school feeding scheme. The Department did not appoint separate inspectors solely for Coloured and Indian education.

7.1.1 Post-Primary Education

The first secondary school section was attached to the European Training Centre at Vrededorp established in 1919. Progressively secondary schools were built in the larger urban areas where Indian communities were concentrated. By 1958 there were nine secondary schools, seven of which were exclusively for Indians and two were for both Coloureds and Indians. In that year 2 694 Indian pupils were in secondary schools - constituting 15% of the total Indian school population⁽⁵⁰⁾.

From the very outset secondary education for Indians followed the same pattern as White schools. A diversity of subjects and courses were offered. In addition to the two official languages, fourteen subjects were offered so that every Indian child had the opportunity of choosing a curriculum suited to his particular aptitude, interest and ability⁽⁵¹⁾. Education for the Coloured and Indian child was free up to the matriculation standard, inclusive of the cost of books.

In secondary schools for Indians, the Transvaal differentiated three-stream secondary school curricula was available as in White schools. There were no external examinations at the end of Standards 6 or 8, but pupils wrote the Transvaal Senior Certificate examination at the end of the high school course. In accordance with the subjects offered and the candidate's performance in the examination, School Leaving or University Entrance Certificate was awarded. Pupils who left school before reaching the Senior Certificate level, were awarded a

certificate of achievement, indicating the subjects passed and the level of achievement⁽⁵²⁾.

The scope and diversity offered must be regarded as generous and liberal, considering that the Vocational Education Act of 1955 makes it impossible for any provincial education department to offer full differentiation and maximum diversity. In spite of the wide diversity and the differentiated courses, the Indian failure rate - and therefore the wastage - was disquieting. The following table shows the Indian results in the Senior Certificate examination for the period 1961 to 1963:

TABLE 5

Results of Indian Candidates in the Transvaal Senior
Certificate Examination : 1961-1963

	1961		1962		1963	
	U	L	U	L	U	L
Number of Candidates	84	71	60	96	88	137
First Class pass	1	-	5	2	5	1
Second Class pass	18	15	36	61	61	86
Awarded school leaving Cert.	24		7		13	
No. failed	41	56	12	33	9	50

U - University Entrance Certificate; L - School Leaving Certificate.

Source: Transvaal Education Department Reports: 1961-1963.

It must be pointed out that the 1961 examination represented the first in the new alignment and that the failure rate was generally much higher in 1961 than in 1962, with the position improving in 1963.

From reports of the Director of Education, it would seem that the high failure rate was due, apart from the quality of teaching, to the majority of the Indian candidates selecting the more academic type of courses. Subjects such as biology, commerce, housecraft and woodwork were not firmly established in the schools at the time because of a shortage of suitably qualified teachers in these subjects.

7.1.2 Some Concluding Remarks on Indian Education in the Transvaal

From the foregoing brief review of Indian education in the Transvaal, it would appear that in respect of some fundamentals in education, the position of Indian education in the Transvaal appears to be relatively better than it was in Natal. In the first instance, there is no evidence of the same measure of government apathy towards Indian education in the Transvaal as was evident in Natal. This becomes clear in Chapter Two of this study where it will be observed that there was greater apathy on the part of the Indian community in the Transvaal towards the education of their children than the preparedness on the part of the authorities to provide educational facilities for Indian children. In view of the reluctance on the part of the Indians to be trained as teachers,

the Transvaal Education Department made every effort to provide Indian schools with European and Coloured teachers, so that the Indian child was not deprived of education because of a want of Indian teachers.

From the very beginning, education for Indian children was free, inclusive of books and stationery. Indian secondary school pupils followed the same pattern of education as the Whites in the Transvaal. In Natal, tuition-free education was only introduced for Indian children on a staggered basis commencing with Class (i) in 1942. Indian children were not provided with free books and stationery except in the case of indigency. The secondary school curriculum for Indian children, especially after Natal had introduced the two-stream system of differentiated education in 1962, was not the same as for the Whites.

The lack of school accommodation in the Transvaal was not as acute as in Natal. Although initially the Indian community was expected to provide school premises, these were hired and fully paid for by the Provincial Administration. All Indian schools were full State schools. There were no State-aided or "platoon" schools in the Transvaal as was the case in Natal.

The interest shown in Indian education by the Transvaal Provincial Administration is also evident from the fact that in 1928 it took advantage of Kailas Kichlu's presence in South Africa and voluntarily invited him to investigate and report on the state of Indian education in the Transvaal. In 1951

it appointed the Griffiths Committee to report on Coloured and Indian education. Several improvements were effected in Indian education as a result of the recommendations flowing from the above investigations.

7.2 The Cape Province

The Cape was the last of the provinces to which Indians went to seek new pastures. After 1872 a number of Indians from India and Mauritius who came to South Africa as "passenger" Indians went to Port Elizabeth and soon adjusted themselves to the environment and settled among the Malays and Coloureds. From 1900 onwards the sons of indentured labourers from Natal began to migrate to Cape Town, Port Elizabeth and East London. They found that with only a modicum of English education, it was possible to earn a good living in the Cape. They were followed by a small number of families from Natal. Indian children were allowed to attend schools for Coloureds. The first Indian school in the Cape was established in 1895 by the Colonial Mauritian Settler Society. The medium of instruction at this school was Tamil. There were an estimated 2 000 Indians living in the Cape in 1913; the majority being concentrated in Port Elizabeth⁽⁵³⁾.

The first government recognised Indian school was established in 1941. The Saraswathie Educational Institute of Port Elizabeth negotiated with the Cape Provincial Administration for the recognition and subsidisation of an Indian school to be established by it. The successful negotiation resulted in the opening of the Rudolph Street (Hindu) Coloured School. The school started with an

enrolment of about sixty pupils among whom were some Coloured and Malay children. A professionally qualified Indian teacher from Natal was appointed as its first principal.

Although the Indians as a community managed to maintain their own cultural identity, they however integrated themselves with the Coloured and the Malays of the Cape. In view of the close relationship with the Coloureds, the Indians apparently did not request separate educational facilities for their children in the Cape. Until the transfer of Indian education from the Cape Education Department to the Department of Indian Affairs in 1971, Indian children attended Coloured schools.

8. Conclusion

The purpose of this Chapter is to provide a background for the next Chapter which deals with the historical development of Indian teacher education in South Africa. It is generally agreed that teacher education cannot be considered in a vacuum for it is inextricably woven into the fabric of the system of education in practice.

It is clear from the foregoing pages that soon after their arrival in this country, the Indians realised that their future economic and political well-being lay in a Western type education. With vision and foresight they made several self-sacrifices to provide educational facilities for their children. The growing antagonism against them only served to stir them to greater efforts in their educational endeavour.

Despite all forms of political and economic handicaps deliberately imposed on them by a hostile government - with the threat of repatriation hanging over their heads - they managed to forge ahead, making considerable progress in every field of human endeavour. They have contributed to the economic growth of South Africa in no small measure.

In education they have progressed to such an extent that it prompted a great South African educationalist, Malherbe to remark:

".....qualitatively it is further advanced than that of any other groups in South Africa, apart from that of the Whites. In fact a much larger percentage of Indians enjoy a university education in South Africa than in their own mother country, India it is not the result of their education being in any way favoured by government aid above that of the other groups. It is due mainly to the fact that, in their desire for education, the Indians themselves have contributed relatively more to the cost of their education than either the Africans or the Coloureds have done to theirs. Despite considerable political and other handicaps they have taken advantage of every opportunity in order to acquire education. They have made considerable sacrifices." (54)

In keeping with the policy of separate development, Indian education in terms of the Indians Education Act, 61 of 1965, was transferred from the provinces to the Department of Indian Affairs with effect from 1 April 1966 thus marking the end of an era in Indian education.

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CHAPTER TWOAN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF INDIAN TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA1860 - 19651. Introduction

Indian teacher education in this country has reached such a significant stage in its administrative and curricular development that one is apt to overlook the vicissitudes through which it has passed. The purpose of this Chapter is therefore, to trace the trials and tribulations through which Indian teacher education has passed from its earliest beginnings and up to the time of nationalisation of Indian Education in 1965.

The history of Indian teacher education in this country might have been happier had it been born in a less hostile anti-Indian climate. It was noted in Chapter One that towards the end of the nineteenth century, anti-Indian hostility began to intensify and the government resorted to means to discourage Indians from remaining in the country. There was general apathy on the part of the authorities towards Indian education.

Organised training of Indian teachers did not begin until 1930 though rudimentary attempts at it were made by individual and missionary enterprise as early as 1869 when Henry Nundoo started an evening school for the older boys who might become teachers in the elementary schools for Indians.

It was largely through the efforts of Srinivasa Sastri, the Agent-General of India, that the Natal Provincial Administration finally

assumed responsibility for the training of Indian teachers. In 1930 the Administration commenced formal training of Indian teachers at the newly built Sastri College in Durban. This marked the beginning of direct State involvement in the training of Indian teachers in Natal.

Despite considerable political and social handicaps often deliberately inflicted on a voteless minority, the educational advancement of the Indian community in South Africa is a success story. In the educational progress of the Indian community, the Indian teachers have played a significant role.

2. Teacher Education in Natal : 1860-1965

2.1 Early Beginnings

As already stated the earliest attempt at training Indian teachers was made in 1869 by Henry Munshi Nundoo from India. He established an evening school in Durban for the older pupils who might become teachers in the elementary schools for Indians. He was joined by the Rev. Ralph Stott, who it will be recalled, established the first government-recognised school for Indians in 1869. The Rev. Stott attended the evening school on three evenings each week to train the teachers. However, the few teachers trained by Stott were invariably drawn off by the offer of other employment as there was a demand for educated Indians in other more lucrative positions.

As the Christian missions were usually the pioneers in providing Indians with elementary education, the missionary himself was usually the teacher, teaching the three "Rs" by day and training

selected pupils by night. This system of teacher-training meant selecting a few intelligent and willing men and giving them elementary education. When they obtained a certain degree of literacy they were placed in charge of classes.

This was the usual pattern of training in South Africa in the early British colonial days. Education was almost exclusively the responsibility of the churches, with such persons as the "sieckentrooster", "voorlezer" and "voorzanger" acting as schoolmasters in the various towns and villages.

It was noted in Chapter One that in those early days Standard 4 was the upper limit of Indian education for three decades or more largely due to the fact that the teachers themselves had not had any more than a fourth standard of education. In the absence of any provision to train teachers to do more than that, the system could not very well support education beyond that level. Moreover, teachers' salaries were very low, varying from five shillings per month for a pupil-teacher to £2 per month for a qualified elementary teacher. Such low wages could hardly attract young men to the profession. The railways and hotels offered better salaries.

Because of the shortage of teachers, time-expired English naval and military men were employed in Indian schools. A few of the teachers in service were men from Mauritius who were not properly equipped to teach, because their education was at best very poor and superficial and what they lacked in knowledge and teaching techniques they made up with the cane.

This was scarcely to be wondered at for precisely the same situation prevailed in other education systems at the time. In Massachussets, U.S.A. the ranks (of teachers) were filled largely with young girls, spinsters, former clergymen, farmers and mechanics⁽¹⁾. To such people rote learning and corporal punishment were the usual stock in trade. The classroom often became "the place of crude apprenticeship for the broadest range of endeavours, as well as a dumping ground for the misfits and unsuccessful"⁽²⁾.

In England a similar situation existed. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that formal training of elementary school teachers was considered necessary.

The quality of persons attracted to teaching in the Cape could be gauged from the report of the Secretary of the Cape Colony. In 1837 he reported that "from whatever cause it may proceed, there is certainly in this colony something like a prejudice against the profession of schoolmaster, few of the Cape-born inhabitants indulging in it. In thinly inhabited districts, there are, or were, numbers of persons formerly belonging to corps disbanded in the Colony, or discharged from regiments serving in this station, who, for want of other means of livelihood, became *soidisant* teachers in the Boers' families. These were generally drunken, disreputable characters; and it is not to be wondered at that the uninstructed Boer could scarcely honour a profession which he saw so degraded in the professor"⁽³⁾.

The last two decades of the 19th Century saw no real progress with regard to the availability of Indian teachers. Almost every annual

report of the Protector of Indian Immigrants from 1879 to 1927 makes reference to the slow progress in Indian education due mainly to the non-availability of suitably qualified teachers.

The Indian Immigrant School Board decided in 1880 to recruit teachers from India at a salary of £50 per annum with the added inducement of a house and garden but the venture was unsuccessful⁽⁴⁾.

In 1882 an attempt to import three teachers under an indentured contract at a salary of £60 per annum "with a prospect of advancement regulated by the result of their work" resulted in the Board obtaining only one teacher from Madras⁽⁵⁾.

Attempts were made in 1884 to import women teachers from India to start girls' schools in Durban and Pietermaritzburg. These attempts also failed⁽⁶⁾. Neither the reports of the Protector of Indian Immigrants nor those of the Indian Immigrant School Board give any reason as to why the attempts to recruit teachers from India failed. Probably educated Indians in India were aware of the harsh and discriminatory measures that were meted out to their countrymen in Natal at the time. When the first batch of a small number of returning ex-indentured Indians arrived in India in 1870, they presented a sad picture of life and labour in Natal. In such circumstances it is hardly to be expected that qualified Indian teachers would want to risk their future in a strange and hostile country. Moreover, the poor salary of about £5 (about R10) per month offered to teachers could hardly attract even the more adventurous teacher. He could perhaps earn much more in India.

Although several educationists at that time recommended to the Indian Immigrants School Board that a training college should be established, the Board considered such recommendations as premature and felt that the purpose could be sufficiently served for the time being by using the pupil-teacher system in vogue in Natal European schools at the time ⁽⁷⁾.

By 1888, there were 17 pupil-teachers distributed over twelve Indian schools in Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Tongaat ⁽⁸⁾.

Since the Indian Immigrant School Board was not successful in recruiting teachers from India, they had to be obtained locally. Europeans were also employed in Indian schools. Between 1886 and 1890 there were one European male and nine European female teachers in Indian schools in Natal ⁽⁹⁾.

The following table gives the number, origin and qualifications of the twenty-four teachers in Indian schools in 1886 ⁽¹⁰⁾.

TABLE 1

Number, Origin and Qualifications of Teachers in Indian Schools in 1886

No	Where Educated	Qualifications
6	India	No professional qualifications
2	Mauritius	2 with Mauritius 4th class Teachers Cert.
1	Berlin	No professional qualifications
4	Natal	No professional qualifications
11	Unspecified	Unspecified

At the close of the nineteenth century because of low salaries, low standards of education, the highest primary school grade being Standard 4, and with lack of training facilities, teachers were inadequate in number, unqualified, unreliable and inefficient by present day standards.

Accepting then that the lack of progress in Indian teacher education was largely influenced by the anti-Indian attitude, it should be noted in perspective that the formal training of teachers for the elementary schools in most Western countries, including South Africa did not begin until the beginning of the nineteenth century. Niven notes that:

"Almost throughout the Western world, the concept of elementary education for all was accepted as a responsibility of the society with little thought being given to the preparation of teachers to make the concept a reality. From this emerged, with the dichotomy of full education for a privileged elite, and basic education for the mass of society, the widespread idea that elementary school teachers stood in need of professional training while secondary school-masters required only a thorough grounding in academic studies in the university."⁽¹¹⁾

In Holland the first Normal School was founded at Groningen in 1797. Up till that time prospective teachers had been trained by serving a sort of apprenticeship from the age of 14 to 16 or 18, as assistants in the larger schools during the day and receiving a course of special instruction for one hour every evening. This was the well-

known pupil-teacher system.

In 1800 Pestalozzi began a teacher-preparation school which was designed primarily, not to impart knowledge that was then passed on to the children but to instruct in the art of teaching. This in a sense could be regarded as the first normal school or *ecole normal*. Pestalozzi's "teacher-training school" system soon spread to Germany, France and Switzerland.

In the United States of America James Carter of Massachusetts stressed the need for teacher training institutions and inspired the establishment of the first private normal school at Conford, Vermont in 1823. The first State normal school was opened in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839. By 1850 most of the New England states had established similar institutions⁽¹²⁾.

In England the state was slow to take up the training of teachers, just as it was slow to consider education of the nation's children a responsibility of the government. As early as 1581 Mulcaster pleaded for professional training of teachers, but held that universities should provide for this as for the professions of the law, medicine and the ministry.

The success of the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster during the first half of the nineteenth century, was partly due to the unwillingness of the government and the people to contribute towards the cost of education and to the inability of religious bodies to cope with the needs of the time; this system of cheap mass education introduced by Bell and Lancaster, where one teacher controlled as

many as a thousand boys, was a somewhat inadequate substitute for a national system of schools and teacher training.

In 1839 the first normal school was established in England, but it was not wholly state supported. This institution called the Battersea Normal School, aimed at providing "proficiency in intellectual attainments such as a knowledge of method, and such skill in the art of teaching, as would enable the pupils selected to become efficient masters of elementary schools"⁽¹³⁾. This exercised a strong influence on the development of training especially through its emphasis on character forming by religious instruction and observances. In 1846 Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, Secretary of Privy Council for Education, introduced the pupil-teacher system. By 1880 pupil-teachers constituted nearly half of the teaching force in England⁽¹⁴⁾.

Soon after the British occupation of the Cape, Governor Cradock introduced a system of free schools for the poor on lines similar to the English monitorial system. It was not until 1842 that the earliest formal training of teachers for the elementary schools began in the Cape. This was the Buchanan's Normal school, named after its first principal, Thomas Buchanan⁽¹⁵⁾. This training institution operated for 18 years with the result that over 350 students who attended the institution in the period 1842 to 1859, only twelve were trained as teachers, but not one of these entered the teaching profession⁽¹⁶⁾. The institution was therefore closed in 1860.

The Cape had therefore, to rely on persons from overseas for its

supply of teachers, and also upon the pupil-teacher system which was introduced on a limited scale in 1842. In 1878 a normal school was established in Cape Town in collaboration with the Education Department. This school received government support.

The Transvaal, Orange Free State and Natal saw similar developments in teacher training. In Natal and the Orange Free State the pupil-teacher system was introduced in 1873 and 1874 respectively. In the Transvaal the Education Act of 1882 laid down that it was the duty of the government to establish an institution for higher education "voornamelyk ter opleiding van onderwyzers en andere ambtenaren"⁽¹⁷⁾. By Act No. 8 of 1892 a subsidised pupil-teacher system was introduced. In 1893 twenty bursaries were made available for the training of prospective teachers and was put into effect at the State Model School in 1895.

On the system of pupil-teacher training, Niven comments "This system of pupil-teacher training was the first system of controlled teacher preparation which left its mark upon South Africa..... Inadequate and inefficient though the pupil-teacher scheme may have been, it was the main source of supply of teachers for elementary schools in South Africa until well into the twentieth century"⁽¹⁸⁾.

2.2 The First Full-Time Training for Indian Teachers

In 1900 the Natal Education Department ruled that all Indian teachers in government established Indian schools had to have at least the Indian Junior Teachers' Certificate but made no provision for the training of those desiring to improve their qualifications. As a

palliative, the Department instituted week-end classes at three centres for those wishing to improve their qualifications. Several Indian teachers took advantage of these classes and attained the minimum qualifications. The Superintendent of Education, Mr Russell made the following observations in respect of Indian teachers at the time.

"The training schools have done a great deal of excellent work and the teachers have attended the classes at no small financial sacrifice to themselves. All but two of the head teachers in the coast district are certificated and quite a number of assistants have also qualified."⁽¹⁹⁾

In 1909 Inspector Mr C.T. Loram who was so impressed with the efforts of the Indian teachers in their struggle to improve their qualifications stated:

"Whatever view may be held as to the desirability of educating these people it is impossible not to admire the efforts of the Indian teachers towards self-improvement both in general and professional knowledge."⁽²⁰⁾

The first person to give serious thought to the necessity of full-time training facilities for Indian teachers was Canon A.H. Smith of the St. Aidan's Mission. As he was assured of a supply of lecturers from India, the St. Aidan's Mission established a full-time training College in Durban in 1904. At first it was called the St. Aidan's Diocesan Training College but later it came to be known as the St. Aidan's Provincial Training College. In 1907 the

Natal Government awarded a grant ranging from £100 in that year to £200 per annum in 1915⁽²¹⁾.

The first members of the lecturing staff from India were:
Rev. D. Koilpilla, (Principal), Samuel Jesudas BA, Gnanamuthu
Thungasamy, BA and Samuel Joseph, BA.

Admission to the College was Standard 4 and the training led to the Indian Teachers' Junior Certificate after one year's full-time study.

Besides giving training to full-time students, part-time classes were started for unqualified teachers at the College. Local teachers had their afternoon classes during the weekdays and special weekend classes were held for country teachers. With the outbreak of the first World War the number of students dropped considerably. The teachers returned to India after having made a significant contribution to Indian education. The training of teachers almost came to an end and even unqualified men and women were not easily available to staff the schools. The Superintendent of Education remarked on the situation as follows:

"But owing to the fact that several teachers have volunteered for the Front and the stress of circumstances in many cases have compelled parents to remove lads who would otherwise continue their education at the College to become teachers, there has arisen an increasing difficulty in the procurement of certificated teachers, and in the future, this difficulty is likely to be aggravated rather than diminished"⁽²²⁾

After the end of World War I, the St. Aidan's Provincial Training College was revived. However, it was found that the teachers trained at the College were primarily intended for mission schools and were not available to schools established by the Indian community. As a result children seeking admission to schools could not be admitted because of the growing shortage of teachers.

2.3 Developments after Establishment of Union in 1910

The South Africa Act of 1909 divided education into two broad categories :

- (i) "Higher education" which would be under the control of the central government;
- (ii) "Education, other than higher education" would be the responsibility of the provinces.

The failure to define the term "higher education" gave rise to several problems and resulted in anomalies. Shortly after Union, in November 1910 a meeting was held between the Minister of Education and the four Provincial Superintendents of Education, where the principle was laid down that as long as primary and secondary education remained under the control of the Provincial Administrations, the training and certification of teachers should remain a provincial function. Two years later a firm decision was taken placing training colleges under provincial control.

It is not proposed to discuss here the long standing issues concerning how and where teachers should be trained. Brief reference

to White teacher education will be made in a later chapter in this study. What needs to be noted here is that after Union there were tremendous improvements in White education. Commenting on the progress in education Malherbe states : "The greatest single index of progress in any education system is the quality of the teaching force. The number of teachers just before Union was a little over 10 000. By 1921 this number had exactly doubled itself"⁽²³⁾. The percentage of qualified teachers also increased during the period. In 1921 the average percentage of qualified White teachers in the four provinces was about 70%⁽²⁴⁾. "This increase in the number of better-qualified teachers is due chiefly to the increased facilities provided for teacher training in all the Provinces"⁽²⁵⁾. There was an average tenfold increase in the amount spent on teacher education in all the four provinces from the time of Union to 1921⁽²⁶⁾. In so far as Indian teacher education was concerned the establishment of the Union saw no real progress. The authorities who were determined to get rid of the Indians through their repatriation scheme were not prepared to accept responsibility for the training of Indian teachers.

The Natal Provincial Administration maintained that it was unable to provide training facilities for Indian teachers in view of the limited funds it received for Indian education. While this may have been the case it needs to be noted that Kichlu in 1928 reported that "so far from Indian education having been a burden of the Province, the Province was benefiting at the expense of the Indian"⁽²⁷⁾. Kichlu's figures in support of this claim are set out in Table 3 of Chapter One of this study.

The general apathy of the Union Government and the Natal Provincial Administration towards Indian teacher education no doubt retarded the progress of Indian education.

In 1924 the Superintendent of Education stated that the training of Indian teachers was not in a satisfactory condition. An institution was needed to maintain the supply of professionally qualified teachers. It had to be a residential establishment either in Durban or Stanger. As the financial position of the Province made this seem improbable, the Indian community was urged to provide the funds for such a teacher training centre⁽²⁸⁾.

It must be noted that the Indian community had to rely largely on its own resources for the educational needs of its children as is evidenced by the fact that by 1928 it had contributed over R30 000 (a princely sum in those days) towards the construction of 43 primary schools accommodating about 1 000 pupils in various parts of Natal.

So it would seem that the Indian community itself had to build a college to alleviate the problem of teacher shortage.

2.4 The Legacy of Srinivasa Sastri to Indian Education

The Right Honourable Srinivasa Sastri was appointed as the first Agent-General of the Government of India in South Africa in 1927. When it was announced that the Natal Provincial Administration agreed to appoint an education commission in pursuance of the Cape Town Agreement, Sastri immediately set about preparing a memorandum

on a project he had planned. He realised that a training college for teachers was the most urgent need of Indian education. To the parents and the Indian community generally, the provision of additional facilities for education up to the matriculation standard seemed to be more urgent. Combining the two ideas, Sastri formulated a scheme for a combined training college and high school. In this institution students would study up to the matriculation standard either for the purpose of a general education or as a preliminary to the more specialised work of training as teachers to which he hoped many would proceed. Sastri announced his scheme privately about the beginning of August 1927 and asked the Indian community in Natal to subscribe a sum of £20 000 towards the erection and equipment of a suitable building, the intention being that once the building was completed and fully equipped, the Provincial Administration would be asked to take over its administration. When Sastri was assured of the funds for the erection of the proposed building, he succeeded in seeking the help of the Mayor of Durban in securing a suitable site.

Sastri in his annual report ending 31 December 1927 remarked on the spontaneous response to his request for financial support for his scheme as follows:

"Although broadly speaking, the wealthy traders in Natal have not in the past shown the same desire for education (beyond the bare rudiments) as has been evinced by the poorer classes descended largely from the indentured labourers, a most gratifying response has been made to the Agent's appeal. A sum of £18 000 is already in the bank..... and the remaining £2 000 will be readily

forthcoming This essay in self-help cannot fail to stand the community in good stead when the educational position is considered by the Commission,"⁽²⁹⁾

The Indian Education Inquiry Committee of 1928 considered the position of Indian teacher training and it reported. "It is absolutely essential to establish an Indian training college in order to supply the necessary qualified teachers to provide for the extension which had been referred to, and in this connection the Administration should accept the gift of Srinivasa Sastri of a fully equipped training college and assume the responsibility for its conduct and maintenance and further as it is impossible to find professors in this country capable of starting the training college, the first opportunity should be taken to import them from overseas"⁽³⁰⁾

The Natal Provincial Administration accepted the offer of Mr Sastri and requested him to proceed with the building of the new college. On 24 August 1928, Mr Gordon Watson, the Administrator of Natal laid the foundation stone of the college. Building operations commenced in January 1929. Mr Sastri's term of office having expired, he sailed for India shortly thereafter, happy in the thought that in some small measure he had set the course of Indian teacher education on a sound footing.

The college was officially opened on 14 October 1929 by the Earl of Athlone. On this occasion, Sastri's successor, Sir Kurma Reddi said:

"This is a great day for us. It is a red letter day in the annals

of the South African Indians. By opening the doors of this magnificent building in a few minutes, your Excellency will be lighting a torch which will spread light and knowledge into numerous Indian homes. Within these walls themselves this torch of true learning will be kept alight to guide the South African Indians in their search for what gives real value, and to enable them to form right conceptions of the good, the true and the beautiful."⁽³¹⁾

2.5 Progress Following the Opening of Sastri College

The opening of Sastri College was a milestone in the history of Indian education in general and in teacher education in particular. It will be recalled that in the past, the missionaries and private agencies were content with such men as they could secure and very few of the teachers so secured were men who had passed the sixth standard and very often boys who had passed the fourth standard were drafted in. There were no teachers who studied to the matriculation standard. Commenting on this state of affairs Sir Kurma Reddi, on the occasion of the official opening of Sastri College said: "..... in spite of this great drawback it is a wonder how some of the schools have maintained an efficiency equal to that of some of the best European schools. All honour to this noble band of teachers"⁽³²⁾.

Sastri College opened its doors on 10 February 1930. A staff of six special graduate teachers was recruited from India on a three-year contract. These were Messrs T.R. Nair, B.T. Trivedi, G. Sinha, P.K. Koru, A. Shakoor and F. Khan. Three Indian teachers

from Natal, namely Messrs M.B. Naidoo, B. Somers and S.M. Moodley were also appointed to the staff. Two Europeans - Mr W.M. Buss and Mr H.S. Miller were appointed Principal and Vice-Principal respectively.

After the end of their contract, the six teachers from India returned home having made a very worthwhile contribution to Indian teacher education in Natal. Their places were filled by European teachers.

At first Sastri College had to concentrate on secondary education. The formal process of teacher training began in 1931. Thus began the first effort ever by the Natal Provincial Administration at providing full-time teacher education for Indians.

2.5.1 New Courses

When teacher training commenced at Sastri College in 1931 a new system of teacher certification was introduced. At the same time the Indian Teachers' Junior and Senior Certificate courses were discontinued for full-time students; these courses were, however, offered to part-time students. The full-time teachers' courses offered at Sastri College were the Teachers' Third Class B Certificate, a post Standard 8 course of two years' duration and the Teachers' Fifth Class Certificate, a post Standard 6 course of one year duration of training.

2.6 Separate training facilities for Indian Women teachers

As Indian parents at the time were reluctant to send their daughters to be trained as teachers at Sastri College which was a boys' school, the Provincial Administration in 1931 arranged for the training of Indian girls at the nearby Durban Indian Girls' High School to provide instruction on the academic side. For their professional training, however, the girls, had to attend Sastri College. This arrangement continued until 1941 when full training facilities were provided at the Indian Girls' High School. The shortage of Indian women teachers was a handicap to the progress of Indian education. Whereas the Natal Provincial Administration finally accepted responsibility for the training of Indian teachers, and had made provision for separate training facilities for the Indian girls, the number of girls entering teacher training courses was relatively small. For example, in 1947 the girls made up 36% of the school population and only 21% of the teachers were women⁽³³⁾.

The recruitment of women students for teacher training was further aggravated by the fact that there were no hostel facilities for the girls to attract them from outlying areas. It was becoming difficult for the Education Department to appoint women teachers to teach needlework and elementary housecraft in rural schools. Parents were reluctant to allow their daughters to be appointed to schools in the rural areas. Another factor that caused concern for the Education Department was that most Indian women teachers left the teaching profession when they married.

The Director of the Natal Education Department in 1949 reported that the recruitment of women teachers had always been a problem and it

had sometimes become impossible to find women teachers for the higher primary classes at girls' schools. The interest shown by Indian girls in the Teachers' Third Class B Certificate was expected to ease the situation⁽³⁴⁾.

2.7 Part-time Training

When the expansion of Indian education began after the Cape Town Agreement, most of the Indian teachers then in schools had not received adequate training. To serve the needs of these teachers part-time classes were established in Durban, Pietermaritzburg and at a centre on the North Coast of Natal. These classes were conducted by European teachers. Lectures were held in the evenings and on Saturday mornings.

Teachers were prepared for the Teachers' Fourth Class Certificate (which was available to part-time candidates only) and the Teachers' Fifth Class Certificate.

The work in the part-time classes was supplemented by vacation classes on such topics as methods of teaching, music, art, arithmetic and physical education. These vacation classes not only formed part of the training for the teachers' examinations, but also served as refresher courses for trained teachers.

The table below gives an indication of the steady growth in part-time enrolment.

TABLE 2

Number of Part-time Classes and Enrolment: 1934-1941

Year	No. of Classes	Enrolment
1934	5	194
1935	4	150
1936	5	177
1937	5	203
1938	5	175
1939	6	187
1940	7	215
1941	6	212

Source: Natal Education Department : Statistical Supplements : 1934-1941

In spite of the obvious disadvantage of the part-time training, which Inspector Lawlor described as "as best a very inadequate preparation for the teaching profession", it no doubt redounds to the credit of the Indian teacher, who through considerable self-sacrifice snatched at every opportunity to improve his qualification. In this regard Inspector Lawlor commented, "That there are Indian teachers in Natal who have risen superior to this meagre opportunity and made themselves a credit to the profession, is a matter of individual admiration and not for general congratulation"⁽³⁵⁾.

2.8 Student Enrolment

The table below shows total enrolment of students in training:
1932-1942.

TABLE 3

No. of Indian Men and Women Teachers in Training for the Various Teachers' courses : Full and Part-time: 1932-1942

Certificates										
Year	T.3B		T.4		T.5		Total		Total	Percentage of women
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W		
1932	3	-	126	23	95	27	224	50	274	18,2
1933	10	-	180	23	104	33	294	56	350	16,0
1934	13	-	143	22	59	21	215	43	258	16,6
1935	14	2	124	8	8	21	146	31	177	17,5
1936	10	1	114	9	14	24	138	34	172	19,7
1937	7	-	170	6	15	29	192	35	227	15,4
1938	18	-	112	18	7	24	137	42	179	23,4
1939	17	-	99	16	5	20	121	36	157	22,9
1940	53	-	83	29	8	20	144	49	193	25,3
1941	22	-	100	23	7	58	129	81	210	38,5
1942	20	-	64	25	6	68	90	93	183	50,8
Total	187	3	1 315	202	328	345	1 830	550	2 380	

Key : T.3B = Teachers' Third Class B Certificate
 T.4 = Teachers' Fourth Class Certificate
 T.5 = Teachers' Fifth Class Certificate
 M = Men students
 W = Women students

Source : Reports of the Supt. of Education/Director of Education Natal; years 1932 to 1942

The figures in the above table indicate a substantial drop in the total numbers in training from 350 in 1933 to 183 in 1942, with the number of males in training being reduced to two-thirds during the same period. There was also a substantial drop in the number of women studying for the T4 course in the years 1935 to 1937. The reason for this is not indicated in the reports consulted. However, a pleasing feature in the table is that the overall percentage of women in training increased from 16% in 1933 to 50,8% in 1942. This could be attributed to the full training facilities being available from 1941 at the Durban Indian Girls' High School.

Viewed against both school enrolment growth and the increase in the number of schools during the period, the position could be summed up as disastrous. In 1931 there were 88 schools with a total enrolment of 16 318. In 1942 the corresponding figures were 125 schools and 30 060 pupils⁽³⁶⁾. This represents a growth rate of 45,7% in pupil enrolment and 37 additional schools during the period. On the other hand the numbers in training had dropped by 47,7% during the same period. It would seem therefore, that a large number of unqualified teachers were employed to meet the demand.

2.9 The Need for a New Training College for Indians

The training of Indian teachers was limited to two institutions, i.e. Sastri College and the Durban Indian Girls' High School. These two institutions, it will be recalled, apart from training teachers on a limited scale, provided secondary education in the main. If any expansion in the recruitment of teacher trainees

was contemplated to meet the increasing demand for trained teachers, it could not be at the two existing dual-function institutions.

The post-war years saw a steady growth in the demand for secondary education. In 1939 there were 25 081 Indian children in schools. Of this number, there were only 429 or 1,7% in the secondary classes. In 1948 the school population rose to 39 022 pupils, of which 1 193 or 3,0% were in the secondary classes. At this time there were only nine schools offering secondary education. Of these, only Sastri College and the Durban Indian Girls' High School offered secondary education leading to the matriculation certificate, and the rest provided tuition up to the Junior Certificate level. It should be noted that the number of pupils in the secondary classes indicated above is the actual number who were successful in gaining a place in a secondary school. Thousands of pupils seeking admission at such schools were not successful because of a lack of secondary school accommodation. In view of the fact that most of the secondary schools offered tuition only up to the Junior Certificate level, those completing this course invariably sought accommodation at Sastri College and the Girls' High School to continue schooling up to the matriculation level. At the same time there was an ever-increasing need for trained teachers and therefore teacher trainee intake at these two schools could not be reduced to accommodate those seeking accommodation to continue their education beyond the Junior Certificate level. In 1945 the Director of Education in Natal reported that unless the training of teachers kept pace with the erection of new schools and the demand for secondary education, the quality of teaching and

the general standard of Indian education would suffer. Owing to the demands of an expanding system a large number of professionally unqualified teachers had to be employed.

2.10 Developments following the Wilks Committee Recommendation on Indian Teacher Education

The Wilks Committee enunciated important points of principles with regard to teacher education. Its recommendation for the establishment of a fully-fledged training college for Indians as a State undertaking marked a significant turning point in the history of Indian education in Natal. At last a clear policy with regard to the training of Indian teachers as a full State responsibility emerged thus signalling a new era in Indian teacher education.

The Wilks Committee recommendations in respect of Indian teacher training college were that:

- (i) A co-educational Training College should be established in Durban;
- (ii) A small number of Coloured students should be admitted at the College; and
- (iii) Separate hostel accommodation should be provided for Indian men and for Indian women, for Coloured men and for Coloured women⁽³⁷⁾.

The Committee felt that the Teachers' Third Class B course which was based on matriculation plus one year of training was too rushed on the professional side to permit of adequate development of teacher

qualities. On the other hand the Committee felt that for economic reasons and on administrative grounds, it would not be practicable to extend the period of training unduly. It therefore recommended that⁽³⁸⁾ :

- (iv) the basic course at the Non-European Training College should be of two years' duration following the Natal Senior Certificate (or its equivalent) and leading to the Natal Teachers' Higher Certificate; and
- (v) there should be a similar course of two years' duration following the Natal Junior Certificate (or equivalent) and leading to the Natal Teachers' Lower Certificate.

Considering the reluctance of certain sections of the Indian community to permit their daughters to spend many years in higher education, the Committee felt that in order to encourage sufficient number of women teachers the minimum academic entry qualification should be lower than that of the men teachers. It therefore recommended that⁽³⁹⁾ :

- (vi) for the present there should be offered, for women only, a course of two years' duration following Standard 7 and leading to the Natal Teachers' Interim Certificate;
- (vii) teachers holding this Certificate should in general be employed in teaching classes below Standard 3;

- (viii) the Non-European Training College should be permitted to introduce as soon as circumstances warrant, a three-year post-Senior Certificate course comparable to, though not necessarily identical with, that offered at the Natal Training College and leading to the Natal Teachers' Diploma⁽⁴⁰⁾.

Addressing the problem of inadequate supply of graduate teachers the Committee felt that the need for such teachers would gradually expand. The Committee was of the opinion that this need could be met by the continuance of the existing facilities whereby graduate Coloured and Indian teachers could take the University Education Diploma. It therefore felt that it was not necessary to make any specific recommendation in this regard; but it recommended that⁽⁴¹⁾:

- (ix) provision should also be made for graduates to take a two year professional course at the Non-European Training College, leading to the Natal Teachers' Diploma;

Turning to the problem of the large number of professionally unqualified teachers the Committee stated that, "the rapidly expanding Indian education service will compel the authorities, for some years to come, to employ some professionally unqualified teachers; and justice demands that a back-door entrance be kept open. Nevertheless both for the sake of the teachers themselves and for the sake of Indian education, it was essential that the state of affairs be terminated as soon as practicable"⁽⁴²⁾. It was desirable the Committee said, that the back-door entrance be

made progressively less attractive and more difficult in order to encourage all intending teachers ultimately to take the regular internal training courses. Consequently, the Committee recommended that⁽⁴³⁾:

- (x) Non-European teachers in the service at a fixed date determined by regulation should be permitted to take the Higher, Lower or Interim Certificates externally, provided they hold the necessary academic qualification in each case, and provided they have had five years' successful teaching experience;
- (xi) Non-European teachers entering the service after the fixed date, in addition to being required to hold the necessary academic qualification and to have five years' successful teaching experience, should have attended at least two vacation courses of at least ten days' duration, and should then be permitted to take externally only the Lower or the Interim Certificate;

In respect of examination and certification the Committee felt that while it agreed that the ultimate goal for the Training College should be the same system of full internal responsibility for certification as that recommended for the European Training College, it felt that it might be unwise to introduce such arrangement too hastily for Non-European students and at a college where traditions had to be developed. Such traditions were essentially a matter of growth and can never be forced. Therefore the Committee recommended

that⁽⁴⁴⁾ :

- (xii) for the present the certification of Non- European students should be dependent upon a system of examinations, controlled by the Department.

Commenting on the school system and the quality of Indian teachers in that system, the Committee stated that, "the organisation and curricula which have come into being in Coloured and Indian schools, in the absence of tradition or precedent, were based on, and indeed identical with, those in European schools. The degree of success of this system depended no less on the ability of the teacher to apply them intelligently than on the preparedness of the pupil to benefit. The Indian teacher, perhaps no less devoted to his task than his European counterpart has the disadvantage of lower standard in academic attainment and general information, as well as the limitations in teacher training which are inseparable from the necessarily slow development of a young system of education..... it can well be appreciated that the process of education, as understood by the considerable majority of these teachers, cannot but assume a very mechanical complexion..... however, it is no injustice to the rank and file of these teachers, nor any reflection on them, to say that the existing primary curriculum is by no means easy for them to cope with; in a great many places important parts of it can as yet be implemented only in a very defective manner, if not actually by default"⁽⁴⁵⁾.

Although the Wilks Committee Report was an historic report as far as Indian teacher training was concerned, in some respect the Report tended to overlook or merely glossed over some important

issues in Indian education. This becomes evident when one compares some significant recommendations in respect of White education.

The Report recommended a system of four tier differentiated education. It suggested that after Standard 6 pupils should follow any one of four courses. The courses comprised an academically-biased one, a commercial or technical course for boys with emphasis upon book-keeping or geometrical drawing, and two general practical course (pre-vocational) with boys concentrating upon book-keeping and trade theory, and the girls concentrating upon book-keeping, shorthand and typewriting. In each case the core curriculum comprised religious instruction, health education, music, art, craft, the two official languages and arithmetic⁽⁴⁶⁾.

In so far as Indian education was concerned the Report stated that, "There is little likelihood that any but a small majority of the children will proceed beyond Standard VI, and of those who do the big majority will leave at Standard VII"⁽⁴⁷⁾. Therefore it suggested that educational facilities should be made available also for a minority to continue their education beyond that stage.

As for the curriculum of Indian education, the Report stated that there were no good grounds for supposing that the ultimate aims of Indian education (as well as Coloured education) should differ in any fundamental way from those of Europeans. The curriculum need, therefore only diverge from that of the Europeans where existing conditions made this imperative. Changes recommended

should take place in Indian schools at the same time as in European schools⁽⁴⁸⁾.

The Report was definite in its recommendations with regard to the preparation of European teachers to accommodate its proposed system of differentiated education. In the first instance it was felt that the two-year course of training was inadequate, for it was found to be overloaded to the extent that there was either undue strain upon students or else there was to a certain extent a neglect of some important aspects of teacher training. It proposed that "the basic course at the Natal Training College should be of three years' duration and should lead to the Natal Teachers' Diploma"⁽⁴⁹⁾.

A radical departure was suggested with regard to course content. Although the Report did not wish to impose rigidity in prescription, it did suggest that "the first two years might be occupied with purely professional work, university subjects being excluded In the third year, the more academically minded students might be given the option of taking three university courses together with specialisation in one aspect of school work; the others might specialise in two aspects of school work"⁽⁵⁰⁾. It was further proposed that wider choice of specialist aspects of training should be made available, including handicrafts, physical education, deviate education, rural education, commercial education, religious education and nursery education. It should be noted that at the time Natal Training College students did take first year university courses at the University College in Pietermaritzburg.

Space does not permit a full discussion of the very significant recommendations of the Wilks Committee Report with regard to the training of European teachers. According to Niven, there is no doubt that the review of teacher education in Natal undertaken by this Committee was the most comprehensive one in the history of the province up to that time. He states, "There is no doubt also that it enunciated important points of principle that have been incorporated or are being considered with a view to incorporation into existing systems. These include the extension of the duration of basic training to three years, with increasing numbers of non-graduates receiving four-year training; the increase in the professional content of non-graduate courses; an integrated academic-professional course of preparation for graduate teachers; and the development of closer liaison between the university and the provincial education authorities"⁽⁵¹⁾.

With regard to the training of Indian teachers for the secondary schools, the Wilks Committee failed to make any firm recommendations other than stating that the need for such teachers could be met by enabling Indian graduates to take the University Education Diploma. Subsequent events in Indian secondary education proved that the Wilks Committee erred in its assessment of the demand for secondary education. It was noted in Chapter One and elsewhere in this study that the post-war years saw a substantial increase in the demand for secondary education and thousands seeking admission to secondary schools had to be turned away because of the lack of accommodation. The lack of secondary school accommodation was also influenced by the unavailability of suitably qualified secondary school teachers. Expansion in secondary school facilities obviously

could not take place without qualified teachers. Out of sheer necessity teachers with inadequate qualifications were employed in secondary classes no doubt with adverse effect on the quality of secondary education.

Neither the Minutes of the Provincial Council nor the Director's reports make any specific reference to the recommendations of the Wilks Committee especially in so far as Indian education is concerned, other than making a general statement that "many of the Wilks recommendations have been given effect...." and a "contract has been awarded for building a new college for Indians"⁽⁵²⁾.

Presumably because of the inadequacy of suitably qualified secondary school teachers the Wilks recommendation that "changes in the secondary school curriculum should take place in Indian schools at the same time as in European schools" was not extended to Indian education. It will be recalled that the Natal Education Department introduced the system of two stream differentiated education in European schools in 1962.

2.11 The Opening of Springfield Training College and Subsequent Development

As a result of the recommendation of the Natal Provincial Education Committee of 1946 the Natal Administration built the first fully-fledged teacher training college for Indians in Durban on its own initiative. The opening of the Springfield Training College on 20 August 1951 was an event of great significance to Indian education. The new college was to be co-educational. The College was opened to

Coloureds as well but very few Coloureds attended the College. The teachers who were in training at Sastri College and the Durban Indian Girls' High School were transferred to the new college. These comprised 107 men students from Sastri College and 18 women students from the Durban Indian Girls' High School. Of the 125 students 46 were taking a one year post - Senior Certificate teachers' course and the remainder a two-year post - Junior Certificate teachers' course⁽⁵³⁾.

One very important short-coming when the Springfield Training College was built was the absence of hostel facilities. This was a serious drawback as students from the areas outside of Durban could not find suitable accommodation. In most cases the cost of board and lodging was high. There was also the difficulty of finding accommodation with private families.

In this respect the Natal Provincial Administration disregarded the recommendations of the Wilks Committee which stated that adequate hostel accommodation, both for men and women teachers in training, should be provided. It would seem that the Natal Provincial Administration neglected to learn from its experience at Sastri College and the Durban Indian Girls' High School where because of a lack of hostel facilities students from the rural and areas outside of Durban could not be recruited. Although the Natal Provincial Administration in its 1960/61 estimates made provision for expansion of the College and a vote of R120 000 was accepted in principle for a hostel at the College⁽⁵⁴⁾ such facilities were not provided by the Natal Provincial Administration.

2.11.1 Teachers' Certificate Renamed

Arising out of the recommendations of the Wilks Committee Report, the nomenclature of the teachers' certificates was changed in 1950. It should be noted here that the First Class Teachers' Certificate awarded before the formation of the Union gradually came to be known as the University Education Diploma, Higher Education Diploma or Secondary Teachers' Diploma.

The Teacher's Fourth Class Certificate was withdrawn in 1948 because of its similarity in course content with Teachers' Third Class B Certificate.

The following were the changes in nomenclature:

<u>Old Nomenclature</u>	<u>New Nomenclature</u>
Natal Teachers' Third Class Certificate	Natal Teachers' Diploma
Natal Teachers' Third Class B Certificate	Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate
Natal Teachers' Fifth Class Certificate	Natal Teachers' Junior Certificate
Natal Teachers' Diploma (M+3 Course)	Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma
Natal Teachers' Second Class Certificate	Natal Teachers' Diploma (External)

2.11.2 Courses offered at the Training College

The aim of the College was to train teachers for the primary schools. As early as 1952 the two-year post-Senior Certificate course was instituted. As from 1953, all new male students were required to possess the Natal Senior Certificate, or its equivalent to enter teachers' courses. According to a former

Principal of the College, Mr A. Levine, the raising of the entrance level came in for "some opposition from the teachers themselves who expressed the view that this would cause a further teacher shortage. They were immediately proved wrong for enrolment increased. It is a known fact that a calling which demands higher standards from its practitioners attracts more and better human material and so it was with the Springfield Training College"⁽⁵⁵⁾.

Women entrants were, however, allowed to enter for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate course with a Junior Certificate. As from 1963 the minimum entrance requirement for both male and female students was the Senior Certificate. In keeping with the recommendations of the 1946 Education Committee, all full-time teacher training courses at Springfield Training College were of a minimum of two-years' duration as from 1953.

The internal teachers' courses offered at the Springfield Training College are set out in Table 4 (Page 94).

TABLE 4

Teachers' Courses at the Springfield Training Colleged : 1952-1965

Course	Entrance Requirement	Duration	Curriculum
Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate	Junior Certificate	2 years	English, principles of education, and school organisation, methods of teaching, child psychology, Afrikaans (optional), practical teaching, physical education, blackboard work, art or handicraft or needlework.
Natal Teachers' Diploma	Matriculation or equivalent with at least 40% in English	2 years	<p>(a) English A.</p> <p>(b) Afrikaans B or history and geography, or domestic science, or music (special) or art and craft (special), or mathematics, or biology or physics and chemistry.</p> <p>(c) Nature study, or physical science or biology or applied mathematics or geography or history. (The option in this section depended on the subject taken in section (b)).</p> <p>(e) Elementary Afrikaans or history.</p> <p>(f) Methods of teaching, physical and health education, principles of education and school organisation, educational psychology.</p>
Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma	Natal Teachers' Diploma (3+1)	1 year	3 School subjects, teaching methods, practice teaching.

2.11.2.1 Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma

With the rapid increase in the expansion of secondary education in Natal schools, the supply of adequately qualified teachers for secondary classes was inadequate. Although the Wilks Committee of 1946 recommended that provision should be made for graduates to take a two-year professional course at the Training College leading to the Natal Teachers' Diploma, this was not put into effect presumably because there were very few graduates who were willing to take up a course of this type at a training college.

The Springfield Training College, whilst recognising that the secondary school teacher should have a university degree plus a teachers' diploma, realised the urgent need to supply teachers for secondary schools and therefore introduced the Natal Senior Diploma in 1958. Its aim was to bring the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma students to at least first year university standard in such subjects as English, history, geography, biology and mathematics⁽⁵⁶⁾. In 1959 Afrikaans was also offered as a specialising subject for the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma.

Students who had passed the Natal Teachers' Diploma - a two-year post Senior Certificate course were carefully selected for a further year to pursue the Senior Teachers' Diploma. The Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma consisted of three academic subjects in the

first part for which students could enrol with the University of South Africa as well. In these subjects the students actually wrote two separate examinations, one at the college internal examination and the other the first year University of South Africa examination. The students who wrote the university examinations were not exempted from the College examination but this concurrent study did allow the students to receive credits in those subjects passed towards a degree.

In 1958 and 1959, the students entered for the examinations of the University of South Africa in English I, history I, mathematics I, biology I, Afrikaans/Netherlands I, Latin I and Education I. The passes in all these University courses in the two years were 75,3%.

2.12 Student Enrolment

The table below indicates the total number of students in training at the Springfield Training College from 1953 to 1965.

TABLE 5

Total Number of Students in Training at the Springfield Training College
1953 - 1965

Year	Special Class for Platoon School Teachers	NTSC	NTD	NTSD	Total
1953	-	88	84	-	172
1954	-	65	140	-	205
1955	-	71	147	-	218
1956	77	86	159	-	322
1957	63	93	171	-	327
1958	44	87	224	11	366
1959	38	68	221	9	336
1960	92	74	227	17	410
1961	-	81	228	11	380
1962	-	85	310	21	416
1963	-	45	401	16	462
1964	-	-	487	31	518
1965	-	-	510	49	559

Key : NTSC - Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate
 NTD - Natal Teachers' Diploma
 NTSD - Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma

Source : Natal Education Department Statistical Supplement :
 1953-1965.

As from 1961 the special classes for the teachers in the "platoon" classes were discontinued. These classes had served a very useful purpose in providing the unqualified teachers the opportunity to improve their qualifications. These teachers, no doubt served a very useful purpose in providing educational opportunity to children for whom there would otherwise have been none.

The figures in the above table show that there was a substantial increase in the enrolment for the Natal Teachers' Diploma during the period 1953 to 1965, from 84 in 1953 to 510 in 1965, with the last three years showing significant increase. The enrolment for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate shows an unsteady pattern. The course was mainly for women students and it produced a sufficiently large number of women teachers during the period. This course was discontinued with effect from 1961. In that year there were 45 women students in their second year of training.

The number of students proceeding with the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma fluctuated in the first four years after its introduction and there was a substantial rise in the years 1964 and 1965. The probable reasons for the initial small enrolment for this course could be that students having obtained the Natal Teachers' Diploma wished to start teaching at once and earn a salary.

The table below shows the total number of students in training for the various courses in their final year.

TABLE 6

Students in their Final Year of Training at the Springfield Training College : 1953-1965

Year	NTSC		NTD		NTSD		Total
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
1953	30	23	12	-	-	-	65
1954	-	34	64	3	-	-	101
1955	-	31	58	4	-	-	93
1956	-	41	62	10	-	-	113
1957	-	46	62	8	-	-	116
1958	-	53	71	22	8	3	157
1959	-	32	90	21	9	-	152
1960	-	36	82	11	15	2	146
1961	-	41	102	24	10	1	178
1962	-	40	117	28	15	6	206
1963	-	45	107	42	13	3	210
1964	-	-	182	42	25	6	255
1965	-	-	167	81	40	9	297
Total	30	422	1 176	296	135	30	2 089

Key : NTS - Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate
 NTD - Natal Teachers' Diploma
 NTSD - Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma

Source : Principal's Annual Reports - Springfield Training College.

From 1953 to 1965 out of a total of 2 089 students in their final year of training, 748 (35,8%) were women. In the same period there were 452 (21,6%) final year students for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate course. Of this number there were only 30 men and the rest were women. From 1953 men were not allowed to enter for the internal Natal Teachers' Certificate course. For the Natal Teachers' Diploma course there were 1 472 (70,5%) students of whom 296 (20,1%) were women and for the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma course there were 165 (7,9%) students of whom 30 (18,1%) were women. The total of the final year students rose from 65 in 1953 to 297 in 1965. From this it is evident that significant progress had been made in Indian teacher education after the establishment of the Springfield Training College.

2.13 Extra-mural Training of Indian Teachers

The establishment of private "platoon" schools in the early fifties brought in its wake a large number of unqualified teachers. The Natal Education Department allowed these teachers to enter for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate (external) examinations subject to certain minimum requirements. For example, an external candidate had to have passed at least Standard 8 and in addition to have at least one year's teaching experience. To assist such teachers the Education Department established week-end classes in Durban and Pietermaritzburg to prepare candidates for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate (external) examination.

From 1954 part-time classes for the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate (external) examination were held at the Springfield

Training College. In 1956 part-time classes were established for the "platoon" school teachers at Springfield Training College. Classes were held daily from 08h30 to 10h30. There were numerous applicants but only eighty students could be enrolled. The main objective of these classes was to give the "platoon" school teachers some rudimentary instruction in the principles and methods of teaching.

The Natal Education Department was of the opinion that it was not in the best interests of Indian education to continue with the system of part-time teacher training. But the Department was not in a position to ignore the problem. It readily gave permission to school grantees to establish "platoon" schools at a time when it could not produce sufficient number of teachers for the regular schools. Grantees in their eagerness to provide school accommodation to thousands of children were forced to employ unqualified teachers. Therefore the external teachers' examination was allowed to continue.

In 1962 the Education Department allowed teachers in possession of the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate (external) to enter for the Natal Teachers' Diploma (external) examination, in order to upgrade teachers' qualifications. The Department arranged and conducted part-time classes on Saturday mornings at the Springfield Training College for these teachers.

There is no doubt that inspite of the inherent weakness of the system of part-time teacher training, it did, however, allow hundreds of Indian teachers, who otherwise would not have had the

opportunity to qualify as teachers.

2.14 Universities and the Training of Indian Secondary School Teachers Prior to 1965

Prior to 1936 Indians desiring full-time university education had either to proceed overseas or seek admission at the Universities of Cape Town, Witwatersrand, and the South African Native College (later known as the University College of Fort Hare). The other universities did not admit Indian students. The lack of hostel facilities for Indian students at Cape Town and Witwatersrand and the high cost of tuition militated against any great number enrolling at these institutions. As the University College of Fort Hare was established to serve the needs of Blacks, intake of Indians and Coloureds was restricted to about 15 per cent of the enrolment.

The University College of Natal, as it was known then, refused to admit non-White students. However, in 1936 through the efforts of Sir Kunwar Maharaj Singh, the Agent-General for India in South Africa, the University College established part-time classes for non-White students at Sastri College. There were no full-time classes which non-Whites could attend in Natal.

To begin with, only courses leading to a B.A. degree were offered. Later, as the demand increased, courses in the Faculties of Commerce, Law, Social Science and Education were added. Only a limited range of subjects was offered for the B.A. course, the most popular being English, history, geography, political science and psychology.

These classes were attended mainly by teachers. Since a number of students lived some distance outside Durban, most of the lectures had to be crowded into weekends, commencing on Friday afternoons. Only a few lectures were held on other week-days.

From the fifties onwards the University College began to offer full-time University Education Diploma courses to non-White students, but the policy of segregation was followed. White and non-White students were taught in separate classes but the same staff was used by and large for teaching purposes. This was in contrast with the policy followed by the Universities of Cape Town and Witwatersrand where in academic matters the principle of non-segregation was applied. According to records, of the 135 Indian students who obtained the University Education Diploma during the period of 1955 to 1961, 54 (40%) of them were undergraduates. Of these there were 53 men and 1 woman. The remainder were graduates with 64 men and 17 women. A small number of Indians also completed the Diploma in Remedial Education. Sixty-six Indian teachers completed the Bachelor of Education degree through the University of Natal during the period under review.

2.14.1 External Study

Apart from these limited facilities provided for Indian students at the Universities of Cape Town, Witwatersrand, Natal, and the University College of Fort Hare, external degree courses were also available through the University of South Africa. In 1946, the University of South Africa, which had until then been mainly an examining body, inaugurated a

"Division of External Studies", with a view to providing instruction through correspondence. In that year the "Division" had an enrolment of 150 Indian students. In 1958 the enrolment of Indian students increased to 601. By then the University of South Africa had awarded 207 degrees and 41 University Education Diplomas to Indians.

With growth in secondary school enrolments, and the increase in the number of Indian matriculants, the demand for university education on the part of the Indian community began to increase.

2.14.2 Establishment of Separate University for Indians

Following the Holloway Commission report of 1953, and the White Paper on the H.S. van der Walt Committee of 1957, the Extension of University Education Act No. 45 of 1959 was passed by Parliament. This Act provided for the establishment of separate university colleges for the different non-White groups of South Africa.

In terms of this Act, a university college for Indians was established in 1961 at Salisbury Island in Durban. In line with the other non-White university colleges, the University of South Africa was made academic guardian of the Indian University College, and its students prepared for the degrees and diplomas of the University of South Africa.

Initially the establishment of the University College met with

strong disapproval from certain members of the Indian community and others. Despite opposition, 114 students enrolled in the first year in the two faculties of arts and science.

2.14.3 Student Enrolment

The following table shows the growth of student enrolment in the Faculty of Education at the University College for Indians.

TABLE 7

Student Enrolment in the Faculty of Education - University College for

	<u>Indians : 1961 - 1965</u>				
	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
Under-graduate diploma	6	100	114	153	192
Post-graduate diploma	-	-	9	18	34

Source : Information supplied by the University of Durban-Westville.

2.14.4 Courses

The following education diplomas were offered by the University College for Indians:

- (i) Higher Primary Teachers' Diploma - two year full-time or three year part-time courses;

- (ii) Junior Secondary Teacher's Diploma -
this was a one year full-time or two year
part-time course;
- (iii) University Education Diploma (Graduate) a
post-graduate course of one year full-time
or two year part-time course;
- (iv) University Education Diploma (Non-graduate) -
the academic requirements for this Diploma
were eight courses in the Bachelor of Arts
degree, or six courses in the Bachelor of
Science degree, or ten courses in the Bachelor
of Commerce degree. The duration of this
course was same as the post-graduate diploma.

In addition the University offered the following teachers'
certificates⁽⁵⁷⁾ :

- (i) Certificate for Teachers of Children Handicapped
in Speech and Hearing - a one year full-time
or two year part-time course;
- (ii) Certificate in Remedial Education - candidates
who held a recognised teachers' diploma and, in
addition had three years approved teaching
experience were admitted to the course. The
duration of the course was one year full-time
or two years part-time;

(iii) Primary Teachers' Certificate - this was a two year full-time course. The Senior Certificate Advanced Level was required for admission with a 40% pass in the first language.

Through their own initiative Indian male graduates were becoming available to staff secondary schools in appreciable numbers. In 1951 out of a total of 1 140 Indian male teachers in Indian schools in Natal 157 (13,7%) of the teachers were graduates. In that year there were 264 women teachers and there were only four graduates amongst them.

In 1960, out of a total of 2 344 Indian male teachers, 263 (11,2%) were graduates, while out of 799 Indian women teachers there were only 14 graduates. Although there appeared to be adequate graduate teachers, the number of teachers qualifying in mathematics and the sciences was still far below the required number. Moreover, there were just not enough Indian women graduate teachers for the girls' high school.

Commenting on the self-sacrifice made by Indian teachers to improve their academic qualifications, Edgar Brookes stated: "When one considers the number of Indian teachers who have, under the greatest possible difficulties and under every physical disadvantage, qualified for degrees in the University of Natal and the University of South Africa, one is amazed at the courage and the perseverance which lies behind this hard work." (58)

3. Teacher Education in the Transvaal up to 1965

3.1 The Position before 1954

Prior to 1913 as there were no separate Indian schools in the Transvaal, Indian children were allowed to attend Coloured schools. With the establishment of separate schools for Indians after 1913 there arose the need to employ Indian teachers. A few Indians who had originally entered the country as immigrant teachers, registered as such with the Transvaal Education Department. These teachers were specially trained as teachers in the Indian languages and were "utterly incompetent to teach the subjects listed in the Departmental curriculum"⁽⁵⁹⁾. In his report to the Transvaal Provincial Administration, Kichlu, of whom mention was made earlier in this Chapter, strongly disapproved of the use of the vernacular as medium of instruction and recommended that the medium of instruction should be one of the official languages of the country⁽⁶⁰⁾.

As there were no Indian teachers available to teach through the medium of one of the official languages, Coloured and European teachers were employed in Indian schools.

In 1917 a request was made to the Education Department for the establishment of a school where Indians and Coloureds could follow a post-primary course and where provision could be made for the training of Indian and Coloured teachers. The Director of Education in his report for 1917 suggested that a trial scheme might be made to meet the need for post-primary education and teacher training facilities by attaching an upper department to a selected primary school. This was approved and a post-primary section as well as

facilities for the training of Indian and Coloured teachers was established at the Vrededorp Coloured Primary School. The new institution thenceforth known as the Eurafrican Training Centre came into operation in 1919.

Prior to 1919 the Transvaal Education Department employed Coloured teachers trained in the Cape Province. In the beginning Indian and Coloured students were prepared for the Coloured Teachers' Lower Certificate of the Cape Education Department. This course of training was of two years' duration with Standard 6 as the entrance requirement.

Until 1934 teacher training in the Transvaal for Coloured and Indian teachers remained similar to that for Coloured teachers in the Cape Province.

Owing to the rapid growth of Indian and Coloured schools in the Transvaal after 1930, steps were taken for the introduction of Transvaal - conducted training courses at the Eurafrican Training Centre.

In 1935 new regulations were drafted for the training of Coloured and Indian teachers. The regulations provided for the training of Indian and Coloured teachers for a new certificate to be known as the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate. The training for this certificate commenced in 1935 at the Eurafrican Training Centre. Admission requirement for this course was Standard 8. The training extended over a two-year period.

With inadequate facilities for post-primary education, and with only one institution providing secondary education up to the Standard 8 level, a negligible number of students entered teacher training. Inadequate salaries, compared to that offered to European teachers, also influenced the poor entry of teacher trainees. The Provincial Education Commission of 1939 found that the lack of interest among Coloured and Indian students in the teaching profession was largely due to the poor financial position of the students and the lack of boarding facilities. These factors deterred especially the right type of Coloured and Indian girls from entering the profession⁽⁶¹⁾. Parents were reluctant, unless they lived in the proximity of the Training Centre, to allow their adolescent girls to travel to the Centre daily. The absence of boarding facilities no doubt adversely affected the recruitment of suitable students from the outlying areas. Although the Department did offer boarding bursaries, there were no boarding facilities available at or near the Training Centre.

In 1949 there were only 12 Indian students against 72 Coloured students at the Training Centre. The position seemed to have improved somewhat in the next few years. In 1951 there were 51 Indians (158 Coloureds) and in 1952 there were 52 Indians against 169 Coloured students⁽⁶²⁾.

3.2 Revised Courses of Training

In 1945 the Education Department introduced revised training courses at the Training Centre. Details of the revised courses are set out in Table 8 (page 111). A noteworthy feature of the revised courses

TABLE 8

Revised Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Courses

Course	Entrance Requirement	Duration	Curriculum
A. Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate	Standard 8	2 years	First Language-higher grade, Second Language higher or lower grade, Bible Study, history, geography, arithmetic, nature study, physiology and hygiene, general methods and child study, school organisation, physical education, art and craft, music, practical teaching.
C. Transvaal Teachers' Lower Diploma	Standard 10	2 years	Same as for Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate plus principles of education, organisation and administration, child psychology and history of education in place of general method and child study and school organisation.
D. Transvaal Teachers' Diploma	Standard 10	2+1 year	Same as above in the first 2 years. In the 3rd year specialising in either manual training or infant teaching.

Note: The syllabuses for the Diploma courses were more advanced than those of the Certificate courses.

was the introduction of a post- Standard 10 diploma course, thus raising the level of entry to the profession. Another interesting feature was the one year specialising course - the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma. On completion of the Teachers' Lower Diploma, students could opt for specialising in either manual training or infant teaching over one year of training. In this respect it would appear that the position of teacher training in the Transvaal at the time was comparatively better than it was in Natal. It will be recalled that post- Standard 10 courses for Indians in Natal became available only in 1951 and the Senior Education Diploma (2+1 year) specialisation course was only introduced in 1958.

3.3 Part-Time Training

The revised regulations in respect of the training of Coloured and Indian teachers provided for serving teachers to enter for the Transvaal Indian and Coloured Teachers' Certificate examination and the Transvaal Teachers' Lower Diploma as external candidates, provided that for the former course, a teacher without a Standard 8 certificate, had to be in possession of the Coloured Teachers' Lower Certificate and to have had four years' teaching experience. For the Teachers' Lower Diploma course, serving teachers had to be in possession of the Transvaal Indian and Coloured Teachers' Certificate and in addition had to have at least four years' teaching experience, if such teachers did not possess the Standard 10 certificate.

3.4 Shortage of Indian Teachers

In almost every annual report of the Transvaal Director of Education from 1930 to 1960 reference was made to the serious shortage of Indian teachers to serve their community. For example, in 1950 the Director reported that there was a sufficient number of Coloured teachers with a pupil-teacher ratio of 25:1, but in Indian schools the number of Indian teachers was far short of the requirements with a pupil-teacher ratio of 188:1⁽⁶³⁾. This situation prompted the Director to remark, "It is clear that some pressure will have to be brought to bear upon the Indian community to assume more responsibility for the education of their children by teachers of their own race"⁽⁶⁴⁾.

In view of the shortage of Indian teachers, the Education Department perforce had to employ European and Coloured teachers in Indian schools. As only a few of the Director's reports give details of the relative number of European, Coloured and Indian teachers employed in Indian schools, the available information in the early fifties is produced in the following table as an indication of the position.

TABLE 9

The Relative Number of Europeans, Coloured and Indian Teachers Employed
in Indian Schools in Transvaal : 1951-1953

Year	No. of Schools	No. of pupils	Number of Teachers				
			Europeans	Coloureds	Indians	Total	% Indians
1951	30	9 068	132	99	70	301	23,2
1952	31	9 777	144	108	64	316	20,2
1953	32	10 252	138	112	79	329	24,0

Source: Transvaal Education Department : Director's Report -
1951-1953.

It should be noted that apart from the number of Indian pupils shown in the above table, a large number of Indian pupils also attended "mixed" schools, i.e. where both Indian and Coloured pupils attended the same schools. For example, in 1953 there were 3 068 Indian pupils in such schools.

From the above table it will be observed that European teachers made up the bulk of teachers in Indian schools in the Transvaal, followed closely by Coloured teachers. On an average only about 22% of the teachers in these schools were Indians.

It should, however, be noted that in 1928 Sastri observed that the wealthy Indian traders did not show the same desire for education as the poorer classes descended from the indentured labourers. The Indian community of the Transvaal at the time were largely descendants of the "passenger" Indians who went to the Transvaal as

traders. Presumably the traders did not encourage their sons and daughters to take up teaching as a career. They probably preferred their children to assist them in the family business. Moreover, the poor salaries paid to teachers and the time and effort required to train as teachers could be factors that discouraged Indians from becoming teachers. The apathy of the Transvaal Indians towards the teaching profession continued well into the sixties and still continues to an extent where students from Natal have to be sent to the Transvaal to train and serve the schools there.

In 1958 the Transvaal Education Bureau carried out an investigation to determine the educational status of Coloured and Indian teachers in the Transvaal. The findings of the investigation also reflected on the standard of education in the schools where these teachers were employed. The Bureau stated that the standard of education of any group was dependent to a large extent on the general educational background, the professional training and experience of the teaching personnel. It was found that only 2 out of 24 women teachers were matriculated. The majority of Indian teachers at this stage had only passed Standard 8. The poor academic qualifications of the majority of Indian teachers did not provide them with the essential background to enable them to do justice to their role as educationists. The standard of education therefore did not compare favourably with that of the Whites because of a lack of suitably qualified Indian teachers⁽⁶⁵⁾.

3.5 Teachers for Secondary Schools

As secondary education was only provided in urban centres, the number of schools offering secondary education in the fifties was small. In 1951 there were only four secondary schools for Indians in the Transvaal. In that year there were only 58 pupils in Standard 10 in the whole of the Transvaal. In most of the secondary schools European and Coloured teachers were employed. Records do not indicate the exact number of Indian teachers in secondary schools, but it could be deduced that the number of Indians in these schools was very small. The only form of training of Indian teachers for secondary school work was the introduction of the three year Teachers' Diploma in commercial subjects and the Diploma in junior secondary work as from 1963.

3.6 Separate Training Facilities for Training Indian Teachers

In 1950 the Transvaal Provincial Administration appointed a special Committee to report on the state of Coloured and Indian education in the Transvaal. The report was published in 1951. The Griffith Committee as it was called, recommended, inter-alia separate teacher training facilities for Indians. The Committee felt that it was desirable that the Indians as a community must provide their own teachers to fill vacancies in their own schools. The Committee believed that with the establishment of a training college of their own, more Indians, and in particular Indian women, would enter the teaching profession. It was also stated that with more Indians expected to train as teachers, it would help to gradually remove European teachers employed in Indian schools and the filling of their posts by Indians.

On the recommendation of the Griffith Committee, the Administration established separate training facilities for Indians in 1954. The training institute was attached to the Johannesburg Indian High School. For administrative purposes the principal of the high school had to control both the high school and the training institute.

Initially the Training Institute for Indians provided for the following courses, the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate (mainly for women), the Transvaal Teachers' Lower Diploma and the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma (1 year Specialisation course following on the two year Lower Diploma course). With the gradual closing down of the high school section at the Training Institute, in December 1963 the Training Institute was able to occupy the entire school for the purpose of training teachers. In January 1964 the Training Institute was reclassified and accorded the full status of a College of Education for Asiatics. The following privileges were granted to the College:

- (i) As from this date the College examination was no longer subject to external control;
- (ii) The college followed the same syllabuses as those of White Colleges;
- (iii) The College could institute specialisation courses with a minimum of five students per course instead of the usual ten; and

- (iv) The White staff in charge of administrative work was replaced by Indians.

In 1964 the Transvaal College of Education for Asiatics introduced the three-year full-time Transvaal Teachers' Diploma with specialisation in senior primary, junior secondary and commercial subjects. At the same time the old one year specialisation in manual training and infant teaching was withdrawn. The introduction of the three year integrated diploma courses was indeed an advanced step considering the fact that in Natal the three year courses were introduced at the Springfield Training College only in the late sixties.

3.7 Full-time and Part-time Student Enrolment in the Transvaal

With the opening of separate training facilities for Indian teachers in Johannesburg the number of students entering the teaching profession improved over the years. The following table shows the improvement in student enrolment. The statistics do not indicate the relative number of full-time and part-time students.

TABLE 10

Number of Indian Students Enrolled for the Various Courses at the
College of Education for Asiatics : 1955-1965

Year	TVL Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate			TVL Teachers' Lower Diploma			TVL Teachers' Diploma			Grand Total
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	W	Total	
1955	93	23	116	25	3	28	-	-	-	144
1956	92	30	122	22	2	24	-	-	-	146
1957	67	46	113	27	3	30	11	-	11	154
1958	64	39	103	24	3	27	13	-	13	143
1959	75	25	100	35	2	37	-	-	-	137
1960	40	26	66	33	6	39	8	1	9	114
1961	2	38	40	32	13	45	20	3	23	108
1962	-	54	54	-	5	5	56	5	61	120
1963	-	75	75	-	3	3	76	9	85	163
1964	-	91	91	-	9	9	104	10	114	214
1965	-	94	94	-	7	7	118	16	134	235
Total	433	541	974	196	56	254	406	44	450	1 678

Source: Transvaal Education Department : Annual Reports, 1955 to 1965.

From the above table it will be observed that during the years 1955 to 1965 the number of women students entering the teaching profession showed a significant growth. In 1955 there were only 23 women students taking the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate. Ten years later this number rose to 94. However, there appears to be an inexplicable drop in the number of women

students for this course in the three years from 1959 to 1961. On the other hand the number of women entering for the Transvaal Teachers' Lower Diploma remained small, the largest number 13 - being recorded in 1961.

From 1960 onwards there was a steady increase in the number of women students entering the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma course. The number of men students also shows a significant increase during this period. From 1960 onwards the number of male students taking the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma increased with a sharp rise in 1964 and 1965 probably due to the fact that from 1963 the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma was offered as a full three-year integrated course unlike the former one year specialisation diploma following on the two-year Lower Diploma course. The figures also show that the total number of students increased from 144 in 1955 to 235 in 1965. This represents an increase of almost 64%.

There is no doubt that with the establishment of the Transvaal College of Education for Asiatics, the position of Indian teacher education in the Transvaal began to improve.

3.8 Teachers Qualifying

The table below shows the number of student passes in the various courses:

TABLE 11

Number of Indian Student Passes in the Various Courses in Transvaal

1955 - 1964

Year	TVL Indian and Coloured Teachers' Certificate		TVL Teachers Lower Diploma		TVL Teachers' Diploma		Total
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
1955	33	12	14	2	-	-	61
1956	37	15	6	2	-	-	60
1957	29	18	12	1	11	-	71
1958	27	13	13	1	13	-	67
1959	35	20	11	1	3	-	70
1960	34	8	11	-	-	-	53
1961	35	20	11	1	3	1	71
1962	34	8	11	-	-	-	53
1963	3	13	11	5	13	1	46
1964	-	32	-	4	26	1	63
Total	267	159	100	17	69	3	615

Source : Transvaal Education Reports 1955-1964.

The figures in the above table are in respect of full-time and part-time teachers. The reports do not provide separate figures for full-time and part-time passes. From the figures it will be

observed that except for the years 1960, 1962 and 1963 the passes averaged about 60 per annum. The relative number of passes was greater in the two-year post Standard 8 teachers' certificate courses, than in diploma courses. Of the 615 teachers who qualified during the period under review, 426 (69,3%) qualified with the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teachers' Certificate; 117 (19,0%) with the Teachers' Lower Diploma and 72 (11,7%) with the Transvaal Teachers' Diploma.

When the enrolment figures as set out in Table 10 are compared with the success rate in the teachers' courses in Table 11 there is no doubt that the wastage rate including failure was extremely high. This high failure and wastage rate could be partly attributed to the fact that there was probably a large number of part-time students who, because of the wide geographical distribution of schools in the Transvaal, were not in a position to receive guidance and part-time tuition to prepare them for the teachers' examinations.

4. Summary and Conclusion

The foregoing review of Indian teacher education for the period 1860 to 1965 has shown that in the early stages because of hostile anti-Indian feelings there was nothing eventful in Indian teacher education in Natal. At first rudimentary attempts at training teachers were made by individuals and missionary agencies. Attempts at recruiting teachers from India met with failure. It was due to the efforts of the St. Aidan's Mission that the first full-time teacher training institution was established in Durban in 1904. This institution was the only one

that trained teachers for Indian schools prior to the establishment of Sastri College.

A milestone in Indian teacher education was reached in 1930. Through the efforts of Srinivasa Sastri, the Natal Provincial Administration was persuaded to assume responsibility for the training of Indian teachers at the community-established Sastri College in Durban. In 1931 the Education Department established separate training facilities for Indian women at the Durban Indian Girls' High School. For twenty years these two institutions trained Indian teachers on a limited scale.

The Wilks Committee of 1946 heralded a new era in Indian teacher education. On its recommendation the Natal Provincial Administration finally accepted full responsibility for the training of Indian teachers by establishing Springfield Training College in 1951. With the establishment of the Springfield Training College, Indian teacher education improved both in quantity and in quality. In 1953 all male entrants were required to have passed the Senior Certificate examination and by 1963 this was the minimum entrance requirement for both male and female students. This marked a tremendous improvement in teacher education considering the fact that in the early beginnings, Standard 4 was the entrance qualification. Moreover, all training courses at the college were of a minimum of two years' duration. In 1958 the College began to prepare teachers for the junior secondary phase by offering the Senior Education Diploma course to selected students after completion of the two-year Natal Teachers' Diploma.

While the Springfield Training College produced a large number of

teachers than the combined number produced at Sastri College and the Durban Indian Girls' High School, there were still large numbers of unqualified teachers in Indian schools.

The position in secondary schools was not satisfactory at all. As a result of the acute shortage of suitably qualified teachers in the secondary schools, it was not possible for the Education Department to expand the provision of secondary education. Consequently thousands of pupils seeking admission to secondary schools, especially in the fifties, had to be turned away because of the lack of accommodation.

Although Indian teachers made sterling efforts to obtain degrees and University Education Diploma through part-time and full-time study, the number so qualifying could not meet the demand. With the establishment of the University College of Durban the position began to show signs of improvement.

In Transvaal the first teacher training institution was established in 1919 at the Eurafrikan Training Centre. The number of Indian students at this training centre remained small. With the establishment of a separate training institute for Indians in Fordsburg in 1954 the number of male and female Indian students enrolling for teacher education courses showed a marked improvement.

Qualitatively the training of Indian teachers in the Transvaal improved over the years. Starting in 1919 with a one year post-Standard 6 teachers' certificate course of the Cape Education Department, the training gradually led to the two year post Standard 8 teachers' course and finally all teachers' course for Indians was the

post- Standard 10 Teachers' Diploma course with three year full-time training.

There is no doubt that the Transvaal Provincial Administration was more favourably disposed towards Indian education than its counterpart in Natal. Most probably Indian education in the Transvaal could have made far greater progress if the Indians themselves had shown the same measure of interest in the education of their children as did the Provincial Administration. It will be recalled that the Administration had perforce to employ a large number of White and Coloured teachers in Indian schools because of the lack of qualified Indian teachers. The Administration deserves praise for its efforts in providing education for the Indian child despite the apathy on the part of the Indians towards teacher education.



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PART TWOANTECEDENTS TO AN ERA OF PROGRESS IN INDIAN EDUCATION

Part two carries on the historical investigation after Indian education was transferred from provincial control and placed under central control of the Department of Indian Affairs in 1966. The transfer of Indian education to a central State department must be seen against the government's overall policy of separate development and its influence especially on education of the non-White peoples of South Africa. Central to the development of this theme therefore, is that the constitutional control of education is inextricably interwoven into the fabric of apartheid.

CHAPTER THREE

THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE NATIONALISATION OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

1. Introduction

The principles underlying the transfer of education of the Blacks, Coloureds and Indians from provincial control to central State controlled ethnic departments are embedded in the Nationalist Government's policy of apartheid.

Apartheid is the concept popularly used to denote the Nationalist Government's policy of separate ethnic development; more specifically this concept is used ideologically to designate the country's national policy for the organisation of relations between the various groups. In order to understand the provision of separate educational facilities for the four main ethnic groups that constitute the people of the Republic of South Africa, the concept of separate development should be clearly understood.

The problem of segregation or integration has been a recurrent theme throughout South African history. The core of this problem concerns the relationships between the different ethnic groups in the various fields of human intercourse: domestic, educational, political, religious and social⁽¹⁾.

The four main ethnic groups that make up the population of South Africa are: Blacks, Whites, Coloureds and Indians. The Whites, officially classified, until 1950 as Europeans comprise the two main sub-groups - Afrikaans-speaking and the English-speaking. "White"

or "Blanke" in Afrikaans is the official term used.

The Blacks were formerly known as Natives. This term was replaced in 1950 by the term "Bantu" - a plural word meaning 'persons', 'people'. The word Bantu was not very popular among Blacks. They generally prefer to be referred to as Africans. In recent years largely due to the Black Consciousness Movement they prefer to be referred to as Blacks.

The Coloured people are of mixed descent with White, Hottentot and other strains in varying proportions in various parts of the Republic. Also included in this group is one Asian community, the Cape Malays, whose Islamic faith has helped to preserve their distinctive identity since the Dutch East India Company days.

The Indians are descendants of immigrants from India. There is considerable diversity within this group. Despite the heterogeneity by areas of origin, religion and language, the Indian South Africans have maintained their identity.

The term non-White has in recent times replaced the term non-European. These two terms are used collectively as a dividing line in South Africa between Whites and the rest - which is in fact the Blacks, Coloureds and Indians. In recent years Blacks, Coloureds and Indians have objected to being referred to as non-Whites on the grounds that it is a negative term signifying a 'non-person'. The radically minded Coloureds and Indians would prefer to be referred to as Blacks, though the majority of them do not prefer to be called Blacks.

In view of the inconvenience of referring to the 'rest' as Blacks, Coloureds and Indians every time they are referred to as a group, the writer apologetically uses the term non-White. In this study the terms Bantu and Blacks are used interchangeably. However, the term "Bantu" is used in the text when it appears as such in official documents.

2. Development of Separate Development Policy

South Africa's apartheid policy is rooted in a racial ideology the evolution of which reaches back over more than 300 years. But although the apartheid ideology had already taken on a comprehensively defined shape by the mid-forties, this ideology began to crystallise as a policy only after nationalist Afrikanerdom had triumphed at the polls in 1948. Furthermore, apartheid is more than just another label which has been affixed to the Afrikaner's traditional policy of segregation; actually, apartheid represents a resolute attempt on the part of the Afrikaner to adapt his traditional differentiation practices to a revolutionary post-war racial situation⁽²⁾. Basically, therefore, apartheid is founded on a synthesis of principles embodying both traditional and revolutionary elements.

A critical examination of the history of race relations before World War II, shows beyond any doubt that no single differentiation system applied at that time can be equated with present day apartheid. One need only test the previous segregation system against the synthesis of principles and aims which are basic to the present Government's apartheid policy to be able to deduce that these segregation systems were mere stages in the evolution of apartheid, the precursors of a synthesis of principles which only after 1948 crystallised into a

comprehensively defined national Bantu policy. Apartheid began as an isolated and unformulated differentiation practice . In time a gradual formative process unfolded during which racial differentiation crystallised in various shapes and shades depending on the particular contact situation which existed in White-Black relations at each stage in this evolutionary process ⁽³⁾ .

2.1 The Blacks and Economic Integration

Within the first few years after World War II, it became clear to every thinking Afrikaner that the existing policy of segregation has become totally inadequate to limit the virtually unregulated economic integration of the Blacks, especially in the urban areas. The urbanised Afrikaner, who was already involved in a serious socio-economic struggle for survival, was thus threatened from another direction ⁽⁴⁾ .

Whites and Blacks were brought into much greater personal contact than ever before. The increasing urbanisation of the Blacks also weakened their consciousness of ethnic differences to such an extent that they began to oppose the Whites on a much wider racial front than had been the case before. This feeling of unity provided the Blacks with an excellent climate for the growth of an aggressive Black nationalism. Nationalist Afrikaners began to view Black nationalism with concern and it served to strengthen their belief in racial differentiation and separation as the only solution to the rising Black problem ⁽⁵⁾ .

World War II was a factor which considerably influenced the changing local racial pattern, largely because of the strong emphasis placed on the ideology of freedom, egalitarianism and national self-determination. This ideology soon diffused to all the West's Afro-Asian possessions, culminating in the many freedom movements which originated among the non-White peoples of the world since the end of the war. The South African non-White peoples were not left untouched by the rising tide of basic human rights. Indeed, the new ideological forces in general, and the post-war tidal wave of national consciousness sweeping over the non-White world in particular, hastened the search for a solution to South Africa's race problems⁽⁶⁾.

2.2 Apartheid becomes a National Afrikaner Policy

Afrikaner academicians, politicians and church leaders played an important part in the forties in popularising the apartheid idea. The trend setting exponents of the Afrikaner's racial point of view found their ideological home in these circles, where they made a significant contribution towards the formulation of the apartheid ideal⁽⁷⁾. Since the thirties, the Afrikaans churches were invariably the strongest and most outspoken proponents of radical or total racial differentiation and especially after the People's Congress on the poor White question in 1934, church leaders felt that the survival of the Afrikaner could only be guaranteed by strict and complete racial separation⁽⁸⁾.

On the eve of the National Party's accession to power in 1948, it was an accepted fact that the majority of Afrikaner leaders

were convinced that segregation did not meet the requirements of the new racial situation, and that it would need a radical extension of their traditional system of differentiation to reconcile White survival with the rightful national aspirations of the Blacks⁽⁹⁾. Segregation would have to be enlarged into an apartheid policy so that optimal vertical separation of the races could be carried out progressively in all contact spheres, even at geopolitical level. For the first time in the history of South Africa the vision of apartheid had become part and parcel of a national movement. But in order to convert the ideology of apartheid into a national apartheid policy the Afrikaner would first have had to attain political supremacy⁽¹⁰⁾.

2.3 The Nationalist Party comes into Power and Launches its Policy of Apartheid

As a general election was due to be held in 1948, Dr D.F. Malan the leader of the National Party, formulated an election manifesto in which he set out his party's apartheid policy. The Nationalist Party won the 1948 election and their victory was hailed as a mandate to the new government to carry out its policy of apartheid.

Immediately after coming into power the Nationalist Government passed the Group Areas Act of 1949 in which residential segregation was introduced. This was followed in 1950 by the institution of a population register for race classification of the entire population of South Africa. Other legislations involving the prohibition of miscegenation, the provision of separate amenities

in public places, and "job reservation" for White semi-skilled labour followed. In 1951 the government moved from the social and economic spheres to legislations that involved the political rights of the Blacks, Coloureds and Indians by first setting up separate ethnic departments and later by establishing circumscribed legislative and administrative bodies for these people.

The policy of separate development in so far as the Blacks were concerned was further developed and brought to fruition by Dr H.F. Verwoerd, in his capacity as Minister of Native Affairs (from 1950 to 1958), and as Prime Minister (from 1958 to 1966). He was responsible for the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951, which provided for the establishment of a hierarchy of authority in the Bantu areas (formerly known as reserves and later Homelands) as a precursor to "self-government" in these territories. It was during his term of office that the Tomlinson Commission was set up to survey and make recommendations on the socio-economic development of the Black tribal areas.

The Tomlinson Report published in 1951 provided the blueprint for Verwoerd's scheme of separate independent self-governing Black homeland states, the first was Transkei which became an independent homeland in 1976, followed by Boputhatswana, Venda and Ciskei.

The political thrust of this scheme of separate development was that the denial of political rights to Blacks in the so-called "White areas" of the Republic of South Africa should be off-set by granting them full rights in their own areas, i.e. homelands. All Blacks in the country whether domiciled in their area or not are

deemed to be citizens of the Black area for their ethnic group, and to have citizenship rights there. Although there were suggestions for the establishment of separate homelands for Coloureds and Indians, this policy was not pursued seriously because of its impracticability. The following is a brief summary of the policy of separate development as applied to Coloureds and Indians.

2.4 Separate Development in Respect of the Coloureds and Indians

2.4.1 The Coloured Community

In the case of the Coloured community, it would not be correct to say that they have, as yet, a national identity exclusive to themselves. Nor do they have a separate language or a definite culture of their own. The cultural roots of the Coloured people are linked to the communities in which they have been brought up. Thus one finds that the Coloured community of the Cape Province is more Afrikaner orientated, whereas that in Natal is more English orientated. Malherbe notes that, "Afrikaans is much the mother-tongue of the two million Coloured who in the course of two centuries, were as much the creators of the spoken language as the White Afrikaners. Yet because of a matter of pigmentation, the Nationalist Government does not want to regard the Coloured population as part of the Afrikaner nation"⁽¹¹⁾.

Like the Indians, the Coloureds do not have, and cannot be associated with any separate identifiable homeland. As in the case of the Indians in terms of the Group Areas Act, the Coloureds occupy separate residential or group areas.

In 1958 the Government established the Department of Coloured Affairs to take care of the welfare of the Coloured group. Prior to 1968 the Coloureds were represented in Parliament by Whites. In 1969 the Government abolished Coloured representation in Parliament and in that year established the Coloured Persons Representative Council (CRC). This was the first step in the Government's aim of separate political development of the Coloureds.

The Coloured Persons Representative Council was given the power to make laws concerning matters allotted to it provided that these did not conflict with existing legislation of the Central Government. The powers of the CRC included control of Coloured education.

The Coloured Persons Representative Council Act (No. 25 of 1968) provided for the establishment of a Council to consist of 20 nominated and 40 elected members. In the first election held in 1969, the Coloured Labour Party won by an overwhelming majority. This was repeated in the 1975 elections. In 1980 the Labour Party forced the collapse of the CRC by means of mass resignation. The CRC was dissolved on 1 April 1980.

The position of the "brown Afrikaner", as the Coloureds are sometimes called, has been a source of constant embarrassment to the Nationalist Government which has come under heavy pressure to address the problem. In 1973 the Theron Commission was appointed to enquire into all matters pertaining to the Coloured community, including their political development. After having heard evidence for three years, the Theron Commission's Report was tabled in Parliament towards the end of 1976. The Commission presented 178 recommendations. There was a widely held belief that Mr Vorster the then Prime Minister would use the findings as a basis for radical moves towards a new dispensation for Coloured people, breaking down barriers that a large number of people, including many Nationalists, no longer thought justified. These hopes were, however, largely dashed. Virtually every recommendations that would hold any meaningful political consequence for the Coloured population was rejected. Among these were recommendations to repeal the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act and to repeal Section 16, dealing with the prohibition of sex across the colour line, of the Immorality Act; to give Coloured people direct representations at all levels of government; to repeal all statutory reservations in the use of labour; and that Coloured people should be able to lease or own farming land anywhere in the Republic.

The Government's view was that recommendations that amount to abandoning the recognition and development of the identity of the various population groups in the Republic were not conducive to orderly and evolutionary advancement of the various population groups in the Republic as a whole. For this reason the Government was, for example, not prepared to change its stand-point, in the light of the South African situation, in regard to the Immorality Act and the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act.¹

Any recommendation to the effect that direct representation should be granted to Coloured people in the existing Parliament, provincial and local institutions was, consequently, not acceptable to the Government. The Theron Commission's recommendation, however, prompted the Government to the appointment of a Cabinet Committee to investigate ways and means of taking the Coloureds and Indians towards political and constitutional development. The result of the recommendations of the Cabinet Committee was what became known as the Government's 1977 constitutional plan. Owing to opposition by Coloured and Indian leaders, the plan was not implemented. Instead, it was referred to a select committee of which Mr A.L. Schlebusch, the then Vice-State President, was chairman. Subsequent developments in this regard will be considered later in this Chapter.

¹ The Mixed Marriages Act and Section 16 of the Immorality Act were repealed during the 1985 Parliamentary session. Also see page 154.

2.4.2 The Indian Community

It was noted in Chapter One of this study, that within a decade after their arrival in Natal, the Indians were regarded as undesirable because the immigrants, especially the "passenger" Indians, threatened to compete with the Whites in the economic field. As a result of the White antagonism towards the Indians, discriminatory measures were applied against the latter restricting their movement and activities. It was also noted that in 1896 the Indians were deprived of the parliamentary franchise. The avowed policy of the successive governments was to repatriate the Indians. The first attempt at residential segregation of the Indians in 1925 failed because of the strong opposition by the Indians; this was followed in 1946 by the Asiatic Land Tenure and Indians Representation Act. This Act was also a failure because the Indians rejected the provisions of the Act and refused to co-operate with its implementation.

The Group Areas Act of 1949 affected the Indians most severely. Large areas where they had settled and developed for nearly a century, were taken away from them.

2.4.2.1 The Establishment of Department of Indian Affairs

In keeping with its policy of separate development, the Government on 7 February 1961 established the Asiatic Affairs Division within the Department of the Interior to cater for the interests of the Asiatic

community. It was hoped that this Division would in due course develop into a separate Department, similar to the Department of Coloured Affairs⁽¹²⁾.

Soon afterwards, on 2 August 1961 the Prime Minister, Dr H.F. Verwoerd, announced that the Asiatic Affairs Division was to be converted into a fully-fledged Department of Indian Affairs to give special attention to the economic and social development of the Indian group as an independent community in the Republic. The new Department was to have a Council of Indian members under a Ministry of Indian Affairs. The following functions were assigned to the new Department of Indian Affairs⁽¹³⁾.

- (i) The promotion of the interests of the Indian community in the Republic of South Africa;
- (ii) The provision of means, opportunities and facilities to meet the needs of the Indian community;
- (iii) The provision, where necessary, of auxiliary services;
- (iv) The administration of certain Acts relating to Indians.

2.4.2.2 The South African Indian Council

The South African Indian Council was established in terms of the South African Indian Council Act (Act No. 31 of 1968). The purpose of the Act was to create a body representative of the Indian community which would advise the government and make recommendations on all matters affecting the Indian people. The members of the Council were in the first place appointed by the Minister of Indian Affairs, though provision was made for a Council comprising nominated as well as elected members. Provision was also made for the appointment of an Executive Committee comprising five persons from among its members, of whom one would be the chairman appointed by the Minister⁽¹⁴⁾.

The Executive Committee of the SAIC is the body responsible for giving effect to the decisions of the Council and has the power to deal with such matters in respect of education and community welfare, as are delegated to it by the Minister of Indian Affairs or a provincial administration.

The Government nominated South African Indian Council, comprising 30 nominated members was dissolved on 3 November 1981. This Council was replaced by the Fifth Statutory Council, consisting of 45 members of whom 40 were elected in terms of the Electoral Act for Indians of 1977 (Act 122 of 1977) and 5 were nominated in terms of sections 1(b) (ii) and 1 (c) of the South

African Indian Council Act, 1968 (Act 31 of 1968).

2.4.2.3 Functions of the South African Indian Council

The South African Indian Council Act (No. 31 of 1968) as amended clearly defines the functions of the Council and its Executive Committee as follows:

(i) The South African Indian Council shall have power:-

- a. to advise the Government at its request on all matters affecting the economic, social, cultural, educational and political interests of the Indian population of the Republic;
- b. to receive and consider recommendations and resolutions of the Education Advisory Council established under section 31 (1) of the Indians Education Act, (No. 61 of 1965);
- c. to make recommendations to the Government in regard to all matters affecting the economic, social, educational and political interests of the Indian population of the Republic;
- d. generally to serve as a link and means of contact and consultation between the Government and the said population⁽¹⁵⁾.

(ii) The Executive Committee shall:-

- a. carry out such functions of the Council as may be determined by the Council or prescribed by regulation under this Act;
- b. under the direction of the Council, deal with the following matters in so far as they affect Indians and to the extent to which powers to deal with such matters have been delegated to it under subsection (4) namely:- education, community welfare and such matters as the State President may from time to time determine by proclamation in the Gazette.
- c. in respect of each of the matters referred to above designate its chairman or one of its other members to exercise and perform on its behalf and under its direction the powers, functions and duties incidental to the matter in question⁽¹⁶⁾.

In November 1980 the Department of Indian Affairs ceased to exist as a separate entity. It was incorporated as an Indian affairs component of the Department of Internal Affairs, and the SAIC came under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Internal Affairs.

The SAIC's role in Indian education will be considered in Chapter Four of this study.

Although the SAIC was not widely accepted by the majority of the Indian community, judging by the very low percentage of voters who voted in the first election held in 1981 (only 17,8% of the total of registered Indian voters went to the polls), it cannot be denied that the SAIC did provide a channel of communication between the Government and the Indian community. Several issues concerning housing, the effects of the Group Areas Act, social welfare, agriculture, employment, constitutional development and education were regularly taken up with the Government.

3. The New Political Dispensation for Coloureds and Indians

The Select Committee under the Chairmanship of the then Vice-President Mr A.L. Schlebusch, referred to earlier, recommended that an expert body, the President's Council be established to give further consideration to the whole question of constitutional development. The Council was established and it submitted its recommendations in May 1982.

Following the recommendations of the President's Council, the Government issued its guidelines on the new constitutional dispensation for Whites, Coloureds and Indians on 30 July 1982. In a brief reference to the Blacks, the Government stated that in terms of the Constitution of the Black National States Act of 1971 they will have to follow "a particular road of political and constitutional development", within

their national states such as Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei. In respect of those Blacks outside the homelands, the government stated that "more effective measures are being considered and devised to accommodate the political aspirations of those citizens of the Black States"⁽¹⁷⁾. The constitutional development of the Coloureds and Indians would not take the same course as that of the Black people, "but Whites, Coloureds and Indians should be accommodated within one and the same constitutional framework in the Republic"⁽¹⁸⁾.

The draft constitution on the new political dispensation was adopted in Parliament with a two thirds majority on 9 September 1983. On 2 November 1983 the White electorate approved the new political dispensation by a 66% majority in a referendum. In the absence of similar referendums amongst Coloureds and Indians, the elections for the Houses of Representatives and Delegates, will inevitably become a test of the acceptability of the new dispensation, or at least the merits of participation. The debate that followed the Government's new deal between the boycotters and supporters tended to eclipse all other campaign issues. The boycott movement was spearheaded by the United Democratic Front (UDF), a non-racial body launched in July 1983. By late 1983 the UDF had some 100 affiliated bodies, most of them in Coloured areas, but it grew dramatically and claimed 600 affiliates during the election campaign⁽¹⁹⁾. As a front rather than a formal organisation, it does not make a policy for its affiliates, which take up UDF campaigns in ways suited to their own activities and constitutions⁽²⁰⁾. Affiliates that played a leading role in the anti-election campaign included the Natal Indian Congress, the Transvaal Indian Congress, Cape Action League, the United Committee

of Concern based in Natal and the Johannesburg Democratic Action Committee⁽²¹⁾.

The UDF and its affiliates organised many anti-election rallies during the campaign. Given so many meetings and such a diversity of organisations, it is impossible here to give more than a generalised idea of the arguments against participation in the elections. The constitution was attacked above all for its exclusion of Blacks and its entrenchment of ethnicity. The constitution was seen as another version of divide and rule. In the elections held in August 1984 the Labour Party (Coloureds) won an overwhelming majority of the 76 of the 80 elected seats in the House of Representatives. The Indian elections, however, produced an indecisive result with the National Peoples Party of Amichand Rajbansi winning 18 seats and J.N. Reddy's Solidarity Party taking 17 seats in the House of Delegates. This situation led to much negotiation and several changes of allegiance as each party tried to construct a working majority. Finally, Rajbansi's National People's Party managed to muster a very slender majority in the House of Delegates. The results were overshadowed by low percentage polls of 30% of registered electors for Coloureds and 20% amongst Indians. According to estimates, among the Coloureds only 57,5% of the eligible voters were officially registered and 79,2% amongst Indians.

3.1 The Provisions of the New Constitution

The Republic of South Africa Constitution Act No. 110 of 1983 provides for one central Parliament with three separate chambers namely, the House of Assembly for Whites, the House of Representatives

for Coloureds and the House of Delegates for Indians. Each population group elects members of the chamber on its own voter's roll. The cornerstone of the new dispensation is that each group should enjoy self-determination over its "own" affairs and assume co-responsibility for matters of common concern. Therefore, a distinction is drawn between group affairs and affairs of common concern.

According to Section 14 (1) matters which specially or differentially affect a population group in relation to the maintenance of its identity and the upholding and furtherance of its way of life, culture, traditions and customs are "own" affairs in relation to such population group. All other matters are "general" affairs. Section 16 (1) (a) provides for the State President to decide on whether any particular matters are "own" affairs of a population group in the event of any dispute in this respect. His decision is final.

The constitution thus makes a crucial distinction between the "own" affairs of each population group and "general" affairs. The former include, with qualifications, social welfare, education, art, culture, recreation, health, housing, community development, local government and agriculture. Each House will control these matters for its own people, with the major constraint that budgetary allocations fall outside its sphere of responsibility, since finance is classified as a "general" affair.

According to the new Constitution Act, representation in the three chambers of Parliament is broadly proportionate to existing

population numbers (see Table 1). No mention is made of an adjustment of these ratios to reflect differential growth rates, which would be to the disadvantage of the almost static White population.

TABLE 1

Composition of the Tricameral Parliament

	House of Assembly	House of Representatives	House of Delegates
Directly elected	166	80	40
Nominated by the President	4	2	2
Elected by directly elected members, by proportional representation	8	3	3
TOTAL	178	85	45

Source: Republic of S.A. Constitution Act of 1983, pp. 19-20.

A similar 4:2:1 ratio applies to the electoral college that elects the State President: it consists of 50 members of the House of Assembly, 25 from the House of Representatives and 13 from the House of Delegates. In each case these members are designated by resolution, which effectively means that all will be members of the majority party in the House concerned. The majority party in the House of Assembly therefore controls the election of the President. The State President is the head of the Republic and commander in chief of the S.A. Defence Force.

There is a Ministers' Council for each population group and a Cabinet consisting of the State President and Ministers appointed

by him to administer departments of State, or otherwise designated by him⁽²²⁾. The spirit of the constitution arguably demands a multiracial Cabinet drawn from all three Houses, but no quotas are specified. Executive authority for "own" affairs is vested in the State President acting on the advice of the Ministers' Council in question. For "general" affairs, executive authority is vested in the State President acting in consultation with the Cabinet.

The constitution also provides for a President's Council of 60 members. The Houses of Assembly, Representatives and Delegates designate 20, 10 and 5 members respectively. The State President nominates the remainder, including 10 persons nominated by the three Houses (6,3 and 1 respectively) who are supporters of opposition parties in each House. In the event of unresolved disagreement between the Houses over a bill concerning "general" affairs, the State President may refer the bill (or different versions of it that have been passed) to the President's Council for decision. If the President's Council approves such a bill, it will be deemed to have been passed by Parliament⁽²³⁾.

To aid the three Houses in reaching consensus, joint standing committees will meet to discuss "general" affairs prior to the second reading debates in the respective Houses. Joint rules and orders for these committees, which will be vital to the functioning of the new system, are not laid down in the Constitution Act. Opposition parties in each House may be represented on joint standing committees.

Joint sittings of the three Houses may be called by the State President, but no resolutions may be passed on such occasions, which are likely to be largely ceremonial in character.

The constitution makes provision for the absence of members of a given House, or failure to perform the functions of their office. In this eventuality, Parliament would simply consist of the remaining House or Houses.

3.2 Some Implications of the New Constitution

Two aspects of the new constitution are perhaps most fundamental. The first is of course the exclusion of Blacks, who constitute 73% of South Africa's population. Second, the Population Registration Act, which is the basis for group differentiation (and therefore the keystone of apartheid), enjoys constitutional entrenchment for the first time, whilst the practicality of the "own" affairs concept rests on the Group Areas Act, which provides for residential segregation. In these respects the constitution has been attacked as a major reinforcement of apartheid, and those urging a boycott of the elections were at pains to dismiss the view that it was a step forward.

The tricameral arrangement and the preclusion of voting at joint sittings are clearly designed to prevent a liberally inclined White minority, such as the Progressive Federal Party, combining with Indian and Coloured MPs to outvote a National Party Government. The voting conditions to be applied to the Joint Standing Committees will have the same effect. "In this sense the constitution is

apparently designed to avoid consensus of a kind deemed undesirable by its architects" (24).

Although ostensibly giving equal representation to individuals of the three recognised population groups, the constitution is so structured that the State President will inevitably be the nominee of the majority party in the House of Assembly. His ability to decide what constitutes "own" and "general" affairs, and which measures should be passed to the President's Council in the event of disagreement between the Houses, gives the President a degree of power that is incompatible with a truly consociational democratic system (25). In effect measures concerning "general" affairs could become law with the assent of one House, the President's Council and the President himself: thus the Houses of Representatives and Delegates could be overruled. Parliament could also continue to operate in the event of a boycott of both these Houses. The functions of the latter do include a substantial measure of autonomy over "own" affairs, but within critical financial constraints and a framework of group differentiation imposed by Whites.

Given these and other limitations, those who campaigned for a boycott of the elections argued that the powers granted to the Indian and Coloured Houses were worthless, and that those elected to the tricameral parliament would merely become partners in the enforcement of apartheid.

It is too early to judge whether the new Constitution will work. Despite the provision enabling government to continue in the

absence of one or two Houses the Government's credibility would be severely damaged by the withdrawal of Coloureds or Indians from Parliament. They must therefore be given at least enough evidence of achievement to present to their constituents in justification of their continued participation.

The new constitutional dispensation with all its imperfections at least provides government created forums for the Coloureds and Indians through which they might in some measure be able to exert a benign influence against the harsh application of apartheid legislations. Already there are signs of this. At the end of the 1985 parliamentary session the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act and Section 16 of the Immorality Act were repealed.

Viewed against the evolution of separate development it is now necessary to examine briefly the development of separate ethnic education departments.

4. Influence of Separate Development on Education

From the time of the Union in 1910 to 1953, education other than "higher" for the four race groups in South Africa was controlled and administered by the respective provincial education departments. The South Africa Act of 1909 placed all matters affecting the Blacks, except education in the hands of the Minister of Native Affairs.

In 1948 the de Villiers Commission Report (UG65, 1948) appeared. The Commission was required to examine the state of technical and vocational education in South Africa and make recommendations. Among other things, the Report considered that structurally, the education system for Blacks should be the same as for Whites, but in planning Black education, due consideration should be given to the background and environment of these people, and their occupational opportunities. The Report probably served as a catalyst for bringing about a new dispensation in education for the various groups starting with Black education.

4.1 Black Education

In 1949 the Government appointed a Commission on Native Education under the chairmanship of Dr W.W.M. Eiselen. The main terms of reference were: "The formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities and their needs under ever-changing social conditions are taken into consideration". In 1951 the Commission brought out its report (U.G. 53/1951) which proved to be the blueprint of Black education for the next few decades.

The main recommendation of the Eiselen Commission was that "Education as one of a number of social services, should be integrated organically with all other State efforts designed to raise the level of Bantu life. In order to secure efficient co-ordination of planning, Bantu education should be removed from provincial control and be administered by a Department of Bantu

Education, under the Secretary of Bantu Affairs" (26) .

The organisation of Bantu schools was seen as 'part of a plan of social development' and particularly as essential to the overall policy of separate development for all the peoples of South Africa.

The Eiselen Report paved the way for the abolition of missionary influence (the only source of education provision for the Bantu in their areas), which the Nationalist Government regarded as nothing less than an instrument in the hands of liberalism.

The Eiselen Report and its recommendations proved to be one of the most important and controversial documents on education ever to be produced in South Africa. The report was discussed at length in Parliament and its main recommendations were embodied in the Bantu Education Act (No. 47 of 1953).

The Bantu Education Act could be regarded as the main instrument in establishing the pattern of control of educational services for the non-Whites in the Republic of South Africa. It was one of the first of such Acts of Parliament that over a decade saw the control of non-White education being taken away from the provinces and placed under central State control.

In terms of this Act the administration and control of Black education services rendered by provincial authorities were transferred to the Central Government. The Department of Native Affairs assumed this responsibility and a Division of Bantu Education under this Department was established in 1954.

4.1.1 Subsequent Legislation in Bantu Education

From 1954 to 1958 the responsibility for Bantu education was vested in the Department of Native Affairs. In 1958 a separate Department of Bantu Education was created with its own Minister. With the advent of homeland policy and subsequent granting of self-governing status to the homelands, Legislative Assemblies in these homelands, set up their own independent Departments of Education. The administration and control of the education of Blacks are, therefore vested in two authorities, viz.:

- (i) those in White areas under direct control of the Department of Bantu Education. In terms of the Education and Training Act (No. 90 of 1979) a Department of Education and Training was established. This in fact replaced the former Department of Bantu Education;
- (ii) those in the homelands, under the control of the respective homeland Department of Education. The seven Black States have their own legislation for education.

4.2 Coloured Education

In 1964 the Coloured Persons Education Act (No. 47 of 1963) was enacted, transferring education of the Coloured community from provincial control to the Department of Coloured Affairs.

An Education Council for Coloureds was established and it held its inaugural meeting on 16 January 1964. The function of this Council, whose members were all representatives of the Coloured people, was primarily to advise the Government on all matters affecting education of Coloureds.

To administer Coloured education, a Division of Coloured Education was created within the Department of Coloured Affairs. At the head of this Division is a Director of Coloured Education. In terms of the new political dispensation, Coloured education now comes under the Department of Education and Culture - House of Representatives.

4.3 Indian Education

In view of the fact that Indian education forms the main focus of this study, the control and administration of Indian education within the framework of the country's policy of separate development will be considered in some detail.

The Minister of Indian Affairs, Mr W.A. Maree, announced in February 1962 that the control of Indian education would in due course be transferred to his Department⁽²⁷⁾. Initial reaction to this announcement was one of great opposition. The Natal Indian Teachers' Society came out strongly against the principle of take-over for historical and academic reasons. It was felt that the involvement of the Indian people in their educational system would be lost to a remote central authority. Large sums of money invested in Indian educational institutions by the

community would be lost by the take-over. The Society was of the opinion that the proposed nationalisation of Indian education was motivated purely by political and ideological consideration. It felt that the Government could improve Indian education by increasing subsidies to the provinces rather than by taking control of Indian education⁽²⁸⁾.

The Natal Education Department also believed that the greatest need in Indian education was not a change in control but enough money to provide compulsory education for Indians. The then Director of Education in Natal, Dr W.G. McConkey, stated that the proposed nationalisation of Indian education was part of the pattern of separate development in terms of which children were educated not for the fullest development of their abilities but so as to fit them for that place in South Africa which the Government had ordained for people of their group⁽²⁹⁾.

In the Transvaal also there was much opposition to the proposed take-over of Indian education.

In spite of the initial opposition to the Government's bid to take control of Indian education, on 31 January 1964 the Minister of Indian Affairs announced that the Government had decided that the possibility and desirability of taking over of those educational services for Indian which still remained under provincial administrations would be thoroughly investigated before a final decision to nationalise Indian education was considered by the Cabinet⁽³⁰⁾.

On 1 February 1964 the Government transferred Mr P.R.T. Nel, an Inspector of schools with the Natal Education Department on promotion as Chief Education Planner to the Department of Indian Affairs. His first and immediate task was to conduct the necessary investigation on the feasibility of nationalising Indian education⁽³¹⁾.

As there was a feeling of disquiet among Indians in regard to Central Government take-over of their education, Nel visited various parts of Natal and the Transvaal to meet teacher bodies as well as leading members of the Indian community, to explain and elaborate on the advantages which would accrue to the community.

In an interview between Nel and the Natal Indian Teachers' Society (NITS) held in Durban on 18 March 1964, the following assurances were sought and received by NITS⁽³²⁾.

- (i) Prevailing standards would be maintained by continuing with the use of syllabuses drawn up by the Natal Education Department and by writing the external examinations conducted by it.
- (ii) The Society would be accorded recognition by the State in the event of a take-over.
- (iii) Additional schools in new Indian settlements and the elimination of "platoon" schools would receive priority.

- (iv) All aspects of teacher-training would receive attention.
- (v) The prevailing conditions of service of teachers would serve as a basis in the proposed new set-up.
- (vi) Salary scales applicable to Coloured teachers would be made applicable to Indian teachers.
- (vii) It would be recommended that the per capita expenditure for White children in Natal be made applicable to Indian children as well.
- (viii) Funds for Indian education would be provided from normal State revenue.
- (ix) In the event of nationalisation Afrikaans would be introduced in Indian schools and colleges.
- (x) A number of administrative and professional posts would be created in the proposed new set-up for suitably qualified Indian personnel.

On 23 May 1964 a joint meeting between the Chief Planner and the representatives of the Natal Indian Teachers' Society and the Transvaal Indian Teachers' Association (TITA) was held at Newcastle. The earlier assurances were repeated to allay the fears of the Indian teachers. Additional assurances were given on the following matters⁽³³⁾ :-

- (i) School Committees would have no jurisdiction over appointment of teachers or other professional matters.

- (ii) The introduction of differentiation and diversification in Indian education would be considered.
- (iii) Every endeavour would be made to make education free in Natal as in the Transvaal, and compulsory education would be implemented as soon as circumstances allowed it.

Nel informed the Indian teachers' bodies that an interim policy statement on the proposed take-over of Indian education would be made by the Minister of Indian Affairs.

This was made by the Minister on 2 June 1964. The following points inter alia were made in the statement⁽³⁴⁾:

- (i) Because of the financial burden that Indian education had imposed on the Natal Administration, Indian education in Natal had suffered. Free books were supplied to Coloured children up to standard six but not to Indian children. Natal needed an ever-increasing subsidy from the Government for Indian education and it was reasonable to expect that the authority that subsidized also kept control.
- (ii) The salaries of Indian teachers were less favourable than those of Coloured teachers. Although the Natal Administration had been offered the necessary funds to make the adjustment, it had not done so.
- (iii) Indians were not being treated fairly in regard to the control of their own education. Although there were

several eminent Indian educationalists in Natal, not a single one of them had any say in regard to the curriculum followed in their own schools.

- (iv) Educational standards would be maintained by existing examining bodies continuing to control examinations in Indian schools.

- (v) For a small community of about half a million people it would be most economical to have all aspects of education for Indians under a single control. Technical and university education for Indians were already under the control of the Department of Indian Affairs whereas their primary and secondary education and teacher-training were controlled by the provinces. The people who suffered most because of this divided control and lack of proper co-ordination were the Indians.

On 27 June 1964 the Minister of Indian Affairs sent the following replies in response to questions raised by the Natal Indian Teachers' Society and the Transvaal Indian Teachers' Association (35) :

- (i) The maintenance and improvement of standards would to a large extent be in the hands of Indian educationalists themselves. It would be the policy to appoint suitably qualified Indians to as many education posts as possible. Standards would be

determined, in the main, by the quality of teaching in the schools. The services of the prevailing examining bodies would be maintained in respect of external examinations and certification.

- (ii) The drafting and revision of syllabuses would be entrusted to committees of experts on which recognised teachers' societies would be given representation.
- (iii) The Senior Certificate would be regarded as the minimum qualification for admission to teacher-training. Colleges would concentrate on the training of teachers for the primary schools and the University on the training of teachers for the secondary school.
- (iv) The Minister was satisfied with the general trend regarding the conditions of service of Indian teachers as embodied in the Natal Education Ordinance and a diminution of the rights and privileges already enjoyed by Indian teachers was not contemplated.
- (v) "Platoon" classes, introduced as an emergency measure during a period of rapid growth, would be eliminated by means of a well-planned building programme.
- (vi) Compulsory education would be introduced in areas where sufficient and suitable accommodation became available.

After two representatives of NITS had met and discussed the matter of take-over with the Minister of Indian Affairs, NITS decided to co-operate. On the other hand TITA continued to oppose the take-over bid. However, a rival teachers' body, namely the Transvaal Asiatic Teachers' Association, formed during the investigation came out strongly in favour of the take-over bid.

4.3.1 Nel's Report to the Minister of Indian Affairs

The Chief Planner submitted his findings and recommendations on Indian education to the Minister of Indian Affairs on 10 August 1964. The main body of the report dealt with the prevailing position in regard to Indian education under the control of the Natal Provincial Administration by virtue of Ordinance No. 23 of 1942 and under the control of the Transvaal Provincial Administration by virtue of Ordinance No. 29 of 1953.

The Report covered such important aspects as control and administration of Indian education, Indians in education posts, State-aided school buildings and equipment, free education, compulsory education, syllabi, curricula and examinations in primary and secondary schools, vocational education, vocational guidance, school feeding scheme and medical inspections, home language, media of instruction and the position of Afrikaans in Indian schools. Conditions of service and salaries of teaching personnel, and teacher-training were also included in the report.

The report can be divided into three parts as follows:-

(a) Consultations

Under the title "attitudes and views of persons concerned" Nel reported on the consultations he had had with the Natal and Transvaal Provincial Administrations and the Indian community.

The Transvaal Administration had asked to be relieved of Indian education. The Natal Administration, while refusing to discuss the principle of take-over, had promised to co-operate, nevertheless.

Indian teachers had asked for and were given assurances that conditions would not deteriorate but would rather improve under the Department of Indian Affairs. A section of the Indian teachers in the Transvaal continued in their opposition to the proposed take-over. However, another section of the Indian teachers in the Transvaal came out strongly in favour of nationalisation⁽³⁶⁾.

(b) Findings

After having studied the history and the prevailing situation in Indian education under provincial control, it was found that there were no definite policy, no co-ordination and no special consideration for Indians as a distinct community in the existing provision of

education. While the position in respect of free education and curriculum diversification was much better in the Transvaal, Indian education in Natal, where the majority of the Indians were living, left much to be desired. Among other things, the curriculum was extremely restricted and there was a serious backlog in school accommodation⁽³⁷⁾.

(c) Recommendations

Since vocational and university education for Indians were already under the Department of Indian Affairs, Nel recommended that it would be in the best interests of proper co-ordination of Indian education generally if Indian primary and secondary education and teacher-training, which were still under provincial control, were also taken over by the Department of Indian Affairs.

He recommended that the take-over should be first effected in Natal, where the majority of the Indians were concentrated, and where the needs in Indian education were most urgent.

In the Transvaal where there was a measure of integration between Indians and Coloureds, both in respect of teachers and pupils, he recommended that take-over should be staggered by at least a year.

In the Cape Province as there were no separate Indian schools, Indian children in that Province had been attending Coloured schools from the beginning. Coloured education had already been taken over by the Department of Coloured Affairs. Indian pupils could be removed from Coloured schools only after separate areas for Indian occupation had been declared in the Cape Province and schools exclusively for Indians had been built in those areas. It was therefore proposed that the date for the take-over of Indian education in the Cape should be determined at a later date⁽³⁸⁾.

4.3.2 Planning for Central Control of Indian Education

Having received the support of the Natal Indian Teachers' Society and the National Indian Council (the name was later changed to the South African Indian Council), the Minister announced on 16 October 1964 that the Cabinet had decided in principle that the control of Indian primary, secondary education and teacher training would be transferred from the provinces to the Department of Indian Affairs.

On 20 November 1964 the Minister of Indian Affairs instructed his Department to negotiate with the provinces and as a result of these negotiations it was agreed that, subject to the enactment of enabling legislation, education for Indians would be taken over by the Department of Indian Affairs.

4.3.3 Legislations Aimed at Placing Indian Education under a Single Central State Control

Several of the points made in support of the Indians Education Bill at the Second Reading Debate in Parliament in April 1965, were statements of intent, which, as noted earlier in this Chapter, formed the bases of assurances given to Indian teachers. The points made by the Opposition concentrated on an attack on the Government for its obsession with its policy of racial segregation, fragmentation and duplication of educational services. The Opposition maintained that education was indivisible. The exciting adventure of true education which essentially involves an exchange of thought and of ideas with others in similar disciplines would be denied to Indians on nationalisation. To create a common loyalty and a common patriotism one of the strongest links this country could have had among all the races was a common educational system⁽³⁹⁾.

The Government maintained that the nationalisation of Indian education would be an important stage in the evolution of separate development for the Indian community. Already the education services of the Blacks and Coloureds were nationalised and the take-over of Indian education was therefore, a logical development and it would be an injustice to the Indian community if their education were left as unwelcome appendages of White education⁽⁴⁰⁾.

Although repeated attempts were made by the Opposition to defend Natal in regard to its handling of Indian education, the facts proved quite conclusively that all was not well with Indian education in that province. There was no free and compulsory education for Indians. The curriculum was restricted and there was no differentiated education. No serious attempt was made by the Natal Education Department to foster the teaching of Afrikaans which left generations of Indians seriously handicapped in employment opportunities. Although there were many suitably qualified Indian educationalists available, the best that the Natal Administration could do was to appoint two Indian "Supervisors" whose function was primarily to visit the private "platoon" schools in order to offer administrative and professional guidance to the teachers who were, with very few exceptions, totally inexperienced and inadequately qualified. There was no consultation, not even with Indian educationalists about the education of their own people.

In any event separate schools for Indians in Natal and the Transvaal were an accomplished fact for nearly a century, especially in Natal, long before the Nationalist Government's policy of separate development. The Opposition United Party must indeed have found itself in a serious moral dilemma having to oppose the extension and consolidation of a measure it had itself nurtured in Natal over a long period.

4.3.4 The Indians Education Act of 1965 (Act No. 65 of 1965)

Having passed through all the stages in Parliament, the Indians Education Bill became an Act of Parliament when it was assented to by the State President on 17 May 1965.

The Act makes provision for Indian education, including special education, teacher education, pre-primary education and vocational education, to be controlled by the Department of Indian Affairs. Some of the more significant provisions of the Indians Education Act are:-

(i) Control

The Act provides that the control of education for Indians in the Republic will be vested in a Division of Education within the Department of Indian Affairs. At the head of this Division will "be an officer who has expert knowledge of education matters"⁽⁴¹⁾.

(ii) Education Advisory Service

The Act empowers the Minister to establish an Education Advisory Council for Indians. The Minister may also establish education committees for State and State-aided schools. The constitution, powers, duties, functions and other related matters pertaining to such council or committees would be prescribed by regulations⁽⁴²⁾.

(iii) Financing Indian Education

In consultation with the Minister of Finance, and out of funds appropriated by Parliament, the Minister is empowered to establish, erect and maintain educational institutions for the use by Indians.

(iv) Recognition of Teachers' Associations

The Act provides for the recognition of Indian teachers' associations for the purposes of consultation⁽⁴³⁾.

(v) Appointment and Conditions of Service of Personnel

Fairly detailed provisions are made in the Act for the appointment, transfer, promotion and discharge of persons and the conditions of service of staff in schools under the control of the Department of Indian Affairs⁽⁴⁴⁾.

Misconduct has been defined closely and the procedure in the case of misconduct has been spelt out in detail.

(vi) Courses and Examinations

The Minister is empowered to institute courses of training and cause examinations to be conducted and certificates issued to those who pass⁽⁴⁵⁾.

(vii) State-Aided Schools

In consultation with the Minister of Finance and after negotiation with the governing body of a State-aided

school, the Minister may cause the take-over of such a school as a full State school⁽⁴⁶⁾.

(viii) Compulsory Education

Free and compulsory education may be introduced in an area or a kind of school when the Minister is satisfied that sufficient and suitable accommodation is available⁽⁴⁷⁾.

(ix) Assignment of Powers and Duties

The Minister may assign, either generally or in particular case, any power or duty conferred upon him by the Act, to the Secretary of Indian Affairs. The Act also provides for the Secretary to assign either generally or in particular case, any power or duty conferred or imposed upon him to any other officer of the Department⁽⁴⁸⁾.

(x) Regulations

The Minister is empowered to promulgate regulations in respect of a wide variety of matters pertaining to Indian education⁽⁴⁹⁾.

4.3.5 Further Legislations in Indian Education

With the passing of the Indians Education Act of 1965, it became apparent that the time had arrived for the M.L. Sultan Technical College to cease its ordinary secondary school activities and concentrate on advanced tertiary and specialised

work. To allow for this the Indian Advanced Technical Education Act of 1968 (Act No. 12 of 1968) was passed thus giving the M.L. Sultan Technical College the status of a college for advanced technical education. In May 1979 in terms of the Indians Advanced Technical Education Amendment Act, the technical college changed its name to M.L. Sultan Technikon. This is in line with developments in technical education for Whites. The M.L. Sultan Technikon is an autonomous institution controlled by a college council comprising members representing the Minister of Education and Culture, House of Delegates, The M.L. Sultan Charitable and Educational Trust, the University of Durban-Westville, the Durban City Council, Teachers' Association of South Africa, as well as organised commerce and industry. The M.L. Sultan Technikon is a full member of the Association of Technikons and its Rector is a member of the Committee of Technikon Principals.

In terms of Act No. 49 of 1969 the former University College for Indians established in terms of the Extension of University Act (No. 45 of 1959) was elevated to full university status and renamed the University of Durban-Westville.

The Indians Education Act of 1965 as amended by Act No. 39 of 1979 makes provision for special education and training to suit the needs of handicapped children. The Act also makes provision for the establishment of reform schools and schools of industries for children committed in terms of the

Children's Act of 1960 (Act No. 33 of 1960).

With the passing of the above-mentioned Acts, every facet of education for Indians - from pre-primary education to university education comes under one central control.

The Indians Education Act of 1965 stands as a landmark in the history of Indian education in South Africa. The passing of this Act ushered in a new era in Indian education.

5. The de Lange Recommendations and the Government's Reactions

Before proceeding with a brief review of the growth and development in Indian education after take-over of Indian education (which will be undertaken in the next Chapter), it is necessary to examine briefly aspects of the de Lange Report and the Government's reactions to it.

In 1980 the Government requested the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) to carry out an in-depth investigation into education in the Republic. This request was a direct result of the school boycott mainly by Black and Coloured pupils during the years 1976 and 1980. The report of the Cillie¹ Commission (1980) confirmed the view generally held that the proximate cause of the 1976 civil disturbances was dissatisfaction on the part of the Blacks with the system of education to which they were exposed.

The report of the HSRC investigation (the de Lange Report) was

published in 1981. One of the key recommendations of the report was that there should be a single ministry of education for the four race groups with a widely representative South African Council for Education⁽⁵⁰⁾. The report recommended a three level education management in South Africa.

5.1 The First Level Management

In support of the proposal for a single education ministry at the first level of management, the Report of the Work Committee : Education Management argued that a central education department, structured in terms of education function, most effectively met the need for the implementation of a common national education policy aimed at equal quality and standards. It was also the alternative which best responded to a situation in which the great majority of the people concerned in the negotiating processes leading to decision-making are not represented in the political structure of which the Ministry is a part, and where historically, separate ministries and departments have resulted in unequal opportunities, unequal resources and unequal standards. At this level the principle of unity should take precedence over the balancing principle of diversity⁽⁵¹⁾.

On 23 November 1983 the Government published a White Paper in which it set out in detail its response to the de Lange Report, after it had considered the advice of a Working Party it had set up to study and Report. At the very outset the Government made it very clear that in view of the new constitutional dispensation for Whites, Coloureds and Indians, the White Paper should be interpreted within the context of the new constitution.

While the White Paper makes several valuable technical and professional proposals, it rejects the one measure that could have secured a meaningful new educational dispensation and lifted education out of the realm of politics - that of a single ministry for all race groups. The White Paper clearly entrenches the mainstays of separate Christian National Education and firmly alligns the de Lange recommendations for education reform to the pace of the Government's new constitutional dispensation. The Government has, however, agreed to implement those recommendations that do not tamper with the major mechanism of apartheid.

According to the White Paper, the cardinal premise of the new constitutional system is the distinction drawn between "own" and "general" (common) affairs. The new constitution lays down inter alia, that all educational matters that relate solely to a specific group, are "own" affairs of the population concerned. The education of each population group will therefore, as an "own" affair, take place within the context of the particular group's own culture and frame of reference⁽⁵²⁾.

The Minister in charge of "general" education may determine the general policy with regard to: the norms and standards for the financing of running and capital costs of education, salaries and conditions of employment of staff and professional registration of teachers, and norms and standards for syllabuses and examinations and for certification of qualification⁽⁵³⁾.

In respect of the urban Blacks, the Government has decided that any general Act and general policy in terms of such Act relating to the "general" affairs as mentioned, will also apply to education for Blacks within the borders of the Republic of South Africa (excluding the National states)⁽⁵⁴⁾. After the introduction of the new constitutional system, legislative authority regarding "general" education matters will vest in Parliament. Bills on "own" educational matters of a group will be dealt with only by the House that serves the group concerned.

Under the new constitutional system, education for a particular group - Whites, Indians and Coloureds - will be administered as an "own" affair by a member of the Council of Ministers concerned, and education for Blacks subject to general policy, will be administered by a Minister who is a member of the Cabinet. The administration of "general" affairs regarding education will be delegated to a minister who is a member of the Cabinet.

5.1.1 Policy Advisory Structure

The Government has accepted the de Lange recommendations in respect of the establishment of an advisory council to be known as the South African Council for Education (SACE).

The de Lange report and the Education Working Party recommended the establishment of a single advisory council for all education - school and tertiary education, but the Government is of the opinion that the interests of education can best be served by separate advisory councils for education

at school level, including teacher training on the one hand, and tertiary education on the other. The Government therefore has decided that in addition to SACE, to establish the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (UTAC). This Council will advise the ministers concerned with education at universities and technikons as an "own" affair of the population groups⁽⁵⁵⁾.

The SACE with an envisaged membership of 20 specialists from all population groups will advise the Minister responsible for general educational matters in respect of education at school level, including teacher training.

The Government intends to introduce ethnic advisory councils on education as an "own" affair as soon as the respective Houses and Councils of Ministers are established⁽⁵⁶⁾.

In respect of conditions of service, the Government has decided that the existing Committee on Education Structure (CES) will advise the Minister responsible for "general" educational matters under the new constitutional dispensation with regard to remuneration posts and career structure for educators up to the highest level in education⁽⁵⁷⁾. The determination of salaries and conditions of service for all educators in all education departments is regarded as "general" affair.

Another statutory education body will be the Committee of Heads of Education representing the four Government

Departments responsible for education of the different population groups and the Government department responsible for "general" educational matters⁽⁵⁸⁾. Its functions will be an advisory one confined to the level of school education and teacher education.

The Government is also in favour, in principle, of establishing a separate central statutory certifying council responsible for setting norms and standards for all syllabuses and examinations and for the certification of qualification⁽⁵⁹⁾.

It also supports the establishment of a teachers' professional council for all categories of teaching staff for each population group, and a central registering body, made up of representatives of the teachers' professional council .

Replying to criticisms that the White Paper has rejected the de Lange recommendations for the establishment of a single ministry of education for all four race groups, Professor J.P. de Lange who was the chairman of the main Committee which conducted the investigation, argued that a single ministry had in fact been created at the macro level (though in its exclusion of direct Black participation it falls far short of the hopes of the White Paper critics) and its ruling would be applicable to the departments of all the race groups. He asserted that, "It was an important achievement because the ministry would deal with vital

issues of finance, conditions of service and standards and certification of education. It would be served by a completely multiracial advisory body, the South African Council of Education which would include Black educationists. On the other hand critics such as the President of TASA, Mr Pat Samuels assert that "the education system is always a mirror image of the political system. It is obvious that the macro policy in politics lies in the hands of the Whites and, therefore, it will be so in education as well" (60).

However, the norms and standards for financing education and capital costs of education, salaries and conditions of employment of staff and professional registration of teachers and norms and standards for syllabuses and for certification of qualifications will be subject to general law. This is in effect a form of macro education policy in terms of the new constitutional framework.

The extent of the goodwill of the White man will be measured against the extent to which he, the power-holder can bring about equal provision of education for all the inhabitants of the country.

5.2 Second (Regional) Level Management

The de Lange Committee recommended that the province in its geographical definition though not in terms of its present administration of education, be used as the basis for the middle

level educational management with a Regional Council for Education.

In summary, education management at the second (regional) level is based on:

- (i) A Regional Education Authority, composed of a Regional Council for Education, representative of all interests in the region, with specific authority over all non-tertiary education in a defined geographical area; and a regional director of education who, with his staff, would be responsible for the implementation of education policy and for the administration of education in the region.
- (ii) In support of the Regional Education Authority there would be three bodies:-
 - A Regional Committee for Curriculum and Examinations
 - A Regional Committee for Adult and Non-formal Education
 - A Regional Education Planning Unit.
- (iii) At the subregional level, where such arrangements were made, the responsible education authority would be supported by two major consultative bodies:-
 - the first representing the organised teaching profession; and
 - the second representing broad community interests⁽⁶¹⁾.

5.2.1 The Functions of the Regional Education Authority

- (i) Responsibility for the provision of education, in a particular defined area, that will be relevant to the needs of the individual and of society (including economic development) in that area, and will be of a quality capable of serving these needs.
- (ii) To carry out the overall education policy established for all the inhabitants of South Africa by the Ministry of Education in consultation with the SA Council for Education, in the area of its jurisdiction, as far as pre-tertiary formal education and all non-formal education are concerned.
- (ii) With this general responsibility for the provision of education in the region it would in particular ensure that all schools under its authority were treated without discrimination and that national programmes aimed at the development of equal opportunity and equal standards for all were implemented⁽⁶²⁾.

The second or regional level management aims to satisfy the demands of two of the basic principles accepted by the Government, i.e. Principle No. 2: Education shall afford positive recognition of what is common as well as what is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life and the languages of the inhabitants; and Principle No. 9: In the provision of education the processes of centralisation

and decentralisation shall be reconciled organisationally and functionally.

The Education Working Party also recommended that the functions of second level councils regarding the regional implementation of the macro education policy it envisages should interpret policy to adopt legislation for its implementation to supervise this and to form accounting functions.

The White Paper states that the Government has taken no decision in respect of the second level management. The point of the Government is that as education is regarded as "own" affair, the respective Houses will have to take final decisions on the own executive structures of the three population groups concerned⁽⁶³⁾.

With regard to education of Whites, the allocation of the functions at present performed by the provinces will receive close attention in the near future and no decisions will be taken before consultation with the provincial authorities, the organised teaching profession and other interested bodies and persons has taken place⁽⁶⁴⁾.

In so far as the Blacks are concerned the White Paper states that their education outside the National states is already administered on a regional basis. Decentralisation of functions of the head office has been systematically introduced since 1981. The planning and provision of

education by residential area rather than region is receiving attention⁽⁶⁵⁾ .

5.3 Third (Local) Level Management

At this level the Committee's basic stand point was that the school - the institution that is closest to both parents and teachers should be given the greatest possible degree of authority; and that parents and teachers should have a major share in decision-making at this level. It proposed a system of "school governing body". It was also proposed that there should be groupings or associations of schools called "local school districts" that would make up units of management smaller in scale than the region or sub-region. Primarily this would not be a control mechanism but rather a means to sharing common interests and strengthening co-operative activities⁽⁶⁶⁾ .

The freedom of parental choice was regarded as an important issue by the work committee. In practice, parental choice would have to be exercised by selecting from a number of options made available to parents or created by them⁽⁶⁷⁾ .

The White Paper states that the determination of policy for the management of school education at the local level will be dealt with by an "own" affairs education authority⁽⁶⁸⁾ .

The Government accepts the desirability of parents' representative bodies at the local level, either for each school or for groups of neighbouring schools. It also accepts the fact that as far as

is practicable there should be devolution of decision-making to these parent representative bodies. Hence local education management bodies should strike a responsible balance between the say of the school principal and the professional educators and that of the parent community at large⁽⁶⁹⁾.

The place of State-aided schools in the management structure at the local authority level is a matter that will be dealt with on behalf of each population group by its own education authority⁽⁷⁰⁾.

The importance of parent representative bodies in education management is noteworthy especially in Natal where the role of parents in local control of education left much to be desired. The community in which a school is set must be allowed to play a more meaningful role than merely to raise funds for various school projects as is the common practice in Indian education.

The community needs to have, among other things, a say in what children learn and how that learning takes place provided always, they will act in terms of professional guidance and assistance.

Much space has been devoted to the de Lange recommendations and the Government's White Paper in this Chapter. This is necessary in view of their far reaching implications for education in the future.

The de Lange recommendation hoped that there would be one single streamlined highly professional and modern education system for all races in South Africa. The Government's point of view is



that there is to be no significant deviation from the present separate education department for each group. Earlier in this Chapter it was noted how systematically the present Government since coming into power in 1948 created separate education departments for the non-White races in line with its policy of separate development. The essence of the White Paper is that education will remain within the framework of apartheid. The new constitutional dispensation further entrenches the apartheid educational system. The Government's avowed policy is "equal but separate" education for all the races of South Africa. How it will achieve equality in an apartheid system of education remains to be seen.

6. Education Management under the New Constitution

The first step towards the implementation of the new educational dispensation under the new constitution was taken with the enactment of the National Policy for Education Affairs Act 76 of 1984. This Act provides for the determination of a national policy for general education affairs falling under the Minister of state for "general" affairs responsible for general education matters. The Act empowers the Minister, after consultation with the ministers responsible for the education of the different groups, to lay down the general policy with regard to formal, informal and non-formal education in the Republic of South Africa, in respect of the following matters:-

- (a) Norms and standards for the financing of running and capital costs of education.

- (b) Salaries and conditions of employment of staff.
- (c) The professional registration of teachers.
- (d) Norms and standards for syllabuses and examinations and for certification.

The Act stipulates that no legislation on education in respect of general policy including legislation on education provided at a university or technikon shall be introduced in Parliament except after consultation between the Minister and every Minister of a department of State responsible for education.

The Act further provides for the establishment of a South African Council for Education (SACE) and a Committee of Heads of Education (CHE). The SACE is to consist of a chairman (appointed by the Minister), four members appointed by the Minister from a list submitted to him by the organised teaching profession; 20 (or fewer) members who are experts in education, to be appointed by the Minister after consultation with every Minister of a department of State responsible for education and an executive officer from the public service also appointed by the Minister. The CHE is to consist of the head of the department of State for general affairs responsible for general education matters or a person in the employment of that Department designated by the Minister, as chairman; the heads of the other departments of State responsible for education; and the head of a provincial education department designated by the CHE.

The SACE will advise the Minister (except in so far as it relates to matters contemplated in the Universities and Technikon Advisory

Council Act of 1983) on matters in regard to formal, informal and non-formal education including teacher education, and embracing the items referred to in (a), (b), (c) and (d) above. The SACE will also advise every Minister of a department of State responsible for education on any aspect regarding co-operation between the various departments of State responsible for education.

The CHE will advise the Minister on all matters relating to education provision and policy as laid down by the Act, and likewise advise the Minister and every Minister of a department of State responsible for education on any aspect regarding co-operation between the various departments of State responsible for education.

6.1 The Department of Education and Culture-Administration House of Delegates

In terms of the new constitution all aspects of Indian education now comes under the control of the Department of Education and Culture (House of Delegates) with a Minister at the head of this Department. In terms of Section 98 of the Republic of South Africa Act of 1983, the existing Indians Education Act of 1965 will continue to operate without any major amendments.

7. Conclusion

The earlier part of this Chapter set out to provide the political background to the issues which led to the transfer of non-White education from provincial control to ethnic departments under central

Government control. It will be recalled that the South Africa Act (1909) allowed education other than "higher" education to be controlled by the provinces. Although this Act placed the control of all matters affecting the Blacks in the hands of the Minister of Native Affairs, education for Blacks as for all other race groups came under the control of the provinces. The provinces offered education to children of all race groups but on a segregated basis. Only in areas where it was not feasible to offer separate educational facilities (as in the case of Indians in the Cape Province and in certain rural areas in the Transvaal, where their small numbers did not warrant separate schools) were "mixed" schools allowed.

In 1948 the Nationalist Government came into power. The pivot of the new Government's policy was political and social 'separateness' or apartheid for the various population groups in the country. The Government under Dr D.F. Malan began immediately to build the necessary infrastructure for implementing its master policy. First it passed the Group Areas Act of 1949 thus introducing residential segregation, which hurt the Indians and Coloureds most. This was followed in 1950 by the Population Register Act which provided for race classification of the entire population. These two Acts are regarded as the corner-stone of the Government's separate development for the Coloureds and Indians.

In terms of the policy of separate development, the Government, in addition to the then existing Native Affairs Department (later called Bantu Affairs Department) created the Department of Coloured Affairs and the Department of Indian Affairs. Gradually education for these groups was transferred from provincial control to their respective

departments, starting with the Blacks in 1954, followed ten years later by the Coloureds and finally by Indians in 1966.

The de Lange recommendations of 1981 advocating a single ministry of education for all the race groups in South Africa, raised high hopes that at last the Government would abandon its separate education policy. These hopes were dashed with the publication of the Government's White Paper on Education wherein the Government has made it clear that any reform in education in South Africa must take place within the framework of the new constitutional development.

The cardinal premise of the new constitutional system is the distinction between "own" affair and "general" affair. According to this, education is defined as "own" affair and hence the new constitution entrenches apartheid in education. On the other hand the creation of fully representative advisory bodies such as SACE, the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council, Committee for Education Structures and Committee of Heads of Education appears to have several advantages by creating meaningful opportunities for all of the organised profession to play important roles in the decision-making processes.

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CHAPTER FOURA BRIEF REVIEW OF SELECTED ASPECTS OF INDIAN EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA:1966-19841. Introduction

In terms of the Indians Education Act, 1965 (Act No. 61 of 1965) the Minister of Indian Affairs assumed control of Indian education with effect from 1 April 1966. For administrative purposes a Division of Indian Education (hereafter to be referred to as the Division) within the framework of the Department of Indian Affairs was established. The take-over of Indian schools from the Natal Education Department was effected on 1 April 1966, from the Transvaal Education Department on 1 April 1967 and from the Cape Education Department on 1 January 1971.

In this Chapter it is proposed to review briefly selected aspects of Indian education with a view to assessing growth and progress since take-over of Indian education by the Department of Indian Affairs in 1966. The aspects to be examined are:-

- (a) Control and administration of Indian Education;
- (b) School accommodation;
- (c) Growth in pupil enrolment;
- (d) Compulsory education; and
- (e) The school curriculum.

Developments in Indian teacher education will be examined in Chapters Five and Six.

2. Control and Administration of Indian Education

To implement the provisions of the Indians Education Act of 1965 a Director of Indian Education (hereafter to be referred to as the Director) as the executive head of the Division was appointed on 1 April 1966. The administrative and professional machinery of the Division is made up of two broad sections, i.e. the Professional Section and the Administrative Section. The Professional Section consists of the Education Planning service, the Inspectorate and the Psychological and Guidance Services. The Education Planning Service advises the Director on all aspects of education and education policy matters. The Planning Service sub-section is headed by the Deputy Director of Education (Planning) and he is assisted by four Chief Education Planners and a number of Principal Education Planners, Senior Planners and Planners. Each Chief Planner is responsible for a particular aspect of this section's functions.

The Inspectorate is primarily concerned with the control and maintenance of educational standards in the schools and institutions under the control of the Division. The function of the Inspectorate embraces: general, panel and subject teaching supervision and the rendition of professional advice and guidance to teachers. The Inspectorate is headed by a Deputy Director (Control) and he is assisted by five Chief Inspectors, three Education Leaders and a number of Principal Inspectors of Education, Principal Subject Advisers, Senior Subject Advisers and Subject Advisers.

The Psychological and Guidance Service is responsible for the assessment and placement of pupils needing special education, as well as providing psychometric data to school counsellors and teachers. School guidance

counsellors offer personal, academic and career guidance to pupils. This service is headed by a Chief School Psychologist and a number of Principal Psychologists, Senior Psychologists and Psychologists. The Administrative section headed by a Deputy Director (Administration) deals with matters of administrative nature. Such matters as staffing of schools, service conditions, school supplies, statistics, examinations, pupil welfare and transport of pupils, etc., are the routine functions of this section.

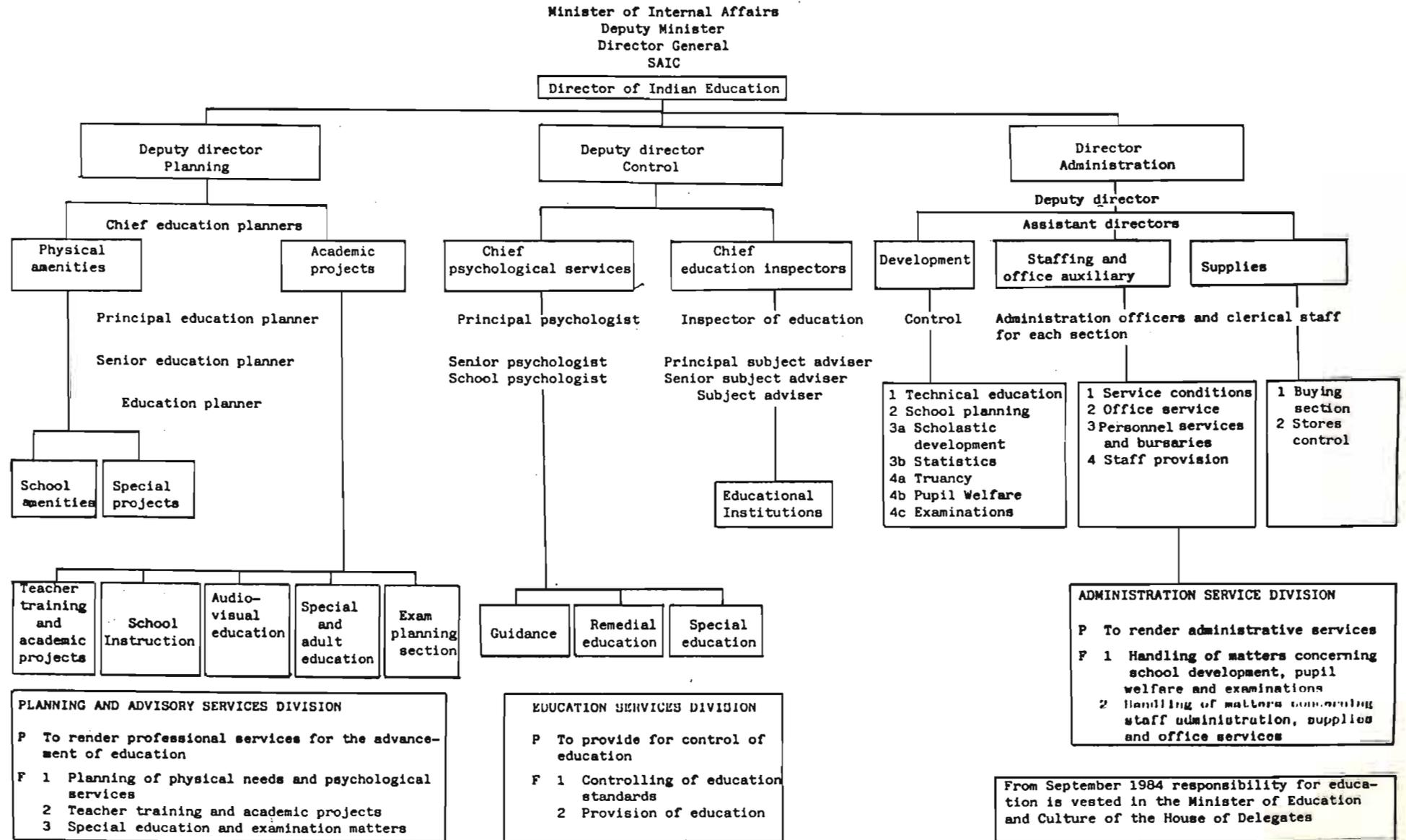
The organisation structure of the Division of Indian Education as at 1983 is set out in Figure 1 (page 199).

3. Evolution of the South African Indian Council (SAIC) as the Controlling Body in Indian Education

In 1976 the Minister of Indian Affairs (as from November 1980, the Minister of Internal Affairs) delegated most of the powers vested in him in terms of the Indians Education Act (No. 61 of 1965) to the Executive Committee of the SAIC. These powers related, in the main, to the following: the erection, maintenance and establishment of schools; the award of subsidies, grants-in-aid and loans to the governing bodies of State-aided schools; the transfer of the management and control of State-aided schools to the Department of Indian Affairs; the appointment, promotion, transfer and discharge of staff at State schools, including schools of industries, reform schools, and certain State-aided schools; conditions of service of teachers; the classification of posts at schools; the institution of courses of training for teachers; matters relating to compulsory school attendance; the payment of school and boarding fees; the recognition for purposes of consultation

FIGURE : 1

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE DIVISION OF INDIAN EDUCATION, 1983



P - PURPOSE
 F - FUNCTION

From September 1984 responsibility for education is vested in the Minister of Education and Culture of the House of Delegates

of associations of Indian teachers; regulations in regard to the proper functioning of schools. In short, the Minister delegated his powers in respect of the administration of schools to the Executive Committee of the SAIC. The Executive Committee thereupon delegated these functions to the Director so that the Division continued to function as heretofore.

The Director continued to exercise the delegated powers until July 1983. In August 1983 at the request of the Executive Committee of the SAIC, the Minister of Internal Affairs delegated all his powers vested in him by the Indians Education Act of 1965 to the Executive Committee of the SAIC. This meant that the education of Indians up to and including teacher education came under the direct control of the Executive Committee of the SAIC.

4. The Teachers' Association's Objection to SAIC Control of Indian Education

The Teachers' Association of South Africa (TASA) refused to recognise the SAIC for political and ideological reasons, hence TASA refused to accept the SAIC as the controlling body for Indian education. TASA had even turned down the invitation from the SAIC requesting the former to assist in three projects, i.e. the formation of an Advisory Council for Indian education, the researching of procedures in respect of promotion of teachers and the institution of College of Education Councils. As a retaliatory measure against TASA's non-co-operation, the Executive Committee of the SAIC prevented TASA from having any direct communication with the Director, thus negating the long established principle of consultation and negotiation between the Director of Education and the



organised teaching profession⁽¹⁾ .

The deadlock between the SAIC and TASA is no doubt detrimental to Indian education. TASA is a very powerful teacher body and the interests of Indian education would have been better served had TASA co-operated with the SAIC (even under direct protest) especially on certain critical issues which arose at the time, such as school boycotts and the controversy about certain senior promotions. TASA's monitoring role directly with the SAIC instead of as a critic on the sidelines, could have ensured sounder decision-making and perhaps prevented some of the so-called political interference about which TASA complained. It will be interesting to watch TASA's reaction to the control of Indian education by the Department of Education and Culture - House of Delegates under the new tricameral system.

5. Indian Involvement in their Education

5.1 Indians in Senior Posts

When the Indians Education Bill was being debated in Parliament in 1965, the Minister of Indian Affairs, Mr W.A. Maree said inter alia, that the nationalisation of Indian education would be an important stage in the evolution of separate development for the Indian community and the Indians would be directly involved in the policy-making, planning, control and administration of their education⁽²⁾ .

Whilst there has been some improvement in the process of Indianisation of the Division, progress has been painfully slow. The community had hoped that the administrative and professional personnel would

be systematically and speedily Indianised and, when the number of suitably qualified Indians available for positions of responsibility began to rise beyond expectations, there was no longer the hope but a sincere belief that the process of Indianisation would be a speedy one. It was averred that the Indian teacher had only one avenue towards promotion, and that was within the Division of Indian Education, whereas his White counterpart would be accepted in any other education department in the Republic⁽³⁾. Moreover, during the second reading of the Indians Education Bill in 1965, assurances were given that on take-over opportunities would be provided to train Indians in administrative and professional posts and in due course these men would release the Whites who were then holding responsible positions in Indian education. Further, it was said that in terms of the policy of the Government, it was possible that the Director of Indian Education might eventually be an Indian, once the Indian Council had taken final shape and was able to exercise control of Indian education⁽⁴⁾.

In 1975 after strong representations from the SAIC two Indians were appointed to the post of Chief Inspectors. In 1979 the post of Chief Education Planner - a post formerly held by a White - was for the first time filled by an Indian. However, in the recent years the programme of employing, training and preparing Indians for the higher posts is gaining momentum. At the end of 1984 the following senior posts in the professional and administrative wing of the Division were held by Indians: 1 Chief Director (formerly designated Deputy Director); three Chief Education Planners; three Chief Inspectors of Education; two Education Leaders (on the same level as Chief Inspectors and Chief Planners) and two Assistant Directors

(administration).

5.2 Indians in Local Control of their Education

5.2.1 Education Advisory Council for Indians

Section 31(1) of the Indians Education Act 61 of 1965 makes provision for the establishment of an Education Advisory Council for Indians. In terms of this provision, the Minister of Indian Affairs issued Regulation No. R3674 dated 7 November 1969 which reads:

"There is hereby established a body to be known as the Education Advisory Council for Indians, which shall, subject to the provisions of the Act, perform all such acts as are necessary for or incidental to the carrying out of its objects and functions and the exercise of its powers and which shall consist of so many members, but not exceeding 20, as the Minister may determine."⁽⁵⁾

Membership of the proposed Council is restricted to Indians who are permanent residents of the Republic.

According to the Regulation "The Council shall have the power to advise the South African Indian Council or the Executive Committee of that body at its request and to make recommendations on all matters affecting the educational interests of the Indian population of the Republic"⁽⁶⁾.

Although the regulation providing for the establishment of the Education Advisory Council for Indians was issued in 1969, such a Council has not been established to date. The official records consulted do not give any reasons for the Council not being established. As stated earlier, in 1982 the SAIC made attempts to establish the Advisory Council and invited TASA to nominate its representative to serve on the Council. TASA refused to serve on any such council.

5.2.2 Consultative Committee for Teacher Education

In 1966 the then Minister of Indian Affairs established the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education. This Committee consists of officials from the Division of Indian Education, representatives from the Colleges of Education, the University of Durban-Westville, the M.L. Sultan Technikon and the Teachers' Association of South Africa. Presently, several senior Indian members from the Division, the M.L. Sultan Technikon, the two Colleges of Education, the University of Durban-Westville and TASA serve on this important committee. All Whites serving on this committee do so in an advisory capacity. Only Indian members have a vote in this committee. The functions of this important committee which deals with all aspects of Indian teacher education will be considered in Chapter Five of this study.

5.2.3 Education Committees

After the transfer of Indian education to the Division, Indian

parents in Natal were given, for the first time, some say in the education of their children. It will be recalled that in the Transvaal, the education authorities encouraged the formation of Indian parent-teacher bodies but these bodies were mostly ineffective because of the apathy on the part of the parents. Even the Natal Indian Teachers' Society (as it was known then) had very little say in such important matters, as syllabuses, courses, selection of text and reference books, etc.

Section 31 of the Indians Education Act of 1965 provides for the establishment of an education committee at every school. The regulations allow for the election of five members for schools with less than 100 pupils and a maximum of nine members as may be determined by parents present, for schools with more than 100 pupils. The principal of the school is ex-officio member of the committee. The term of office of members of these education committees is two years. The functions of the committees in terms of the regulations are to collect funds for the benefit of the school; to investigate and report on the financial circumstances of any family in respect of whose members, application has been made for a boarding or transport allowance; to investigate cases of truancy; to inspect buildings and equipment and advise the Director thereupon; and to investigate and report on the need for the establishment of part-time adult classes.

5.2.4 Departmental Examination Board

The Division's Examination Board was first established in 1968. This Board which is recognised by the Joint Matriculation Board controls all aspects of internal and external examinations. Several Indians serve as full members of the Examination Board. Up to the end of 1971 the Natal Indian Senior Certificate candidates were examined by the Natal Educational Department and the Transvaal candidates wrote the Senior Certificate examination of the Transvaal Education Department. In 1972 the Division assumed partial control of the Senior Certificate examination whereby the Natal Education Department set the examination papers and the Division appointed its own sub-examiners. This arrangement continued until the end of 1974, with the Transvaal students also writing the Natal Senior Certificate examination at the end of 1974. The certificates were issued by the Division.

Since 1975 the Division controls its own Senior Certificate examination with its own examiners, sub-examiners and moderators, the majority of whom are Indians.

5.2.5 Subject and Syllabuses Committees

Immediately after take-over of Indian education, the Minister made provision for the establishment of subject committees. He determined that only Indians may be nominated as full members. Whites may serve on these committees in an advisory capacity. Indians who qualify for appointment as members of subject committees must be educationalists in the service of

the Department or of institutions under the control of the Department or be nominated members of recognised teachers' associations.

The term of membership is determined by the Director but may not be for more than two years, provided that members may be re-nominated. Representatives on subject committees include members from TASA, the two Colleges of Education, the Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville, the M.L. Sultan Technikon and teachers experienced in a particular subject.

The functions of the subject committees are to advise the Director on the following: syllabuses and changes thereof; audio-visual aids and equipment; physical aspects, e.g. special facilities and classrooms; teachers and their training-orientation and in-service courses; prescribed works and text and reference books and the formulation of "guide and direction" for teachers with reference to the aims for the teaching of the subject, methodology, preparation, etc.

Indian educationalists also play an important role on national syllabuses committees. They serve as observers on the Inter-Departmental Syllabus Committees instituted by the Committee of Education Heads. Indians serve as full members on the Syllabus Committees of the Joint Matriculation Board.

From the foregoing discussion of Indian involvement in their education, it will be noted that Indians are becoming fully and meaningfully involved in their education. Indications are

that with the new political dispensation where education will be an "own" affair, Indians will be called upon to accept greater responsibility for their education.

6. Financing of Indian Education

A significant advantage of the transfer of Indian education from the provinces to the Central Government was that it could now participate more directly in the wider financial resources of the Republic's Treasury than it could under the provincial administrations.

Section 3 of the Indians Education Act provides that the Minister of Indian Affairs may, in consultation with the Minister of Finance, and out of moneys appropriated by Parliament, establish, erect and maintain Indian educational institutions.

The State now provides funds made available by the Treasury for the erection and maintenance of ordinary schools, vocational, technical, special schools and colleges of education. It also provides funds for advanced technical and university education.

Grants-in-aid, loans and subsidies are made available to specialised educational institutions such as the schools for the blind, the deaf, cerebral palsied and severely mentally retarded, as well as to State-aided schools and nursery schools. The present rate of subsidy in respect of special schools is: Buildings and grounds - 95%; Salaries and Wages - 100%; Furniture and equipment - 95%; Transport of pupils - 100%; School requisites - 100% and other approved expenditure - 75%.

The State provides free books and stationery to all pupils up to and including Standard 10. The salaries of teachers are paid by the State, and all incidental expenses concerned with the running of the schools and other institutions such as cleaning and maintenance service, furniture and equipment, teaching aids, library books, etc. are provided.

A notable item of expenditure is the transport and boarding allowance paid to pupils. Pupils from Standard 5 to 10 who have to travel more than 5 km to school are paid a transport allowance or travel by transport provided by the State subject to a "means test". Those who live away from home to attend school are given a boarding allowance also subject to a "means test".

Bursaries are made available to students entering teacher education at the two Colleges of Education and the University of Durban-Westville.

One of the most important indices of educational growth is the amount of money spent on education. In 1965 the total expenditure on Indian primary and secondary education in Natal was R6 986 424. The expenditure on teacher education in that year was R149 779. The total expenditure on Indian education in Natal in 1965 was therefore R7 136 203⁽⁷⁾. In the Transvaal the total expenditure on Coloured and Indian education in 1965 was R1 008 813⁽⁸⁾. The available statistics do not give the relative amounts spent on Coloured and Indian education. After transfer of education to the Division the amount spent on education increased tremendously. The earliest clear figures that are available for the amounts approved for Indian education at schools and colleges are for the financial year 1969/1970. Total amounts approved in respect of Indian education in that financial year were R13 073 350 and in the

1970/1971 financial year the figure was R16 167 350⁽⁹⁾.

The total amount of expenditure on Indian education for the period 1972 to 1982 is set out in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Total Expenditure on Indian Education (Excluding Capital Costs) : 1972-1982

Financial Year	Amounts
1971/72	R 18 650 520
1972/73	R 20 805 590
1973/74	R 25 058 100
1974/75	R 28 348 365
1975/76	R 35 779 240
1976/77	R 43 606 000
1977/78	R 46 866 850
1978/79	R 54 522 455
1979/80	R 73 073 700
1980/81	R 97 870 300
1981/82	R114 058 800
1982/83	R170 782 000

Source: Division of Indian Education - Annual Reports 1971 to 1982.

Note: The figures in Table 1 do not include expenditure in respect of school buildings.

The main items of expenditure shown in Table 1 are in respect of salaries and wages, furniture and equipment, books and stationery, transport and boarding allowances, maintenance of schools, grants-in-aid to State-aided schools and schools for pupils in need of special education, and teacher education.

The biggest single item of expenditure is in respect of salaries and wages. In 1970 the total expenditure on this item was R16 167 350. In 1983 it rose to the staggering amount of R129 593 900. This large increase was due mainly to the fact that in the recent years there had been several substantial salary increases in order to close the salary gap with the White sector and to keep pace with inflation.

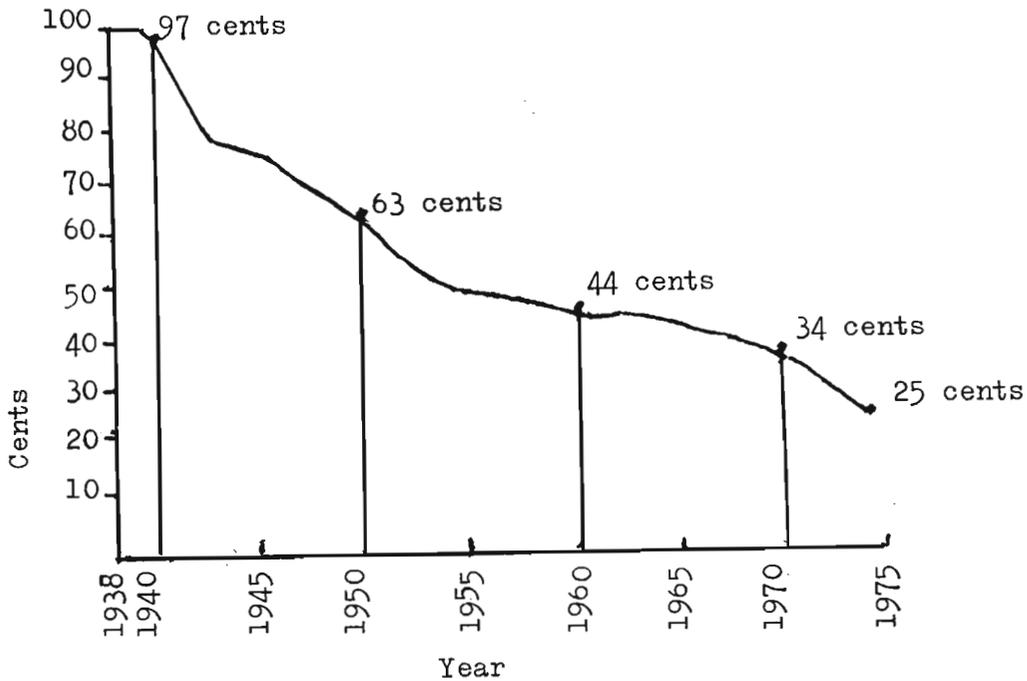
The phenomenal increase is also attributable to the substantial increase in the number of personnel. For example in 1970 there were 615 posts attached to the Director's office and there were 6 082 in teaching posts⁽¹⁰⁾ In 1982 the figures rose to 898 and 9 592 respectively. This represents a percentage increase of 31,5% and 36,7% respectively⁽¹¹⁾.

The main reasons for the increase in general expenditure, inter alia could be attributed to:-

- i. Extension of free education from 1970 onwards - education up to the Senior Certificate level is free to every Indian child at school. This includes free issue of books and stationery;
- ii. Increase in the number of pupils in school. In 1970 there were 162 040 pupils⁽¹²⁾. In 1982 this figure rose to 225 534 pupils⁽¹³⁾. This represents an increase of 28 percent;

- iii. Increase in transport and boarding allowances paid to pupils;
- iv. The introduction of subsidised medical aid scheme for personnel and teachers;
- v. Increase in the number and amount of bursaries awarded to student teachers. In 1970, 1 270 bursaries were awarded, totalling R404 500⁽¹⁴⁾. In 1982, 2 172 bursaries were awarded totalling R2 311 300⁽¹⁵⁾. In 1970 students received R300 per annum at Colleges of Education and students studying as teachers at the University of Durban-Westville, received R350 to R400 per annum. In 1982 College students received R900 per annum and university students received R1 200 per annum⁽¹⁶⁾.

Increased expenditure on education must also be viewed against inflation. Since World War II the value of the rand in terms of purchasing power has been decreasing. The accompanying Figure 2 reproduced from Malherbe's findings⁽¹⁷⁾ shows how the purchasing power of the rand has decreased steadily over the years since the time of World War II. Taking the rand as worth 100c in 1938, according to the consumer index figures published by the Department of Statistics, it is noted that the rand had dropped sharply to 63c by 1950, then to 44c by 1960 and to about 25c in 1974⁽¹⁸⁾. Since then the purchasing power of the rand has been dropping further. According to Sadie the current (1983) purchasing power of the rand is one-fifth or 20% of the 1970 value⁽¹⁹⁾.

FIGURE 2Depreciation of the Value of the Rand

Therefore, if one is making a comparison between the amount of money spent on education say in 1983 with that spent in 1970, one should divide the 1983 figure by at least five.

7. School Accommodation

One of the major tasks undertaken by the Division after it took over Indian education from the provincial administrations, was to ensure that adequate school accommodation was provided. At the time of take-over there was shortage of accommodation which, as was noted in Chapter One of this study, resulted in some 33 500 pupils (no less than 21,5% of the school population) being in double-shift or "platoon" classes. A

building programme was embarked upon in which ten new schools per year were built during the decade 1966-1976. For every seven new primary schools, four new secondary schools were erected. Each new primary school provided accommodation for 800 pupils on the basis of 40 pupils per classroom and each new secondary school, 1 000 pupils on the basis of 35 pupils per classroom.

Apart from classrooms, specialist rooms and administrative accommodation were provided to meet the requirements of the system of differentiated education. The building programme was designed not only for the natural growth in school population but also for the resettlement of school population resulting from the movement of Indian communities under the Group Areas Act. The replacement of unsatisfactory classrooms and the elimination of "platoon" classes had also to be provided for.

By 1976 sufficient schools had been erected for an enrolment that had in that year risen to 188 000. By 1980, notwithstanding an increase in the school population of 40% during the period 1966-1980, the number of pupils in the "platoon" classes had dropped to 3,8%. In 1982 alone no fewer than 13 new primary and 12 new secondary schools were erected and additions to 13 existing schools were completed⁽²⁰⁾. By mid-1983 there was no longer a need for "platoon" classes.

In 1983 the Director of Indian Education announced some major innovations that were in the process of being introduced. These include computer studies in secondary schools, community learning centres for non-formal education for adults, school readiness programmes for five-year olds, Indian languages as part of the normal programme in primary schools, and more secondary schools with a strong technical bias in strategic areas⁽²¹⁾.

8. Growth in Pupil Population

Table 2 (page 217) shows that while there has been a steady growth in the number of pupils in the primary schools, the increase in the number of pupils in the secondary schools has been significant especially after 1971. This could be partly attributed to the following factors:-

- i. The introduction of compulsory school attendance and later compulsory education. The upper age limit of compulsory school attendance has been fixed at 15 years in order to coincide with the end of the junior secondary phase which is Standard 7. This brings it in line with the existing policy for Whites;
- ii. The increasing awareness of Indian parents of the benefits of education, particularly secondary education;
- iii. The introduction in 1973 of the new system of differentiated education which caters for the interest, ability and aptitude of the pupils with a greater diversification of study directions;
- iv. The introduction of school guidance and counselling services whereby pupils are given adequate guidance in course selection, personal guidance and career guidance. It is the policy of the Division to provide every secondary school with a qualified guidance and counselling teacher.

The holding power of the schools has improved as a result of the introduction of compulsory school attendance in 1973, with the drop-out rate decreasing appreciably. For example, of the 18 586 pupils who were in Standard 1 in 1966, only 9 339 (50,2%) were able to reach Standard 7, whereas at the beginning of 1973 there were 18 865 pupils in Standard 1 and of these 15 473 (82%) pupils reached Standard 7 at the end of 1978⁽²²⁾. This represents a drop-out rate of only 18% compared to a drop-out rate of 49,8% before the introduction of compulsory education. The holding power of the schools is also influenced by other factors such as the present system of differentiated education, where every pupil is given the opportunity of maximising his potential according to his individual ability, aptitude and interest ; the provision of psychological and guidance service; and free education.

Since take-over of Indian education there has been a marked improvement in the ratio of secondary pupils to primary pupils. In 1967 there were 19 571 pupils in the secondary classes out of a total school population of 160 177. Thus only 12,2% of the pupils were in the secondary classes. Five years later the number of secondary pupils rose to 47 399 (27,5%) of the total school population of 172 141. In 1983 the number of secondary pupils was 75 606 (33%) out of a total school population of 229 289. Almost one third of the total school population was in secondary classes⁽²³⁾.

The increasing ratio of secondary school pupils while encouraging in itself, no doubt has had other implications for Indian education. These may be summarised as: provision of specialist facilities at secondary schools not only to cater for increasing demand on such facilities but also to meet the greater diversification of subjects;

provision of suitably qualified teachers in the secondary schools and increased expenditure resulting in a higher unit cost.

TABLE 2

Total Pupil Population and Number of Schools : 1967 - 1982

Year	Pupils			Schools			
	Primary	Secondary	Total	Primary S.Aided	State	Secondary S.Aided	State
1967	140 606	19 571	160 177	207	84	4	52
1968	132 714	23 247	155 961	2 02	95	5	54
1969	134 227	24 066	158 293	191	111	5	57
1970	135 981	25 881	161 862	180	116	5	60
1971	139 572	28 333	167 905	172	122	4	61
1972	124 742	47 399	172 141	163	134	4	66
1973	126 353	50 499	176 852	157	140	4	67
1974	130 407	50 434	180 841	151	139	4	68
1975	135 194	48 154	183 348	146	142	4	68
1976	138 478	49 439	187 917	143	144	4	68
1977	142 115	53 152	195 267	136	154	4	71
1978	146 417	58 719	205 136	128	157	4	76
1979	148 967	63 927	212 894	127	170	4	77
1980	150 354	67 244	217 598	123	181	4	81
1981	152 204	69 824	222 028	118	194	4	81
1982	147 954	77 580	225 234	114	204	4	89
1983	153 683	75 606	229 289	109	219	4	97

Source: Division of Indian Education Annual Reports 1967 - 1983.

9. Compulsory Education

Compulsory education, highly desired and often recommended by several commissions was never realised in Indian education while it was under provincial control. After Indian education became the responsibility of the Department of Indian Affairs, measures were taken to introduce a phased system of compulsory education for Indian pupils. One hundred years after the Immigrants Commission first recommended compulsory education for Indians (in 1872), some measure of compulsory school attendance was introduced in 1973.

In terms of Section 23 of the Indians Education Act, the Minister of Indian Affairs issued Proclamation R63 on 12 January 1973 whereby every Indian child who enrolled at an Indian school in Class (i) as from 1973 was compelled to attend school until the end of the year in which he reached the age of fifteen years. The system of compulsory attendance on a restricted basis was introduced to ensure that school accommodation kept pace with the demand for such accommodation. This system continued for a short while. In February 1978 the Executive Committee of the South African Indian Council declared that "regular attendance at a State or State-aided school for Indians in the Republic of South Africa, shall as from January 1979, be compulsory for every Indian child from the beginning of the year in which such a child reaches the age of seven years until the end of the year in which such a child reaches the age of fifteen years"⁽²⁴⁾.

It should, however, be noted that although education was not compulsory before 1973, Indian parents had always regarded education as highly desirable for their children. Indeed, it was estimated in 1970 that at that time some 99% of all educable Indian children between the ages

of six and thirteen years of age were at school⁽²⁵⁾.

10. The Curriculum in Indian Schools

Immediately after take-over of Indian education from the provinces, the Division introduced the Natal system of the Advanced and Ordinary stream of differentiated education with effect from 1967. Indian schools in the Transvaal were allowed to continue with the Transvaal three stream system of differentiated education until the end of 1972 after which a new system of differentiated education was introduced.

10.1 Development of a National System of Differentiated Education in South Africa

The first National Advisory Education Council instituted in 1962, provided the impetus for the appointment in 1964 of a committee under the chairmanship of the Director of the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research (now the President of the Human Sciences Research Council), and comprising senior officials from each education department in the Republic of South Africa to look at the problem of differentiated education from a national viewpoint. This Committee (with Dr P.M. Robbertse as Chairman) was required:-

- (a) to study the question of differentiated education and guidance;
- (b) to determine what was already being done in these fields; and
- (c) to pinpoint the problems and to determine what research should still be undertaken before any steps were taken to evolve a mutually acceptable plan⁽²⁶⁾.

The Committee brought out a comprehensive report in two parts in 1971⁽²⁷⁾. By then the National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967) had already been promulgated and the main recommendations both in regard to the division of the educational system into four phases, and the provision for guidance were accepted by the Government and implemented by regulations published in the Government Gazette of 12th November 1971⁽²⁸⁾.

The Regulation stipulates that education in schools managed and controlled by a department of State (including a provincial administration) shall have a Christian national character, with the proviso that the religious convictions of the parents and the pupils shall be respected in regard to religious instruction and religious ceremonies. Education shall be provided in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil, and the needs of the country. Guidance shall be given to a pupil in respect of personal matters, education choice and, with due regard to the needs of the country, choice of career. The Regulation provides for a four phase system of differentiated education as follows:

(a) Primary education in two school phases:

- i. the junior primary school phase - school years one to three;
- ii. the senior primary phase - school years four to six.

(b) Secondary education in two school phases:

- i. the junior secondary school phase - school years seven to nine;
- ii. the senior secondary school phase - school years ten to twelve.

The Regulation also provides for pupils requiring special education needs. Pupils who cannot derive sufficient benefit from the instruction normally provided in the ordinary course of education but who are nevertheless educable and are not handicapped children, are to receive education of a specialised nature in special classes or schools.

10.2 The Implementation of the National System of Differentiated Education in Indian Schools

Although the provisions of the National Education Policy Act and the Regulation implementing differentiated education apply to Whites only, the Division of Indian Education, decided to go along with the White education departments and introduced the new system of differentiated education in Indian schools as from January 1973.

The decision was based on certain prevailing factors. Firstly, Indian education under provincial control followed the educational programme designed for Whites even though the curriculum for Indian pupils was narrow and restricted especially in Natal. Secondly, the Indian community would not have welcomed a separate "ethnic" education programme completely divorced from a national educational programme. Thirdly, at that time Indian pupils wrote the Natal Senior Certificate examination controlled by the Natal Education Department.

The Division, however, had to deviate from some of the basic principles of the National Education Policy Act of 1967 in order to

suit its needs. In Indian education there is a difficulty in establishing a single broad religious character because of the presence of several linguistic groups and different religious affiliations. Therefore instead of religious instruction, Indian pupils are given instruction in right living where the basic tenets of the major religions of the world are included. In so far as mother tongue medium of instruction is concerned, the medium of instruction in all Indian schools throughout the Republic is English with Afrikaans being a second official language. Certain Indian languages such as Tamil, Hindi, Telegu, Urdu and Gujerati are offered as optional third languages in Standards 1 to 10.

10.2.1 The Education Programme

The normal period of school education consists of twelve years, that is, four school phases of three years each.

The junior primary phase caters for children between the ages of approximately 6 and 8 years. This age span is normally referred to as the infant stage, and it embraces the present Class (i), Class (ii) and Standard 1. Formal education commences in this phase and it is gradually developed. With due regard to the limits of school readiness, the child is taught basic skills, particularly reading and number concepts. In this phase differentiation is based on presentation of subject matter.

The senior primary phase is the period when the "child phase" flows naturally from the infant phase and merges into early

puberty. It is important to note that it is not easy to demarcate this phase on the grounds of age only. The great measure of uniformity with regard to physical and intellectual development as well as the social adaptability of the children between the ages of ± 9 years and ± 12 years indicate a natural phase in the life of a child and suggests that pupils in this group can form an educational unit for whom special provision is made in the educational programme. This phase covers the period in the present programme of Standards 2, 3 and 4. In this phase differentiation is based on the method of presentation and not in syllabus content. Class teaching still forms part of the educational programme, but subject teaching is attempted in certain subjects where specialised knowledge and method of presentation enable the children to develop their ability to the maximum. There are six compulsory examination subjects namely, English, Afrikaans, general mathematics, history, geography and elementary science. Compulsory non-examination subjects are right living, physical education including health education, aesthetic education (art, music, singing, manual training) and school guidance.

In the junior secondary phase (Standards 5 to 7), the main concern of the educationalist is the valid assessment of the child's aptitude, skills and interests. The education programme during this phase assists the child to obtain a clear perception of his own ability and decide on the future direction of his studies. It is particularly important for the child's future because records compiled on each child up to that point will determine the type of curriculum he will undertake in the

last phase. The syllabuses for the subjects for the ordinary group in this phase are not differentiated, but the subject matter is presented in a differentiated manner to enable the pupils to obtain the maximum benefit from the educational programme according to their ability and aptitude.

In this phase the six compulsory subjects are English, Afrikaans, general mathematics, general science, history and geography. In Standards 6 and 7 the optional subjects from which three have to be selected are one from technical drawing, industrial arts, needlework and home economics; one from accountancy and typing; and one from Latin, Arabic, Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Gujerati, art, music and health education. The compulsory non-examination subjects include right living, physical education, music, art, guidance and library.

In the senior secondary phase (Standards 8 to 10) a candidate has to follow one of six courses or fields of study, namely: general, humanities, commercial, technical, natural sciences and home economics. The examination subjects for this phase are divided into six groups: the official languages; mathematics; natural sciences; third languages; human sciences; and subjects comprising a long list covering commercial, technical, housecraft, art and music.

Up to 1982 subjects in the senior secondary phase were offered on the higher grade and/or in the standard grade. As from January 1983 subjects in this phase are offered on three levels, i.e. higher grade, standard grade and lower grade. At present

the Division offers a very wide choice totalling thirty-four subjects. Package subject-sets made up of six subjects comprising English and Afrikaans and four other subjects are offered to cater for the following fields of study: humanities, natural sciences, commercial, technical and home economics. Each subject-set is so designed that subject grouping requirements of the Joint Matriculation Board are taken into account. Subject-sets are also offered to pupils who do not wish to obtain the matriculation exemption certificate.

10.2.2 The Practical Course

When the new system of differentiated education was first introduced in 1973, a practical vocationally-oriented course was offered to pupils who could not derive sufficient benefit from the instruction provided in the ordinary academic course. According to the Division about 20% of the school population fall into the so-called dull-normal for whom the practical course was intended. Initially the practical course began in Standard 6 and went up to Standard 8 to co-incide with the school leaving age of sixteen. Later this course was extended up to Standard 10. This was due to the fact that pupils leaving school at the age of sixteen found it extremely difficult to find employment.

At the end of 1982 the Division in line with other education departments, decided to discontinue with the practical course. In a circular the Division gave the following reasons for

discontinuing the practical course⁽²⁹⁾ :

- i. disproportionately high numbers of pupils who have been placed in the practical course;
- ii. the name of the course is unacceptable - a stigma has been built around the tag, "practical";
- iii. there has been limited recognition accorded to the practical course certificate in the labour market;
- iv. the practical course has found little favour among parents; and
- v. there has been limited upward mobility; once in the practical course, pupils tend to perform at low expectation levels.

To overcome these and other problems associated with the practical course while still recognising the special needs of this category of pupils, a subject-based system of differentiation in both the junior and senior secondary phases is offered.

In order to accommodate the system, examination subjects are now offered on ordinary and lower grades in Standards 6 and 7 and on higher, standard and lower grades in Standards 8, 9 and 10.

With the abolition of the practical course, pupils who would

normally have been in the practical course take the same subjects as any other pupil following the ordinary course but depending on their performance in Standards 6 and 7 take subjects on the ordinary, standard or lower grade in Standards 8, 9 and 10.

10.3 Other Developments in the System of Education

In keeping with the principle that every child should receive education in accordance with the ability, aptitude and interest shown by the pupil, the Division introduced the following services:-

10.3.1 Special Education

Pupils who are unable to make satisfactory scholastic progress commensurate with their chronological age are referred to the Psychological Service Section for psycho-educational assessment. In the main these pupils may be described as moderately mentally retarded.

A school psychologist, who has at his disposal a wide range of diagnostic tools, examines the pupils at the school. On the basis of his findings the psychologist makes one or more of the following recommendations:-

The pupil should:

remain in the regular class and the class teacher

provide corrective or remedial measures, or
be transferred to a class for special education, or
be transferred to a special school, e.g school for
the blind, deaf, etc.

The Division established classes for special education at normal schools at the rate of ten per annum. At present (1983) there are 109 classes for special education with a total of 928 pupils. Teachers specially qualified with a Diploma in Special Education are appointed in these classes.

10.3.2 Remedial Services

Remedial education caters for the needs of pupils who generally have average or above average intelligence and who have specific learning disabilities. Acting on the recommendations of the Murray Commission (1969) the Division introduced this service in Indian schools. The benefits of the service were soon evident. The failure rate at the schools where the service was established dropped markedly.

The eighties has seen the tremendous expansion of the service. Presently, there are sixty-two schools providing remedial therapy. The introduction of remedial education is planned at a rate of 15 schools annually⁽³⁰⁾.

The Department has done pioneering work in this field and has established two Remedial Centres. All teachers providing

remedial therapy are fully qualified with the Diploma in Remedial Education. The progress of pupils who have learning disabilities is carefully monitored by remedial teachers and school psychologists.

10.3.3 Trainable Mentally Retarded Children

The Department of Indian Affairs has assumed responsibility for the trainable mentally retarded children as defined in the Mentally Retarded Children's Training Act (Act No. 63 of 1974). The training is provided in centres that are privately run. These centres, if registered and approved by the Department, receive a State subsidy similar to that given to the schools for visually or aurally handicapped children. In 1983 there were 8 training centres with a total enrolment of 477 pupils⁽³¹⁾.

Teachers for these schools are carefully selected from applicants from mainstream schools who possess suitable qualifications such as a Diploma in Special Education.

10.3.4 Special Schools for Blind, Deaf and Cerebral Palsied Children

The first school for the Indian blind was established in Durban in 1954 by the Natal Indian Blind Society under the name of the Arthur Blaxall School for the Blind. The school was subsequently transferred to Pietermaritzburg to more suitable premises in 1968 and renamed the New Horizon School. In 1975 hostels to accommodate 100 pupils were added. The school

caters for pupils from Class (i) to Standard 10. The syllabuses prescribed by the Division are followed in the primary classes. The senior pupils follow the syllabuses of the Department of National Education. The pupils receive training in woodwork, basketry, pottery and weaving. Every effort is made to allow mixing with normal pupils to promote social rehabilitation.

In 1983 there were five special schools: three for the aurally impaired, one for the visually impaired and one for the cerebral palsied. All these institutions are community sponsored and receive State subsidies.

Teachers for these institutions are also selected from a list of applicants from mainstream schools who possess suitable and appropriate qualifications.

10.3.5 Guidance and Counselling

Realising that Guidance and counselling services form the cornerstone of the system of differentiated education, the Division appointed a Guidance and Counselling Officer to initiate and organise the service. Since then much progress has been made. Today this service is manned by a Principal Psychologist, Senior Psychologist and 6 School Psychologists. All these officers have university qualifications in Guidance and Counselling.

The service concerns itself, in the main with personal,

educational, social, recreational and occupational guidance.

All School Counsellors appointed at secondary schools are university trained with a Diploma in School Guidance and Counselling. Provision is made for the selection and training of ten School Counsellors per annum. At present there are 46 qualified school counsellors and 27 in training. The counsellors are assisted by specially selected teachers to offer group guidance. In view of the importance of this service special facilities for Counselling are provided at secondary schools.

With the introduction of School Guidance and Counselling service there is greater liaison between the school, parents and commerce and industry. Another important feature of this service is that with proper guidance pupils are selecting courses, subjects and levels in keeping with their interest, aptitude and ability. This is borne out by their better examination performance.

11. The de Lange Recommendations on the School Curriculum

In the context of the discussion of the school curriculum it is necessary to conclude with a brief reference to the de Lange recommendations on the school programme.

In its aim to improve the situation and taking the existing educational structure as a point of departure, the HSRC de Lange Committee has

recommended a three phase educational system, i.e. pre-basic, basic and post-basic. Pre-basic education to be directed mainly towards school readiness, basic education to be directed mainly towards basic literacy and its subsequent consolidation, post-basic education to be directed towards differentiated educational needs⁽³²⁾.

The Committee has also recommended that levels instead of grades, standards and forms should be distinguished: basic education will have six levels (and also take six years) and intermediate education will also have six levels subdivided into two sub-phases, namely junior intermediate and senior intermediate, each lasting three years.

Further the Committee recommended that:-

- i. The possibility remain open for those pupils who achieve well to move across to a more difficult educational "track" and that this kind of horizontal mobility be encouraged and supported;
- ii. Bridging modules should be built into the provision of education in order to assist entry into the occupational world and non-formal education at lower levels, and also to support and promote course changes and re-entry into formal or non-formal education at higher levels;
- iii. Supporting services, especially curriculum design in the form of curriculum packages, but also support from educational technology and training programmes, should be provided in good time in a co-ordinated fashion with a view to an effective and gradual transition to the new educational structure;

- iv. The transition to the new structure should take place in phases with clear objectives, since the new structure in its entirety sets a goal that cannot be achieved immediately;
- v. The move towards the new structure should take place in a flexible way and not be imposed uniformly, especially with regard to the preparation of teachers and support in curriculum matters, but because of the adaptability of the structure this process should be differentiated according to need, in respect of internal differentiation and the rate of implementation ⁽³³⁾.

12. Conclusion

After nationalisation of Indian education in 1966, great strides have been made in its administrative control. From being mere appendages to White education in Natal and Transvaal the Division has, in a comparatively short period, become an efficient system of education administration. The relative autonomy of the Division has added greatly to the phenomenal progress Indian education has made in a short period of seventeen years.

The Division inherited a host of problems from the provincial education departments among which the acute problem of school accommodation was the foremost. Through a vigorous building programme the Division was able to provide adequate school accommodation with the result it was able to eliminate the "platoon" or double shift classes. Moreover, it was able to expand and update existing school accommodation to meet the needs of a changing educational system.

Compulsory education, unknown under provincial control, became a reality under the control of the Division. Today every Indian child (except those exempted by the Director for specific reasons) is subject to compulsory education until the pupil reaches fifteen years. Education up to and including Standard 10 is free.

Prior to take-over of Indian education the curriculum in Indian schools, especially in Natal was very narrow and restricted. There was no differentiated education for Indian pupils in Natal. In 1967 the Division introduced the two stream Advanced and Ordinary system of differentiation in Indian schools. In 1973 in line with the White education departments the Division introduced the new four phase system of differentiated education.

Prior to 1966, provision for pupils requiring specialised education for example, education of the visually impaired, the aurally impaired, the cerebral palsied and the severely mentally retarded was non-existent. Today the Division in collaboration with community-based welfare organisations, ensures that no child that is educable and or trainable is neglected.

The Division introduced adequate educational supportive services. The Psychological and Guidance Service provides valuable service in attending to psychometric and educational assessment and placement of pupils. The school guidance counsellors assist parents and pupils in the selection of courses and subject-sets. Pupils are given adequate guidance in career choice.

There is no doubt that the educational developments discussed in this

Chapter constituted a revolution in Indian education. Obviously these developments in turn had a considerable bearing on the supply of teachers both in quantity and in quality. The increase in school accommodation meant improved pupil-teacher ratio. This, coupled with a fast growing school population, influenced the demand for teachers. The introduction of the national system of differentiated education not only increased the pressure on the number of teachers required, but its proper implementation demanded that teacher education institutions supply teachers equipped with the correct pedagogical techniques and training to cope with the new system of education.

Elsewhere in this study mention will be made of the Division's efforts to revise the teacher training courses to fit in with the new system of education, and also its efforts to meet the demand for teachers in a fast expanding educational system. However, it must be observed here that in its haste to keep abreast of developments in the system of education in the White education departments, the Division failed to realise that, it is manifestly impossible to introduce new educational ideas adequately unless the teachers are available to implement them. This was not peculiar to Indian education at the time. It was a phenomenon in most parts of the world as Niven notes:

"Unfortunately the priorities became confused in many parts of the world as a result of the urgent economic and social demand for increased education particularly at secondary school level. The world found itself confronted with the need to provide more schools and new courses for a population which not only was growing rapidly, but which demanded that its children should stay at school longer. The result was a chronic shortage of teachers, particularly at the secondary school level, and the urgent task of society through the training plant was to seek to produce teachers in sufficient numbers to meet the growing demand." (34)

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CHAPTER FIVEINDIAN TEACHER EDUCATION UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE DIVISION OF INDIAN EDUCATION1. Introduction

In terms of the Indians Education Act, the control of Indian teacher education in South Africa was transferred from the provinces to the Division of Indian Education (hereafter to be referred to as Division) with effect from 1 April 1966. At the time of transfer the Natal Education and the Transvaal Education Departments were the only two provincial education departments to provide separate teacher training facilities for Indians. In the Cape Province, in view of the relatively small number of Indians there, Indians desiring to be trained as teachers were admitted to the Coloured teacher training institutions. Indians are debarred by law from residing in the Orange Free State. It is only in 1985 that it has been proposed that this restriction be removed.

Even before the transfer of Indian education to the Department of Indian Affairs, the Minister of Indian Affairs expressed concern at the large number of unqualified teachers in Indian schools. In this regard the Minister stated in Parliament that education planners of the Department were at the time busy studying the whole problem of Indian teacher training and were expected to submit a draft proposal to him with a view to better utilisation and possible expansion of training facilities as well as the introduction of adequate loans and bursaries ⁽¹⁾.

The Chief Education Planner, Mr P.R.T. Nel of whom mention was made in Chapter Three found that as at 1 January 1964 there were 3 928 teachers

of whom 2 833 were males and 1 095 females in Natal schools. Of these 538 males and 217 females - a total of 755 were unqualified. Apart from this there were 1 320 teachers (660 males and 660 females) who had qualifications lower than matriculation plus two years (M+2) training. Of the total number of Indian teachers in Natal, at least 243 were university graduates. These figures do not include primary school principals and vice-principals. In the Transvaal on take-over of education in 1967 there were 877 teachers in Indian schools. Of these about 12% were unqualified⁽²⁾.

2. Nel's Recommendation on Indian Teacher Education

In his report on the possible transfer of Indian education to the Department of Indian Affairs, Nel recommended that:-

- (a) On take-over of Indian education it would be necessary to expand the teacher training programme considerably both in volume and scope;
- (b) Many more teachers would have to be trained, for it was anticipated that Natal would require 4 630 Indian teachers by 1966 and 5 650 (many for secondary work) by 1970;
- (c) The Junior Certificate entrance level for women students taking the Transvaal Lower Primary Teachers' course should be abolished. The entrance level for all teachers' courses should be the Senior Certificate;
- (d) All courses for teaching in secondary schools, excluding perhaps domestic science, music and physical education,

should be concentrated at the University College only;

- (e) In order to co-ordinate and plan adequately the training of teachers, it was recommended that a take-over of the education by the Department of Indian Affairs should lead to the formation of an Institute of Education for the purpose mentioned. Such an Institute should comprise:

The Faculty of Education - University College of Durban,

The Rector and Vice-Rector - Springfield College of Education,

The Rector and Vice-Rector - Transvaal College of Education,

The Director, Deputy and Chief Inspectors of the Education Department,

One representative from public bodies and perhaps also a member of the National Indian Council, as well as a teacher-representative;

- (f) There should be tuition-free training for teachers augmented by loans and bursaries for books and residence, as well as residential accommodation to enable students from other areas to enrol for teacher training; and
- (g) Certification of teachers could fall upon the University College and the University of South Africa⁽³⁾.

Nel's recommendations in respect of teacher education formed the basis for improvements in Indian teacher education as will be seen in the rest of this study. However, his proposal for the establishment of an Institute of Education did not materialise for reasons that will be explained later in this section.

3. Administrative Control of Indian Teacher Education

The Director of Indian Education (hereafter to be referred to as the Director) as the head of the Division of Indian Education is in overall control of Indian teacher education. The day-to-day affairs in respect of teacher education are handled by the Division's Education Planning Section.

The two colleges of education, viz. Springfield College of Education and the Transvaal College of Education come under the direct control of the Director of Indian Education. The colleges have no autonomy. They function administratively in the same manner as any ordinary secondary school and are supervised by a Chief Inspector. Immediately after the transfer of Indian teacher education to the Division of Indian Education, Springfield Training College came to be known as the Springfield College of Education and the Transvaal College of Education for Asiatics was named the Transvaal College of Education.

3.1 The Consultative Committee for Teacher Education

The problem of providing an adequate corps of suitably qualified teachers presents a major challenge to every education department. The task of identifying the various facets of this problem and suggesting feasible solutions in Indian education is entrusted to the Division's Consultative Committee for Teacher Education.

The Committee's function is to investigate, make recommendations and advise the Director on all matters pertaining to teacher education. The Committee has met regularly since 1966 and has initiated developments in a variety of aspects of teacher education, such as: in-service courses for lowly qualified teachers; orientation and refresher courses for in-service teachers; courses,

and syllabi and curricula for teacher education. The Committee's work has assisted greatly towards the improvement and stabilisation of Indian teacher education services.

4. University Involvement in the Administration of Indian Teacher Education

Unlike the position in White teacher education, where the issue concerning how and where teachers should be trained had raged for a considerable time, there has never been such an issue in Indian teacher education. Although, in recent years oblique references were made to the desirability of training secondary school teachers at a university, the matter has not been seriously pursued by the Division or the University. Under provincial control there is no evidence of any serious thought being given to the desirability of training Indian secondary school teachers at a university. The Wilks Committee of 1946 saw the need for a "joint direction of the training of secondary teachers by the University and the Education Department". This was in reference to the training of White teachers. No direct reference was made to the desirability of training Indian secondary school teachers at a university by the Wilks Committee.

In his recommendations on teacher education, Nel envisaged a greater role for the University College (now the University of Durban-Westville) in the control and administration of teacher education than the subordinate role it is presently playing in this respect. Firstly, Nel saw the need for a machinery for co-ordination in the planning of teacher education. He therefore recommended the formation of an Institute of Education for that purpose with the University College being fully involved. In this respect it is not clear from Nel's

Report as to which model of the Institute of Education he had in mind; most probably it was the British model. The British system of Institute of Education was not generally accepted in South Africa by the White education departments at the time. It was only in 1968 that the idea of an Institute was first mooted with the publication of the Teachers' Training Bill of that year. We shall return to this aspect later. The proposal for an Institute of Education for Indian teacher education in those early years appears to be a bit ambitious on the part of Nel. At that time the University College was only just established in temporary premises vacated by the Navy at Salisbury Island, Durban. The Division too was newly established. There was a grave shortage of adequately qualified teachers especially for the secondary schools. The newly established University College was not in a position to train all the secondary school teachers the Division needed.

Although Nel did not clearly define the functions of the proposed Institute of Education in his report, his recommendation that certification of teachers should fall upon the University College suggests that Nel wanted the University College to control standards in teacher education through an Institute of Education.

The establishment of the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education therefore appears to have been a compromise solution to provide the necessary machinery for consultation and co-ordination.

In the matter of teacher education the University of Durban-Westville does not appear to have complete autonomy. This is evident especially in respect of student intake and course direction. Based on its own projected teacher requirements, the Division has absolute control not

only over the number of students the University could admit each year for teacher education courses, but the Division also determines the number of students to be trained for the various teachers' courses at the University each year. No student for initial teacher education courses could be admitted at the University of Durban-Westville without the approval of the Director. The Division holds the view that since intake at teacher education institutions for Indians is regulated by the Division's projected requirements, it could not guarantee employment to teachers who have been trained over and above its requirements.

The Division is probably the only education department in the Republic which can exercise such control over admission at a University because there is a good supply of suitable candidates. In fact the number of candidates who qualify and apply for admission for teacher education is far in excess of the total intake of the institutions responsible for Indian teacher education.

Secondly, control of admission at the University of Durban-Westville is also regulated by the award of bursaries by the Division. All students selected for teacher education by a selection panel qualify for a bursary regardless of their financial position. No student is awarded a bursary if such student decides to switch courses without the prior approval of the Director. If the Division were to withdraw bursary facilities from the University student teachers, it is feared that teacher education student enrolment at the University would drop drastically with serious implications not only for the University but also for the Division because nearly 40% of the teachers trained every year come from the University of Durban-Westville.

The control that the Division has over the University of Durban-Westville is further borne out by the fact that the chairman of the University student selection panel for teacher education is the Division's Chief Education Planner.

However, it should be pointed out that only in respect of teacher education, (because of the circumstances pointed out above) the autonomy of the University of Durban-Westville appears to have been compromised. There does not appear to be any evidence of tampering with the University's autonomy in any other respect. Even on the question of teacher education, the Dean of the Faculty of Education of the University, Professor B.F. Nel asserts that in principle the University has not surrendered its autonomy. For historical and practical reasons it allows the Director to control admission to teacher education courses through mutual arrangements⁽⁴⁾.

The present forms of consultation and co-ordination between the Division and the University of Durban-Westville are through the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education and more recently through the Co-ordinating Advisory Committee on Tertiary Education (CACOTE). The functions of CACOTE will be discussed later in this Chapter. The Faculty of Education of the University through mutual arrangement controls standards at the two colleges of education in a very limited way. Firstly, all College syllabuses are submitted to the Faculty for its perusal for the purpose of controlling standards. Secondly, Faculty staff act as moderators of college examinations. College certification is, however, done by the Division.

The present form of consultation and co-ordination is informal and it

lacks any permanent machinery for more effective university-college co-operation. Even the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education, which is merely an advisory body to the Director, is not a suitable structure to allow the University to play a more meaningful role in the preparation of teachers. There is an urgent need for more effective structures to bring about more formal university-college co-operation. In order to upgrade the status of the teaching profession, initial preparation of teachers has to be linked to the University. In the White sector there has been for a long time a growing insistence that all teacher education should be linked with university training. This is the trend in most Western countries. Indian teacher education has reached a critical stage in its development. Serious consideration should now be given to raising the status of teacher education by linking it with university training.

To-day White teacher education is functioning effectively with greater university co-operation and involvement. But the path leading to this situation has been a long and difficult one strewn with many obstacles. Therefore it is necessary to review briefly the history of developments in White teacher education in this regard in order to trace their influence, if any, on Indian teacher education.

5. The Teacher Education Dichotomy in South Africa

The issue concerning how and where White teachers should be trained has been a controversial one for a long time. The South Africa Act of 1909 made no specific mention of teacher education. Section 85 (iii) merely provides that the provinces shall be responsible for primary and secondary education and the central government for "higher education".

What was intended by the term "higher education" was not clearly defined. This led to endless confusion and anomalies. Who would control teacher education - the province or the universities? If teacher education is considered as tertiary education then it would seem logical to place it under central government control. But the provinces controlled education other than "higher". It was therefore inevitable that they should want to train teachers to suit their particular needs which they did. At the same time the universities and technical colleges (through the Central Government Ministry of Education) also trained teachers.

The failure to define "higher education" has bedevilled the administration of education in South Africa. The first abortive attempt of Parliament to define "higher education" was in the Financial Adjustments Act (No. 52 of 1922, section 11). The definition was meaningless because it embraced virtually any form of education as the Minister might declare to be higher education. Malherbe draws attention to the point made by Professor Fred Clarke, namely that the attempt to define "higher education" occurred in an Act on finance shows to what extent matters of educational principles were subordinated to financial considerations⁽⁵⁾. Niven asserts that teacher training institutions in South Africa had not been clearly recognised as being central to educational development. Rather they had tended to be looked upon as providing a necessary but essentially ancillary service. "Again at this point the matter of divided control of education obtruded itself and complicated the issue"⁽⁶⁾. Teachers were being trained at differing institutions. "The results of this were a tendency to polarisation as well as to duplication of functions in a variety of ways"⁽⁷⁾. The fundamental need was to resolve the dualism in teacher

education. This was to come in the decade of the 1960's.

The significance of this decade was the establishment of the National Education Advisory Council (NAEC) (later called the National Education Council). At the first meeting of the Council held on 29 March 1963 the Minister of National Education, Senator De Klerk stated:

"In our country there is no uniform control of teacher training as there is in other countries; neither is there co-operation, consultation or co-ordination between the different authorities concerned, with the result that there is considerable disparity in almost every respect. So far as teacher training is concerned an anomalous situation has developed in South Africa; some teachers' training colleges train secondary teachers, while some universities train primary teachers, and the technical colleges have worked out their own salvation, taking a parallel course in certain fields. There is really no systematic and scientific system of teacher training. This matter calls for the Council's immediate attention."⁽⁸⁾

The Minister requested the NAEC to carry out a full investigation into teacher education and make the necessary recommendations.

To do this the Council with the Minister's consent appointed an ad-hoc committee with four sub-committees to consider the subject of "The Teacher". The following aspects were assigned to the four sub-committees:-

- (a) Recruitment, Selection and Wastage of Teachers;
- (b) Training and Certification of Teachers;
- (c) Conditions of Service of Teachers; and
- (d) Status and Prestige of Teachers⁽⁹⁾.

The first, second and last of these aspects were to be undertaken in conjunction with the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research (now known as Human Sciences Research Council), while in the remaining one, evidence was to be sought from the Federal Council of Teachers' Association in South Africa. Thus a comprehensive survey of the existing situation in regard to the preparation of teachers was commenced.

The NAEC regarded the question of teacher training and its co-ordination as so important that it decided that an attempt should be made to obtain the co-operation of the universities. This was done through the latter's representation on a committee called the "Joint Committee on Teacher Training"⁽¹⁰⁾. This Committee which met for the first and only time on 18 July 1965 could make no headway because it was precisely the question of an acceptable system of control that presented the real problem⁽¹¹⁾. In the meantime the ad-hoc committee continued with its investigation. The final report was submitted to the Minister in October 1967.

Some of the main recommendations of the Council were:-

- (a) The desirability or otherwise of establishing a Teachers' Council or Registration Council to enhance the status of teachers;

- (b) There should be some agreement as to the number and types of courses needed and also as to their designations and those of the certification issued;
- (c) The minimum training period of teacher training should be four years, with due regard to supply and demand;
- (d) All teacher training should be controlled by the universities and education departments jointly⁽¹²⁾.

The NAEC prepared a draft bill for the purpose of further discussion after the provincial heads of education departments had consulted with their Administrators. Further amendments were made after discussions in the Council's Contact Body, and with principals of the universities.

5.1 The Teacher Training Bill of 1968

The teacher training bill proposed as its main feature the establishment of Institutes of Education by the universities in agreement and co-ordination with the appropriate education authorities. Clause (10) (1) of the Bill stated that all training of White persons as teachers shall be provided at an institute or a faculty of education at a university. The Bill was not quite clear as to what was meant by its provision for a partnership between the universities and the provincial training colleges. Niven had this to say on the Bill:

"Very considerable discussion was provoked by the publication of the Bill. Some of the universities felt that while responsibility for teacher education was being transferred to them, it was being done in such a way as to reduce

effectively their autonomy. New institutions were to be created which they were to administer and over which their control was to be uncertain. Provincial education authorities were dismayed at the prospect that institutions which over nearly three quarters of a century had performed a valuable service were to be swept away by the stroke of a pen."⁽¹³⁾

In view of the great opposition to the Bill, the Minister was not anxious to push the Bill through Parliament. He therefore referred the Bill to a Parliamentary Select Committee after its first reading. As the Parliamentary session was then coming to an end, the State President appointed a Commission of Enquiry into Teacher Training on 28 June 1968. This was the Gericke Commission.

5.2 The Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Persons as Teachers (The Gericke Commission)

The Commission comprised eight members under the chairmanship of Dr J.S. Gericke, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Stellenbosch and Moderator of the Synod of the Nederduiste Gereformeerde Kerk. Probably this was an indication of the Church's interest and involvement in the matter of teacher education. Strong representation was given to the universities while provincial education departments and the organised teaching profession were also represented.

Malherbe asserts that this Commission, apparently unaware of the work that had been done by the Schumann Commission, proceeded to

plough over the same ground as had been done by the Schumann Commission and by the NAEC. It heard evidence from exactly the same parties as had given evidence before the Schumann Commission and in principle there was no difference in its ultimate finding that some form of partnership between universities and teachers' colleges was necessary⁽¹⁴⁾.

In brief, the majority report of the Commission recommended:

- (a) The establishment of a South African Professional Council for the Training of Teachers;
- (b) The institution of regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committees for teacher training;
- (c) The training of secondary teachers at universities;
- (d) The co-operation and co-ordination of all teacher training institutions in a region; and
- (e) That the provincial training colleges should continue in existence for the training of primary teachers, but that the training should be given in co-operation with the universities⁽¹⁵⁾.

The majority of the members of the Commission rejected the idea of university control of the teaching institutes. Two members of the Commission, however, remained firm supporters of the institute idea.

The minority report submitted by Professors O.P. Horwood and B.F. Nel expressed bitter disappointment that the institute idea

had been abandoned. They felt that the time had come for a revolutionary departure from old practices. They recommended the establishment of Teachers' Training Centres which would incorporate both faculties of education and colleges of education⁽¹⁶⁾.

Perhaps the basic point to come out of the two reports of the Commission was the fact of the underlying dichotomy in teacher education - the cleavage between the provincial administration and education departments on the one hand, and the central government and the universities on the other⁽¹⁷⁾.

From these diverging views the Minister of National Education had to produce legislation acceptable as far as possible to all concerned, practicable in its application, and in keeping with the development of a national education policy for the country.

After decades of talking on the issue of how and where teachers should be trained, the Gericke Commission's recommendations formed the basis for the enactment of the National Education Policy Amendment Act (No. 73 of 1969). This Act decreed that the training of White persons as teachers for secondary schools may be provided at a university only, and the training of White persons as teachers for the primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a college or a university, subject to the condition that the college and university work in close co-operation with each other.

This Act also laid down that courses for the training of persons as teachers for secondary schools should extend over a period of not less than four years. The minimum period for training primary and

pre-primary teachers was laid down as three years, as recommended by the Gericke Commission.

The Act did not provide for a Professional Council for Teacher Training as recommended by the Gericke Commission. Instead it provided for a new and enlarged National Council and abandoned the old National Advisory Education Council. This enlarged National Education Council comprised 26 to 29 members, of whom not fewer than 12 were to be concerned with teacher education.

By doing so the Government placed teacher education at the centre of educational policy. In its new role, the National Education Council would be responsible for higher education as well as other than higher. On this situation Niven remarks "This is a situation almost without precedent in the history of South African education"⁽¹⁸⁾

With regard to the Professional Council for Teacher Training, Niven is of the opinion that "much of the advantage which the Commission envisaged flowing from the creation of a professional council for teacher training, including the registration of teachers, is not provided for by the enlargement of the National Education Council. Thus, while the amended structure provides for efficient dual purpose professional administration, it raises problems of function and does not provide all the services which a professional council might have done"⁽¹⁹⁾.

The Act provided for the operation of a regional joint advisory and co-ordinating committee for teacher training. This was in keeping with the majority report. The minority report recommended

the establishment of training centres under university control, but subject to scrutiny and limited control of a joint committee. With reference to the Act's decree that the training of White persons as teachers for secondary schools may be provided at a university only, Niven makes this comment:

"This implies in effect the creation of a training centre, but in the case of the Act, the Joint Committee is under the control of the Administrator and not of the University. Indeed, in the Act, the initiative in the establishment of the regional Joint Advisory and Co-ordinating Committee is vested in the Administrator, while the chairman of the committee is by regulation required to be an official in the employment of the provincial administration."⁽²⁰⁾

It is generally agreed that this appeared to be an attempt at compromise between the more radical proposal to transfer teacher education to the universities and the more conservative attitude of the majority report. This compromise is also evident in the provisions of the Act which permit existing institutions to continue to function as heretofore.

Niven asserts that "on this score the Act is vague. The training of secondary school teachers must take place in the university. The Minister is empowered to grant temporary exemptions from this regulation. However, the Act further states that 'the training of White persons as teachers for primary and pre-primary schools shall be provided at a college or a university; provided that such training shall be provided at a college and a university in close

co-operation with each other'. The provincial education authorities may be pardoned for wondering what their future is in the field of teacher education"⁽²¹⁾.

Behr asserts that the "Act precipitated a crisis and created a situation that was irreversible. It rent teacher training asunder; it separated the training of secondary teachers from primary teachers; it placed all secondary teachers at universities and almost all primary teachers at colleges of education; it displaced members of college of education staff; it compelled universities that were by and large inadequately equipped for this new responsibility to make rapid improvisation; above all it depressed the status of the colleges of education"⁽²²⁾.

The Rector of the Edgewood College of Education, A. le Roux summed up the position succinctly thus: "A paradoxical situation - a tragic situation occurred : The universities were not geared to produce secondary teachers in sufficient numbers and we were obliged to concentrate exclusively on the primary schools. So what happened in fact, was that many of our primary trained students were and are appointed to high schools"⁽²³⁾.

5.3 Further Legislation : The National Education Policy Amendment Act No. 92 of 1974

The National Education Policy Amendment Act No. 92 of 1974 was promulgated at the end of 1974. This Act, while reiterating that the training of White persons might be provided at a university only, nevertheless enabled the Minister of National Education, in

consultation with the council of a university and an Administrator or the council of a college for advanced technical education, to permit colleges of education and of advanced technical education to train secondary school teachers in certain subject areas and for certain courses.

The training of teachers for primary and pre-primary schools was to continue as heretofore at a college or a university, and on the basis that from a date to be determined by the Minister such training could be undertaken by the two institutions in close co-operation with each other.

The amended Act made provision for a university to recognise courses passed at a college of education or a college for advanced technical education for degree or diploma purposes. The amended Act also removed certain financial and legal obstacles for the purpose of achieving flexibility in the liaison between the university training and college training of teachers presumably to facilitate the implementation of the Van Wyk de Vries Commission's recommendation⁽²⁴⁾. These provisions not only granted students access to any college or to any teacher training college under provincial administration, but also laid down that any part of such training college buildings and facilities should be made available to a university for the training of teachers.

5.4 The Van Wyk de Vries Commission on Teacher Education

Apparently no further action was taken on the lines of the Teacher Training Act of 1969 pending the publication of the Van Wyk de

Vries Commission's recommendation. The Van Wyk de Vries Commission of Inquiry into universities was appointed in 1968. The commission's report was published in 1974, "thus, for nearly a decade, while deliberative bodies were formulating unexceptionable principles about teacher training, thousands of teachers were being turned out by institutions suffering from all the disabilities which these same bodies had criticised in the existing system and about which no action had been taken. In fact, these commissions and committees sometimes had a paralysing effect and prevented improvements in the general set-up being made" (25).

The Van Wyk de Vries main report (R.P. 25/1974) devoted a good deal of space to a discussion of the various proposals that had been put forward for rationalising teacher education.

The report stated: "For a very long time - over half a century there had been growing insistence that all teacher training should be linked with university training. The need to enhance the status of the teaching profession and to put an end to disparities and lack of co-ordination in training had become imperative" (26).

The Commission paid particular attention to the feasibility and interpretation of the phrase "in close co-operation" in section A(3) of the National Education Policy Act No. 73 of 1969. Nobody was sure as to what was meant by "close co-operation".

Constitutionally the Minister could not compel either a university or a provincial training college to integrate or co-operate.

By law the structures of the university and the colleges are constitutionally separate entities and cannot be merged. This "rigidity is manifested in the conception of the university and the college as monolithic institutions facing each other immovably and immutably"⁽²⁷⁾ .

However, the Commission was of the opinion that "there is nothing to prevent a university and a college from achieving closer co-operation and interaction on a voluntary basis, although presumably vague coercive statutory provisions would not be conducive to voluntary co-operation"⁽²⁸⁾ .

The Commission came to the conclusion that all teacher training should take place under the guidance of the university. The Commission appeared to be conscious of the fact that the phrase "under the guidance of a university" could be just as vague and impracticable as had been the phrase "in close co-operation"⁽²⁹⁾ . It therefore introduced a new concept, namely that of a college which would be part of a university and not under the sole control of the provincial administration. The latter would, however, be given important representation on the council administering such a teachers' college under the guidance of the university.

The college idea points to the following:-

- (a) The university itself would provide teacher education in its own right for degree courses;
- (b) The college, within the framework of the university, would train teachers for a diploma course, the diploma being awarded by the university;

- (c) The training courses under (a) and (b) would not be completely separate but would be particularly interwoven, i.e.
- (i) certain practical subjects and techniques would be offered only at a college but would also have to be taken by the university graduates;
 - (ii) certain subjects would be offered only at the university but would be taken by the diploma students at the college as well; and
 - (iii) in certain cases there would be mutual recognition of credits and also a sharing of the teaching and laboratory facilities between both types of institutions⁽³⁰⁾.

5.5 Overcoming the Diarchy in Teacher Education

Following upon the publication of the Van Wyk de Vries Commission's Report, educational administrators began to set their minds on finding a solution to the problem of bringing about "close co-operation" and "under university guidance" by taking into account traditional legislation, and vested interests⁽³¹⁾. The solution appears to have emerged in the creation for each college of education of two autonomous bodies, i.e. a college council and a college senate.

Natal evidently took the lead in establishing the college council system. According to le Roux,⁽³²⁾ during 1975 the Natal Provincial Administration and the University of Natal negotiated an agreement

in connection with the Higher Education Diploma.

Authority was obtained from the Minister of National Education for secondary school teachers to be trained at Edgewood College of Education and at Durbanse Onderwyskollege. Edgewood, an English medium college would work under the guidance of the University of Natal, and the ~~the~~ Durbanse Onderwyskollege, an Afrikaans medium college, would have its secondary teachers' course recognised by the University of Orange Free State. The Natal Training College would not offer a secondary teachers' diploma ⁽³³⁾.

A second Provincial-University agreement provided for the establishment of a College Council for the administration of the college with strong university representation on the Council. A College Senate was also established which would be responsible to the Council and provide for "close-operation" between the college and university. The intention says le Roux was not only to provide for college-university co-operation by means of a Council but a large measure of autonomy was envisaged for the college ⁽³⁴⁾.

The then Principal and the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Natal, Professor Stock wrote:

"Under the new arrangement, Edgewood College of Education becomes largely independent of the Natal Provincial Administration, having, like the University, its own council with representatives from the Province, the University, the teaching staff, the Natal Teachers' Association and the Municipality, and its own Senate representing the College and the University." ⁽³⁵⁾

The system adopted in Natal called the "Natal Plan" has, with modification, become a model for the rest of the country.

5.6 The Implementation of the Council System

In order to streamline the position of teacher education and to give effect to the provisions of Section 2 (and Section 1 A(3) of Act 39 of 1967, directives have been drawn up after consultation between the Minister of National Education, the Administrators, Directors of Education and Rectors of Universities. All agreements between provincial administrators and universities are subject to the approval of the Administrator-in-Executive Committee and the Minister within the framework of the following directives:-

- (a) Training at a college (pre-primary and primary teachers) retains its own character. Each college functions under its own council, the composition of which is determined by the provincial administration concerned, in consultation with a university;
- (b) Where necessary, provision can be made for a college senate, the functions and composition of which are determined by a provincial administration in consultation with a university;
- (c) The academic standard of the content of the curricula and syllabuses, teaching and examining and also research are the joint responsibility of a college and a university. The university's responsibility

for guidance in this connection is exercised through its representation on the board and/or the senate of the college and/or through other possible channels agreed upon in each case;

- (d) Certificates will be issued jointly by the college and the university or by the college with an endorsement by the university, as agreed;
- (e) An agreement may, in terms of the Act, be entered into between a university and a provincial administration with a view to co-operation between a university and a college, with regard to aspects of the training of pre-primary and primary teachers at a university; and
- (f) In addition, an agreement may be entered into between a provincial administration and a university to arrange co-operation within the legal framework between a university and a college in respect of the training of teachers for the secondary school⁽³⁶⁾.

In terms of these directives, agreements have since 1976, been signed between the provincial administrations, acting on behalf of their colleges of education, and the universities concerned.

Through this arrangement an infrastructure has been created in White teacher education which achieves the following:-

- (i) A guarantee of academic standards for a college of education by close collaboration with the university;
- (ii) Strong representation of the university in the council and the senate of the college;
- (iii) The post establishment of the college staff remains a provincial function, but the university representatives participate in the selection of staff;
- (iv) The financing of the college remains a provincial responsibility;
- (v) The status of the college is enhanced both internally and externally; and
- (vi) The autonomy of the university remains untouched but its function is extended⁽³⁷⁾.

5.6.1 Bachelor's Degree in Primary Education

The extent of college-university co-operation in the preparation of teachers for primary education can be gauged from the historic innovation of the introduction of the Bachelor of Primary Education degree as a joint effort between colleges and universities. For example, as from 1980 the University of the Witwatersrand in close collaboration with the Johannesburg College of Education has been offering the degree in Bachelor of Primary Education. This degree is offered jointly by the college and the University of the Witwatersrand⁽³⁾

This new degree extends over four years full time study.

A student taking the Bachelor of Primary Education degree has to register with the University. The curriculum includes the following courses:-

- (i) 3 courses in education;
- (ii) 2 courses in each of two of the following subjects:
Afrikaans, Biblical studies, biology, English,
geography, history, mathematics, a Bantu language,
art, music, drama and librarianship;
- (iii) At least one course in each of the official
languages, if not taken under (ii) above;
- (iv) Other courses from (ii) above to complete the
requirements as laid down by the college and
university Senates; and
- (v) 4 courses in professional studies including
teaching experience ⁽³⁹⁾.

The tuition arrangement for the Bachelor of Primary Education is that the instruction is offered at the campus of the college. However, tuition in courses in education is the direct responsibility of the University ⁽⁴⁰⁾. The degree is conferred by the University.

The University of Natal in collaboration with Edgewood College of Education has also introduced the Bachelor of Primary Education degree with effect from the

beginning of 1983. In broad outline, the first year is the same as a B.A. or B.Sc in teaching subjects and are taught on the campus of the University of Natal. The second year comprises two 'academic' subjects plus education and professional studies. The third year comprises the major 'academic' subject plus education and professional studies and the fourth year is devoted exclusively to education and professional studies⁽⁴¹⁾.

An example of Bachelor of Primary Education curriculum is as follows:-

First year : English I, mathematics I, Afrikaans I, history I.

Second year : English II, geography I, education I, professional studies I.

Third year : English III, geography II, education II, professional studies II.

Fourth year : education III, professional studies III⁽⁴²⁾.

Students are taught by the University of Natal and Edgewood College in close collaboration with each other. The degree is conferred by the University of Natal.

The Bachelor of Primary Education degree is a product of the close co-operation that has finally come about between colleges and universities in the recent years. This was largely due to the establishment of structures e.g. a college council and college senate, in the latter part of the 1970's.

Universities concerned are well represented on their respective college councils and senates. There is arrangement for the mutual utilisation of academic staff by the universities and the colleges concerned. University staff are involved in the development of college curricula and in the moderation of college examinations. All these developments have enabled the universities to accord recognition to college work and standards.

5.7 Mutual Recognition of Courses

Another outcome flowing from the close co-operation between colleges of education and the universities is in respect of mutual recognition of courses. For example, in an agreement entered into by the Administrator of the Transvaal on behalf of the six colleges there and the universities concerned, provision has been made for the following: Mutual recognition of courses passed can be granted, as provided for in terms of the agreements, by virtue of the powers granted to each. Where students wish to offer such recognised college courses for degree purposes, residence within the competence of the university will be recognised in terms of the provisions of the Statute of the University and of the Common Statute⁽⁴³⁾.

For the purpose of mutual recognition of courses each university has worked out its own formula for the purpose of equating courses passed at a college of education with University courses. For example, the University of the Witwatersrand gives recognition to courses passes at the Johannesburg College of Education on the following basis⁽⁴⁴⁾:

- Afrikaans I : After 2 years at College (provided 65% attained).
- Afrikaans II : After 4 years at College (provided 70% attained).
- or Afrikaans I : After 4 years at College.
- English I : After 2 years at College
- English II : After 4 years at College
- [provided such students
pass a Practical Criticis
test devised by the
University English
Department .
- geography I : After 2 years at College.
- geography II : After 4 years at College.
- mathematics I : After 4 years at College, provided that 2
year exemption for entry into mathematics II
(Teachers) may be considered for any student
who attains a standard to be determined by the
University Mathematics Department.
- education I : After 2 years at College.
- education II : After 4 years at College.

In Natal there also have been moves in this direction. For example, at Edgewood College degree students may transfer into the second year of the secondary school diploma and some degree credits are awarded for diploma courses. Le Roux says, "Obviously absolute equivalents cannot be attained. The a priori aims of a college of education and a university are different and goal-conflict is a real issue. Nevertheless every effort should be made to introduce flexibility into course structures" (45).

6. The Influence of Recent Developments on Indian Teacher Education

6.1 College-University Co-operation

Viewed against the background of developments in White teacher education especially since the latter part of the 1970's, it would appear that nothing significant has taken place in respect of college-university co-operation in Indian teacher education.

Although oblique references were made to the desirability of training secondary school teachers at the University since the early seventies, for practical reasons this did not appear to be possible. The demand for primary school teachers could not be met by the limited facilities of the two colleges of education. On the other hand, the university alone was unable to supply the demand for secondary school teachers. Teachers trained at the college for the junior secondary phase (Standards 5 to 7) were, of necessity, employed to teach even up to Standard 10 level. It required the combined resources of the two colleges of education and the University to train and supply teachers for a fast developing education system.

As Indian education was generally influenced by developments in White education in this country, as was noted in the case of the introduction of the present system of differentiated education, it was inevitable that developments in White teacher education would also influence changes in Indian teacher education as will be seen directly.

6.2 The Establishment of the Co-ordinating Advisory Committee on Tertiary Education (CACOTE)

Influenced by the Van Wyk de Vries Commission's recommendation on the college idea, the then Secretary of the Department of Indian Affairs, established the Co-ordinating Advisory Committee on Tertiary Education (CACOTE) on 25 October 1977. This was to be a liaison committee of the three institutions of tertiary education in order to ensure the desired and necessary co-operation and co-ordination on the one hand, and the avoidance of unnecessary overlapping on the other⁽⁴⁶⁾.

The Committee comprises three members each from the Division of Indian Education, University of Durban-Westville and the M.L. Sultan Technikon. The Chairman is the Rector of the University of Durban-Westville and the Deputy Chairman is the Director of Indian Education.

According to the Minutes of its first meeting held on 25 October 1977 the terms of reference of CACOTE were:-

- i. To articulate where necessary the particular standing and sphere and specialisation of each Institution;
- ii. To review the various courses offered at these institutions with a view to ascertaining where services and course could be combined or shared or where mutual recognition could be given to work done at another tertiary institution;

- iii. To investigate the sharing of facilities and staff at these three institutions and to effect co-operation where possible in this regard, whether full or part-time, whether at the respective institutions or elsewhere;
- iv. To discuss the planning and introduction of new courses that might have bearing on the range of activities, etc. offered at the other institutions;
- v. To consider the availability etc. of present staff and the appointment of future staff in relation to the above ideals and ideas; and
- vi. To consider such other aspects of academic and professional co-operation as might be of interest not only to the Indian community but also to the whole of South Africa⁽⁴⁷⁾.

The first meeting agreed to appoint sub-committees on an ad-hoc basis wherever and whenever necessary with the power of co-option. Prior to reporting their views to the Secretary of Indian Affairs (now Director-General) it was agreed that all recommendations should be submitted to the respective Councils, Senates or Divisions for consideration and approval where applicable.

One of the sub-committees formed and which is of interest to this study is the Teacher education sub-committee. At the first meeting of the Teacher education sub-committee held in September 1980 the university stated that the Faculty of Education had been reorganised. This change had staff implications especially as the University

was bound by the Van Wyk de Vries staffing formula for universities. The University could not therefore afford the luxury of uneconomic numbers of students in undergraduate diploma courses. The provision of undergraduate diploma courses for small number of students meant uneconomic use of highly trained staff and had an inhibiting effect on the fulfilment of its main role as an institution of higher learning and research⁽⁴⁸⁾.

It was therefore agreed that there would have to be a carefully worked out time scale for phasing out the undergraduate diplomas, taking due cognizance of the teacher needs of the Division and the problems and goals of the University so that the transition would cause minimal inconvenience to all concerned⁽⁴⁹⁾. As a result of this agreement the University phased out all undergraduate teacher diplomas with effect from 1983. The next important issue to which the Teacher education sub-committee addressed itself, was in respect of the phasing out the three year education diplomas at the two colleges and replacing them with four-year education diplomas⁽⁵⁰⁾. The decision to increase the minimum period of training from three to four years was consistent with the Division's policy of upgrading teacher education and keeping it in line with developments in White teacher education. Moreover, it was argued that the existing three-year teachers' course was inadequate for the preparation of teachers considering the extent of the curricula. The sub-committee felt that there was a need to extend and strengthen the academic content of the courses with a view to obtaining university recognition of courses passed at the colleges of education⁽⁵¹⁾.

It was further agreed in principle that there was a need for structures such as college councils and senates wherein the University should play an important role in course and curricula structure. Therefore, it agreed in principle to prepare a draft agreement between the Division acting on behalf of the Springfield College of Education, and the University of Durban-Westville to give effect to greater college-university co-operation.

The principle which CACOTE presented was similar to the developments in White education where the establishment of structures under which flexibility is granted to the University concerned and to colleges of education to work together to improve pre-service preparation of teachers.

At the eighteenth meeting of the Consultative Committee held on 10 November 1981, the two matters, i.e. the introduction of four-year diplomas at the two colleges of education and the draft agreement for college-university co-operation between the Division, acting on behalf of the Springfield College of Education, and the University of Durban-Westville, were considered. The Consultative Committee recommended to the Director that:-

- i. The four-year education diplomas be introduced at the two colleges with effect from January 1984;
- ii. The Steering Committee that had been appointed to plan the new Durban College of Education be requested to work out the draft curriculum for the four-year diplomas; and

- iii. The necessary steps be taken to finalise the agreement between the Division of Indian Education and the University of Durban-Westville⁽⁵²⁾.

The draft agreement circulated at the meeting of the Consultative Committee provides for the establishment of a College Council and College Senate wherein the University is fully and strongly represented.

The Director has decided to introduce the four-year diploma as from January 1985. In the meantime sub-committees have been appointed to work on the syllabuses for the various subjects for the four-year diploma .

No finality has been reached in respect of the agreement on college-university co-operation. However, negotiations in this regard have reached an advanced stage. Moreover, arrangements are being made for a similar agreement between the University of South Africa and the Transvaal College of Education.

A similar situation exists between the Natal Education Department and the Universities of Natal and the Orange Free State, with one significant exception. The Natal situation arose in response to a difference in culture between English and Afrikaans medium colleges and the local university. This is not so in the case of Indian teacher education. The only reason for linking the Transvaal College of Education and the University of South Africa is one of geographical consideration. For geographical reasons, a situation can arise in which the practices of two universities have to be

brought into line. This situation might pose a potential problem particularly to the newly achieved autonomous status of the University of Durban-Westville.

The establishment of CACOTE has no doubt paved the way for college-university co-operation in Indian teacher education. It seems that in future the University of Durban-Westville and the University of South Africa will become more deeply and institutionally involved in the work of the two colleges of education, through each institution being represented on the proposed college councils and college senates.

In one important aspect CACOTE has not reached any agreement and that is in connection with the involvement of the M.L. Sultan Technikon in teacher education. The representatives of the Technikon have pleaded repeatedly for the re-instatement of teacher education at the Technikon, arguing that in keeping with the developments in White teacher education, especially after the recommendations of the Van Wyk de Vries Commission and the de Lange Commission, the Technikon has a vital role to play in training technical and commercial teachers. It should be pointed out that from 1966 to 1973 the Technikon (then known as M.L. Sultan Technical College) was allowed to train technical, commercial, home economics and physical education teachers. In 1973 the Director requested the then Secretary for Indian Affairs to discontinue teacher education at the Technikon. The Secretary acceded to the request and from January 1974 the M.L. Sultan Technikon was not allowed to train teachers. The main reason given for this decision was that the two colleges and the

University of Durban-Westville were adequately placed to train and supply all the teachers the Division required and duplication of expensive facilities was not in the best interests of Indian education⁽⁵³⁾.

Experience has shown that these reasons were not valid. The decision to close the teacher education section at the Technikon appears to have been taken with undue haste and it is generally felt that the M.L. Sultan Technikon was prevented from playing a meaningful role in the supply of teachers for the specialised subjects.

The figures in Tables 1 and 2 prove the point that the M.L. Sultan Technikon did play a vital role in providing the Division with teachers for the commercial and technically orientated. From Table 2 (page 277) it will be observed that during the period the Technikon was allowed to train teachers, it had an average enrolment of 125 students in the various courses. The most significant contribution of the College was in the supply of specialist teachers. This is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Number of Teachers Qualifying from the M.L. Sultan Technical College
1969-1973

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Teachers' Diploma : Commerce	7	5	4	20	10
Teachers' Diploma : Home Economics	8	6	6	16	9
Teachers' Diploma : Physical Education	14	22	13	15	13
Teachers' Diploma : Industrial Arts	-	11	10	-	2
Totals	29	44	33	51	34

Teacher Education Student Enrolment at the M.L. Sultan Technical College 1968-1973

Teachers' Diploma	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
National Diploma : Commerce						
1st year	20	22	17	20	19	12
2nd year	17	19	25	20	20	12
3rd year	1	14	21	20	20	20
National Diploma : Home Economics						
1st year	19	23	15	7	13	8
2nd year	16	15	25	20	9	10
3rd year	8	14	15	16	14	7
National Diploma : Physical Ed.						
1st year	-	-	-	14	13	7
2nd year	-	-	-	14	13	7
3rd year	23	17	14	14	14	12
Industrial Arts (one year full time crash course)	11	14	11	4	5	-
TOTALS	115	138	143	149	140	95

SOURCE : ANNUAL REPORTS : DIVISION OF INDIAN EDUCATION 1968-1974

The above figures show that in the scarce areas such as home economics, physical education and industrial arts, the M.L. Sultan Technikon had supplied an appreciable number of teachers in these subjects.

Every annual report of the Director from 1968 to 1972 makes reference to the role of the M.L. Sultan Technikon in the training of the specialist teachers for the secondary schools. It therefore seems strange that the Director took steps to disestablish teacher education at the Technikon. As soon as teacher education was discontinued at the Technikon, make-shift arrangements were made at the Springfield College of Education to offer crash courses in industrial arts. Later, the College began to offer a three-year education diploma in industrial arts. The University of Durban-Westville was persuaded to offer a three-year education diploma in home economics. For reasons unknown, very few students opted for this diploma. For example, during the period 1978 to 1983 an average of only four students had enrolled for this diploma at the University.

In view of the fact that White Technikons in collaboration with universities are playing a major role in offering the four-year secondary teachers' diploma in fine arts, home economics, commerce and industrial arts, there is no reason to preclude the M.L. Sultan Technikon from playing a similar role in Indian teacher education.

7. The de Lange Recommendations in Respect of Teacher Education

Before concluding this Chapter it is necessary to make a brief

reference to the de Lange recommendations on teacher education. At the very outset the de Lange Committee stressed that the quality of teachers (more than any other factor) determines the quality of education. The Committee recommended that the minimum entrance requirement for a teacher training course should be a Standard 10 or equivalent certificate, and the minimum duration of the course three years. The course structure should attempt to achieve a balance between academic, professional and practical-oriented components. Attention should be given in particular to the acquisition of classroom skills and teaching practice. A study should be made of the desirability of making the subject matter of the academic component more relevant to the work of teachers.

Legal provisions should be made for the technikons to educate and train teachers (especially in the technical field), and for orderly co-operation between universities, teachers' colleges and technikons. Autonomous status comparable to that of universities should be accorded to all institutions concerned with teacher education.

The academic and professional requirements of those responsible for the professional training of student teachers should be laid down. There should be co-ordinated evaluation and recognition of qualifications at a national level by the Ministry of Education on the advice of the SACE, and registration for all categories of teachers in formal education and in school auxiliary services and for educationalists is deemed advisable. Continuing training should be provided for all teachers on a planned basis. In its White Paper the Government has accepted most of the de Lange recommendations on teacher education.

8. Conclusion

On 1 April 1966 the control and administration of Indian teacher education in the Republic of South Africa came under the control of the Department of Indian Affairs, Division of Indian Education.

As a first step in ensuring proper planning and co-ordination in Indian teacher education, the then Minister of Indian Affairs established the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education. This important advisory committee, with representatives from the colleges of education, the University of Durban-Westville, M.L. Sultan Technikon, the Teachers' Association of South Africa and other educationalists, advises the Director of Indian Education on all matters pertaining to teacher education. Although the Consultative Committee is purely an advisory body without any executive power, it has nevertheless played an important role in directing the course of Indian teacher education. The establishment of this Committee also provided a forum for Indian educationalists to play a leading and meaningful role in the administration of teacher education.

Unlike the position in White education, where the issue concerning how and where teachers should be trained has been raging for a long time, it has never been a real problem in Indian education. Although oblique references were made to the desirability of training secondary school teachers at a university only, this has never been seriously considered in view of the fact that the demand for secondary school teachers could not be met by the University alone.

In the matter of teacher education the University of Durban-Westville appears to have compromised its autonomy. This not only gives point to

the criticism that the "ethnic" universities do not have the usually claimed autonomy, but it weakens the leadership role of the University in a vital area of higher education.

There is a growing insistence that all teacher education should be linked to university training. Teaching cannot rise in public esteem to any marked extent unless there is a strong link with the university.

The University of Durban-Westville has now been in existence for more than twenty years. It has established itself as one of the major universities. It is now high time for the University to take major responsibility for direct leadership in such a vital sector as teacher education. Its present marginal role must give way to allow it to play a leading role in teacher education. For this to be achieved the proposals for agreement between the University concerned and the Division of Indian Education should be implemented as soon as possible. The status of the colleges of education cannot be enhanced unless they are given full academic and administrative responsibility in close association with the university.

It is hoped that with the establishment of the proposed College Councils and College Senates, the M.L. Sultan Technikon would have a direct input in matters concerning the training of teachers for the technical subjects. Every endeavour should be made to allow the Technikon to resume the training of teachers in association with the University.

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49. Ibid
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51. Ibid
52. Department of Internal Affairs : Minutes of the 18th Meeting of the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education, 10 November 1981. File 1/9/15/2
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CHAPTER SIXTHE DEMAND FOR AND SUPPLY OF TEACHERS IN INDIAN EDUCATION1. Introduction

No other single factor is as decisive in determining the quality of education in a country as the quality of the corps of teachers. Were the qualitative improvement of teacher education the only concern for educational planners, the task would be comparatively simple. However, this need must be seen against the background of population growth and the natural concomitants of this growth which include:-

- (i) The massive growth of school population and the practice of pupils staying on longer at school beyond the minimum school-leaving age;
- (ii) The introduction of free and compulsory education;
- (iii) The provision of increasingly sophisticated forms of differentiated education particularly at the secondary level;
- (iv) The increasing demand for provision for children with special education needs; and
- (v) The increasing employment opportunities for skilled persons with trained minds.

In this Chapter the problem of the demand for and supply of teachers in Indian education is examined.

2. Pupil Projection

At the risk of considerable oversimplification, extensive use will be made of the pupil and teacher projection method as determined by the Division of Indian Education. Limited as the method used may appear, it is effective and reasonable for short-term projections.

In its five-year projections, the Division uses the factor method to determine projected pupil enrolment for each standard. By a factor is meant the quotient obtained by dividing the number of pupils in a specific standard in a year by the number of pupils in a lower standard in the previous year. For example, dividing the number of Standard 2 pupils in 1974 by the number of pupils in Standard 1 in 1973, one obtains a factor of 0,9794 (correct to 4 decimal places).

The forecasts are made for five-year periods and are revised each year, taking into account latest statistics in respect of pupil population in the past few years. Factors are calculated separately for Natal and Transvaal where the Division has most of its schools. For the Cape where there are very few schools and where no clear trends of growth have emerged, the forecast is based on the total classroom accommodation available. The advantage in using the factor method is that certain features such as the "low points" in pupil enrolment and the actual pupil enrolments in the different standards are taken into account.

For the period 1984 to 1988 the forecast of pupil population was based on the factors shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Factors Determined to Forecast Pupil Population : 1984 to 1988

Factor	Natal	Transvaal	Cape
Class (i) (Intake growth)	0,98	1,00	Based on total school accommodation available
Class (i) to Class (ii)	1,00	1,00	
Class (ii) to Std. 1	1,02	1,01	
Std. 1 to Std. 2	1,00	1,03	
Std. 2 to Std. 3	1,03	1,00	
Std. 3 to Std. 4	0,98	1,00	
Std. 4 to Std. 5	0,97	0,96	
Std. 5 to Std. 6	0,98	0,95	
Std. 6 to Std. 7	0,95	0,95	
Std. 7 to Std. 8	0,96	1,03	
Std. 8 to Std. 9	0,85	0,80	
Std. 9 to Std. 10	0,80	0,75	

Source : The Division of Indian Education File 19/1/11/2.

Although Sadie recognises the need to forecast pupil population based on the total population, until now the Division has based its pupil projections on the actual trends of pupil distribution in the various standards. Sadie points out that the inherent weakness of projecting figures based purely on pupil enrolment is that one cannot readily build in the "drop out" figure and such important aspects as the fertility and mortality rates and migration patterns are not taken into account⁽¹⁾.

According to Lotter the mortality rate for the Indian population declined sharply from 12 per 1 000 of the population in 1950 to 6 per 1 000 in 1977. Infant mortality, i.e. the death of children under one year has also declined over the years. A death rate of 6,9 per 1 000 was recorded in 1978. Indian birth rate also declined sharply from 33 per 1 000 of the population in 1970 it dropped to 25 per 1 000 in 1977⁽²⁾.

In 1980 the HSRC in its publication on population projections for the period 1970-2020 stated: "Official statistics show that the birth-rate of Coloured people and Asians decreased during the period 1970 to 1977 by 25,3% and 24,4% respectively. The corresponding decrease in the White birth-rate was 26,7%"⁽³⁾.

Indian migration in South Africa is not significant. In view of the fact that the Division of Indian Education is responsible for Indian education for the whole of the Republic, population movement from one province to another does not affect pupil projections.

The reliability of pupil projections by the factor method as used by the Division is reflected in Table 2.

TABLE 2

The Difference Between Projected Enrolment and Actual Pupil Enrolment
by the Factor Method

Year	Projected	Actual	Difference
1979	211683	209184	1,2%
1980	216134	214689	0,7%
1981	219526	218397	0,5%
1982	227482	224576	1,2%
1983	229931	228330	0,7%

Source : Division of Indian Education File 19/1/11/2

The pupil projection as determined by the factor method for the five-year period 1984-1988 is shown in Table 3 (page 290).

3. The Pupil-Teacher Ratio Method to Determine Teacher Demand

The Division uses the pupil-teacher ratio method to forecast future demand for teachers. It regards the pupil-teacher ratio method as being a realistic and reliable method. The pupil-teacher ratios operating in the year in which the forecast is made are used to forecast teacher demand for a five year period. These ratios are reviewed annually. To ensure further accuracy, separate ratios for primary and secondary schools and also separate ratios for each of the three provinces are used.

Using the projected pupil population and the most recent pupil-teacher ratios, it is reasonably simple to arrive at a fairly accurate forecast of the number of teachers required in any given year. The

TABLE 3

Indian Pupil Projection : 1984 - 1988

Class/Std.	Actual			Projections				
	Boys	Girls	Total	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Class (i)	10 307	10 065	20 372	20 315	20 009	19 710	19 417	19 131
(ii)	10 679	10 477	21 156	20 656	20 343	20 037	19 738	19 445
Std. 1	11 321	10 874	22 195	21 769	21 055	20 735	20 422	20 117
TOTAL - PHASE (I)	32 307	31 416	63 723	62 740	61 407	60 482	59 577	58 693
Std. 2	11 036	10 728	21 764	22 492	21 835	21 123	20 799	20 482
3	12 173	11 504	23 677	22 520	23 084	22 400	21 668	21 334
4	11 355	10 880	22 235	23 453	22 168	22 725	22 060	21 334
TOTAL - PHASE (II)	34 564	33 112	67 676	68 465	67 087	66 248	64 527	63 150
Std. 5	10 132	10 101	20 233	21 524	22 543	21 297	21 833	21 181
6	9 454	9 223	18 677	19 728	21 044	22 043	20 819	21 340
7	8 717	8 494	17 211	17 766	18 785	20 037	20 984	19 824
TOTAL - PHASE (III)	28 303	27 818	56 121	59 018	62 372	63 377	63 636	62 345
Std. 8	8 734	7 713	16 447	16 691	17 239	18 218	19 434	20 343
9	7 446	6 324	13 770	13 869	14 074	14 534	15 360	16 467
10	4 797	4 515	9 312	10 917	10 997	11 152	11 514	12 361
TOTAL - PHASE (IV)	20 977	18 552	39 529	41 477	42 310	43 904	46 308	49 171
TOTAL OF PHASES	116 151	110 898	227 049	231 700	233 176	234 011	234 048	233 359
SPECIAL EDUCATION CLASS	606	322	928	1 085	1 235	1 385	1 535	1 685
UNCLASSIFIED	-							
GRAND TOTAL	116 757	111 220	227 977	232 785	234 411	235 396	235 583	235 044

teacher demand forecast is further refined by building into it the following factors:

Provision for wastage through deaths, retirement, etc.;

The number of teachers required for the special classes for mildly mentally retarded pupils, remedial teachers and school guidance counsellors; (these are over and above normal ratios);

Opening of new schools in the year; and

An allowance of 1% for the possible improvement in the pupil-teacher ratios.

As an example, the five-year teacher projection for the period 1984-1988 will now be considered. In this particular case the following factors were taken into account⁽⁴⁾.

- (i) The pupil population figures in Table 3 (page 290);
- (ii) The actual pupil-teacher ratios in schools as at first Tuesday in March 1983;
- (iii) A pupil-teacher ratio of one teacher per special class for the mildly mentally retarded pupils;
- (iv) 15 Remedial education teachers per year;
- (v) An allowance of a 1% increase in the growth of the teaching force (after providing for (i) to (iv)) for possible improvement in pupil-teacher ratios;

- (vi) An allowance of 2 teachers per new school scheduled to be opened during the period; and
- (vii) Provision for wastage (see Table 5, page 294).

The following pupil-teacher ratios in operation in schools as at March 1983 were used.

TABLE 4

Pupil-Teacher Ratios as at March 1983

Province	Primary	Secondary
Natal	26,4	20,4
Transvaal	24,8	18,5
Cape	27,7	14,9

It should be noted that the pupil-teacher ratios appearing in Table 4 were arrived at by dividing the total number of pupils in 1983 by the total number of teachers in that year separately for primary and secondary schools for each province. It does not necessarily mean for example, that the average number of pupils per teacher in Natal Primary schools is 26,4. In actual fact, in heavily built-up areas such as Phoenix, Verulam, Stanger and Pietermaritzburg it is not uncommon to find class sizes up to 40 pupils with an average of 35 pupils. Indeed there is no exact relationship between pupil-teacher ratio and class size, as the latter is influenced by a number of factors other than the number of teachers. These include the distribution of pupils between schools and among age groups, within the school, the nature of the

accommodation available and the freedom of the school to organise its work and deploy its staff as it sees fit.

3.1 The Wastage Factor

In assessing the demand for teachers it is necessary to plan not only for the natural growth of school population but also for suitable and sufficient number of teachers as replacements in existing teaching posts arising out of teacher wastage. This so-called wastage factor constitutes the number of teachers lost to the establishment annually through retirement, resignations, deaths and termination of services. The number of teachers lost to the establishment in any one year will affect the demand for teachers in the year immediately following.

Up to 1980 a wastage factor of 2,5% for Natal and the Cape and 5% for the Transvaal was used. The higher rate for the Transvaal was due to the fact that until recent years, there were comparatively more resignations from the teaching profession probably because of better employment opportunities there in commerce and industry. However, in recent years, probably owing to better salaries earned by teachers, the resignation rate in the Transvaal has dropped appreciably, with the result that the Division now uses a common wastage factor for the Republic as a whole.

A wastage factor of 2,5% based on the 1982 figures with a provision for an increase in wastage of 10 teachers per year was used to project teacher demand. The projected wastage is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5Projected Teacher Wastage Figures: 1983 - 1988

1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
244	254	264	274	284	294

The teacher requirement projection for the five year period 1984 to 1988 is set out in Table 6 (page 295). From the table it will be observed that the growth rate of teacher demand fluctuates from year to year largely due to the allowance of 2 teachers per year for new schools scheduled to be opened in a particular year.

The number of teachers projected has been determined separately for primary schools and secondary schools. The anticipated teacher population for any one category in a particular year has been calculated using constant pupil-teacher ratios but as stated above a 1% allowance has been made for future improvements in pupil-teacher ratios and also for new schools.

Having projected the total teacher requirement for the five-year period, the next step is to determine the actual number of additional teachers required in each year. This is done by adding the projected growth in teacher requirement shown in Table 6 to the wastage figures shown in Table 5 above. The total demand for additional teachers for the year 1984 to 1988 is shown in Table 7 (page 296).

PROVINCES	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
<u>NATAL</u> : Primary	4 877	4 844	4 766	4 639	4 546	4 430
Secondary	3 186	3 327	3 451	3 606	3 686	3 755
Special Education Class	88	94	100	106	112	118
<u>TRANSVAAL</u> : Primary	828	848	854	860	866	866
Secondary	496	523	552	583	605	628
Special Education Class	12	14	16	18	20	22
<u>CAPE</u> : Primary	91	139	146	153	160	167
Secondary	91	96	103	110	117	142
Special Education Class	2	4	6	8	10	12
<u>R.S.A.</u> : Primary	5 796	5 831	5 766	5 652	5 572	5 463
Secondary	3 773	3 946	4 106	4 299	4 408	4 525
Special Education Class	102	112	122	132	142	152
Remedial Class	52	67	82	97	112	127
TOTAL	9 723	9 956	10 076	10 180	10 234	10 267

Adjusting the Above Figures to Allow for a 1% Growth (1984-88)

	Actual 1983	Projection				
		1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Primary	5 796	5 889	5 824	5 709	5 628	5 518
Secondary	3 773	3 985	4 147	4 342	4 452	4 570
Special Education Class	102	112	122	132	142	152
Remedial Class	52	67	82	97	112	127
TOTAL	9 723	10 053	10 175	10 280	10 334	10 367
Allowance for New Schools	-	44	40	70	62	50
GRAND TOTAL	9 723	10 097	10 215	10 350	10 396	10 417
Growth	-	374	118	135	46	21

TABLE 7Demand for Additional Teachers : 1984 to 1988

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	Total
Growth	374	118	135	46	21	694
Wastage	254	274	274	284	294	1 380
Totals	628	392	409	330	315	2 074

3.2 Teacher Output Projection

Table 8 below sets out the projected teacher output for the period 1984-1988. In the projected output of teachers, a failure rate of 5% for final year students at the three teacher training institutions is allowed for.

TABLE 8Teacher Output Projection 1984-1988

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	Total
Springfield College	532	418	355	-	293	1 598
Transvaal College	101	152	125	-	80	458
University: Diploma	34	28	7	-	-	69
UHDE + B.Paed	224	221	277	342	303	1 367
Totals	891	819	764	342	676	3 492

Comparing the total number of new teachers required (Table 7) and the projected teacher output (Table 8) it will be noticed that output exceeds total requirements as shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9A Comparison of Teacher Requirements and Output 1984-1988

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	Total
Requirement	628	392	409	330	315	2 074
Output	891	816	764	342	676	3 492
Difference	+263	+427	+355	+12	+361	+1 418

From Tables 8 and 9 the following observations can be made:-

- (i) The output for 1984, 1985 and 1986 has already been determined by the current student population at the teacher education institutions.
- (ii) The output for 1987 and 1988 represents a medium range forecast and will be determined by the intake of new students in 1984 and 1985. In addition, the output for those years will also be dependent on the success rate in the four year education diploma expected to be introduced at the two colleges of education as from 1985.
- (iii) The expected output exceeds demand by a total of 1 418 teachers during the period. The excess output in each year is envisaged to replace unqualified teachers.

It should be pointed out that the actual number of teachers in March 1983 on which projections for the next five years were made includes unqualified teachers. In that year there were 1 040 professionally unqualified teachers in Indian schools. With effect from 1984 the Division has decided to dispense with the services of

professionally unqualified teachers on a phased basis to make way for professionally qualified teachers.

The projected enrolments at the three institutions are shown in Table 1 (page 299). As the University of Durban-Westville has phased out all initial education diplomas with effect from 1983 there will be no new intake for the education diplomas at the University in 1984. The encouraging feature of the projected student enrolment is the provision for an average of 1 000 students at the University for the B.Paed.degree and the post graduate UHDE courses. With the large number of students with matriculation exemption wanting to be trained as teachers, the projected student enrolment at the University should materialise.

3.3 Student Enrolment at the Training Institutions

It should be noted here that the projected student intake at the training institutions (see Table 10 on page 299) is in respect of general practitioners and academic specialists for the secondary school only. In respect of technical specialists such as guidance counsellors, remedial education and special education teachers and teachers for resource centre management as well as teachers for technically orientated subjects, there does not appear to be any clearly defined method of determining the demand for such teachers. In the case of teachers for guidance service, remedial education, special education and resource centre management, provision is made for an average intake of 15 candidates per course per annum. In so far as the teachers for the technical subjects are concerned, the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education has appointed an ad-hoc

committee to investigate the problem of training teachers for the technical subjects. It is anticipated that this committee will come up with a more scientific method of projecting teacher demand for these subjects than has been the case hitherto⁽⁵⁾.

TABLE 10

Projected Enrolment at the Three Teacher Education Institutions: 1984-1988

	1983 Actual	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
1. <u>Springfield College:</u>						
1st year	370	429	505	438	88	312
2nd year	434	371	361	440	394	109
3rd year	560	440	374	362	432	398
4th year	-	-	-	-	326	421
Total	1 364	1 240	1 240	1 240	1 240	1 240
2. <u>Transvaal College:</u>						
1st year	134	111	224	163	33	87
2nd year	163	129	95	188	148	41
3rd year	106	160	131	99	180	151
4th year	-	-	-	-	89	171
Total	403	400	450	450	450	450
3. <u>University D-W:</u>						
(a) <u>Diploma Students:</u>						
1st year	11	-	-	-	-	-
2nd year	35	9	-	-	-	-
3rd year	38	31	8	-	-	-
Total	84	40	8	-	-	-
(b) <u>Degree Students:</u>						
1st year	344	250	250	250	250	250
2nd year	221	297	229	223	222	222
3rd year	147	215	289	232	224	224
4th year	122	145	208	280	237	225
UHDE	127	100	100	100	100	100
Total	961	1 007	1 076	1 085	1 033	1 021

Table 11 sets out the student enrolment at the two colleges of education, i.e. the Springfield College and Transvaal Colleges of Education from 1970 to 1983. The table shows that except for 1973 there has been a steady increase in enrolment at the Springfield College of Education. In 1973 there were just not enough candidates for teacher education. The Division was forced to lower standards and admit students with "O" level Senior Certificate passes.

In the early 1980's Indian education was faced with a large cumulative shortage of teachers for the junior primary phase. In 1979 there were 329 unqualified teachers in this phase. In order to alleviate the problem the nearby Clare Estate Primary School was used as an annexe to the Springfield College of Education. This resulted in an additional intake of about 320 students for the Junior Primary Education Diploma. The position of unqualified teachers in this phase is expected to improve during the next few years in view of the fact that proportionately a large number of females are entering the Junior Primary Education Diploma course. From Table 11 it will be observed that at the Springfield College, except for the years 1971, 1973 and 1974 the percentage of females entering the College was higher than that of the male students. Since 1976 more than 60% of the student enrolment were females. At the Transvaal College of Education the picture is quite different with proportionately more males than females. However, since 1983 the position has changed with more female students entering the College. The reason for fewer female students entering the teaching profession in the past was that until recently, parents in the Transvaal were reluctant to allow their daughters to train as teachers. Moreover, until 1983 there were no hostel facilities at the College

and it is probable that parents were not keen to allow their daughters to board elsewhere.

TABLE 11

Student Enrolment at the Two Colleges of Education According to Sex :

1970-1983

Year	Springfield College				Transvaal College			
	Male	Female	Total	% of Female	Male	Female	Total	% of Female
1970	100	103	203	50,74	78	35	113	30,97
1971	100	79	179	44,13	66	41	107	38,31
1972	94	102	196	52,04	78	31	109	28,44
1973	53	41	94	43,61	57	13	70	18,57
1974	134	82	216	37,96	40	20	60	33,33
1975	86	121	207	58,45	40	17	57	29,82
1976	74	170	244	69,67	37	28	65	43,07
1977	91	205	296	69,25	70	34	104	32,69
1978	94	153	247	61,94	40	26	66	39,39
1979	122	193	315	61,26	68	41	109	37,61
1980	128	193	321	60,12	68	41	109	37,61
1981	223	373	596	62,58	50	36	86	41,86
1982	148	261	409	63,81	108	103	211	48,81
1983	123	248	371	66,84	65	73	138	52,89
Total	1 570	2 324	3 894	57,51%	865	539	1 404	36,66%

From Table 12 (page 302) it will be observed that a large number of students at the Transvaal College were from Natal. It is not always possible to recruit the required number of Transvaal students for teacher education. Even those who apply to be trained as teachers in most cases are not academically suitable. Therefore, students from Natal were selected to be trained at the Transvaal College.

TABLE 12

Geographical Distribution of Students at the Transvaal College of Education1973 to 1983

Year	Natal			Transvaal			Cape Town			Total	From outside Tvl.	
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T		No.	Percent
1973	1	-	1	56	13	69	-	-	-	70	1	1,42
1974	1	-	1	39	19	58	-	1	1	60	2	3,33
1975	2	2	4	38	15	53	-	-	-	57	4	7,01
1976	25	11	36	11	17	28	1	-	1	65	37	56,92
1977	37	8	45	33	26	59	-	-	-	104	45	43,26
1978	26	8	34	14	18	32	-	-	-	66	34	51,51
1979	28	6	34	40	35	75	-	-	-	109	34	31,19
1980	27	4	31	40	37	77	1	-	1	109	32	29,35
1981	25	9	34	25	26	51	-	1	1	86	35	40,69
1982	60	40	108	48	61	109	-	2	2	219	110	50,22
1983	32	22	54	33	50	83	-	1	1	138	55	39,85

Source: Information supplied by Transvaal College of Education.

Student enrolments for the various teachers' courses offered at the University of Durban-Westville are shown in Tables 13 and 14, (pages 303-304). Table 13 shows the first year enrolments for the University Diploma in Education (UDE) and the one-year post graduate University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE) course. Table 14 sets out the first year enrolments for the Bachelor of Paedagogics degree (B.Paed).

There is no clear trend in the enrolment pattern for the UDE course. In 1973 there were 42 students enrolled for this course and this figure rose substantially to 147 in 1977, then it dropped to 78 in the following year and rose again to 132 two years later. In 1981 and 1982 there was a sharp drop, presumably because of the

impending phasing out of this course at the University with effect from 1983. The enrolment for the UHDE course seems to have stabilised after 1979 with a significant increase in 1981 and with a slight drop in 1982. The drop in the UDE intake seems to have been off-set by increased intake in the UHDE and Bachelor of Paedagogic degree courses.

TABLE 13

Student Enrolments for the Various Education Diplomas at the University of Durban-Westville : 1973 - 1982

Year	University Diploma in Education			University Higher Diploma in Education
	Junior Secondary	Senior Primary	Total	
1973	21	21	42	52
1974	65	28	93	24
1975	80	40	120	21
1976	84	52	136	16
1977	101	46	147	17
1978	49	29	78	26
1979	61	26	87	49
1980	91	41	132	51
1981	45	25	70	99
1982	41	11	52	80
Total	638	319	957	435

Source : Division of Indian Education, Annual Reports : 1973-1982.

TABLE 14

Breakdown of 1st Year Enrolment for the B.Paed Degree According to Study
Direction at the University of Durban-Westville

Bachelor of Paedogogics

Year	Arts	Science	Commerce	Primary Ed.	H/Econ.	Music	Total
1971	19	4	6	-	-	-	29
1972	26	13	4	4	-	-	47
1973	22	9	6	2	-	-	39
1974	20	7	5	3	-	-	35
1975	28	14	14	5	-	-	61
1976	65	11	30	7	1	-	114
1977	67	23	20	8	4	-	122
1978	41	25	16	15	6	-	103
1979	40	26	22	20	11	-	119
1980	69	33	31	12	7	-	152
1981	99	36	24	14	6	7	186
1982	90	51	31	51	-	7	230
1983	109	69	54	77	2	7	318

Source : Information supplied by University of Durban-Westville.

From Table 14 it will be observed that there have been substantial increases in the enrolment in the arts, science, commerce and primary education directions of specialisation. In the science direction, the enrolment shows a gradual increase, with a substantial increase from 1980 onwards.

Another encouraging feature observed in the table is the significant increase in the enrolment for the B.Paed.primary education degree.

In 1973 there were only two students who had enrolled for this degree. From 1978 onwards the enrolment in this course began to rise with substantial increases in 1982 and 1983. Initially there was some reluctance on the part of the students to enrol for the primary education degree, presumably on the grounds that one need not have to possess a degree in primary education to teach in a primary school. That this notion has changed, is evident in the increased enrolment for this course especially after 1982.

The enrolment for the home economics specialisation course shows a very erratic trend. The enrolment started with only one candidate in 1976 and it gradually rose to 11 in 1979 and then started to drop to 2 candidates in 1983. For reasons which are not clear, this course does not appear to be popular among the girls.

4. Specialised Education Diplomas

In collaboration with the University of Durban-Westville, the Division has made provision for in-service teachers to take specialised education diplomas on a part-time basis. Table 15 sets out the enrolment for the various specialised education diplomas at the University. Prior to 1973 the University offered part-time diploma courses in remedial and special education. There was no selection process nor was the Division involved in the control of intake. With the introduction of the national system of differentiated education in 1973, the Division saw the need for a more organised and planned system of training suitable teachers for guidance and counselling, special education, resource centre management and remedial education.

The Division annually sends out circulars to all Indian schools inviting teachers to apply to study for the specialisation diplomas at the University. All applicants are interviewed by a panel comprising the Division's Education Planning Section and personnel from the Faculty of Education of the University. On an average between 10 to 15 candidates, depending upon their suitability, are selected for each of the part-time courses of two-year duration. Upon successful completion of their courses, the teachers are placed in schools where such services are established. Through the introduction of these specialised education diplomas the Division is in a position to implement adequately the principles of differentiated education.

TABLE 15

Number of Teachers Entering the Specialised Diploma Courses at the University

Year	Diploma				Total
	Guidance & Counselling	Remedial Ed.	Special Ed.	Resource Centre Management	
1970	-	13	-	-	13
1971	-	8	2	-	10
1972	-	-	5	-	5
1973	8	-	10	-	18
1974	7	-	11	-	18
1975	6	-	12	-	18
1976	6	-	16	-	22
1977	7	-	8	11	26
1978	9	-	13	13	35
1979	10	11	13	12	46
1980	11	15	20	16	62
1981	12	13	12	14	51
1982	12	12	11	15	50
Total	88	72	133	81	374

Source : Division's Annual Reports : 1970-1982.

From Table 15 it will be observed that from 1972 to 1978 there was no intake for the diploma in remedial education. This was owing to the fact that during those years, the Division suspended the establishment of remedial education service and concentrated on pupils requiring specialised education. However, with an adequate supply of teachers holding diplomas in special education, the remedial education service was resumed in 1979.

In concluding the discussion on student enrolment pattern at the three institutions responsible for Indian teacher education, it is necessary to make reference to the increase in the number of Indian students seeking and gaining admission to the University of Natal to be trained as teachers. Obviously such students fall outside the Division's teacher projections and it has no say in their selection. Given the consistent overproduction of teachers (Table 9, page 297) it is doubtful that teachers trained at the University of Natal will be employed by the Division. Should these trained teachers go to waste? There is a grave shortage of trained teachers in Coloured and Black schools. Serious consideration should be given to absorbing the surplus Indian teachers in Black and Coloured education.

5. Teacher Output

The total number of teachers qualifying from the three institutions is set out in Table 16 (page 308). The table shows that except for the year 1975 there has been a significant increase in the number of teachers qualifying from the Springfield College. The low output in 1975 was due to the fact that in 1973 there was a very low intake at the College.

TABLE 16

Total Number of Teachers Passing out of the Teacher Education Institutions : 1972 to 1983

Year	Springfield College	Transvaal College	M.L. Sultan Tech.	Univ. of Durban-Westville	Total
1972	186	81	34	63	364
1973	149	75	36	90	350
1974	179	84	-	124	387
1975	93	53	-	90	236
1976	120	54	-	71	245
1977	149	27	-	106	282
1978	208	31	-	140	379
1979	275	76	-	182	533
1980	227	40	-	290	557
1981	289	79	-	219	587
1982	489	106	-	255	850
1983	475	68	-	109	652
Total	2 839	774	70	1 739	5 422

Source : Division of Indian Education - Annual Reports : 1972-1983.

Note : Teacher education at the M.L. Sultan Technikon was terminated in 1974.

The position at the Transvaal College of Education shows no real trend in teacher output. This is largely due to the very erratic pattern of student enrolment at the College. However, the position is expected to improve from 1984 onwards in view of the fact that the College has moved to new and bigger premises with hostel accommodation. The teacher output at the University also appears to be erratic up to 1977. From 1978 onwards a clear trend appears with a significant drop in 1983. This is due to the poor intake in 1978 and 1979.

In the twelve year period a total of 5 422 teachers qualified at the three institutions with Springfield College producing over 52% of the total.

The number of candidates qualifying with B.Paed.degrees and post-graduate UHDE course is shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17

Number of Candidates qualifying with B.Paed.degree and UHDE at the University of Durban-Westville : 1976-1982

Year	B. Paed	UHDE	Total
1976	15	17	32
1977	12	12	24
1978	10	11	21
1979	23	19	42
1980	44	39	83
1981	95	47	142
1982	68	67	135
Total	267	212	479

Source : Division of Indian Education, Annual Reports : 1976-1982.

Since the B.Paed.degree course was introduced in 1973 a total of 267 students qualified with the degree specialising in arts, sciences, commerce, junior primary education and home economics. A total of 212 students qualified with the post graduate UHDE in the period. During 1976 to 1982 a total of 479 graduate teachers were produced by the University of Durban-Westville.

Table 18 (page 311) sets out the number of teachers qualifying with specialised education diplomas at the University of Durban-Westville. Since the introduction of the Diploma in School Guidance in 1973 an average of 7 teachers have qualified each year. The lowest output was in 1980. It would appear that in that year there was an unusually high drop-out and failure rate. Out of the 9 teachers admitted to the course in that year only 3 qualified.

In remedial education a total of 57 teachers qualified with a Diploma in Remedial Education. It was noted earlier that the intake for this course was suspended for a short period in order to make provision for increased intake for the Diploma in Special Education course. Apart from the University of Durban-Westville the Universities of Natal and South Africa also train Indian teachers for remedial education. The total number of Indian candidates who qualified in remedial education at these two institutions up to the end of 1983 were 6 and 14 respectively.

In the Diploma course for Special Education a total of 87 qualified during the period under review. With a fairly good supply of remedial education and special education teachers, the needs of the children requiring specialised education are being catered for satisfactorily.

The increasing importance that is being placed on library resource centres and educational technology has led the University of Durban-Westville, in collaboration with the Division, to introduce a Diploma in Resource Centre Management. Teachers are carefully selected for enrolment for this diploma. After qualifying, these teachers are placed in charge of school libraries and resource centres. Up to the end of 1983, 62 teachers have qualified with this diploma.

TABLE 18

Number of Teachers Qualifying in the Specialised Education Diploma from
the University of Durban-Westville

Year	Guidance & Counselling	Remedial Ed.	Special Ed.	Resource Centre Management	Total
1970	-	6	-	-	6
1971	-	6	2	-	8
1972	-	5	2	-	7
1973	-	1	1	-	2
1974	-	-	1	-	1
1975	6	-	10	-	16
1976	9	-	11	-	20
1977	6	-	11	-	17
1978	7	-	10	9	26
1979	7	-	7	8	22
1980	3	11	5	10	29
1981	9	11	10	10	40
1982	8	6	9	13	36
1983	8	11	8	12	39
Total	63	57	87	62	269

Source : Division of Education Annual Reports : 1970-1982,

6. The Teaching Force in Indian Schools

It is often said that the supply of teachers in Indian schools is not critical as in Black and Coloured education. This is so, but there still exists a critical shortage of teachers in such specific areas as technical subjects, science and mathematics. However, this appears to be a common problem in all education departments. The annual reports of the Director also make constant reference to the large number of professionally unqualified and under-qualified teachers in Indian education.

In Table 19 the number and percentage of professionally unqualified teachers is presented. It will be noticed that the number of unqualified teachers shows a progressive increase since 1977. From 449 (6,15%) in that year the figure rose to 1 102 (11,31%) in 1982. The substantial increase in the number of professionally unqualified teachers since 1979 was due to the fact that in 1979 a new and improved staff ratio formula was put into effect. This unexpected development resulted in the creation of about 1 000 additional teaching posts for which there were no qualified teachers. Therefore, unqualified teachers had to be appointed

TABLE 19

Number of Professionally Unqualified Teachers in Indian Schools : 1973-1982

Year	Primary	Secondary	Total	Percentage
1973	299	66	365	5,56
1974	189	65	254	3,77
1975	222	31	253	3,66
1976	254	29	283	4,05
1977	410	39	449	6,15
1978	407	155	562	7,36
1979	507	279	786	9,43
1980	676	375	1 051	11,90
1981	771	155	926	9,10
1982	853	249	1 102	11,31

Source : Division of Indian Education Annual Report 1982

As was noted earlier in this Chapter, the Division has decided to dispense with the services of unqualified teachers on a staggered basis starting in 1984. Therefore the position of unqualified teachers is expected to improve over the next few years.

The supply of adequately qualified teachers to teach pupils in the senior secondary phase has always been a problem in Indian education. The Division considers that a teacher is adequately qualified to teach a subject in the senior secondary phase (Standards 8-10) if he has a professional qualification and a university training of at least two years or more in the subject concerned. This still remains an ideal. There are many teachers in Indian schools who do not meet the above requirements and yet are expected to teach in the senior secondary phase. There are teachers who have specialised in subjects to teach in the junior secondary phase with a Junior Secondary Education Diploma but are actually teaching subjects in the senior secondary phase.

In a sample survey of fourteen secondary schools carried out by the writer in 1980, it was found that about 48% of the teachers in the 14 schools were not adequately qualified to teach in the senior secondary phase. Table 20 (page 314) sets out the findings. For purposes of anonymity the schools in the sample are not identified by their names, instead they are designated by the letters A to N. A glance at Table 20 shows that 100 teachers out of 579 teachers (17,27%), 52 out of 579 (8,98%) and 132 out of 579 teachers (22,80%) with Junior Secondary Education Diploma and lower were teaching Standards 8, 9 and 10 respectively.

TABLE 20

Qualifications of Teachers : With Junior Secondary Education Diploma and Lower as well as Those with Degree Courses Teaching
in the Senior Secondary Phase - 1980

School	No. of Teachers in the School	No. of teachers teaching Standards 8 - 10	With J.S.E.D. and Lower without Degrees, Teaching:			With J.S.E.D. and Courses in the Degree and Teaching the Subject in Stds. 8 - 10		
			up to Std. 8	up to Std. 9	up to Std. 10	1st Year Degree Course	2nd Year Degree Course	3rd Year Degree Course
A	54	31	7	5	10	4	2	3
B	44	36	20	1	10	1	3	1
C	51	47	10	7	20	4	5	1
D	58	30	5	3	15	4	1	2
E	35	31	5	1	13	6	2	4
F	49	33	14	10	7	2	-	-
G	44	11	3	2	5	-	1	-
H	54	33	12	6	9	-	5	1
I	38	29	1	6	16	4	2	-
J	48	21	8	3	5	2	3	-
K	16	7	3	2	2	-	-	-
L	15	10	-	-	7	2	1	-
M	36	18	7	-	6	1	2	2
N	37	19	5	6	7	1	-	-
Total	579	356	100	52	132	31	27	14

Of these numbers 284 (49,0%) had no university courses in the subject they taught, 31 (5,35%) had a first year course in the subject, 27 (4,7%) had second year courses and 14 (2,4%) had third year courses in the subject they taught in the senior secondary phase. This means that 375 out of 579 (54,4%) were teaching subjects in the senior secondary phase with inadequate academic qualifications. In a more recent survey carried out in 1983 it was found that the qualifications of many teachers taking mathematics, physical science and biology in the secondary schools are inadequate.

The position is analysed in Table 21 (page 316). In mathematics, only 52 of 260 teachers engaged in teaching the subject in the senior secondary phase were adequately qualified while 208 or 80% were not adequately qualified. Thirteen teachers had no professional qualification and 94 (36,1%) of the teachers had only the Junior Secondary Education Diploma and yet were teaching the subject up to Standard 10 level.

In physical science only 36 of the 104 (34,6%) teachers were adequately qualified to teach the subject in the senior secondary phase, while 68 (65,4%) were not adequately qualified. Thirty teachers (28,9%) had qualifications to teach in the junior secondary phase and four teachers were professionally unqualified. In biology only 122 (38,7%) were adequately qualified while 193 (61,30%) were not adequately qualified. Eleven teachers were not professionally qualified and 64 had qualifications to teach only up to the junior secondary phase.

The qualifications of teachers in Indian schools over the period 1970 to 1982 are set out in Table 22 (page 317). It will be observed from the table that there has been a gradual improvement during this period.

TABLE 21The Position of Teachers for the "Scarce" Subjects in Indian SecondarySchools : 1983

	Maths.	Psy.Sc.	Biology
Total No. of teachers teaching the subject in the senior secondary phase.	260	104	315
No. of professionally qualified teachers with University courses of 2 years or more in the subject taught.	52	36	122
No. of professionally qualified teachers with academic qualification less than 2 years University courses in the subject taught.	101	34	118
No. of professionally unqualified teachers with academic qualifications of Senior Certificate and or higher.	13	4	11
No. of teachers with professional qualifications of only Junior Secondary Education Diploma teaching in the senior secondary phase.	94	30	64
Total	260	104	315

A very encouraging feature is the significant increase in the number of teachers with professional qualification plus a degree. In 1970 there were 810, or 13,3% of the total teaching force, with professional qualification plus a degree. In 1982 the number of teachers with such qualifications rose to 2 304 representing 23,6% of the total teaching force. The position is expected to improve even further in view of the fact that the University of Durban-Westville as was noted earlier, has phased out the under-graduate three year education diploma with effect

TABLE 22

Indian Teachers' Qualifications : 1970 - 1982

Year	Degree with Prof. Qualification	Degree with out Prof. Qualification	Prof. Quali- fication with- out Degree	Matric with- out Prof. Qualification	Lower than Matric without Prof. Qualifications	Prof. Qualified	Prof. Un- Qualified	Total
1970	810	46	4 783	217	241	5 593	504	6 097
1971	909	37	4 943	157	245	5 852	439	6 291
1972	994	44	5 095	106	141	6 089	291	6 380
1973	1 075	34	5 081	374	-	6 198	365	6 563
1974	1 145	22	5 332	232	-	6 477	254	6 731
1975	1 220	26	5 440	227	-	6 660	253	6 913
1976	1 294	18	5 414	265	-	6 708	283	6 991
1977	1 392	22	5 462	427	-	6 854	449	7 303
1978	1 452	29	5 629	533	-	7 081	562	7 643
1979	1 600	65	5 949	721	-	7 549	786	8 335
1980	1 574	79	6 212	921	-	7 786	1 051	8 837
1981	2 033	87	6 307	839	-	8 340	926	9 266
1982	2 304	156	6 334	946	-	8 638	1 102	9 740

Source : Division of Indian Education Annual Reports : 1970-1982.

Note : From 1973 onwards, the records group matric without professional qualifications and lower than matric without professional qualifications, under non-graduates without professional qualifications.

from 1983 thus increasing its intake for the four year B.Paed.degree and the post-graduate University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE). Another interesting feature that is evident from the table is that for the period under review an average of 74% of the teachers had qualifications of Standard 10 plus a teachers' certificate or diploma.

In comparison with other education departments in the Republic, the position of teacher qualification in Indian education is not so bleak. It compares favourably with the position in White education and is well ahead of Coloured and Black education. In a recent (1983) survey carried out by the South African Institute of Race Relations, the following picture emerged in respect of Indian, Coloured and Black education. In Indian education there were 2 200 (22,5%) teachers with professional qualification plus a degree, 59,8% of the teachers had Standard 10 plus a teachers' certificate or a diploma and 6,7% had professional qualification plus Standard 8 or equivalent qualification. There were 1 079 professionally unqualified teachers; of these 138 (1,4%) had a university degree and 692 (7,1%) had Standard 10 or equivalent qualification and the rest had a technical qualification and Standard 8 or equivalent. If a post-Standard 10 teachers' certificate or diploma is considered as the minimum qualification for a teacher, then 17,7% of the teachers in Indian schools are underqualified⁽⁶⁾.

In Coloured education of the professionally qualified teachers there were 1 627 (5,5%) with a degree, 10 489 (35,4%) with Standard 10 or equivalent and 15 119 (51,0%) with Standard 8 or other qualifications. Of the 2 368 professionally unqualified teachers, 269 (0,9%) had university degrees, 1 148 (3,9%) had Standard 10 or equivalent qualification and 951 (3,2%) had less than Standard 10 qualification.

If a post-Standard 10 teachers' certificate or diploma is taken as the minimum qualification for a teacher, then 59% of the teachers in Coloured education are underqualified⁽⁷⁾. In Black schools (excluding the independent Homelands) the position is bleak. In view of the fact that teachers' qualifications in Black schools differ considerably with that of Indians and Coloureds and the fact that there is a large number of White teachers in Black schools, the break-down is given in the table below⁽⁸⁾.

TABLE 23

Qualifications of Teachers' in Black Schools as at 1982 (Excluding Independent Homelands)

	Number of Teachers			
	White	Black	Total	Percent
<u>Professionally qualified with:</u>				
Standard 6	-	7 911	7 911	9,4
Standard 8	6	40 592	40 598	48,5
Technical Certificate	47	63	110	0,1
Standard 10	350	15 232	15 582	18,7
Degree incomplete	49	1 266	1 315	1,6
Degree	539	1 590	2 129	2,5
Special Teacher Certificate	7	279	286	0,3
Sub Total	998	66 933	67 931	81,1
<u>No Professional qualification but with:</u>				
Standard 8 or lower	29	11 336	11 365	13,6
Technical Certificate	209	45	254	0,3
Standard 10	50	3 773	3 823	4,6
Degree Incomplete	8	70	78	0,0
Degree	83	208	291	0,4
Sub Total	379	15 432	15 811	18,9
Total	1 377	82 365	83 742	100,0

Of the professionally qualified teachers only 2,5% were graduates and nearly one third of them were Whites, 18,7% had Standard 10 certificates and 1,6% had incomplete degrees. There were 15 811 (18,9%) professionally unqualified teachers. If a post-Standard 10 teachers' certificate or diploma is regarded as the minimum qualification for a teacher, it can be seen from the above table that only 23,1% of the teachers in Black schools are adequately qualified.

7. Conclusion

Arising from the consideration of the demand for and supply of teachers, the following conclusions can be briefly stated:-

- (a) The massive expansion of the Indian school population appears to have reached its peak. With the introduction of compulsory free education, universal schooling is virtually complete up to the end of the junior secondary phase, which co-incides with the upper age limit of compulsory education. With the introduction of differentiated education together with the community's desire to provide their children with the highest possible level of school education, the holding power of schools has improved considerably.
- (b) Student enrolment at Colleges of Education and the University has shown a marked expansion. There is also evidence that the quality of entrants, as a result of a careful selection process, is improving. An encouraging feature is the increase

in the number of students enrolling for the post-graduate UHDE and the B.Paed.degrees. It would seem that the quality aspects of teacher education is being realised. This is evident in the decision of the University to phase out the under-graduate education diplomas and the decision of the Division to phase out the present three-year education diplomas at the two Colleges of Education and replace them with four-year education diplomas with effect from 1985.

- (c) The statistics of the teaching force in Indian education show that in spite of increasing numbers of teachers qualifying from the training institutions, there still exists a relatively large number of professionally unqualified teachers. However, attempts are being made to reduce their numbers. There is a serious shortage of adequately qualified teachers in the natural science subjects and mathematics. Another disturbing feature is the high percentage of teachers with the Junior Secondary Education Diploma teaching in the senior secondary phase. These teachers are not adequately qualified to teach in this phase. Every effort should be made to remedy this situation as soon as possible.
- (d) Everything in education depends ultimately on the teacher and everything in educational progress depends on there being teachers with the right qualities and qualifications and in the right numbers. No other single factor is as decisive in determining the quality of education in a society as the quality of the corps of teachers.

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PART THREE

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES AND PERSPECTIVES IN INDIAN TEACHER EDUCATION

General Introduction

The aim of the present section is primarily to examine in a general form the courses offered at the three institutions responsible for Indian teacher education, viz. the Springfield College of Education, the Transvaal College of Education and the University of Durban-Westville.

In the examination of courses, contemporary issues such as the balance of study, the role of the universities in teacher education and the problem of consecutive and concurrent study are considered.

Finally, before formulating recommendations, selected aspects of current innovations in initial teacher education are examined.

CHAPTER SEVEN

TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND COURSES - COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

1. Introduction

In this Chapter, a two-pronged approach to an examination of teacher education and courses is adopted. Firstly, the aims and objectives of teacher education are considered briefly as it is felt that the basic structure of teacher education programmes is determined by curricula and therefore must be considered in relation to an analysis of aims and objectives. Secondly, and against the background of these aims and objectives, a critical evaluation of Indian teacher education courses at the two ~~colleges~~ of education is undertaken.

2. Aims and Objectives of Teacher Education

The initial aims of teacher education in most countries were relatively unambitious, being restricted at the outset, to affording to the children of the masses a modest form of literacy. In these circumstances, it was inevitable that teacher education in the early stages of its development, should be associated closely with schools, rather than with institutions of higher education. The more promising pupils were persuaded to stay on as it were, to serve a brief apprenticeship and then to begin to practise as teachers. Even when such recruits were removed to institutions established and designed to give some formal preparation, little more than minor advancement in their personal education and in the acquisition of a few basic skills was expected or required of them.

Perhaps the logical and also the historical starting point of an analysis of the objectives of teacher education, is the idea that those who have acquired knowledge need no particular skills to transmit it. Underlying this idea is the assumption that "knowledge originates in the course of a dialogue between communicating individuals", hence the conscious transmission of this knowledge does not represent a special problem⁽¹⁾. It follows from this viewpoint that those who know, have the capacity automatically to teach others successfully. Teaching was seen as a spontaneous activity open to anybody who knows and is willing to share his knowledge with others.

In the past few decades a strict application of the theory that those who know automatically have the capacity to teach others has proved to be severely limited. Increasing knowledge and specialisation have made it necessary to consider introducing general scientific principles to teacher education. This has been reinforced by a better understanding of the learning process, for example : "Discovering how to make something comprehensible to the young is only a continuation of making something comprehensible to oneself"⁽²⁾. According to this view, what is important in the development of knowledge is not merely a new discovery but also the effective communication of ideas, as well as an understanding of the material and systems of knowledge.

The extension of universal and compulsory education, and later the democratisation of secondary education, effected the theory that teacher education has nothing that would distinguish it from general education. Drawing on the theory of didactics of Comenius, the theory of natural education of Rousseau and the theory of the teaching process of Herbart, it was asserted that teaching is the transmission of knowledge, that it

has certain pedagogical rules with which the teacher should concern himself and that education should not limit a child's natural development. These ideas found full expression and application towards the mid-nineteenth century when the empirical and behavioural study of the child and education, of psychological and pedagogical measurement and progressive pedagogy spread among teachers. This approach made a radical distinction between subject-centred and child-centred education⁽³⁾. It was in Western Europe in particular that the shift of emphasis moved to the child, and the recognition of the necessity for the understanding of the child. As a consequence of this shift, the need for adequate teacher training which went far beyond the former practice of instilling into the would-be teacher sufficient knowledge for him to parcel out in appropriate doses to his charges, received recognition. It is to John Dewey's penetrating criticism of Herbartian methods, finally leading to the formulation of his own doctrines, that we owe much of the present-day emphasis on child-centred approach to teaching.

The real necessity for effecting a complete change in whatever teacher training methods were in vogue resulted directly from the spread of free, compulsory and universal education. And this was realized only when governments at last began to appreciate the fact that in the new technological and scientific age that was being ushered in at the turn of the century, it was most important for the masses of the people to have a kind of education that went beyond the acquisition of mere literacy and simple numeracy. Similarly, as the children in the schools had to be given opportunities for proving their aptitude for a variety of different pursuits, demanding an increasing amount of skill and intelligent understanding of what was involved, so did it become necessary to cease recruiting teachers at the primary level from

amongst those who had themselves little more than a primary education. He who would educate others must himself be educated, and have a broad background of general cultural training, for it is only the teacher who has himself enjoyed a broad liberal education who can hope to avoid the pitfalls of routine pedestrianism and show resourcefulness and enterprise in his work. Again, just as the responsibilities of the teacher today transcend the mere imparting of subject matter and demand of him that he have a knowledge and understanding of the place and function of the subject he professes in preparing his pupils to lead a full and meaningful life (as well as an economically useful one), so do they make of him a still more important cog in the machinery of good government, still more obviously an instrument of society⁽⁴⁾.

The fact that education and teaching have become subjects of scientific inquiry, has changed our thinking on the nature of teaching. Objective scientific knowledge of educational processes and achievement, and their psychological and sociological conditions should clarify certain teaching conditions. If teaching represents the conscious application of scientific knowledge of education, then the objective of teacher education must be mastery of the scientific principles and understanding of the problems and methods of pedagogical research. Thus teacher education is understood as the preparation of pedagogical technicians who apply their knowledge of teaching material, social values, the psychic and social development of children, educational aims, teaching means and evaluations to concrete situations arising in the school, the classroom, the subject, and eventually the individual⁽⁵⁾. This concept of teacher education rejects the teacher's subjective experience as the sole source of principles and rules (i.e. the artisan concept) "and takes as its base, relations and laws which are scientifically determined and objectively proved"⁽⁶⁾.

For this reason this concept stresses the importance of studies in the sciences of education which should precede or accompany practical work. The origin of this concept is naturally connected with the development and progress of experimental pedagogy, psychology, psychometrics, child and social psychology and the sociology of education. There is no doubt that these relatively recent developments have made considerable contributions to teacher education. A point of caution in this concept is the problem of applicability. Given the often fragmentary and scattered knowledge as well as the method of acquiring this knowledge, the fact remains that the educational process is a complex conditioned human and social process; and that education takes the form of personal encounter between the teacher and a pupil and thus it is not an impersonal process, or a technological procedure. To be effective, the application of scientific knowledge of education is possible only if the teacher, in addition to theoretical knowledge, has a creative and interacting personality and if, as a personality he is able to influence the inter-human relations which determine education. This is true since a teacher carries out the decisive part of his profession as an individual.

Another important objective of teacher education is based on the community-centred concept of teacher education. Education, school and the teacher can never ignore their dependence on and responsibility to society. For not only are educational systems introjections of broader social systems but the constituent role-behaviours and values by which they are sustained are imprints of a broader culture. "Whilst it would be unwarrantedly deterministic to claim that all role-behaviour of teachers can best be understood as reflecting a specific culture, it must be clear that most deliberate action and much of the actual process in teacher education responds to broader cultural influences"⁽⁷⁾. What are the objectives of

teacher education in these circumstances? The ethos of the teaching profession lies in identification with and personification of certain values and goals for which a teacher becomes a more or less critical bearer or even the instrument. Such teachers embrace certain social, political, economic, cultural and religious aims. Teacher education which is influenced by this objective, stresses socio-political disciplines, practical preparation for public work, the ability to transform social aims and ideologies into educational objectives, the knowledge of methods of analysis of social circumstances and the conditioning of the educational system by the social system⁽⁸⁾.

However, the subordination of the teacher to social activities and values has the risk of making him a more impersonal instrument which in the end may harm rather than contribute to real education. This may be the case if the teacher is considered a civil servant whose primary duty is to conform to instructions of a powerful control administration.

A further weakness of the social objective in teacher education is that the concept that the child is a unique individual is under-played. This formed the basis of the child-centred movement in teacher education. This objective of teacher education as already stated, was generated by the pedagogical reform movements and progressive education which gave priority to the study of the child and his mental and physical development. The responsibility of the teacher is determined entirely by the needs of the individual child and consequently teacher education is centred on a thorough knowledge of the child, his environment and his all-round development.

Man is part of society, and society is made up of individuals and as such

both the community-centred objectives and the child-centred objectives have to merge so that the teacher carries out his profession as a mission, being neither an instrument of social will nor a servant of the children's individual needs. In the performance of his duties the teacher takes the personal and human responsibility for the emotional and social maturity of the child. This view takes into account the dependence of education on the structure of society and its conditioning of individual needs. Thus it stresses the autonomy of the teacher in the educational process.

3. The Qualities of the Ideal Teacher in the Modern World

What is a good teacher? What constitutes good teaching? There are almost as many views on these issues as there are educationists. Sir Ronald Gould, a former General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers (Britain) defines the qualities of a good teacher as follows:

"First the teacher must know the subject; he must know something of academic discipline, he must have acquaintance with real scholarship, for you cannot teach any subject successfully unless you know much more than you have to teach. Secondly, he must know something of children and how they develop, for as John Adams remarked, 'John has to be taught as well as Latin, the child as well as the subject'. Thirdly, he must possess efficiency, knowledge of the methods used in teaching, and skill in applying them. Fourthly, he must know something of the educational system and the part it plays in the modern world. And fifthly and lastly, he must have that definable but recognisable combination of characteristics known as 'personality'. He must have faith, enthusiasm, the power to encourage and stimulate." (9)

A teacher should certainly be competent in all of the subject matter areas that he or she will be expected to teach. The degree of specialization of knowledge will obviously vary according to the grade level at which instruction is occurring. A mathematics teacher in a high school will, of course, need more advanced knowledge in the subject than a teacher of arithmetic in an elementary school. An essential attribute of an effective teacher is a breadth of understanding of academic subjects as well as depth. The former enriches classroom discussions in a way not equalled by more specialized presentations. It would seem that the ideal teacher would have a firm grounding in what is termed the 'liberal arts', since true knowledge does not lend itself to compartmentalization. Moreover, understanding the requisite subject matter is necessary but not sufficient for effectiveness. In addition, an effective teacher must possess the same critical thinking and analytical skills that are expected of students emerging from the education system.

It is also essential that a teacher be a skilled communicator to be effective. Some aspects of communication can be taught; others mirror the teacher's personality. An ideal teacher must also have a personal quality perhaps best termed as empathy for the student. Empathy helps to form an important bond between the teacher and student that is a vital part of the teaching and learning experience. It is in part reflected in the enthusiasm that a teacher manages to bring to, and convey in, the classroom year after year. The technical skills that are part of the repertoire of every exceptional teacher include an understanding of the psychology of learning; the ability to make the learning process an individual experience for the student despite the classroom setting; a sense of enthusiasm about learning that is transferred to the student; the ability to organize and manage a classroom; the mastery of effective

instructional techniques, the ability to develop logically sequenced lesson plans, and the ability to use textbooks and other teaching aids constructively⁽¹⁰⁾.

It is the task of our colleges of education to develop these skills in students who aspire to be teachers. How this is done is examined in the remainder of this Chapter.

4. Courses Offered at the Colleges of Education

The expansion of education in the post-war decades and the increasing holding power of the secondary schools are factors which have exercised their influence upon the pattern of Indian teacher education in South Africa.

The establishment of the Springfield College of Education in Natal in 1951 the Transvaal College of Education in 1954 was aimed at increasing the supply of teachers to meet the growing demand. At first, the quantitative aspect of teacher education, i.e. producing trained teachers in the shortest time possible, led to the two-year post Junior Certificate and the one-year post Standard 10 teachers' training courses.

Historically the pattern of development of teachers' courses in Indian education may be followed through from the pupil-teacher system, from the one-year course at the post Standard 4 level, to the two-year post Standard 8 level and then to the two-year post Standard 10 level course. With the achievement of universal elementary education and the improvement in the holding power of the secondary schools, the next step resulted inevitably in the demand for high standards of personal education

on the part of those wishing to be trained as teachers. Thus, since the mid-sixties all teacher education courses at the two colleges of education are of three years duration with Standard 10 as the minimum entrance requirement.

In the examination of courses and curricula, the major concern will not be with the content of the curricula - that rests with the syllabus - but rather with types of knowledge that have been expected of teachers to acquire in keeping with the aims and objectives of their training and the manner in which they have been accustomed to acquiring such knowledge. Historically, teacher-education curricula have focused upon the subject-matter of teaching, that is school subjects. This emphasis gave its predominant character to teachers' colleges and indeed whatever advances the colleges made academically served to reinforce this tendency as they modelled their work upon the first degree course of the universities⁽¹¹⁾.

Before attempting an examination of the teachers' courses offered at the two colleges of education, it is necessary to refer very briefly to the influence of the national "Criteria" for the evaluation of teachers' qualifications on Indian teacher education. It should be noted that the national "Criteria" were designed for Whites only. However, there were no restrictions placed on the non-White education departments making use of the "Criteria". Indeed, the Division of Indian Education was among the first of the non-White education departments to use the "Criteria" not only for the purpose of evaluating its teachers' qualifications but also for the purpose of re-structuring its teacher education programme.

4.1 The Influence of the Criteria for the Evaluation of Teachers' Qualification on Indian Education

In Chapter Five of this study the events leading to a national policy in regard to White teacher education in the Republic was outlined briefly. It is now necessary to consider briefly the pattern of White teacher education in view of its influence on Indian teacher education.

In terms of the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967, the Committee of Education Heads (CHE) was appointed. This Committee inter alia, was empowered to make recommendations to the Minister of National Education and the provincial Administrators in regard to the manner in which policy, in respect of education in schools and teacher education, could be carried out on a co-ordinated basis.

One of its first tasks was the question of a national system of accreditation and certification. The whole pattern of teacher education was laid down by the CHE in an official publication entitled: Criteria for the Evaluation of South African Qualifications for purposes of Employment in Education. A revised edition appeared in 1972, followed by a further edition containing amendments that came into effect in 1975.

The document's main purpose appears to be, judging from the title, the evaluation of qualification for teaching purposes. In the first instance, it was designed to assist staffing officers in the employment of teachers, thus ensuring some form of uniformity in category classification of teachers for grading and salary purposes. The document also contains details in regard to the structure of teachers' courses, and what basic requirements must be fulfilled in

respect of subjects to be taken, curricula and syllabuses. It even sets out the format and the wording of the diplomas to be issued.

Although the document aims to bring about some form of uniformity in respect of teachers' courses and in the nomenclature of diplomas and certificates, the content is highly prescriptive in respect not only of the general curriculum but actual course content as well. For example, it prescribes the five disciplines into which education is arbitrarily divided.

The document sets out two patterns of teacher preparation, viz.:

- (i) the concurrent;
- (ii) the consecutive.

The concurrent pattern aims to integrate personal higher education, the theory of education, and professional training throughout a three-or-four-year programme leading either to a diploma in education, or to an integrated bachelor's degree designated BA (Ed.), BA (Ed) (Mus), BA (Ed) (Art), BA (Ed) (Phys Ed), BSc (Ed) (H. Econ), BComm (Ed), BAgric (Ed). Some universities also offer the degree of Bachelor of Primary Education. The University of Durban-Westville offers the Bachelor of Paedagogics (B.Paed) degree in arts, commerce, home economics, science and junior primary education. It needs to be pointed out that the introduction of the integrated degree was one of the recommendations of the Gericke Report.

The consecutive pattern consists of two cycles or phases: the first consists of an academic course leading to a degree followed by the

second cycle or phase of concentrated professional training. This type of training for the secondary school has been the customary pattern in South Africa since the 1920's.

4.2 Revised Teacher Education Programme at the Colleges

With the introduction of the revised system of differentiated education in Indian schools in January 1973, it became necessary to review the existing pattern of teacher education. The Consultative Committee for Teacher Education was requested as an urgent priority to review the teacher education programme in the light of developments in White teacher education and to make recommendations. At its tenth annual meeting held on 18 October 1972, the Consultative Committee adopted the following recommendations which were then submitted to the Director for approval and implementation⁽¹²⁾:

- (a) That the existing three-year Infant Teachers' Course be re-named the Pre- and Junior Course leading to the Education Diploma: Pre-Junior Primary. That the course conforms to the minimum requirements as laid down in the "Criteria" for the three-year Pre-primary Course.
- (b) That the three-year Primary Course be re-named the Senior Primary Course leading to Education Diploma: Senior Primary and that a student specialises in a direction of study rather than in a subject.
- (c) That there be two directions of study, viz.:
 - Humanities orientated direction
 - Science orientated direction.

That, in addition, all students following the Senior Primary Course specialise in one of the following skills:

Art, handicrafts/needlework, music, physical education.

That the course conforms to the minimum requirements as laid down in the "Criteria" for the three-year Education diploma: Primary school.

- (d) That the existing Lower Secondary Course be re-named the Junior Secondary Course leading to the Education Diploma: Junior Secondary. That the student specialise in a direction of study, viz.:

Humanities orientated direction

Science orientated direction

Commercially orientated direction

That provision be made within the Humanities orientated course for the skills listed below, to be introduced when necessary and if circumstances permit.

Art, music, physical education, handicraft/basic technique.

That at the end of the course the student be expected to attain an academic standard comparable with a first year university standard in English, Afrikaans, education and two academic subjects.

With the proviso that:

If a student follows the Humanities orientated course and specialises in English or Afrikaans the standard attained should be higher than a first year university standard.

The re-structured teachers' courses at the two colleges of Education were introduced in January 1973. These are set out in Table 1, (page 338).

Courses and Curricula : Colleges of Education

ers' Diploma of study	Pre and Junior Primary	Senior Primary	Junior Secondary (Humanities)	Junior Secondary (Sciences)	Junior Secondary (Commercial)
1	<p>English Afrikaans Infant Health care Infant Literature General Methods Methods of Infant Teaching Audio-visual Education Tutorials-Prac. Teaching Guidance/Rt.Living/P.Resp. Practical Teaching Art/Craft Education Music Developmental Play Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Health Education Science Orientated: Mathematics Natural Science History Geography Humanities Orientated: History Geography Mathematics Natural Science General Methods Audio-visual Education Guidance/Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Practical Teaching Tutorials - Prac. Teaching Two of : Art, school music handicrafts,P.Educ. Chalk Board Techniques School Librarianship Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Natural Science Maths/History/Geography Health Education Speech & Drama Plus 2 subjects chosen as follows : Two of : Hist/Geog/Maths or one of : His/Geog/Maths Plus one of : Music, Art, Phy.Educ., Basic Techniques: General Methods Audio-visual Education Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Tutorials - Prac. Teaching Practical Teaching Chalk Board Techniques Sports coaching Optional Time- self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans History Geography Health Education School Librarianship Specialisation in subjects Physical Science Biology Mathematics General Methods Audio-visual Education Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Tutorials-Prac. Teaching Practice Teaching Chalk Board Techniques Sports Coaching Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans History Geography Health Education School Librarianship Three of : Accounting Mathematics Business Economics Typewriting General Methods Audio-visual Education Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Tutorials-Prac.Teaching Practice Teaching Chalk Board Techniques Sports Coaching Optional Time - self study</p>
2	<p>English Afrikaans Infant Health Care Education: Empirical Comparative Sociological Theory/Method Methods in Infant Teaching Audio-visual Education Guidance/Rt.Living/P.Resp. Practical Teaching Art/Craft Education Music Developmental Play Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Science Orientated: Mathematics Natural Science Humanities Orientated: History Geography Education:Theory/Method Empirical Comparative Sociological Audio-visual Education Guidance/Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Practical Teaching Intensive study in one skill Sports Coaching Optional time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans One of the following: (Not chosen for spec) History Geography Speech & Drama Two specialisation subjects from : English Afrikaans History Geography Mathematics Skill chosen in first year Education :Sociological Comparative Theory/Method Empirical Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Audio-visual Educ. Practical Teaching Sports Coaching Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Mathematics Two specialisation subjects Physical Science Biology Education : Sociological Comparative Theory/method Empirical Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Audio-visual Education Pract. Teaching Sports Coaching Optional time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans One of the following: (Not chosen for specialisation) Accounting Mathematics Business Economics Typewriting Two specialisation sub Accounting Mathematics Business Economics Typewriting Education : Sociological Comparative Theory/Method Empirical Audio-visual Education Guid./Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Sports Coaching Optional Time-self study</p>
3	<p>English Afrikaans Infant Health Care Education : Empirical comparative Sociological Theory/Method Methods in Infant Teaching Guidance/Rt.Liv./P.Resp. Practical Teaching Art/Craft Education Music Developmental Play Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Science Orientated: Mathematics or Natural Science Humanities Orientated: History or Geography Education:Theory/Method Empirical Comparative Sociological Audio-visual Education Practical Teaching Intensive Study in one skill Sports Coaching Optional Time-Self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Two specialisation Subjects carried forward from second year Education:Sociological Comparative Theory/Method Empirical Audio-visual Education Practical Teaching Sports Coaching Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Two specialisation subjects Physical Science Biology Education:Sociological Comparative Theory/Method Empirical Audio-Visual Education Practical Teaching Sports coaching Optional Time-self study</p>	<p>English Afrikaans Two specialisation subjects carried forward from second year Education:Sociological Comparative Theory/Method Empirical Audio-visual Education Practical Teaching Sports Coaching Optional Time-self study</p>

4.3 Pattern and Structure of Courses

Teacher education courses at the two colleges of education as set out in Table 1 can be classified into those courses for students wishing to teach at primary or junior secondary level. They are all non-graduate courses and of three-years' duration. Courses are offered in the following main groups:

(a) Junior Secondary Teachers' Course

- (i) With an academic bias to provide teachers particularly at the junior secondary level in subjects where there is a shortage of teachers in the secondary schools, e.g. mathematics, Afrikaans, general science; and
- (ii) With a specialist bias to train teachers for the secondary schools e.g. music, art, industrial arts, domestic science and commercial subjects.

(b) Senior Primary Teachers' Course

With an academic bias to cater for the general education offered at this phase.

(c) Junior Primary Teachers' Course

For the teachers in the lower classes in the primary school. Since there is no subject teaching at this level, teachers also receive specialist training in the skill subjects such as music, handwork and art.

The curriculum prescribed for each of the college courses can be classified into four main areas which are generally called general

studies, curriculum or subject courses, professional courses and teaching practice. The components of teacher education cannot, however be strictly classified, because although each one of them fulfils a different function in relation to the teaching function, they must be seen in the context of their mutual relation and as an organic whole. There are variations in the time allotted to certain components within the programme and the emphasis given to particular subjects, according to the different types of teacher education.

- (a) Curriculum courses include the two official languages, mathematics, history, geography, general science and health education. Where specialist training is involved, the number of these courses required is reduced.
- (b) Professional study of education includes principles and philosophy of education, empirical education and education administration and organisation. It also includes the general and special methods courses.
- (c) Specialist subjects depending upon the nature of the specialisation, for example the academic course for the junior secondary teachers' course includes the background knowledge and the methodology of two academic subjects to the level of Standard 7. In specific subject specialisation, this would be replaced by, e.g. industrial arts, music, etc.
- (d) Skills: e.g. art/craft, music, needlework, and handicraft. These subjects are not included in the curriculum for the lower secondary teachers' course.

(e) Teaching practice is naturally an important component of teacher education. A minimum of 12 weeks' of practice teaching is laid down in the curriculum. In the first year, students spend one day per week in the schools. In the second and third years, students undertake 4 to 5 weeks' period of block teaching practice.

4.4 The Balance of Studies

In discussing the balance of studies in the colleges of education, Browne asserts that the colleges are in origin and intention, vocational institutions. "Students are selected, partly at least on their supposed suitability for teaching; they are assumed to have chosen the teaching profession as their future career, and are even asked to make a choice before coming to college of the age range that they want to teach. The Certificate of Education is not recognized as a qualification for any other calling The colleges are also concerned, as institutions of higher education, with the personal education of their students beyond the school level. Students should go from them not only better informed but able to respond to an intellectual challenge, with experiences that have enlarged their understanding and sympathy, and with some sense of the community, its problem and its promise"⁽¹³⁾ He therefore argues that there should be no clash between these two objectives, "and indeed the persistence of the colleges in advocating a concurrent course shows that it is widely believed not only that there is no dichotomy here, but there are positive merits in pursuing the two aims at one time"⁽¹⁴⁾. From its earliest beginnings, the combination of academic and professional education has been a

distinctive feature of the colleges of education. "They are concerned with the education of students as persons and as teachers, each reinforcing the other"⁽¹⁵⁾. Taylor argues that professional development and personal development are one and the same, and that responsibility rests with the individual teacher rather than the national system, the employing authority, or the school. Furthermore if this is not recognised, programmes of professional development are likely to be ineffective and to encourage forms of organisation and control that are very unprofessional in their character and consequences⁽¹⁶⁾.

In discussing the balance of studies in the college courses, it is not proposed to arrive at any conclusion about the exact proportion of the different elements in the courses but to discuss their relationship and their relevance to the aims of teacher education. It should be emphasised that all the elements of a student's course should and can contribute to his professional education, and that his professional understanding, as it grows, will enhance his personal development.

4.4.1 General Studies

The subjects designated 'general studies' appear to have no real immediate relevance to teacher education, so far as the conduct of teaching is concerned. However, to be able to educate the child as a whole being, the teacher must also be educated as a whole. The purpose is connected with the factor of education, which creates a freely developed man, not a member of a certain profession. The phrase 'personal development' includes in the field of higher education, the

development of critical powers of analytical and synthesizing skills to sensitivity and feeling. Teacher education is rightly linked with what is taught and how it is taught at the schools for which the future teacher is prepared. As these schools are concerned with general education, the teacher is best prepared for the transmission of such education if he has gained adequate mastery of it himself. For the teacher, an exacting general education is actually the best professional education⁽¹⁷⁾. General education has a different place in the preparation of secondary teachers than it has in the case of primary school teachers. While in the case of the former, it is subordinated to the demands of specialisation in one or two subjects, in the latter, it conserves its importance and study time in the school curriculum.

An examination of the curricula set out in Table 1 shows that for the Pre- and Junior Primary teachers' course the number of subjects designated as general studies is limited to English and Afrikaans. Presumably these two language courses are intended as communication courses although Afrikaans in Indian schools is not a medium of instruction. However, the question is: could these two language courses be considered as the only subjects that contribute towards the personal development of the students? This appears to be a serious deficiency in the preparation of teachers for an important phase in the education of the young child. It is wondered whether the training and education offered to the junior primary teachers at the colleges adequately prepares them to cope with the demands of the junior primary phase. Teachers in this phase of education are expected

to teach number work and environmental study which includes elementary science, history, and geography. This alone suggests that the junior primary teachers' course ought to include history, geography, science and elementary mathematics.

It was stated earlier that when the Consultative Committee for Teacher Education reviewed the teacher education programme in 1972, it recommended that the infant teachers' course (Junior primary) conforms to the minimum requirements of the three year Pre-primary teachers' course as laid down by the "Criteria". The Minutes of the Consultative Committee do not give any explanation for this decision. The Division of Indian Education has not assumed full responsibility for pre-school education and therefore the decision requiring junior primary teachers to follow the curriculum of the pre-school teachers gives point to certain criticisms. The pre-primary teachers' course as laid down in the "Criteria", is intended for students who could qualify for appointment in provincial pre-primary schools. If the Division assumed full responsibility for pre-primary education, then there could be certain advantages in the training course which combined pre-primary and primary work because it could facilitate transfer from one to the other type of school. On the other hand, there is a risk that in the combined course, the important distinction between the approach of the teacher to the child in a nursery school and that to the child in the primary school might become confused during the period of training in which far more time is devoted to training in the teaching of the 3 R's than to those skills such as art, music and other activities required for the proper psychological and social development of the pre-school infant⁽¹⁸⁾.

Table 2 (page 346) shows the percentage distribution of time allocated to the various components of the three teachers' courses at the colleges of education. The colleges operate on the basis of a 30 hour week made up of 45 periods of 40 minutes each. From Table 2 it will be observed that for the junior primary teachers' course, relatively more time is allocated to the professional component of the course, with one third of the total periods in the first year and 40% of the time in the second and final year of study. Only 30% of the time is devoted to the academic component. On the other hand an average of only 20% of the time is devoted to the professional component in the senior primary and junior secondary teachers' courses and relatively more time is allocated to the academic component. The increased allocations for this component in the latter courses is due to the fact that the time allocation for the two specialisation subjects is included in the allocation for the academic component which averages about eight periods per week over the three years.

In the initial preparation of teachers, the need is to extend the personal education of the student on first admission. This not only enhances his general background knowledge but contributes to the development of maturity, and assists materially in the development of the student as a teacher. It would seem desirable, therefore, that more time should be devoted to academic studies, and less time to those of a professional nature during the first two years⁽¹⁹⁾.

The curriculum for the senior primary teachers' diploma as set

TABLE 2

Percentage of Time Allocated to the Various Components of the Curriculum
at the Colleges of Education

	Curriculum and Academic %	Pro- fession- al %	Skills %	Op- tional %	Total %
<u>1. Junior Primary</u>					
Year 1	30,0	33,3	23,3	13,4	100
2	30,0	40,0	16,7	13,3	100
3	30,0	40,0	10,0	20,0	100
Average %	30,0	38,0	17,0	15,0	100
<u>2. Senior Primary</u>					
Year 1	50,0	16,7	23,3	10,0	100
2	43,3	23,3	16,7	16,7	100
3	33,3	20,3	16,7	30,0	100
Average %	42,0	20,0	19,0	19,0	100
<u>3. Junior Secondary</u>					
Year 1	53,3	16,7	3,3	26,7	100
2	53,3	23,4	3,3	20,0	100
3	53,3	20,0	3,3	23,4	100
Average %	53,3	20,0	3,3	23,4	100

Note: The time allocation for the two specialisation subjects (academic) for the Senior Primary and Junior Secondary courses is included in the first column i.e. Curriculum and Academic.

out in Table 1 attempts to prepare students for specialisation in a direction of study. Students could take either a science orientated or humanities orientated course as a preparation to teach in the senior primary phase (Standards 2 to 4). Is it necessary for teachers in this early phase of education to specialise in a direction? In Britain there is a large measure of support for the concept of 'a teacher' who can be trained to fit into any teacher role⁽²⁰⁾. The principle of undifferentiated training leading to a common qualification has been upheld by the National Union of Teachers (NUT) for a long time, but it is interesting to note a slight shift in its standpoint recently. In its policy statement The Reform of Teacher Education (NUT, 1971) the Union states:

"The Union considers that one of the strengths of the teaching profession in England and Wales since 1945 has been the general principle of a single qualification the Union nevertheless, accepts the need for training directed towards the teaching of specific stages, namely, adopting the Plowden Classification of first, middle and secondary. This sectionalised approach, coupled with the principle of one qualification, has great significance in educational development in schools. The integration of subject disciplines which has been a feature of primary schools is now being adopted in secondary schools."⁽²¹⁾

It should be noted from the foregoing that specialisation is supported in respect of training teachers for a specific phase

of primary school. The senior primary courses, whilst allowing specialising in a specific phase, also allow for specialising in a study direction. The argument in favour of this dispensation seems to be that in this phase, subject teaching is allowed and hence subject specialisation. The weakness of this argument, in the opinion of the present writer, is that subject teaching in the early phase of education could lead to polarisation in the subjects taught. The integration of subject disciplines which has been the feature of primary education may be weakened if different teachers teach specific subjects. It is essential that the student be able to synthesise theory and practice in the practical teaching situation, thus enabling him to teach basic skills and organise activities which draw on a number of subjects.

With reference to Table 1 it will be noted that in the first year of the senior primary education diploma, the number of subjects in the general studies component is much greater than in the pre-junior primary education diploma. The aim of a course in general studies is to provide stimulus to the student, an incentive to self-education, and an attitude of critical awareness. Studies of this kind provide an opportunity to raise and discuss questions of importance without an obligation to pursue each one in all its specialist connotations. One of the tasks of general education is to make good some of the cultural deficiencies of those who propose to be teachers of others⁽²²⁾. The course must therefore aim at providing some essential background in the main areas of human thought and activity, i.e. the humanities, sciences, mathematics, the social

sciences and art. According to Table 1 it would appear that the course does aim at providing the essential background to the main areas of human thought and activity. But this is done only in the first year of study. However, the in-depth study of subjects for specialisation, no doubt contributes something important to the personal development of the aspirant teacher. Having said this, it must also be borne in mind that students often fail to develop any interrelationships between the different compartments of study. The importance placed on examinations tend to minimise the intrinsic value of the specialisation subjects.

An average of 43% of the total time allocated is devoted to the academic component in this course starting with 50% in the first year; 43,3% in the second year and 33,3% in the final year (see Table 2). This appears to be a fairly balanced distribution of time as compared with the junior primary teachers' course, where it was noted that only an average of 30% of time is devoted to the academic component and an average of 30% is devoted to the professional component.

The junior secondary teachers' courses as set out in Table 1 provide for specialisation in humanities (including art and music), natural sciences and commercial directions of study. The students have to specialise in two subjects peculiar to the field of study chosen. It will be noticed that specialisation takes place right from the first year. Students have to select two subjects from the relevant study direction for specialisation and one appropriate ancilliary subject. The ancilliary subject

is taken in the first two years only. There is no ancilliary subject for the humanities direction of study. In the humanities direction, the subjects prescribed for general studies are English, Afrikaans, natural science, mathematics, history, geography and health education. English and Afrikaans as "basic" general study subjects have to be taken over the three years. The remaining "basic" subjects are taken in the first year only. This requirement is applicable also to the science and commercial directions of study. In the humanities direction, apart from the two subjects chosen for specialisation, the students have also to take speech and drama and spraak en drama.

In the science and commercial directions of study the common "basic" general study subjects are English, Afrikaans, history, geography, health education and book education (school librarianship).

In the science direction, a student offers biology, physical science and mathematics in the first year. The first year can be regarded as a common year, permitting selection options. In the second year a student can select two subjects and the appropriate ancilliary as follows:

<u>Specialisation Subjects</u>	<u>Ancilliary Subject</u>
(i) physical science and biology	mathematics
(ii) physical science and mathematics	biology
(iii) computer science and mathematics	nil.



The inclusion of biology as an ancilliary subject for students specialising in physical science and mathematics has proved to be very effective in the junior secondary phase. In this phase all pupils have to take general science. Teachers with this specialisation are therefore adequately qualified to teach this subject.

The introduction of specialisation in computer science in the recent years is indicative of the colleges' response to the new demands on schools to cater for the teaching of computer science. Computer education is destined to play an ever increasing role in the future and the introduction of this course is timeous.

In the commercial direction of study, students take five "basic" general studies and three subjects selected from accounting, mathematics, business economics and typing in the first year. In the second year students take two subjects from the three subjects taken in the first year plus one ancilliary subject from typing and business economics. In the third year all students in the various study directions concentrate only on the two subjects selected for specialisation.

The industrial arts specialisation course was recently introduced at the two colleges to supply teachers for a growing demand for these subjects in the secondary schools. In the first year all students have to take the five "basic" general subjects as in the case of the science and commercial fields in the first year plus metalwork, woodwork, technical drawing and basic mathematics or technical drawing and mathematics. In the

second and third years students specialise in three subjects.

On the question of specialisation the James Report states that the student's choice of options in his general studies course must be related to his choice of special studies. A student studying mathematics as a special subject will not, for example, normally include this option as part of his general studies course. These elements must be combined and inter-related as "special" and "general" studies. In special studies the aim will be rather to stimulate individual thought and discussion, to enable the student to realise the kind of problems and experiences that exist in fields outside his own, to make good the deficiencies in his intellectual and cultural awareness and above all to tempt him to further efforts of self-education in directions in which he has not previously considered⁽²³⁾. The Report urges colleges to avoid any rigid curricular or organisational separation between special and general studies.

In Indian teacher education it will be noticed that where specialisation is provided for, such specialisation replaces the academic content of the basic general course. The general courses are taken in the first year and if not selected for specialisation, no further attention is given to them. Only English and Afrikaans are carried throughout the three years. In this respect it should be noted that English and Afrikaans are intended more as basic skill subjects to promote the students' ability to communicate than as subjects intended to contribute to the personal education of students.

According to Table 2 an average of 53,3% of the time is

allocated to general studies and specialisation subjects for the junior secondary teachers' course in the three years. An average of 20% of the time is allocated to the professional component. The average optional time allowed to students for private study is 23,4%. This is a welcome arrangement. Students should be encouraged to devote some of this time to study subjects strongly directed towards work with children in the junior secondary schools. It is being accepted that studies more closely connected with education such as psychology, principles of religion, philosophy and sociology, are likely to offer opportunities for self-development, self-realisation and personal fulfilment in the same way as general studies offer.

The relationship of the general studies to the study of specialisation subjects has not always been clear, and may cause students considerable frustration as the time available has meant only superficial study of the subjects. Implicit in the aims of teacher education is that to be able to educate a child as a whole, the teacher must also be educated as a whole. In fact the purpose of general education as a component of teacher education is to satisfy this basic aim. Is it then possible to achieve this aim by providing a limited number of "basic" subjects which tend to be divorced from the course as a whole? A student is a young adult and cannot educate himself wholly through task-centred education and lectures which appear to be the common practice in the colleges. The object of general studies is the personal education of the student, but if this end is to be achieved, attention must be paid to how the subject is learned rather than what is learned.

4.4.2 Professional Courses

The term professional courses or studies is widely used in institutions responsible for the education of teachers, but there is a great diversity of aims, content and organisation of courses in professional studies⁽²⁴⁾. The all embracing description seems to be: "Professional studies is concerned with the practice of teaching To develop in the student the knowledge, values, skills and abilities required in a practising member of the teaching profession"⁽²⁵⁾. The NUT states that educational theory involves introducing students to the contributory disciplines of psychology, philosophy, sociology and history which may be applied to practical educational problems. Professional studies link a body of theoretical knowledge, rules and principles to the practical skills necessary to achieve competence in a particular profession. The first priority in 'education' as a specific preparation for teaching should be collaboration of subject and educational specialists in curriculum courses and teaching practice in order to provide a firm and solid foundation for the basic task of any teacher. This would avoid strict divisions between curriculum studies and education and the study of the main subjects⁽²⁶⁾. All three must be inter-connected. Renshaw asserts that "if we wish to meet the growing needs of future generations of children, it is necessary to raise the standard and quality of the professional education of teachers In the present system of schooling, teachers are at the heart of the educational process. The demands on them are considerable, and these can be met only by creating a scientifically based profession which is supported by a body of

relevant theoretical and practical knowledge. It is this systematic body of theory, in which abstract principles are formulated through scientific research and logical analysis, that forms the basis of the professional's authority and autonomy" (27).

4.4.2.1 The Content of Professional Course

In practice the fundamentals of the professional component are taught with a certain regard to education, i.e. the philosophy, psychology and sociology of education understood either as boundary disciplines with their own systems, or merely as a practical field of application of the more general disciplines. This development has given rise to a number of dangers: the unified character of the study of educational phenomena is lost, and study is irrelevant to the actual performance of teaching tasks since it is understood as the study of academic disciplines without regard to practical teacher preparation (28). In addition to these there are more traditional courses, namely principles of education, history of education, comparative education, didactics, empirical education, sociology of education and school administration. Even if all these courses are not given simultaneously, or if they are not compulsory, they provide a conglomeration of knowledge of often disputable and conflicting values, whose relation to practical education is not apparent to the teacher-in-training. Today, efforts are being made to concentrate the knowledge of education essential to the prospective

teacher into the following basic cycles within which the integration of knowledge occurs:

- (a) The meaning and aim of education examined from a philosophical, historical and comparative approach;
- (b) The social function of education and the place of the school in the social system, sociological, economic, political and administrative aspects;
- (c) The growth, development and education of children and the methods of influencing them by educational means, considered from the aspects of the psychology of learning, social psychology, general principles of education, and educational technology;
- (d) Measuring educational achievement in the case of individuals and larger groups, methods of experimental processes, from the aspects of psychometrics, educational measurements, and experimental pedagogy and also as an instrument of self-evaluation and improvement of educational processes⁽²⁹⁾.

All the existing teachers' courses in Indian education contain the following part disciplines of education: empirical, comparative, sociology and didactics. All of these are introduced in the second year of study and go up to the third year. Included in the professional component are general methods, methods of infant teaching (only for the pre- and junior primary course), audio-visual education, guidance, right living, parental responsibility

and practical teaching.

It should be noted from Table 1 that general methods is offered in the first year and in the second year. In the third year it is offered as theory/method. The latter should be correctly designated either as general methods or didactics. Special methods is not shown as such in the Table 1. This is incorporated into the specialisation subjects and the lecturers involved in the subjects concerned are also responsible for the special methods course in their respective subjects. This seems to be a very satisfactory arrangement whereby the subject matter and methods of teaching the subject are integrated.

4.4.3 Teaching Practice

A beginning is made in teaching practice in learning on the job and under the guidance of experts (teachers and tutors), the practical skills of teaching, particularly those concerned with mediating knowledge, skills and attitudes of children⁽³⁰⁾.

The purpose of school experience is to give students opportunities to practise their skills, to achieve familiarity with and understanding of the needs of children and the institutional environment of schools, and to relate to kinds of learning in which they engage in the college to the realities of the classroom⁽³¹⁾.

There is no doubt that teaching practice occupies a central place in the education of teachers. This will be elaborated in

Chapter Nine of this study.

The courses at the two colleges stipulate a minimum of twelve weeks' of teaching-practice. In the first term of the first year all students receive on-campus teaching-practice training. This involves the weighting of skills, use of teaching techniques, construction of aids, simulation exercise and use of micro-teaching techniques. In the remaining terms of the first year there is also a two-week of block-teaching practice where students spend two weeks in the schools. In the second and third years there is block-teaching of between four and five weeks. Tutors are attached to groups of students to supervise and assist, and assess the students' practice teaching. The principal and his staff also assist the student teachers during the block-teaching periods.

In view of the fact that in order to gain a pass in each successive year, students have to pass teaching-practice with at least 50% of the marks allocated to it, assessment of teaching-practice plays an important role. It has been argued that the assessment of teaching practice is neither reliable nor predictive. On an average, students on teaching practice are visited by their tutors for a very short period during each week. The element of assessment, coupled sometimes with the rarity of the visits, may well lead to acute anxiety on the part of the student⁽³²⁾. For first year students, assessment should play a minor role and be used to assess the student's potential only. The teaching practice component should provide the students with opportunities to relate theory to practice. This implies that the course explores the use of teaching aids

and resources. Microteaching (which will be discussed in Chapter Nine) should play an important role in acquiring teaching skills. This is a technique which has great potential in teacher education and every effort should be made to exploit its benefits.

There are different opinions about the length of school-based teaching practice but generally there is a plea to increase the time allocated to practice teaching. The total time allocated to students following the three year diploma courses for teaching practice at the two colleges appear to be inadequate. There is evidence to suggest that a broadly conceived programme of school experience, of which block-teaching practice forms a major and indispensable component is essential to teacher education courses (33).

5. Summary and Conclusion

Historically the pattern of development of Indian teacher education has improved considerably since those pioneering days when Standard 4 level of education was considered as adequate for entry into the teacher training institutions. Today, all teachers' courses at the two colleges of education are of a minimum of three years' duration with the minimum entry qualification of Standard 10. The three year diploma courses in Indian education follow more or less the requirements set out in the national "Criteria" which set out the minimum requirements for all teacher education courses in South Africa.

Qualitatively then, Indian teacher education in the last decade has followed developments in White teacher education. It is almost eleven years since the three-year diploma courses were introduced at the two colleges. It is now the appropriate time to assess the needs of Indian teacher education. In this regard Niven states that "the steps by which teacher education is to be improved must start from an assessment of the needs of the teacher in the present era, proceed through an investigation of the nature of the courses which will meet the needs, with the final arrival of the optimum length of course for the attainment of those goals"⁽³⁴⁾. The task of teaching is becoming more complex and demanding and the level of preparation must be raised to meet these demands. It was noted in the examination of the existing courses that there is a need for extending the personal education of the student on first admission, for this not only enhances his general background knowledge but contributes to the development of maturity and assists materially in his development as a teacher.

The new demands on teachers also make it imperative that there is a good balance between personal and professional preparation of the teacher. Students must be prepared in practice as well as in theory to cope with the actual school curriculum; they must understand to some extent the background sciences that contribute to the understanding of the learning process. It is essential that the student should achieve not merely a sound academic background and understanding of the theory and practice of education, but that he is able to synthesize these aspects in the practical teaching situation.

In the examination of the existing courses at the two colleges of education, it became evident that there are certain deficiencies in their structure, and these pose questions as to whether the present

teachers' courses are adequately meeting the aims and objectives of teacher education.

For the purpose of emphasising the areas of weakness in the present teachers' courses, the following summary is presented.

- (a) The pre- and junior teachers' diploma course combines the preparation of teachers for the pre-primary and primary schools. In fact the entire course is structured on the minimum requirement for the pre-primary diploma course as laid down in the national "Criteria". This appears to be a serious deficiency in the preparation of teachers for the junior primary (Class (i) to Standard I) phase. The academic content of this course is restricted to English and Afrikaans only presumably to facilitate communication skills. Afrikaans is not a medium of instruction in Indian schools. It is not a subject offered in this phase. The offering of such subjects as elementary mathematics, history, geography and elementary science instead of Afrikaans could facilitate the teaching of environmental studies which is a subject offered in this phase. There is a need to review the entire pre- and primary teachers' diploma course with the above points in mind.
- (b) The need for students to specialise in a direction in the senior primary diploma course is questioned. Subject teaching in this phase (Standards 2 to 4) is generally regarded as educationally unsound. A primary school teacher must be a competent generalist to be effective. The teacher's grasp of subject matter will need to include

everything from elementary mathematics and geography to history and general science. If this is not done, the teacher may be faced often with the task of providing instruction in a subject area to which he has had no exposure perhaps since high school days. This has a direct impact on the quality of education in the primary school. If the breadth and substance of training in history, geography, sciences and mathematics for all students in this phase are neglected, if the development of the power to think and reason critically over a range of subject disciplines is superficial, the students emerging from such a course are bound to be ill-equipped.

- (c) The course in general methodology should emphasise the integral part of educational technology in improving teaching skills. Efforts should be made to identify those techniques that when applied to instructional planning, instructional delivery, evaluation of student progress and classroom management, enhance student learning.
- (d) The placement of students in schools for teaching practice should be viewed not merely as a matter of logistics but as a matter involving the establishment of complex relationships between the college and the school, a feature which is recognised by the more progressive countries such as the United States and Britain. In view of the importance of teaching practice, every attempt should be made to increase the block-teaching periods especially in the third year to say for example, eight weeks.

In conclusion it is pertinent to ask whether it is possible to provide in the three-year initial teachers' course all the knowledge and insights that the teacher will need in his long career? Even by extending the present three-year course to four years it may not be possible to achieve the above ideals. According to Taylor, one of the ways out of this dilemma has been the realisation that if opportunities exist for later systematic study, geared to the gradual enrichment of the teacher's experience, some of the course content, both traditional and new, can safely and beneficently be left until later⁽³⁵⁾. Taylor is obviously referring to a well structured in-service education and training programme on the line similar to the one suggested by the James Report in Britain, which commented: "The conflicts between education and training, the unrealistic width of subject and other offerings in many colleges and the poverty of in-service training conspire to impose severe limitations on the present effectiveness of initial training"⁽³⁶⁾.

An examination of in-service training is outside the scope of the present study. It is a field which needs research in its own right. However, it is quite evident that even by extending the minimum of training to four years, it is not possible to train teachers during that period as adequately qualified and finished products. Teacher education should be seen as a continuum, with initial training at the one end and in-service training at the other end. Thus the importance of in-service training cannot be over-emphasised.

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CHAPTER EIGHTTEACHERS' COURSES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE1. Introduction

The manner in which universities came to be involved in the pattern of teacher education in South Africa and the steps by which, first Departments and subsequently Faculties of Education were built up have been extensively covered in several works, the most comprehensive of which is by Niven⁽¹⁾, and therefore needs no further elaboration here. Secondary school teachers were traditionally recruited from the ranks of university graduates, often without further professional training. It was often considered that professional training of the graduate teacher was not necessary. For example in France, prior to 1952, it was quite common for secondary school teachers to receive no training as teachers. They gave evidence of knowing their academic field by obtaining university degrees and that was considered sufficient⁽²⁾. In England and Wales prior to 1944 university graduates wishing to enter the teaching profession could do so either directly, without any training, or by taking a one-year course at a university department of education. The McNair Report of 1944 made specific proposals for only one category of teacher, a "qualified teacher" whose training would be provided by regionally based associations of colleges and universities. The advent of the comprehensive schools in recent years not only removed the need for a choice between secondary modern and grammar school teaching but it required the graduate teacher to be more versatile in adapting his subject matter and methods to a wider ability range. Consequently increasing emphasis is being placed by local education authorities upon professional training.

In South Africa, the necessity for a professional training after the three-year degree courses came to be realised in the first two decades of the century. Thus the typical university pattern of a professional course following upon the general bachelor's degree "in which were included a varying proportion of 'school' or 'teaching' subjects was introduced"⁽³⁾.

Thus, by the 1920's the pattern of 3 + 1 year training for graduates within the universities, as opposed to two-year non-graduate training in the colleges had become recognised as a normal requirement for secondary school teachers. It should, however, be noted that these schools at the time catered for a purely academic type of curriculum; therefore the secondary school was automatically and exclusively the preserve of the graduates. It is only since the second World War that this situation has altered radically, requiring a diversification of training methods and techniques to cater for the differentiated secondary school curricula.

In most South African universities, a four year integrated degree with education as a major subject has been introduced in recent years. The traditional consecutive pattern of training, i.e. a three-year bachelor's degree followed by a one-year teachers' diploma, is still being offered. In Chapters Two and Five of the present study university involvement in the preparation of Indian teachers was dealt with briefly. It was pointed out in Chapter Five that the issue concerning how and where Indian secondary teachers should be trained did not arise until after the transfer of Indian education to the Department of Indian Affairs. Even so, the issue has never been as controversial as in White teacher education. It was also stated in Chapter Five that the Consultative

Committee for Teacher Education, seemingly influenced by developments in White teacher education in the 1960's, expressed the view that all secondary school teachers should be trained at the University of Durban-Westville. To this end the University since its inception in 1961 began to offer the one-year, post-graduate University Education Diploma course (now called University Higher Education Diploma). In 1974 the University introduced the four-year integrated degree called the Bachelor of Paedagogics.

2. Initial Teachers' Courses offered at the University of Durban-Westville

Until 1983, the University of Durban-Westville offered the three-year concurrent non-graduate education diploma course to prepare teachers to teach in the junior primary (Class (i) - Standard 4) and the junior secondary (Standards 5-7) phases. These diploma courses, it was noted in Chapter Five, were phased out with effect from the beginning of 1983.

The University presently offers both the one-year consecutive post-graduate University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE) and the four-year concurrent Bachelor of Paedagogics degree. In addition, it continues to offer both the non-graduate and post-graduate specialised education diplomas in guidance and counselling, special education, remedial education and library and resource centre management as part-time courses to selected qualified teachers. In the rest of this Chapter the consecutive one-year UHDE and the concurrent B. Paed. degree courses will be examined.

2.1 The University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE)

The University of Durban-Westville offers the post-graduate University

Higher Education Diploma (UHDE) in two directions, i.e. the secondary school direction and the primary school direction. The curricula are set out in Table 1 (page 370).

2.1.1 Curriculum Design

To what extent does the existing consecutive pattern of one-year initial teachers' course adequately satisfy the aims in teacher education? Although it would require a major research to answer this question satisfactorily an attempt is made here to examine the curriculum of the UHDE course offered by the University of Durban-Westville in a generalised manner with a view to raising issues that may require further consideration.

The graduate student on entering the UHDE course has the necessary academic background. What he needs to prepare him for his professional task is in-depth study of the theory of education and the practical component to promote him as a class teacher. The professional component and its effectiveness must constantly be assessed against the rapidly changing needs of both the schools and society. Curriculum content must not be retained on a basis of tradition⁽⁴⁾.

If the teacher is to contribute to the unprecedented evolution in education he must be well prepared academically and professionally for the task.

TABLE 1

Curriculum of the University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE)

UHDE (Secondary School Direction)	UHDE (Primary School Direction)
<p>1. Principles of Education:</p> <p>Paper 1 - Philosophy and Sociology of Education Paper 2 - Empirical Education and Didactics Paper 3 - History of Education, Administration of Education</p> <p>2. } Special method of teaching two Principal Subjects 3. } in the Secondary School.</p> <p>4. Afrikaans usage.</p> <p>5. English usage.</p> <p>6. Teaching Practice.</p>	<p>1. Principles of Education:</p> <p>Paper 1 - Philosophy and Sociology of Education Paper 2 - Empirical Education and Didactics Paper 3 - History of Education, Administration of Education.</p> <p>2. Principles of Remedial Education and School Guidance.</p> <p>3. Special method of teaching a school subject taken as a major.</p> <p>4. Special methods of teaching in the primary school in those fields of study <u>NOT</u> covered by subjects taken in the degree, selecting not more than two from the following:-</p> <p>a. Mathematics (Compulsory if not included in the degree). b. Geography c. History d. Natural Science</p> <p>5. English usage in the primary school.</p> <p>6. Afrikaans usage in the primary school.</p> <p>7. Teaching Practice.</p>

In the consecutive courses such as the UHDE, only one year of the training is devoted to professional studies and even of this, a good proportion is assigned to practice teaching. Thus, the time that can be devoted to the study of basic disciplines may be reckoned in terms of months. In spite of the severe time limitations the UHDE students have to study philosophy of education, sociology of education, empirical education, diadactics, history of education and administration of education. Recently strong claims have been made for the inclusion of educational technology - the study and practical experiences of the wide range of instructional aids that are now being made available to schools. The latter, although not classifiable as a basic discipline, is nonetheless an area of importance which must compete for a place on the time-table.

Admittedly, more and more graduate teachers are furthering their studies at the universities and the education authorities are providing short-term in-service and vacation courses for teachers. However, for the majority, the one-year post-graduate professional course is the only exposure they have to professional studies and it must suffice to support and encourage them until retirement⁽⁵⁾. This observation underscores the need for a planned and structured in-service course whereby such teachers are released with full pay for in-service education and training for at least one school term, say in every five years of service⁽⁶⁾. The need in the existing UHDE course "is for a vigorous year of study in which the main emphasis must be upon truly professional studies with skills associated with a mere "training" approach to teaching as to a trade, reduced to an

irreducible minimum⁽⁷⁾.

An analysis of the curriculum of the UHDE (see Table 1) course indicates that the course structure consists of three main pillars:-

- i. the philosophical and methodological components of education;
- ii. a practical component to promote the student as a class teacher; and
- iii. practical teaching which intends to blend the first two to promote the professional development of the student and facilitate his entry as a teacher.

The professional and main subjects component is divided into the philosophical and methodological sub-division. A further sub-division is the splitting up of education into didactics, history of education and administration of education. The effect of sub-dividing the subject of educational studies in this way was probably to make it possible to teach more advanced material and to enable courses to be offered by lecturers who had made special study of the subject and had research experience in it. Whilst agreeing with the idea that sub-dividing educational studies does facilitate lecturing, care should be taken to recognise the unity of this main area of the curriculum. The course should be seen as an integrated whole and not as separate entities. This would facilitate the merging of theory and practice. The need is for a synthesis in

which educational problems are looked at from the philosophical standpoint, in which the origin of problems are followed back in history and in which the principles established reach forward to suggest solutions in future actions in the nation's schools. In other words, one is seeking, through a philosophical examination of general educational problems, to establish principles upon which to proceed⁽⁸⁾. Niven suggests that for the reasons quoted above such a course should properly be designated as principles of education⁽⁹⁾. He states: "It is inherent in the organisation of such a subject that it should be seen as providing the central philosophical theme of the course, and that its contents should bring students to a better understanding of educational psychology, methodology and administration as well as any other subjects offered in this area"⁽¹⁰⁾.

Empirical education or educational psychology is the fundamental base upon which the philosophical component of the course must be founded. Empirical education offered by the University comprises theory of learning, the study of personality and its measurement, intelligence, child psychology, processes that affect learning, motivation in the classroom, memory, guidance and counselling, educational assessment, and coping with differences and learning problems, the education of the gifted and the mentally handicapped child. Although much is to be gained from a study of subnormality and giftedness, it is suggested that in view of the fact that the teacher would be concerned, in the main, with the group which is likely to form the bulk of his pupils, and considering the very short duration

of the course, these aspects should be excluded from the initial course.

It is important that psychology of education be seen in direct relationship to principles of education, to sociology, to administration, to methodology with a practical expression of its theories in the practical teaching component of the course.

The other main subject within this area is didactics or general methods. There is a tendency nowadays to view the general methodology in terms of educational technology. For example, the Jordanhill College of Education (Scotland) in its prospectus defines educational technology as "the application of scientific method and techniques to the design, implementation and evaluation of courses with the aim of making the processes of learning more effective and efficient"⁽¹¹⁾. This implies that the course explores scientific and systematic approaches to effective educational practice, making the optimum use of available aids and resources. The student completing the course is expected to be sufficiently knowledgeable about the psychology of learning and communication, the skills of teaching, curriculum development, the management of change, the selection, organisation and retrieval of information and the craft of audio-visual production to be able to communicate sensibly with experts in these fields and to blend all of these skills in the solution of educational problems ⁽¹²⁾. The Council for Educational Technology in the United Kingdom defines educational technology as "the development, application and evaluation system, techniques and aids to improve the process of

learning It is essentially a systematic arrangement of the stages of the educational process : first, understanding the requirements and from these setting defined objectives; then constructing a course which is complete with its own evaluation procedures and is based upon the selection of appropriate teaching methods, communication media and learning materials; and finally, testing the effectiveness of the course in meeting its educational objectives"⁽¹³⁾. From the above definitions it is clear that educational technology should and must play an important role in general as well as special methods courses.

An examination of the syllabuses for the didactics course shows that in the first year, educational technology is offered as a component of didactics, and this is confined to audio-visual instruction and media and the resource centre⁽¹⁴⁾. In the light of the definition of educational technology discussed earlier, it is suggested that didactics and educational technology be viewed as an entity providing the scientific and systematic approaches to effective educational practice. Educational technology should not be seen as mere audio-visual aids and resource centre. Didactics is an area that needs co-ordination and integration. A logical development of integration would be an interdisciplinary approach to problems in education in which the philosopher, the psychologist, the sociologist and the methodologist would be involved in the consideration of a particular area. Once understanding between the various subject lecturers is established a move might profitably be made in the direction of a problem-centred

curriculum. Of course this does not suggest the scrapping of the subject-centred approach, but rather the introduction of one or two problem areas for interdisciplinary treatment.

The other part-disciplines of education prescribed for the UHDE course need careful review. In the syllabus a measure of comparative education is included in history of education and administration but the emphasis appears to be more on comparative history rather than on comparative administration of education. While there is a place for a study of ancient Greek, Roman and early Christian education, the importance of contemporary issues in education cannot be over-emphasised. However, the wisdom of offering this discipline in such a short initial teachers' course as the UHDE is questioned. Even sociology of education could easily be dropped from this initial course. Or, alternatively students should be allowed the option of taking one of these part-disciplines.

2.1.2 Other Subjects in the Curriculum

For the secondary school direction, students have to offer English and Afrikaans usage. This requires proficiency in language usage as a medium of teaching. However, the inclusion of Afrikaans usage in this course needs review. The medium of instruction in all Indian schools is English and therefore Afrikaans usage could be conveniently left out.

For the primary schools, students have to offer special methods of teaching a school subject taken as a "major" for their degrees and special methods of teaching in the primary school

in those fields of study not covered by subjects taken in the degree, selecting not more than two from : mathematics (compulsory if not included in the degree), geography, history and natural science. The additional subjects include principles of remedial education and school guidance. The inclusion of principles of remedial education in an initial teacher education course raises a point similar to the one Niven raises in his study, i.e. "such study must follow upon the student's successful experience with the normal or 'average' child". The present writer is also of the opinion that the study of remedial education is a highly specialised field and could only be effectively studied by experienced teachers who have encountered learning disabilities in the normal course of teaching. It is generally held that "it is necessary for the student to develop an awareness of the needs of the normal child, both in theory and practice, before he can really come to grips with the problems of remedial education"⁽¹⁵⁾. Behr on the the other hand argues for the inclusion of an introductory course in remedial education or orthodidactics in the initial teachers' course. However, he agrees that a detailed critical analysis and a study of the techniques should be confined to those who are specialist trainees in the field. "Nevertheless, the ordinary class teacher and the student in training should have an awareness of its implications. Perception and its component skills and abilities are the root of all learning and also of a considerable degree of learning difficulties"⁽¹⁶⁾.

The University of Durban-Westville has a sub-department of remedial

education and is presently offering a specialised diploma in remedial education to selected experienced teachers. It is the policy of Indian education to provide a specialist remedial teacher at every primary school. In view of this, is it necessary to offer principles of remedial education in the UHDE course? The inclusion of guidance in the initial course is justified in view of its importance to teachers. While there is a steady supply of qualified guidance counsellors from the University, they are presently being placed in secondary schools. It will be a long time before primary schools are provided with qualified specialist guidance teachers. In the meantime it may be necessary to offer guidance in the initial primary teacher education programme. It is suggested that the principles of remedial education be removed from the curriculum and instead consideration be given to the inclusion of one or more of the following subjects: physiology and hygiene physical education, art and craft and games coaching. The inclusion of these subject options which are of particular value to the young teacher, will help the teacher to play a full and meaningful role in the school. Care should be taken that these subject choices are within the student's interest and experience because it is obvious that such courses cannot expect a time allocation much in excess of 1-2 hours per week. To make allowance for this the student's background of knowledge and experience and personal interest could be exploited.

2.1.3 Practical Teaching

The importance of practical teaching experience in initial teacher education has already been dealt with under college teachers' courses in Chapter Seven of this study. However, considering the brevity of the UHDE course, there are certain pertinent issues that need re-emphasis. The young teacher having spent one short academic year in acquiring professional training is often regarded as a complete finished product. His practical experience during his initial training could be measured in weeks. Therefore the teacher's first few months in a school are more a test of survival than a time of professional growth.

The same can be said of most initial teachers' courses. What can be done to smooth the teacher's path into the profession so that his early experience can be a secure foundation on which he can build his teaching career? The answer seems to lie in the probationary year. Nothing is more depressing in the existing teacher education programme than the gross inadequacy of the present arrangements for the probationary year. This is not only peculiar to the South African situation; it seems to be a problem in most countries. For example the James Report also found gross inadequacy in the teachers' probationary year. It is suggested that arrangements might be made, for instance for probationers to spend a half-day at frequent and regular intervals at a group seminar with other probationary teachers in the area, led by a tutor from the university. The purpose of the seminar would be to promote discussion and understanding of mutual problems and to provide an opportunity to discuss any

of the area which was not covered thoroughly, or with immediate relevance, during initial training. The problem of the probationary year will be dealt with more fully in the next Chapter.

The fundamental courses that ought to facilitate practical teaching are naturally language media. The primary practical requirement of every teacher is the ability of the student to communicate with pupils. As stated earlier, the UHDE students are offered English and Afrikaans usage. The aim of English usage is to equip the student with adequate command of language to enable him to teach general subjects through the medium of English and the aim of Afrikaans usage is "om die student tot te rus met voldoende kennis van die taal ten einde hom in staat te stel om Afrikaans te begryp, vlot te praat, less en skryf"⁽¹⁷⁾. Afrikaans usage is evidently designed to enhance the personal education of the student rather than as a medium of instruction. In the English usage course the student is required to express himself, both orally and in writing, logically, coherently, concisely and in a grammatically correct form. The course includes language enrichment, idiomatic expressions, comprehension speech and the art of appreciation through listening.

It would appear that all students taking the UHDE course are offered language usage courses. If this is so, is it necessary for all students to undertake such courses? Those who have passed the language courses concerned in the university should be exempted from them. It is also suggested that if in the opinion of the tutors, a student has attained the desired standard and language proficiency, he should be exempted from the remainder

of the course and by the same token, if it is felt that a student's language usage was inadequate, particularly during teaching practice, that student should be referred for additional work in English.

Another area that requires serious consideration in practice teaching is micro-teaching. In a short initial training course such as the UHDE, the advantages of such innovation as micro-teaching cannot be over-emphasised.

In teaching practice the use of educational technology enhances the narrowing of the gap between theory and practice. The audio-visual education presently included in teacher education curriculum is too narrow and restricted. This is still, in most cases, the stereotyped run-of-the mill classroom aids such as the use of the overhead projectors and strip film projectors. Audio-visual education is making a very serious claim to be considered as a department in its own right within the corpus of education⁽¹⁸⁾.

The course should explore scientific and systematic approaches to effective educational practice, making the optimum use of available aids and resources. Hence it should be expected of the student to be sufficiently knowledgeable about the psychology of learning and communication, the skills of teaching, curriculum development, the management of change, the selection, organisation and retrieval of information and the craft of audio-visual production to be able to communicate sensibly with experts in these fields and to blend all of these skills in the solution of educational problems⁽¹⁹⁾.

2.1.4 Some Concluding Thoughts on the UHDE Course

An objective examination of the UHDE course leads inescapably to the conclusion that while the course does provide graduate teachers quickly, in the present day it is not a suitable initial teaching course. Any suggestions or recommendations for improving the existing pattern of the UHDE course will only lead to improvisation. MacMillan makes this observation:

"Tradition has made use of the instruction offered in the university a one-year course completed after the bachelor's degree. It is usually an isolated course 'tacked on' to the academic study, established in the days when a degree was considered the hallmark of a cultured man; it being held that any other study, particularly for professional purposes, should be taken thereafter. Perhaps this would still hold if the one-year course were lengthened to two years as recommended in Scotland in 1946 and by several major commissions and conferences in South Africa from as early as 1923. The present course is far too short in view of the increasing demands being made upon the profession and is probably the least satisfactory of teachers' courses. University students are more mature than most entrants to colleges. They need more than they are usually given. Some of the various criticisms directed at the post-graduate course are that it is too theoretical and out of touch with reality
....." (20)

For the majority, the one-year post-graduate professional course is the only exposure they have to professional studies, and that too, for a very short academic year. If the teacher is to contribute to the changing pattern of education, he must be well prepared academically and professionally for the task. It is

impossible for the UHDE students to be prepared professionally in such a short time. In the absence of any structured in-service training, the UHDE teacher may be faced with the danger of perpetuating the skills associated with a mere training approach to teaching as to trade.

Commenting on the traditional pattern of the one-year post-graduate course the Robbins Report (Britain) makes this observation : "There is some evidence of distaste among the graduates, after their experience of the university, for college courses whose content provides a less stimulating academic atmosphere than that to which they have been accustomed in the university, although this distaste is diminishing. There is also weighty evidence that the present and time-honoured training arrangements are not fully meeting the needs of newer reaches of secondary education. It is at least open to question whether the traditional arrangement of a single year of professional training added to the three-year course of university study, but not planned with it, is the best method of preparation for teachers whose work in the schools will not necessarily be highly academic in character : the whole course has been criticised for its wide range of not always relevant subjects and for its lack of challenge to the graduate"⁽²¹⁾.

By and large the present UHDE curriculum comprises educational theory method courses and up to eight weeks of school based experience. But how can one year be considered adequate preparation for a profession as complex as teaching? A degree course should enable a student to reflect critically on the logic and nature of his discipline and to view its unique characteristics in relation to the wider spectrum of knowledge.

But even if a graduate has reached this stage of precision, mastery and critical reflection, it doesn't necessarily follow that he can become a competent teacher through one year of training. The logical and psychological aspects of learning and teaching a subject lie at the heart of a teacher education curriculum. Therefore, a graduate student teacher must study a wide area of educational theory before he can grasp the relationship between this knowledge, his subject and educational practice.

It would seem that if the consecutive pattern of training graduate teachers is to continue, it must be extended to at least two years of professional education, including at least two full terms of practice teaching.

2.2 The Bachelor of Paedagogics Degree (B. Paed.)

The University of Durban-Westville offers the B. Paed. degree in the following directions of study: Arts, Science, Commerce, Music and Primary Education. The course is of a four-year duration of full-time study. It is a degree gained in a distinctive way, and characteristically based on the study of education. The details of the curricula of the various study directions are set out in Table 2 (page 385). An analysis of the B. Paed curricula indicates that, in general they are structured on four main pillars, i.e.:-

- i. two or more main subjects which are designed for the personal development of the student;
- ii. educational studies;

TABLE 2

Courses of Study for the Bachelor of Paedagogic Degree

SECTION OF STUDY	ARTS	SCIENCE	COMMERCE	PRIMARY EDUCATION
	1. Education I 2. English I or Afrikaans I 3. } Three first year 4. } Courses from a list 5. } of approved subjects	1. Education I 2. } Three first year 3. } courses 4. } in Approved Science 5. } Subjects	1. Education I 2. Accounting I 3. Business Economics I 4. Economics I 5. English I or Afrikaans I or Practical English or Afrikaans Prakties	1. Education I 2. English I 3. Afrikaans I or Afrikaans Prakties 4. } Two first year courses 5. } in approved school subjects
	1. Education II 2. } Two second year courses 3. } in school subjects chosen 4. } in the 1st year 5. Teaching Practice I	1. Education II 2. A second course in one science subject chosen above 3. A first year course in an approved science subject	1. Education II 2. Accounting II 3. Business Economics II 4. Economics II 5. Teaching Practice I	1. Education II 2. } 2 second courses 3. } in 2 subjects taken in the 1st year 4. Teaching Practice I
	1. } Two third year courses 2. } in school subjects chosen 3. } in the 1st year 4. Teaching Practice II	1. Third year course in school subject chosen in 1st year 2. A second or first year course in an approved subject 3. Teaching Practice II	1. Third year course in 2, 3 or 4 above 2. Third year course in 2, 3 or 4 above 3. One of Com.Law I, Stats.I, Ind. Psych. I or Maths I 4. Teaching Practice II	1. } Third year course in 2. } the 2 subjects taken in the 2nd year 3. Teaching Practice II
	1. Education III 2. } Special Method in two 3. } school subjects taken in the 3rd year 4. Teaching Practice III 5. English Usage 6. Afrikaans Usage	1. Education III 2. } Special Methods of 3. } 2 subjects related to the curriculum followed 4. Teaching Practice III 5. English Usage 6. Afrikaans Usage	1. Education III 2. } Special Method in 3. } 2 subjects taken in the 3rd year 4. Teaching Practice III 5. English Usage 6. Afrikaans Usage	1. Education III 2. Principles of Remedial Educ. + School Guidance 3. Special Methods of teaching in Senior Primary Classes, Special Methods of teaching in Junior Primary Classes 4. English Usage in Primary School 5. Afrikaans Usage in Primary School 6. Teaching Practice III

- iii. curriculum or professional courses intended to enable the student to teach a range of subjects within his chosen field of specialisation; and
- iv. teaching practice.

It should be noted that some of the points raised about the balance of studies in respect of college courses in Chapter Seven of this study also apply to the concurrent degree courses. However, additional arguments in keeping with the depth of the degree course are advanced.

2.2.1 The Main Subject or Subjects

For most students coming straight from school, a deeper level of understanding seems to be reached by continuing at least one of the subjects that has been taken in the secondary school, or one for which they have already developed some taste or talent. The inclusion of one or more main subjects in the curriculum also stems very largely from a desire to give intellectual and academic weight to the teachers' certificate. The main subjects have come to be recognised as the academic side of the teacher's education, whilst the remaining courses are seen as his professional training. An objective study of a field of knowledge pursued in depth for its own sake has traditionally been a fundamental principle in higher education. It follows from the premise that the understanding of a body of theoretical knowledge which imparts something of the principles - scope, methods and assumptions of that body of knowledge - contributes in large measure to the student's personal development⁽²²⁾.

Academic study implies the acquisition of a form of knowledge or a discipline with its own method of enquiry and system of thinking. Each discipline is organised around an elaborate system of interlocking principles, concepts and definitions. These systems direct the questions asked, the kinds of answers sought and the methods by which they are sought. In fact, a form of knowledge is recognised by the type of question it asks, the kind of answer it requires and the kind of procedure which is employed in assessing the answers⁽²³⁾.

Academic study involves much more than the mere acquisition and reproduction of a body of facts, for its main purpose is to enable the student to get 'inside' and be committed to a particular discipline in the hope that he will eventually master the appropriate procedures, understand the distinctive nature of the activity and see how it interacts with other forms of thought⁽²⁴⁾. This means that the student should be able to recognise the concept central to the discipline as well as to see the way in which these concepts are related to each other, in order to make a meaningful, logical structure. Finally, he should learn to handle the procedural skills necessary for knowing how to test the truth of statements within the discipline⁽²⁵⁾.

An assumption increasingly challenged of late, is that the academic study of one or more main subjects is necessary for the personal development of a teacher. It has been argued that the same ends can be achieved through the study of disciplines relevant to education. It is not the contention of this discussion that these cannot provide the stimulus usually

attributed to the academic subjects. Indeed it is one of the arguments presented here that the distinction in studies pursued should not lie between education and subject disciplines, but between the practice or task-linked part of the curriculum, and those studies which back it up and concentrate not on the task but on the fields of human learning. It should be emphasised that there should be no dichotomy between the academic and the professional aspects of the course. Nevertheless, it is essential that the student should have a thorough understanding of the subject or subject area and has the theoretical and methodological expertise to enable him to teach children of different ages, ability and backgrounds ⁽²⁶⁾ .

An examination of the B. Paed. Primary teachers' curriculum reveals that in the main academic area of study there is hardly any difference between the requirements for this course and the B. Paed.- Arts course. The latter course is intended to prepare teachers to teach one or two subjects in the senior secondary phase while the former is intended for the senior primary phase where one teacher should be largely responsible for most of the activities of a particular class.

It is suggested that the structure of the B. Paed.- Primary course should be influenced partly by the distinctive nature of this phase. If a teacher is expected to have a specialist's understanding of young children, together with expertise in how to teach basic skills and a wide range of subjects, the curriculum must reflect these professional and academic demands ⁽²⁷⁾ .
As far as possible the students preparing for this phase should

be exposed to the content and methodology of most of the subjects likely to be encountered in school. It is becoming clear from the above argument that a broader academic background is relevant and that an in depth study of one or two subjects may not adequately equip the teacher in this phase.

Teachers of young children ought to have a liberal education in the main areas of the primary curriculum - science, mathematics, English, social studies and one of the arts instead of doing a main subject, together with a thorough knowledge of how to teach these subjects at the appropriate level⁽²⁸⁾. It should be noted that similar arguments were advanced in respect of the college course for the senior primary teachers. The other B. Paed. degree courses i.e. Arts, Commerce, Science and Music attempt to prepare specialist teachers in one or two subjects. Naturally, the programme for the secondary school teachers should provide depth of content and methods of teaching in a specific subject. The basic structure of a programme for these students could comprise one core (or main) subject supported by two or three related contextual subjects, which would be designed to set the different disciplines, in their cognitive frame and to draw out conceptual relationships⁽²⁹⁾.

The academic subjects prescribed for the B. Paed. degrees do seem to satisfy these requirements. For example, the B. Paed. Commerce direction requires that students in the first two years take accounting, business economics and economics. In their third year of study they have to major in any two of these subjects.

2.2.2 Professional Courses

Professional courses contain two distinct elements : there is that aspect of the course which is concerned with the disciplines basic to the study of education; and the one concerned with pedagogic methods.

Teacher education is carried out within the space of four academic years between a student leaving secondary school and presenting himself as a qualified teacher. The general requirement, particularly for intending secondary school teachers is that some two-thirds to three-quarters of this time should be devoted to academic education⁽³⁰⁾. In spite of this severe restriction, the range of studies the education institutions are expected to include within their professional courses, has been enlarged considerably. It is advocated that within the time available students should be required to study educational psychology, sociology, philosophy, the history and administration of education and comparative education. Recently strong claims have been made for the inclusion of economics of education and educational technology. Even if it were possible for the time assigned to academic courses to be somewhat reduced and even if the total period available for initial training could be extended, we would still have to face the fact that professional courses at present are overburdened⁽³¹⁾.

The point to be stressed is that intending teachers cannot be expected to make a complete study of education during the course of their pre-service training. In terms of both the breadth and depth of such study it must be conceived as an extended process,

involving advanced courses, in-service courses, and perhaps participation in research⁽³²⁾. This is a point the James Report also stresses. In its proposed second cycle (pre-service training) it asserts that, "Unreasonable ambition in planning is the greatest enemy of effective initial training. There are many components of teacher training which should be firmly excluded from the second cycle, in the sense that no attempt should be made at this stage to equip students to practise all the skills they will need throughout their careers The second cycle should concentrate on preparation for work appropriate to a teacher at the beginning of his career rather than on formal courses in 'educational theory'"⁽³³⁾. Whilst not denying the importance of the intellectual content of educational studies and the conceptual framework within which the student might integrate his learning and experience, the Report states that the "argument should be about balance and timing rather than about rigidly exclusive alternatives"⁽³⁴⁾. The Report does not advocate the exclusion of educational studies from the initial teachers' course, "but only that their role should be seen as contributory to effective teaching"⁽³⁵⁾. The Report, whilst recognising the great value of the educational studies, suggests that these be encouraged in the third cycle (in-service stage). It doubts the effectiveness of such studies in the initial teacher preparation stage. "It must be doubted, however, whether such studies especially if presented through the medium of lectures to large groups of perplexed students are, in terms of priorities, a useful major element in initial training. A rudimentary introduction is all that can realistically be attempted at this stage For most students, reflection

is more likely to be illuminating after, not before, the experience of teaching and this is why it would be better in any case for the bulk of such studies to be deferred from the second cycle to the third cycle"⁽³⁶⁾. No doubt the observations made in the James Report have great merit. However, it would appear that the Report evidently viewed educational studies to be mainly practical and closely related to classroom problems, hence the recommendation that these studies be deferred to the third cycle which is the in-service stage. The point is, could teachers in service be expected, as a requirement of their training, to carry out advanced in-depth study of their educational studies during one school term in every seven years of service? Should not the in-service training and the recommended professional centres be seen as provision for the professional development of the teachers rather than provision for acquiring in-depth study of education and its part disciplines?

The arguments posed in this discussion seem to indicate that, whilst it is agreed that in the initial teachers' course it is not always possible to make a complete and in-depth study of education, its deferment to the in-service stage, as suggested by the James Report, may not provide the young teacher with the necessary theoretical background so necessary to make pedagogical judgements. Professional competence requires the capacity and skills to judge and act effectively in a practical situation in the classroom. A rudimentary introduction of educational studies in the initial teacher education programme as suggested by the James Report is unlikely to equip the young teacher with a sound theoretical background so necessary in teaching. One

possible solution to the problem of educational studies in the initial preparation of teachers that merits some consideration, is to defer certain aspects of the part-disciplines of education. For example, if it were agreed that the study of educational sociology and comparative education could, without any disadvantage, be deferred but that psychology and philosophy are relevant to the immediate needs of the young teacher, the deferred part disciplines could be left to the in-service stage.

The professional component of the B. Paed. degree course includes philosophy of education, sociology of education, empirical education, history of education and administration of education and methods of teaching divided into general methods and specific methods of two school subjects which the student takes up to the third year level. It will be noticed from Table 2, that education, with its part disciplines mentioned above, is offered in the first, second and fourth year of study. It is not offered in the third year presumably because in the third year students offer their two school subject "majors" and if they were to offer education as well in that year, a heavy burden would be placed on them. Moreover, this arrangement seems to work out well because in the fourth year, all B. Paed. students concentrate only on their professional training in the Faculty of Education.

It will be noticed from Table 2 that special methods in the two school subjects are offered only in the fourth year. This appears to be a satisfactory arrangement as students at this stage would have completed the study of the two school subjects for specialisation.

Like all initial teachers' courses, the B. Paed.degree courses attempt to achieve too much in too short a time, and a sharper focus needs to be placed on curricular priorities during this period. It was noticed elsewhere in this study that there is growing evidence to support the view that much of the theoretical knowledge selected for initial training needs to be directly related to those practical experiences likely to be encountered by teachers in the first few years of their professional work. Renshaw maintains that many of the theoretical insights presented to young students are too abstract and divorced from the realities of teaching. "There is no doubt that some theorists resort to an empty verbalism which has little reference to practical action and to the solution of significant educational problems"⁽³⁷⁾. The B. Paed.course seems to place too much emphasis on educational theory at the expense of adequate preparation for the students' responsibilities in their professional assignments. Serious consideration should be given to curricular priorities. For example such part-disciplines of education as comparative education, and history of education could be left out of the course. Another weakness of the present course structure is the absence of optional study. As an alternative to the dropping of the part-disciplines suggested above, students could be allowed the option of choosing one of the part-disciplines.

Another area that needs consideration is the levels of knowledge required in initial teacher education. Is it necessary for initial teacher education students to study education in depth and breadth as at present? Does not this requirement imply that

the initial B. Paed. course is designed to produce a young teacher as a finished product? It may be argued that in any Bachelor's degree, students have to "major" in two or more subjects, generally, over three years of study, and therefore the B. Paed. students have to offer education as a major subject. It needs to be pointed out that apart from education "major" with all its part-disciplines, the B. Paed. students have to offer two school subjects as "majors". This is a heavy burden on the students. One possible solution to this problem could be to revise the syllabuses in the educational disciplines with a view to providing the students with such depth and breadth of knowledge that will be directly relevant to their first year of teaching. In this regard Renshaw offers a suggestion in what he calls a "middle range-theory". He states that during initial training, emphasis should be given to a middle-range theory of instruction designed to help students establish confidence and technical competence in the classroom⁽³⁸⁾.

The middle-range theory should not be confused with the recommendations contained in the James Report for a rudimentary study of education as "contributory to effective teaching". But this middle-range area of theory needs to be underpinned by that body of higher order theory which constitutes the fundamental core of professional knowledge for teachers. If the skills and insights developed by the students are not supported by a sound theoretical frame of reference, their teaching will soon slip into a series of routine performance⁽³⁹⁾. Thus during initial teacher education, the student needs to be initiated into the logical, psychological and sociological principles underlying learning and teaching. He needs to understand the

conceptual and practical relationships between the theory, different areas of the curriculum, and practice, because it is the awareness of concepts, structures and validation procedures, together with the ability to grasp interconnections, which lies at the heart of professional knowledge for teaching⁽⁴⁰⁾. Nevertheless, it must be recognised that the higher-order theory can be studied at many different levels, and that during initial training students cannot be expected to master this rapidly expanding body of esoteric knowledge. "They need to be sensitized to the language and methods of inquiry of the different disciplines gradually throughout their whole course, thus laying sound foundations for more systematic study later. This demands skilful imaginative teaching conducted in a context that is meaningful to the students"⁽⁴¹⁾. It is not clear as to what Renshaw means by "more systematic study later". Presumably he is suggesting that in-depth study of education could be embarked upon during in-service period.

The difference between the James Report recommendations and Renshaw's suggestion in this regard is: the James Report considers that the initial training period should focus largely on a rudimentary introduction to educational theory and that the initial training should be "unashamedly specialised and functional"⁽⁴²⁾. Renshaw, on the other hand asserts that a sound theoretical frame of reference is necessary for students to develop skills and insights, but the study in depth of educational disciplines should be studied more systematically, later.

The deferment of in-depth study of educational theory pre-supposes well organised and structured in-service education and training facilities. Therefore any review of the education syllabus is only possible if and when teacher education is seen as a continuum with pre-service and in-service complementing each other. Once again the need for a well-structured in-service training in Indian education cannot be overstressed.

2.2.3 Educational Methodology

The general observations made in the examination of the UHDE course in respect of educational methodology also apply to the B. Paed. course. However, in view of the very great importance of methodology in the concurrent teachers' course further elaboration is necessary. It has been argued that the degree in education should be structured with the aim of achieving a synthesis of the academic elements and the professional elements of the course. Similarly, knowledge of content of subjects to be taught either in the primary or secondary schools is also regarded as essential. General methods or didactics could be regarded as the synthesising agent in bridging the gap between theory and practice. The B. Paed. course offers ample opportunities for studying general methodology grounded firmly on sound principles in view of the concurrent nature of the course. "Students should become familiar, for example, with the scientific method, not the method of teaching science. They should become acquainted with whatever should be equally relevant to the teaching of mathematics as of English"⁽⁴³⁾.

For the B. Paed.degree the didactics or general methods course is offered in the first, second and fourth years as one of the part-disciplines of education. Unlike the UHDE course where didactics of necessity is crowded into one academic year, the B. Paed.course allows general methods to be spread over three years. Therefore students taking the latter course could be expected to get greater insight into the methods course than the UHDE students. The importance of educational technology in relation to the general methodology has been dealt with already elsewhere in this section. Educational technology must not be viewed as mere audio-visual instruction as it appears in the B. Paed.didactics syllabus. Moreover, audio-visual education in the B. Paed. course appears to be dispensed with in the first year. This seems to take a narrow view of educational technology. In fact, educational technology should pervade the entire didactics course.

2.2.4 Practical Teaching

Practical teaching in the B. Paed.course commences in the second year of study and continues in the third and fourth years. Students spend 2 weeks in the second year, 2 weeks in the third year and 6 weeks in the fourth year. In all 10 weeks are devoted to teaching practice. As teaching practice forms the core element in the initial education of teachers, it needs to be asked whether 10 weeks in a four-year B. Paed.course is sufficient? It is suggested that the time allocated to block-teaching in the second and third years be extended to at least four weeks and in the fourth year it be extended to eight weeks.

In Chapter Nine of this study, current trends in teaching practice will be examined with a view to suggesting possible reforms to this important component of teacher education.

3. Conclusion

In this Chapter the main focus of examination was the consecutive pattern represented by the post-graduate UHDE course and the concurrent pattern represented by the integrated B. Paed.degree course. The main argument in respect of the traditional "tacked on" UHDE course is that the professional and academic components are distanced in time and place and it is not viewed within a broad professional frame of reference. By and large its traditional curriculum comprises method courses, educational theory and teaching practice, but can a one-year professional training be considered an adequate preparation for a profession as complex as teaching? It has been central to this Chapter that the logical and psychological aspects of learning and teaching a subject be the basis of teacher education curriculum. Therefore a graduate teacher must study relevant areas of educational theory before he can grasp the relationships between his knowledge, his subject and educational practice. It would seem that if the post-graduate course is to continue, it should be extended to two years of professional education, including at least two terms of school experience. Much of the second year could serve as school-based training so that the relevance of theory to practice could be fostered.

The concurrent B. Paed.degree course appears to have several advantages. First, it allows academic and professional study to be closely inter-related, thereby placing the entire course within a professional frame of

reference. It also enables educational practice to be an integral feature of the whole course with the result that a longer period may be spent in schools than with the UHDE course. Moreover, it allows for important links to be formed in a number of distinct ways, for example between different faculties; between the university and schools and most important of all, between theory and practice.

Several suggestions have been made in the course of this discussion for the improvement of the B. Paed. course. These could be summarised as follows:-

- (a) The course requirement that students have to study all the part-disciplines of education should be reviewed with a view to allowing students the option of taking either comparative education or history of education;
- (b) Educational technology should be regarded as an integral part of didactics or general methods and must not be seen as mere audio-visual aids. Naturally, the use of present day audio-visual technology in a special teaching methods course cannot be overstressed. It is necessary, that students be aware of developing trends in audio-visual education with particular reference to the subject area or areas within which they will operate.
- (c) Serious consideration should be given to extending the practical teaching experience of students to four weeks in the second and third years and eight weeks in the fourth year;
- (d) The need for a closer relationship between educational theory, academic subjects and practice cannot be over-stressed. The main

principle underlying this need is that all academic study should be viewed within the professional reference and the various components should not be fragmented into a number of relatively isolated parts; and

- (e) Any initial course, whether of a concurrent or consecutive pattern, should not attempt to prepare a teacher once and for all. This will obviate the present tendency to overburden the initial teachers' courses. The need to view teacher education as a continuum involving pre-service and in-service education and training is urgent and demanding.

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CHAPTER NINE

CHANGING PATTERNS IN INDIAN TEACHER EDUCATION

1. Introduction

At the present time the character of teacher education institutions, their place in the educational system and their administration are highly topical and are receiving attention in most countries. It is being realised that teacher education reform is vital to educational progress. The most progressive tendency to date has been toward the reconstruction of teacher education institutions with new relations developing between colleges of education and universities.

The purpose of this Chapter is to examine the status of two contemporary issues in teacher education. The issues to be examined briefly are:-

- (i) structural changes in teacher education; and
- (ii) curricular and methodological changes.

2. Structural Changes

A central problem of institutional systems of teacher education has been the relation between the preparation of teachers for primary and for secondary schools. The present situation in this respect is still marked by the historical dichotomy of the two different institutions which prepare teachers. Traditionally secondary school teachers were trained by the universities and teachers for the primary school by colleges of education.

The preparation of secondary school teachers which was largely done at universities has undergone little change in principle for a long time. It was noted in Chapter Eight of this study that the consecutive pattern of one-year professional training following on a Bachelor's degree has been the traditional university training of teachers for secondary schools. Only in recent years have some universities, as in South Africa, introduced the four year concurrent teacher education programme. On the other hand, the preparation of teachers for primary schools directly linked with the development of the educational system, has in certain instances been more dynamic. It is becoming urgent to regard teacher education as higher education and to give colleges of education the status of institutions of higher education. Colleges are part of tertiary education but are also linked with the school system. Colleges of education are also claiming greater autonomy for themselves. The movement to bring colleges of education and universities into closer co-operation in the preparation of teachers is gaining greater momentum in most countries including South Africa.

The following comparative study of a few selected countries manifesting different patterns of organisation with regard to teacher education could serve to illuminate some of the contemporary issues involved.

2.1 England and Wales

Prior to the McNair Report of 1944 the tradition in teacher education in England and Wales has been for a rigid separation between primary and secondary school teachers. The former were trained in colleges, either state or denominationally controlled, while the latter were university graduates who entered the grammar schools and for whom professional training was not a requirement.

In 1944 the McNair Report recommended the establishment of closer relationship between universities and their neighbouring training colleges. From this concept of an Area Training Organisation (ATO) has developed the English system of co-ordinating Institute of Education. The concept of Institute of Education is 'peculiarly English' because it contains within it as the major ingredient of success, the capacity for co-operation and compromise. It is not a teaching institution but rather a professional body existing under the wing of the university in which all concerned in teacher education, the university department of education, the colleges of education, the local education authorities and the Department of Education and Science are represented⁽¹⁾. The Institute scrutinises student applications for admission, approves courses, conducts professional examinations, recommends certification procedures to its university, organises in-service and vacation courses, provides information services for teachers and promotes educational research.

A further development arose from the Robbins Report of 1963 which recognised training colleges as part of the system of higher education. The Report stated that the colleges should "go forward in closer association with the universities not only on the academic side but also on the administrative side"⁽²⁾. To this end the Committee recommended that: "The Colleges in each university's Institute of Education and the University Department of Education should be formed into a School of Education"⁽³⁾.

The Committee's recommendation led to closer association between colleges and universities for the preparation of students for a new teaching degree, the Bachelor of Education, (B.Ed.), to be awarded

by the responsible university to carefully selected college of education students upon successful completion of a four-year course of study.

By 1968 all the twenty-one universities with Institutes (or schools) of Education had agreed to award the B.Ed. degrees. The number of candidates for the fourth year course remained small; not until 1972 did it reach 10% of the number of third year students. It had been envisaged that no more than 25% of students will be enrolled in such courses by the middle 1970's⁽⁴⁾.

The most recent development in teacher education in the U.K. has been influenced by the James Report of 1972. It offered a novel and ingenious, but extremely controversial, scheme of education and training consisting of three 'Cycles'. The Report recommended that "The education and training of teachers should be seen as falling into three consecutive stages or 'cycles': the first, personal education; the second, pre-service training and induction; the third, in-service education and training"⁽⁵⁾.

In its White Paper entitled: Education : A Framework for Expansion, the Government accepted Cycle 3 but rejected Cycle 2. It accepted Cycle 1 with the proviso that the award must be made generally acceptable as a terminal qualification. The most crucial viewpoint the Government made in respect of colleges of education was that: "Some colleges either singly or jointly should develop into major institutions of higher education concentrating on the arts and the human sciences, with particular reference to their application in teaching and other professions"⁽⁶⁾. The above viewpoint is not dissimilar to those made by the Robbins Committee which also

suggested that colleges should broaden their scope by providing courses, with a measure of common studies for entrants to various professions in the social service. On the question of closer association of colleges and universities (which was favoured by both the Robbins Committee and the James Committee), the Government, although not entirely against colleges of education amalgamating with the universities, encouraged colleges of education as institutions of higher education, to combine forces with neighbouring polytechnics or other colleges of further education. Moreover, it suggested that colleges should seek validation from the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) rather than from the universities.

In 1973, the Government made it clear that most colleges of education must find their future in the public sector of a precisely delimited binary system of education - a dual system dividing higher education into:

- (a) the autonomous sector comprising the universities; and
- (b) the public sector which incorporated polytechnics, colleges of education and other institutions of further education.

The polytechnics soon became major centres of higher education in the public sector and several colleges of education merged with the polytechnics.

The re-organisation of the colleges of education in Britain is taking place in the context of sharply falling birthrate projections and school populations. As in the rapid expansion of the early

1960's, demographic factors have played an important part in policy-making or at least the rationalisation of political decisions. Following the James Report, the White Paper, called for reduction in number of teachers in training and for re-organisation of the colleges of education. While it set a target of 510 000 teachers in schools by 1981, it proposed a cut in the number of initial training places from 114 000 (1971-72) to 60 - 70 000 initial plus 15 000 full-time equivalent in-service places in colleges. As a result some 30 colleges of education have been requested to give up initial teacher education, though as many as possible will be used for other educational purposes⁽⁷⁾.

With the re-organisation of the colleges of education, all institutions involved in teacher education outside the universities were brought under Further Education Regulations in 1975. The integration into further education of most of the colleges of education which are to continue with teacher education, and the subsequent integration of students within the mainstream of public sector higher education, have followed from these developments⁽⁸⁾. Thus, the teacher education system, traditionally organised in monotechnic institutions, is currently moving to a system where teacher education mostly takes place alongside other higher or further education institutions. This process of transition is being achieved by the integration of some colleges of education with other institutions, or the diversification of work done in others. However, two factors have emerged to influence the current changes in the institutional pattern of teacher education in Britain. They are the virtual collapse of the higher education expansion which was expected to absorb comfortably a substantial part of the teacher

education system and the growing economic crisis. Porter states that the strategy of the White Paper was inevitably linked to the assumption that applications for higher education would continue to grow. However, the link between the falling birth rate and the levelling-out of applications for higher education has seriously affected the potential for higher education diversification in the colleges. Thus, the colleges have been faced with a reduction in two fronts: an even more rapid decline than was expected of teacher training numbers, and now a much more uncertain future in relation to higher education⁽⁹⁾. The second factor is the economic crisis which has become increasingly dominant over the last few years. Underlying all discussions about institutional change is the nagging fear about the whole economy, and doubts about the country's economic viability. "Teacher training - because it is the only area in education to be fundamentally re-organized in the last two or three years - has been sucked into the economic crisis"⁽¹⁰⁾. This has resulted in severe cuts in expenditure on education. The economic pressure is also upon the universities, and higher education has difficulty in making its case against other apparently more urgent priorities⁽¹¹⁾.

2.2 The Union of Soviet Socialist Republic

The pattern of higher education in the Soviet Union is to concentrate on specialised professional training in specific institutions whereas the universities are concerned with the more generalised academic studies which can be classified as the humanities and the pure sciences. These institutes, as they are called are all concerned with tertiary level education, and are all involved in preparing

students for the diploma or first degrees. In the field of teacher education, students after completion of the secondary or the equivalent of middle school (ten years) proceed upon selection to a pedagogical institute, which prepares students specifically for teaching. These institutes are not associated with the universities; they stand apart from them, but their qualifications enjoy, in theory at least parity of esteem. This is possible in a highly centralised system in which rigid uniformity is enforced, and in which the state is the mainspring of training and employment. The pedagogical institutes are growing both in number and importance and come increasingly to resemble more closely in function the college of education of an American university. They are still, however, not university institutions in their own right. The teachers' training is acquired through the study of educational theory, the critical analysis, the students own experience and that of other teachers and through the constant improvement of his qualifications. The professional and didactics trend of specialisation at teacher training institutes is regarded as of fundamental importance. The purpose of these institutes of higher education is to train authentic biologists, physicists, historians and other scholars having a thorough knowledge of the fundamental principles and achievements of their respective branches of learning "desirous of inculcating the same qualities in the rising generation and able to use the most modern methods of teaching"⁽¹²⁾.

In the faculties of the larger institutes, there are departments of methodology which carry out educational research work in this field, co-ordinating it with the departments of educational theory and psychology and with other special departments. Moreover, these

institutes are closely linked with the all Union Academy of Pedagogical Services which is responsible for research into education and which therefore exercises great influence on courses and curricula as well as on training methods.

2.3 West Germany

Within the Federal German Republic, as in the United States of America, education is the responsibility of individual states or Länder. Thus teacher education varies somewhat in various parts of the Republic. In most of the Länder of West Germany, primary school teachers are trained at pädagogische Hochschulen (colleges of education). In some cases these institutions, as in Bremen, are autonomous. In others, as in North Rhine-Westphalia, they have been grouped to form university-equivalent institutions. In Bavaria and Hessen after a period of autonomy, they have been incorporated into the university system. There is yet another pattern in Hamburg where there has been a long and vigorous tradition of university preparation of teachers of all kinds, in which prospective elementary teachers are now enrolled as full members of the university attached to an institute⁽¹³⁾. Students heading for a career as grammar school (gymnasium) teachers must have studied for at least four years at the university or (for subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, geography, geology, etc.) at an institute of technology. There is then the usual final university examination to test their proficiency in their chosen academic field. Some universities (notably Hamburg) insist that during this time, intending teachers must serve short periods in different types of schools in order to make quite sure that they feel suited to teaching.

On completing his university studies proper, the candidate is then admitted to a two-year period of in-service training in appropriate secondary schools (usually one year in each of two schools) where he has to observe the instruction given by experienced teachers and do some carefully supervised teaching himself. In addition, he has to attend seminar sessions every week where the problems of practical teaching are related to educational theory and at which seminars he must present appropriate papers for discussion. The final examination consists of two trial lessons, the presentation of thesis, and (usually) an oral examination on his knowledge of educational theory in general and of the methods of instruction in his particular subjects. The successful candidate is then eligible for appointment on a provisional basis, being what is termed a Studienassessor. Usually, he has to wait several years before the authorities confer upon him the title of Studienrat which gives him recognition as a fully qualified teacher of civil service status (14)

From the foregoing it will be noted that West Germany accepts the need for teacher education to be conducted in a university environment and for upgrading her teacher education institutions to university status. An important principle which flows from this is the desire for equivalence of standards of training for both primary and secondary school teachers.

2.4 India

Constitutionally, education in India is the responsibility of the States and therefore it is highly decentralised. Each State department of education is free to set up its own standards and

requirements in respect of teacher education. Hence there is a great diversity in teachers' courses and curricula. Broadly speaking teacher education institutions in India may be categorised as follows⁽¹⁵⁾ :-

- (i) Training Schools for Elementary Teachers: These train teachers for primary schools. Co-education is almost non-existent in such institutions. Generally speaking the course lasts two years and the minimum qualification for entrance to these courses is matriculation;
- (ii) Training Colleges for Graduate Teachers: These provide teachers for middle, high and higher secondary schools. The majority of these colleges are co-educational. The duration of the course is one year. Degrees awarded are B.T. and B.Ed.;
- (iii) Training Colleges for Specialists: These prepare teachers in certain subjects like physical education, aesthetic education, home science, craft, languages, teaching of English and science; and
- (iv) Regional Colleges of Education. An important measure relating to the teacher education and especially to the diversified system of secondary education relates to the setting up of Regional Colleges of Education and their attached demonstration multipurpose schools at Ajmer, Bhubaneshwar, Mysore and Bhopal. The first three started in 1963, while Bhopal started in 1964. These colleges are designed to represent a new enterprise

in teacher education to train competent teachers and teacher educators in certain critical areas like science, technology, industrial crafts, commerce and agriculture, so that they can function in their selected subject fields, in any system of education like technical, commerce and agriculture schools, and not in multipurpose schools. Mainly, four types of programmes have been planned in the regional colleges. These programmes are: four-year bachelor's degree programmes in science, technology, commerce and agriculture and English; one-year training programmes in science, commerce, and agriculture; industrial crafts programmes of one, two and three year duration; and two-year master's degree programmes. The regional colleges also undertake a crash programme of training teachers to clear the backlog through correspondence-cum-summer schools, which may be regarded as sandwich courses.

2.4.1 The 1964 Education Commission on Teacher Education

In 1964 an Education Commission on Teacher Education suggested that in order to make the professional preparation of teachers effective, teacher education should be "brought" into the mainstream of the academic life of the universities⁽¹⁶⁾.

The Commission also suggested that schools of education be established in selected universities to develop programmes in teacher education and research in education in collaboration with other university disciplines and recognition of education

as an independent academic discipline and its introduction as an elective subject in the B.A., B.Sc. and M.Sc. degree courses⁽¹⁷⁾. To improve the professional training of teachers, the Commission suggested:-

- (a) the undertaking of well-planned subject orientation or content courses leading to insight into basic concepts, objectives and implications of subjects to be taught in collaboration with university departments;
- (b) the introduction of integrated courses of general and professional education in universities;
- (c) the vitalising of professional studies and basing them on Indian conditions through developing research;
- (d) the use of methods of study which leave greater scope for self-study and discussion and methods of evaluation which include continuous internal assessment of practical and sessional work besides practice teaching;
- (e) the improvement of practice-teaching and making it a comprehensive programme of intership; and
- (f) the revision of the curricula and programmes at all levels of teacher education in the light of the fundamental objectives of preparing teachers for their varied responsibilities in an evolving system of education.

The Commission also recommended the establishment of State Boards of Teacher Education in each State to be responsible for all functions related to teacher education at all levels.

2.4.2 National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT)

In 1961, an event of great significance in the field of teacher education was the establishment of the National Council of Education Research and Training. The Council set up a National Institute of Education as a national organisation to offer high level teacher education and to investigate the problems of education and suggest solutions for them. Its objectives, among others, are to examine, evaluate and co-ordinate the programmes of teacher education conducted by the State departments of education and the universities and to take such measures as will lead to an improvement in teacher education ⁽¹⁸⁾.

2.4.3 The National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE)

IN 1978 the National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE), of India, developed a framework of teacher education curriculum. This was a major step towards a national teacher education curriculum. In its restructured programme more emphasis was given to methodology and practice teaching by reducing the emphasis on pedagogical theory to 20% and increasing the emphasis on methodology to 60% ⁽¹⁹⁾.

2.4.4 University Involvement in Teacher Education

University Involvement in teacher education appears to be minimal in India. The universities so far have shown certain

indifference to professional teacher education⁽²⁰⁾. Shrimal asserts that "the universities have been critical of the standards and attainments of secondary education, but they have made little effort to assist training colleges in improving the quality of teachers upon whom alone the raising depends. Instead of making a grouse about the standards of education in our high schools, they could be making a constructive approach if they helped training colleges in improving the quality of teachers"⁽²¹⁾.

It would seem that with the establishment of such bodies as the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and the National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) greater efforts are being made to achieve co-ordination in teacher education in India.

3. Conclusions from the Comparative Study

The foregoing brief overview of aspects of institutional organisation in teacher education is no more than generalisation and "have the weakness of all generalisations in that they do not reveal all the details which become apparent only in an exhaustive study"⁽²²⁾. They do, however, show trends in organisational structures which could influence teacher education in South Africa. The brief overview reveals that:-

- (i) The broad organisational pattern varies from one in which there is a strong centralisation such as in the USSR, to one in which numerous institutions of diverse levels and

and standards offer courses without any effective national level of control such as in India. The former pattern enforces uniformity in courses and standards while in the latter there is great diversity. Both patterns present serious problems. In the first, uniformity and rigidity does not encourage autonomy and initiative in the development of courses and methods. On the other hand excessive diversity, especially where coupled, as in India, with a freedom from external scrutiny, has resulted in a considerable range of academic and professional standards. Although there is a central accrediting agency such as the NCERT, its influence does not appear to be as strong as the CNA.

- (ii) While there is general acceptance that teacher education is higher education or tertiary education, institutions responsible for it vary from institutions with a single professionalism to polytechnics offering a wide range of academic, professional and vocational courses. India is a good example of the latter, whereas the USSR affords an example of the former.
- (iii) The central problem of an institutional system of teacher education is the relation between the preparation of primary school and secondary school teachers. There is still the historical dichotomy of the two different institutions preparing teachers. In West Germany elementary teachers are trained in colleges of education. In some cases as in Bremen, these colleges are autonomous. In others as in North Rhine-Westphalia, they have been

grouped to form university - equivalent institutions. Hamburg steeped in tradition of university preparation of teachers of all kinds, allows prospective elementary teachers to be enrolled as full members of the university attached institute of education. In England and Wales structural changes in teacher education have surpassed all the other countries discussed in this study. There is regional co-operation through the Institutes of Education with closer association with colleges of education, polytechnics and universities. Colleges of education and the polytechnics as institutions of higher education are allowed to offer degree courses evaluated and accredited either by the universities or CNAA. In India university involvement in teacher education is minimal.

- (iv) The duration of courses for initial preparation of teachers varies from two years to five years.
- (v) Of the countries studied only the USSR has a national policy for teacher education which has two main purposes: first, to make certain that teachers are politically reliable; and second to make sure that they illustrate constantly through their relationship between general education and the communist-economic life of the country.
- (vi) India appears to place a very high premium on teacher education by giving it high priority in the educational reconstruction in the post independence era.

From the foregoing generalisations and conclusions, certain fundamental principles with regard to institutional organisation of teacher education in South Africa may be laid down.

In laying down these basic principles it is hoped that one day not too long in the future, there will be a co-ordinated system of teacher education for all the various race groups in South Africa.

The basic principles for consideration are:-

- (i) Teacher education should be a national concern in view of its importance to a country. In a pluralistic society such as South Africa separation of teacher education and for that matter any form of education on racial lines is economically wasteful.
- (ii) The Permanent Committee for Tertiary Education proposed by the de Lange Report affords an excellent opportunity for consultation and co-ordination in teacher education. This together with the proposed Teachers' Council must be allowed to play a major role in co-ordinating a national policy in teacher education in the Republic. Co-operating institutions should operate in partnership on the basis of equality. Co-ordination should aim at improving courses of training, as well as maintaining professional standards.
- (iii) Each teacher education institution should be allowed freedom to structure its own course content and curriculum. These should be subject to approval by the proposed central statutory certifying council which should act as the national accrediting body. Certificates and or diplomas

should be issued by this body and not by the respective executive education departments as suggested by the Government in its White Paper.

- (iv) Colleges of education as institutions of higher education should be accorded autonomous status if they are to function in close co-operation with universities in respect of teacher education. In passing it should be noted that the Government's White Paper on Education does not include colleges of education in the autonomous tertiary education group. This is evident in the section which deals with admission of students to autonomous tertiary educational institutions (paragraph 7.8) which states that during the 1983 Parliamentary session of Parliament, the Government adopted legislations allowing councils of autonomous institutions greater degree of autonomy in the admission to their institutions students of other population groups than for which the institutions were intended. In terms of this, universities and technikons have been admitting students of all race groups. There is no evidence of colleges of education being allowed to do so. Again in paragraph 4.10.5 of the White Paper (referring to the role of tertiary institution in teacher education) by inference it regards only universities and technikons as institutions at the tertiary level. This is hardly in keeping with the recent moves by a number of colleges of education in South Africa to work in close co-operation with universities through structures such as autonomous college councils and college senates.

There needs to be a greater clarity on this issue, otherwise it would give point to speculations that the Government wants to keep the colleges of education out of the sphere of tertiary education mainly to prevent students of the other race groups from seeking admission at White colleges of education where, in some cases student enrolment is only a fraction of their maximum enrolment.

- (v) The role of the technikons in the preparation of specialist teachers in the technical field cannot be over-stressed. The Government's White Paper on Education is in favour of the technikons training specialist teachers. There appears to be a great need for such teachers especially in Black and Coloured education, and the technikons could play a vital role in preparing and providing teachers for technical subjects to meet the growing demand.
- (vi) There is great merit in the de Lange recommendations for the establishment of a Permanent Committee for Tertiary Education comprising university education, technikon education and teacher education as a constituent body of the South African Council for Education (SACE). However, it is disappointing that the Government does not recognise teacher education as tertiary education. Hence its rejection of the de Lange proposal for the establishment of a Committee of Rectors of Teacher Education Institutions on lines similar to the Committee of University Principals and the Committee for Technikon Principals. The Government's proposal for the establishment of separate ethnic "own" affair committee of rectors is a retrograde step and is not in keeping with

developments in advanced countries where teacher education institutions are regarded as institutions of higher education. For proper co-ordination and co-operation in the field of teacher education in South Africa a national Committee of College Rectors could play a vital role in upgrading and improving teacher education among all sectors of the South African population.

4. Curricular and Methodological Changes

In many countries there has been growing realisation of both the central importance and complicated nature of teacher preparation. However, it is really over the last two decades that the quality of teacher training has been critically and widely scrutinized and important positive steps taken to improve it. Amid this activity two concepts have become generally accepted. The first is that preparing teachers involves very much more than a 'training' in techniques and procedures and that adequate preparation is commensurate in both quality and extent to that required for other professions. The general adoption of the term 'teacher education' indicates the marked shift from the limited concept of training to that of the development of individuals with the sensitivities, understanding and skills necessary for working creatively with children. A second important concept which has emerged is that change is central to all thinking about teacher education. Change has two important major implications for teacher education. Teacher education must change in response to changes in the nature and purposes of schooling. Besides reflecting such changes, teacher education must also promote changes in schools through the new attitudes, ideas and approaches it introduces to teachers. Teacher

education must reflect and stimulate change.

Especially in the United States, there has been considerable interest in attempts to improve initial teacher education by basing it on a rigorous 'scientific' model by using competency based approaches. This has been reinforced by the change in the general climate towards greater public participation and the demand for accountability in teacher education as well as in education at large. Above all there has been perennial criticism of the isolation of theoretical professional studies in psychology and education from practical teaching methods, and of the persistent failure to relate the theoretical notions presented at the training institutions to the classroom events. One response to such criticisms has been the shift in emphasis from academic disciplines toward classroom issues, accompanied by the development of alternative methods including microteaching and simulation.

Another area that is receiving great attention is teaching-practice. In the past, the willingness of schools to co-operate in teaching-practice arrangement has been taken for granted; schools have had little influence on the training courses for which their facilities were an integral part. Gradually signs are emerging which indicate that training institutions would like to develop a partnership with teaching practice schools. Thus, teachers are being asked to participate more in the assessment of student teachers. The important issue of the probationary year and induction of the young teacher is also a matter that is receiving urgent attention. In this section a few selected aspects of curricular and methodological changes will be considered.

4.1 Methodological Skills

Advocates of different instructional methods range from authoritative to non-directive methods of teaching. A student enrolled in a teacher training programme that favours the directive approach will learn skills such as lecturing, structuring student learning and rigid classroom organisation as the desired methods for effective teaching. Schools that favour a more permissive approach will emphasize skills to help pupils nurture their learning in a minimally structured classroom situation. During the peak of the Performance Based Teacher Education (PBTE) movement in the United States, one of the major catalogues of teaching skills provided a classification of classroom management skills according to such diverse approaches as authoritative, behaviour modification, cognitive, developmental, and non-directive⁽²³⁾.

Despite the unsolved issues of the preferred philosophical position or the ideal setting and circumstances for learning to occur, the practical matter of establishing appropriate skills and providing for their acquisition is a task for teacher training institutions to complete. The basis for decisions about training is a combination of theory, research findings and conventional wisdom. The rationale for teacher preparation includes the expectation that a teacher should possess:

- (a) general knowledge as provided in liberal arts studies;
- (b) specific knowledge of his major fields of study such as mathematics or history; and
- (c) pedagogical knowledge.

The conception of teacher preparation espoused here supports this

rationale and further states that in the pedagogical domain, teachers must acquire interpretative skills to be able to diagnose learning situations and performance skills to be able to act on the situations they have diagnosed. Interpretative ability is increased through the acquisition and use of concepts; performance skills are acquired through practising and perfecting the actions required to instruct effectively. This conception of teacher preparation calls for the establishment of a valid body of conceptual and performance knowledge. It also calls for procedures to enable the conceptual knowledge to be learned in a useful, applicable form, and for skill development that includes safe ways of developing skills without doing harm to pupils during the learning process⁽²⁴⁾.

4.1.1 The Performance (or Competency) Based Teacher Education

A concerted effort in recent times to establish the knowledge base for teacher preparation is found in the Performance (or sometimes Competency) Based Teacher Education (PBTE) movement. The major thrust of this movement occurred in the United States, but high interest and some activities can be found in other countries. The idea behind PBTE is deceptively simple. Before the advent of PBTE, the pre-service programme was primarily a traditional pattern of lectures, reading assignments, completion of projects, and discussion, capped by an assignment in a school as a student teacher. Upon completion of this programme and fulfilment of the requirements for an undergraduate degree, teachers were provisionally licensed to begin teaching. Initial certification was based on completion of courses and a bachelor's degree demanding little evidence of

the ability of the practitioner to perform in the classroom. The PBTE movement was "designed to convert teacher education courses from their verbal and vicarious learning to a performance approach"⁽²⁵⁾. Most conversions called for institutions to designate the objectives of their training programme and to establish learning experiences, often organized into individual learning units called modules, which the student would complete. Completion of the module typically required the student to actually 'do' something rather than merely read about it or discuss it. The modules set forth the task to be completed, the standard that represented satisfactory completion, and the conditions under which the student would perform the skill. These activities might include visiting classrooms to observe discussion techniques, studying the literature about how to create an atmosphere conducive to discussions, and learning about the terminology, language, and voice inflections that promote pupil participation. Eventually, the proof of the student's ability to lead discussions would be displayed in a real situation rather than by the completion of a written examination about conducting discussions. The 'real' situation might require a meeting with a group of pupils, perhaps 10 or 12, and to be assigned a topic on which he should initiate a discussion. Within a given period of time, perhaps five or ten minutes, the student would be expected to elicit comments from a certain percentage of the pupils, usually 70 or 80 per cent. The student who met the requirements for the module would receive credit for that task. After completing the prescribed number of modules, the performance of the student could be attested and recommendations for certification

would be issued from the training institution. Only the student's pedagogical training is performance-based in most instances. A few scattered attempts were made to incorporate PBTE into the non-pedagogical areas of teacher training but, for the most part, the liberal arts studies and specialized fields of study remained intact as traditionally taught⁽²⁶⁾.

The PBTE movement caused a flurry of activity to create lists of teacher competencies and prepare modules for their attainment, and research to establish their validity and reliability. The United States Office of Education provided funds to the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) to appoint a Commission on PBTE. The Commission sponsored the publication of 16 papers which explored the advantages and disadvantages of PBTE between 1971 and 1974. In the first paper, the implied characteristics of PBTE were listed as:-

- (i) instruction is individualised and personalised;
- (ii) learning is guided by feedback;
- (iii) the overall programme is systematic;
- (iv) emphasis is on exit, not on entrance requirements;
- (v) instruction is modularised; and
- (vi) the student is accountable for his performance⁽²⁷⁾.

In the fourth paper published by the AACTE the underlying assumptions and implications of PBTE were challenged. According to PBTE the teaching act is the sum of the performance into which it is analysed. Broudy asserts that this is a notoriously inadequate description of any human action let alone one so complex as teaching⁽²⁸⁾. Other criticisms challenged the

validity of the competencies selected, the standards established to judge their completion, the lack of unanimity as to the kinds of learning that teaching ought to achieve, and the methods of achieving them⁽²⁹⁾.

The PBTE approach also aroused opposition from educational philosophers who condemn it as too mechanistic. Opponents of this technique regard it as 'inhumane' and as 'dehumanising' the teacher education process. Competency-based programmes they maintain tend to use an industrial metaphor, referring to such things as input, products, performance skills, modules, feedback and so on. Humanistic educators are repelled by such language and the concept of the educational process it suggests. They see education as the growth and development of a person through experience, the outcomes of which cannot be determined. Thus they reject both the specification of goals as an initial step in the learning process, and planning the introduction of activities and assessment related to the achievement of these goals. Humanistic teacher education emphasises personal development rather than learning how to teach; personal attitudes, beliefs and understanding rather than teaching behaviours. In particular, the humanistic educator sees the use of the computer in some PBTE programmes as dehumanising, and the use of the videotape recorder as threatening⁽³⁰⁾. However, PBTE continued to develop as a popular topic and the notion of holding experienced or newly qualified teachers accountable for their performances had high appeal to state legislatures and state boards of education. This interest led to some state mandates that future teacher education programmes

should become performance-based and that state approval of programmes would depend on their conversion to PBTE⁽³¹⁾.

The AACTE Commission felt compelled to issue a statement of caution in its 16th monograph in 1974: "Because the present level of knowledge about performance-based teacher education is limited, states are advised to avoid legislation which prescribes or proscribes PBTE. State education agencies are encouraged to maintain a flexible and open position regarding performance-based education and performance-based teacher certification until sufficient knowledge about PBTE has been generated through experience and research"⁽³²⁾.

The PBTE movement brought into sharp focus the realisation that the body of knowledge on which teacher education and training is based contains controversial and subjective elements. It became clear that teacher education programmes need to be based on research findings. The PBTE method is not necessarily deficient. It simply does not include the substantial validating evidence desired to proceed confidently with 'the' training programme that will promote teacher effectiveness. Skill training for teachers entails far more than the procedures in the programme. Moreover, the PBTE programme while emphasising the development of skills, tends to neglect the growth and development of the teacher as a person through experience, the outcomes of which cannot be quantitatively determined. In so complex a profession as teaching, the science of teaching cannot be reduced to the sum of performances into which it is analysed.

The dominant movement in teacher education in the United States during the last two decades has been the PBTE. In spite of the criticisms of this model, it has improved teacher education through the kinds of behavioural, pedagogical, and philosophical analysis that are the essence of PBTE.

4.1.2 Narrowing the Gap Between Theory and Practice

Perhaps one of the main criticisms of initial teacher education programmes encountered in this study and elsewhere is the problem of integration of theory and practice. Teacher education has frequently been criticised for exhibiting a dichotomy between theory and practice. In the general sense, teacher education itself has been charged with being insufficiently related to the needs of society and its schools. Within programmes, theoretical learnings are insufficiently informed by theory. Often too, theory is emphasised at the expense of practice and sometimes the reverse is the case. Many teacher educators believe that the establishment of a balanced and close relationship between theory and practice is crucial if teacher education is to have maximum meaning and relevance for students.

Concern for the integration of the theoretical elements of teacher education has taken many forms. First, programme designers have tried to develop comprehensive and coherent teacher education curricula which are carefully articulated with specific objectives. This, as noted, has been the feature

of the PBTE movement in the United States. Second, efforts have been made to link up relationships between the two main components of teacher education, general academic studies and professional studies. One result has been the introduction of course structures in which academic and professional courses run concurrently from the early stage of the programme thus facilitating both incidental and planned exposure to theory and practice. Another outcome has been the study of certain academic disciplines within a professional frame of reference which would include an examination of the nature of the discipline; the place of the subject in education; the psychological aspects of learning the subject; the sociological dimension of teaching the subject; and subject matter for schools and teaching method. Probably the question which has received most attention is that of integrating the strictly educational theory and practice within the professional area of teacher education, which typically comprises studies in the foundations of education (psychology, philosophy and sociology), courses in curriculum and instruction, and experience in the practice of teaching.

The issue of relating educational theory and practice within the professional area of teacher preparation has prompted the planning and implementation of a number of schemes, examples of which are:-

(a) Co-ordinated Course

A fairly widespread endeavour in the United States and Canada seems to have been to co-ordinate course learnings

between the theoretical study of education, curriculum and instruction courses and/or practice teaching experiences. For example, as early as 1966 in Ontario, Canada, the Minister's Committee on the Training of Elementary School Teachers suggested that, "Working closely together in the presentation of educational theory and demonstration of teaching procedures, theory could emphasise the relationship and integration of educational aims, psychological principles, course content, and instructional procedures" (33).

Many programmes have adopted such co-ordinated approaches and have complemented them with carefully developed sequences of practical experience designed to help further the integration of theory and practice and to phase the student gradually into full teaching responsibilities. These experiences include: child and school studies, microteaching, an increased participation in the task of teaching. Some of these will be discussed later in this Chapter.

(b) Situational Teaching

It is generally asserted that to prepare teachers adequately to apply theoretical learning in the classroom, the conventional procedure of preaching theory and then providing opportunities for students to apply it should be changed. Instead, real or simulated teaching situations should be the focus and principles drawn from research and theory in such fields as pedagogy, psychology

and sociology should be introduced as needed to explain the situations. In this way students will need to make decisions when they are teaching. Theoretical knowledge will be used to interpret on-going situations, and not teaching situations used to illustrate theory. This idea has influenced considerably the development and use of materials in teacher education in which model teaching behaviours or simulations have done much to bring new vitality and meaning to the consideration of theoretical knowledge in teacher preparation.

(c) New Relationships with Schools

There are moves to foster closer and more productive relationships with schools to facilitate the integration of educational theory and practice. These relationships could lead to opportunities to:

- (i) provide experiences to student teachers to develop skills and professional attitudes to teaching and school government;
- (ii) test and try out new techniques and new teaching materials;
- (iii) provide feedback to improve theory and practice;
- (iv) provide facilities to the staff of the teaching institutions and to student teachers to try new programmes and practices⁽³⁴⁾.

4.1.3 Microteaching

One of the major developments which focus on the two major aspects of training cited earlier, namely conceptual training to improve the teacher's ability to diagnose classroom events and skill development to improve teacher performance, is microteaching.

Microteaching is a procedure in which a student practises teaching with a reduced number of pupils in a reduced period of time with emphasis on a narrow and specific teaching skill. In a microteaching approach, the student practises a specific skill by teaching a group of four or five students in a lesson they may require no more than three or four minutes. During the shortened lesson, a supervisor observes the lesson, and ideally, a video-recording is also made of the lesson. After the lesson has been completed, the student and supervisor discuss the lesson and observe the video-recording to study the teaching behaviour and criticize the lesson. As a consequence of this discussion, the student can identify ways to improve his performance. After analysing the performance, the lesson can be taught again with different students. The microteaching approach offers an opportunity for immediate reteaching of the lesson to practise the improvements that had been identified during the discussion with the supervisor.

Microteaching provides a 'safe' practice opportunity. In teaching, it is not uncommon for much of the development of skills to occur at the expense of the pupils who are taught by an inexperienced teacher. Most professions have their

safe practice procedures to allow students to become proficient before working with their clients. The medical student has a cadaver and law students have their mock trials. But teachers often make the transition from the verbal learning in the college classroom to student teaching and/or actual teaching without a transition phase that protects the pupils and is realistic. Microteaching offers help in this direction because the pupils are exposed to an inexperienced teacher for a limited time and the application of specific skills is controlled and supervised⁽³⁵⁾. Brown asserts that the rationale underlying microteaching is still a mixture of research and conjecture. But one can point out two related areas where there are clear advantages namely:-

Training in teaching skills; and

as a research tool in teacher training⁽³⁶⁾.

It appears to have several potential advantages over conventional training: it provides a learning environment less complex than the classroom, and therefore one in which the trainee has greater opportunity to practise skills; it offers him an opportunity to concentrate on his own learning rather than on coping with the needs and demands of his pupils; it allows him to analyse his own practice systematically and to make his own evaluations of it; and it allows repeated practice until a particular skill has been fully mastered.

motivated in-service teachers can effectively conduct their own microteaching programme using specially prepared manuals, handbooks and appraisal forms. The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) London, has produced several package material such as 'Effective Questioning', a 'Co-ordinator's Guide' and an 'Education Manual and a Teacher's Handbook for Self Instructional Programme'. These packages are based upon significant and highly promising research data and should provide a valuable tool for future in-service teacher education programmes especially in the developing countries of Asia and Africa. The other problem relates to microteaching itself. It has to be appreciated that its essence is its focus upon specific skills, its gradual and systematic approach to the complex activity of classroom teaching and the immediacy, relevance and reliance of its feedback devices.

There are obvious advantages of microteaching. These advantages include the fact that microteaching helps to:-

- identify categories in which additional research is needed;
- improve methods of criticizing student performance;
- determine the length of training time required to master certain skills;
- improve ways of analysing pupil learning; and
- make distinctions between general teaching skills, specific teaching skills, and teaching styles and their impact.

Microteaching does not replace the existing and important

traditional elements in the teacher training programmes. Microteaching does afford an approach that enables students to practise techniques of teaching under controlled conditions. There are still several issues to explore. Notably, the precise transfer of skills developed in microteaching to the classroom, the development of more refined observation instruments and skill training programmes and, last but not least, ways of improving the supervisor's contribution to the training of student teachers are areas that need further research.

4.1.4 Teaching Practice

It was stated above that the microteaching technique in initial preparation of teachers fosters specific skills under controlled conditions. It does not replace the existing important and traditional elements such as teaching practice in the teacher training programme. Practical work in schools has always formed a significant element in the initial preparation of teachers. The James Report found that "many students are vehement in asserting that teaching practice is one of the most valuable and one of the worst conducted parts of their training"⁽³⁷⁾. In 1974 the Report of the Working Party on Teaching Practice - University of Exeter, commented on the current position as follows:-

"Even a routine reference to the extremer views circulating today as to the duration, value and even desirability of teaching practice reveals contentions on the one hand that virtually the

whole professional training should be embodied in this activity and on the other the no less strongly argued views that the present conception and rationale of teaching practice are misconceived and lead to the perpetuation of outdated methods tending to restrict development and stifle innovation." (38)

It is in the field of teaching practice that trends are observable which are common to almost every developed country. There has been a general recognition of the need for a planned and structured relationship between schools and the training institutions in the field of teaching practice. The lack of such a close and planned relationship was one of the most frequent complaints of the early 1970's. During the 1970's there was a movement in North America, Australia and Europe to make the practical work carried out in schools build upon and reinforce more strongly the theoretical work of the training institutions (39).

In Britain, the Sneddon Report of 1978 recommended a "more structured relationship between schools and colleges as well as a clearer definition of their individual and joint responsibilities in the training and induction of teachers" (40). The Report recommended the appointment of regents in every school to supervise the teaching practice of students as well as oversee the requirements of probationers. In Britain, the teacher-tutor system has aroused wide LEA interest. This has usually involved the appointment of a specific person within the staff of the

school to take responsibility for the general oversight of the student's practice and to ensure that the implementation of a programme planned jointly with the college and university.

An example of the new approaches is provided by Jordanhill, the largest college of education in Britain, where the one year course for students qualifying for secondary school teaching has been reorganised to provide both more sustained contact with particular schools and closer relationships between professional studies (educational theory and psychology), methods, work and practice. The latter comes partly through a 'co-ordinated day' each week in college, with three major topics (discipline, assessment and social education) providing the focus of study, and partly through arrangements whereby the school 'regents' conduct seminars relating these topics to features of the teaching practice experience. Thus it is planned that the theoretical and practical work reinforce each other.

The general trend, however, is toward some reduction in the theoretical part of initial training, because it has been criticised so much and partly because it is felt that some of it can be provided more relevantly at a later in-service stage. As a consequence, the periods of teaching practice are tending to become longer, with students being assessed less on their ability to teach a single lesson in front of the college tutor, and more on their effectiveness in carrying out a programme with a class which is sustained over a number of weeks, or even a term or semester.

An experiment of high interest aimed jointly at developing a reserve of professional tutors and preparing to meet the problems of the induction year (formerly known as the probationary year), has recently been launched in Jersey, the LEA co-operating with St. Lukes College. From a group of teachers willing to undertake tutorship, five were nominated, two for secondary schools and three for primary schools. The teacher-tutors reported that they had gained insight into students' problems. They become conscious of the sensitive area associated with assessment, and agreed that expertise in this respect can only grow with experience. Their own growth in understanding, with its consequent development in their attitude towards probationers, realised a main objective of the experiment. Correspondingly, each student on teaching practice gained considerably from having available for advice and support a teacher-tutor so knowledgeable about the school pupils, the available resources and the local environment⁽⁴¹⁾.

In the United States for example the Arizona State Department of Education requires students seeking a degree in education to have completed a maximum of 16 semester hours of school-based teaching experience before being certified as a teacher. The State Department appoints Student Teacher Sponsor in co-operating schools. Each student teacher is under the direction of a College Supervisor (from the University). The latter is the individual who is assigned to work with the student and the Student Teacher Sponsor as the liaison person between the University and the school to which the student is assigned.

Briefly stated the function of the Student Teacher Sponsor is:-

The initial planning and development of objectives;

The development and selection of material to meet these objectives;

The development of the delivery system for presenting the learning experiences to a group of students;

The analysis of the progress of students as the learning process progresses;

The assessment of the level of success by various test and measurement techniques and/or application of criteria to a selected group of behavioural objectives; and

The re-teaching of needed elements as appropriate for the students involved⁽⁴²⁾.

The College Supervisor, apart from forming a link between the University and the co-operating schools, acquaints co-operating school personnel with the philosophy, objectives, organisation and content of the teacher education programme at the University. He has, inter alia, to observe and confer with the students, in order to help them improve their teaching through clinical situations in which the teacher - learning situation and related planning and evaluation activities are examined. He has to consult regularly with Student Teacher Sponsors and other professionals with respect to the performance of students in order to plan experiences that will lead to the improvement of their teaching⁽⁴³⁾.

The student's final evaluation is very vital. The evaluation

team is made up of the Student Teacher Sponsor and the College Supervisor. The student during his practice teaching evaluation has to incorporate in his performance and understanding, nine major teaching competencies. Generally the College Supervisor and the Student Teacher Sponsor reach consensus in the final evaluation. If, however, there is no consensus, the College Supervisor may request permission to file a second evaluation of the student's potential. All assessments are submitted to the State Commissioner for Education who will issue a certificate to teach. The Arizona example has been discussed at length here for two reasons. Firstly, teaching practice is regarded as critical to the student seeking to qualify as a teacher, and therefore it is taken very seriously by all concerned. Secondly, the provision of such staff, as Student Teacher Sponsors and College Supervisors allows for greater co-operation between the universities and the co-operating schools. As assessment based on a general impression is unreliable, the Arizona method of basing assessment on a check list of nine major teaching competencies reduces subjectivity to a minimum. It is essential that students should be fully aware of the criteria which will be used in assessment.

In a recent survey carried out by the Faculty of Education of the University of Durban-Westville, on teaching practice, approximately 91% of the general remarks made by students centred upon lecturers' evaluation of students' teaching practice. Students appear to be disturbed about the way in which they were being assessed. The issue most frequently mentioned was the conflicting requirements of lecturers, for example, some

lecturers stress discovery learning, some insist on the use of teaching aids, while others discourage their use, etc. The report concludes by stating that "apparently there are many discrepancies between practices advocated at university and (a) those enforced during teaching practice, and (b) those used by practising teachers"⁽⁴⁴⁾. The students made a strong plea for more agreement about criteria in order to convert the present system of teaching practice from being a confusing event into a meaningful experience. These findings may very well apply to most teacher education institutions. Commenting on the situation in Britain, Morrison and McIntire (1969) wrote:

"No evidence is available as to how much advice supervisors give students, or on what aspects of teaching they tend to concentrate; nor is there evidence about changes induced in students teaching by advice given - what is observed and commented upon and the value of the advice given depend virtually entirely upon the characteristics and initiative skill of the individual supervisor."⁽⁴⁵⁾

Teaching practice occupies a central place in teacher education. Students rank it as the most valuable part of their course. There are differing opinions about the aims, the length, the effectiveness and the methods and purpose of the assessment of teaching practice. These need thorough research but in the mean-time, to be effective, teaching practice must involve the teacher education institutions, the schools and the students in a concerted and unified conception of its aims and objectives. Certainly the clear emphasis on the professional skills of

teaching, the attention given to developing insights into the control of classroom behaviour, the greater involvement of experienced teachers and tutors and the use of modern educational technology, all have a healthy look about them.

4.1.5 Induction

The James Report as was noted earlier, sees the first year of teaching as part of the initial training, hence its recommendation for the improvements in the arrangements for the newly trained teachers in their work in the schools. The case made by the Report for a structured induction programme, requiring a lightened teaching load, release time, the guidance of an experienced colleague trained for the purpose and access to the expertise and resources of colleges and professional centres was accepted by the Government's White Paper. A Framework for Expansion. Plans were made for pilot schemes of teacher induction to be run with special financial assistance in five local educational authorities. However, for financial reasons, only two authorities, urban Liverpool and rural Norththumberland were able to implement the schemes (These are the "sponsored" schemes). In addition a number of other LEAS introduced schemes which do not involve the release of teachers on the same scale as the "sponsored" schemes and do not receive financial help from outside.

The Department of Education and Science (DES) funded a four-year national project (1974 - 1978) based at the Research Unit, of the University of Bristol School of Education, to promote,

co-ordinate and monitor the two pilot schemes and also some of the LEA - funded schemes. The project is known as the Teacher Induction Pilot Scheme.

Briefly the scheme was implemented as follows: Local principals were requested to designate a teacher-tutor, usually from existing staff. These teacher-tutors received a preparatory briefing about the proposed induction scheme and their role in it. Several local colleges and the teachers' centre in Liverpool were designated as professional centres. Each one appointed an induction co-ordinator who proceeded to prepare programmes of courses and activities for the probationers. The induction scheme gave all probationers a lightened teaching load, provided them with a teacher-tutor as a support in school and provided centres with courses and other activities as a means of support⁽⁴⁶⁾.

In a progress report published by the DES (1977) it was found that the unsponsored schemes' arrangements for induction were diverse. For example, in Leeds, the eight tutors were responsible for initial and in-service training as well as induction; in Avon, the emphasis was on building up teams of internal and external (College) tutors; in Cumbria, three peripatetic advisory teachers ran the primary scheme; in Newcastle, the summer term pre-service induction scheme was in progress⁽⁴⁷⁾.

The feature of the main schemes that was rated as effective by most probationers was the additional free time: 80% of

Liverpool and Northumberland probationers said that their additional free time was effective in meeting their teaching and professional needs. About 75% of the probationers judged the teacher-tutor to be effective in meeting their professional needs. Furthermore, over 80% of the principals in the main schemes, said the teaching and general professional needs of their probationers had benefited from the scheme as a whole and they were particularly in favour of the school-based element. The general conclusion was that the essential feature of the experimental schemes met with the broad approval of the overwhelming majority of those who had actually experienced them⁽⁴⁸⁾. The main practical problems identified were: In the infant and first schools in particular, many probationers disliked the disruption of their relationship with their pupils; small secondary schools had particular problems in finding specialist subject replacements; the January entrants were a source of difficulty because they overlapped for a part of two academic years; and it was not always possible to release both tutor and probationer at the same time. These issues are still to be resolved. There appears to be no comparable induction schemes in other countries.

Some programmes have been established within the United States but they are few and far between; only one state pilot scheme is reported within the past 13 years. It was initiated in seven school districts in Alabama and involved university lecturers, state education consultants and local authority programme co-ordinators, each of whom assisted beginning

teachers with their daily tasks. A number of local USA education authorities state that beginning teachers certainly do receive help informally within schools from experienced colleagues, but this is not substantiated by precise data or by clear official policy statements. In fact, a prevalent view of the USA delegates who attended a national conference on Research in Teacher Education in Austin, Texas, in January 1979 was that very little attention was being given to the induction of new teachers in their country⁽⁴⁹⁾.

In Australia the Education Research and Development Committee, a federally funded committee established to foster research in education, provided money during 1976-1978 for a national survey of induction practices. This project involved two stages; first, a descriptive survey of what state, regional and school authorities claimed was done to support the entry of beginning teachers to the profession, and secondly, a systematic national survey of what beginning teachers actually experienced. The committee found that apart from staff meetings where routine matters were discussed, teacher induction left much to be desired⁽⁵⁰⁾.

The induction element of teacher preparation in the United States and Australia does not appear to be properly structured as in Britain. It would appear that induction in these two countries relates more to the new teacher gaining information about the routine business of the school and conditions of service.

Induction must be seen as an integral part of the continuous process of professional development of the new teacher. The concept of training must be extended to cover the teacher's professional life from the time he enters college until he retires. In particular it is necessary to see initial training and probation as a continuous process in which responsibility is shared by school and college staff.

5. Conclusion

The account in this section has concentrated on what appear to be main innovative trends and is by no means exhaustive. The great volume and variety of innovations in teacher education reported in literature over recent years, especially in the United States, are very impressive. All levels and facets of teacher education seem to have been touched by continuing education of teachers. In the area of methodological innovations, the changing role of the schools in the preparation of teachers is being widely recognised. Special co-operating arrangements between teacher education institutions and schools seek to improve both the theoretical and experimental learning of students.

Given the importance and significance of teacher education in contemporary society, it is vital to improve and upgrade it relentlessly. The dichotomy between educational theory and practice has increasingly concerned teacher educators. In recent years there has not only been an endeavour to develop a close relationship between professional studies and practical teaching experiences, but also a deliberate effort by some teacher educators to practise what they preach. The design and methodology of a growing number of programmes have begun to exemplify

the very principles and practices which are being advocated to student teachers for use in the classrooms. All too often student teachers are prone to teach as they themselves were taught at school and the break in the modelling pattern provided by the new methodology of teacher education should have a salutary effect. There is much that South African teacher education institutions could learn from the current trends in teacher education. South African teacher education institutions are by tradition too conservative in their outlook. There appears to be much complacency and unwillingness to question or attempt changes to existing practices. No doubt, courses in some teacher education institutions have been lengthened to four years and a few colleges are providing professional training for the B.Ed. (Primary) degree courses in co-operation with the universities. But in the vital area of methodology there is little evidence of any major innovational change. With the rapid advances in educational technology in the last two decades a host of new devices made their appearance in the classroom and it was anticipated that audio-visual education would make an important contribution to improvements in teaching methods. In fact college curricula have even made provision for audio-visual education. Micro-teaching techniques are making their appearance in most teacher education institutions. It was stressed in this study that audio-visual education should not be confined to the use of overhead projectors and film strips and projectors. Audio-visual education should be seen more accurately as educational technology in a wider didactic sense.

It is an essential requirement for professional teachers that they should have a wide repertoire of methods at their disposal and the competence to select the most appropriate methods for the task. It is axiomatic that the same applies to the teacher educator. To promote genuine changes

in classroom practice, teacher educators must alter their methods. It has been stressed that any significant change in methods of teaching requires a change in the teachers' roles and skills. If this is to be achieved, it must begin with the college and university lecturers. Their traditional role of being mere lecturers must change. They must be more innovative. The computer is making rapid advances into education. Teachers today must be aware of the vast potential of this innovation in education and it must be given an important place in teacher education curriculum. Otherwise, as Megarry warns, "tomorrow's teachers will be as handicapped as yesterday's illiterates"⁽⁵¹⁾

Of the general ideas in curricular reform which have been touched upon in this section, the following suggestions warrant some serious attention in Indian teacher education in South Africa:-

- (i) An analysis of the existing and projected roles of the teacher in the requisite skills and understandings and the development of courses, techniques and materials to promote their acquisition by students;
- (ii) The development of programmes which recognise the individual, personal and professional needs as well as interests of students and employ course structures and methodologies to facilitate student learning;
- (iii) The modelling in all aspects of teacher education of the teaching and learning strategies and technologies that are being advocated for use in schools;
- (iv) The realistic and purposeful integration of educational theory and research with the various practical and field

experiences in which students engage, particularly
practice teaching; and

- (v) An examination of the most appropriate ways of facilitating the students' smooth transition to full teaching responsibility and of providing them as teachers, with motivation and opportunity to continue and deepen their professional education.

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CHAPTER TEN

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Summary

Indian teacher education in South Africa has come a long way since its pioneering days when in 1869 Henry Nundoo opened the first training school for training elementary teachers. Indian education in general, and teacher education in particular owe a great debt of gratitude to the late Srinivasa Sastri who, it will be recalled, was largely responsible for the erection of Sastri College and for persuading the Natal Provincial Administration to assume responsibility for the training of Indian teachers. The establishment of Sastri College in 1930 was an event of great significance to the Indian community for it marked a new era in Indian teacher education and ever since then the training of Indian teachers has progressed gradually. The Wilks Report of 1946 was also of great historic significance to Indian teacher education.

Arising out of the Report, The Natal Provincial Administration established Springfield College of Education which, up to the present time, is a major teacher education college for Indians in South Africa. In the Transvaal, Indian teachers, since 1919, were trained at the Eurafrikan Training Centre which was largely an institution for the training of Coloured teachers. It was only in 1954 that a separate training college for Indians was established.

Qualitatively too, Indian teacher education has shown significant progress since the days when Standard 4 was the minimum entrance requirement. College courses have been gradually upgraded over the years. To-day Indian teacher education curricula conform to the minimum

requirements laid down in the National Criteria for the Evaluation of Teachers' Qualifications. All teacher education courses at the two colleges of education are of post - Senior Certificate and are of three year duration. In so far as graduate teachers are concerned, prior to the establishment of the University of Durban-Westville in 1961, Indian teachers voluntarily attended either part-time classes at the University of Natal or studied through correspondence courses at the University of South Africa to obtain degrees. Some also attended the University of Fort Hare to obtain degrees especially in science. With the establishment of the University of Durban-Westville, the training of graduate teachers was firmly established. The post-graduate University Higher Diploma in Education (UHDE) and the four-year concurrent B.Paed. degree ensure regular supply of graduate teachers for Indian education. A matter that needs urgent attention is the involvement of the M.L. Sultan Technikon in the training of technical teachers. After the de Lange Report, there was a flurry of activities in respect of technical education. If technical education is to progress in Indian education, the question of an adequate supply of trained teachers in technical subjects needs to be addressed.

There is no doubt that the enactment of the Indians Education Act (61 of 1965) paved the way for the phenomenal progress in Indian education. Prior to 1966 the Indian community played a significant role in an attempt to meet a serious shortage of school accommodation. With the passing of the above-mentioned Act, the Government accepted full and complete responsibility for Indian education in South Africa.

This study, coming as it does at a time when far-reaching political, social and educational changes are taking place in South Africa, should

serve to highlight areas that need attention in Indian teacher education. Any recommendations with regard to reforms in teacher education must be seen in terms of the basic objectives which the community sets for the preparation of teachers. The primary objective is to produce better trained teachers both academically and professionally. It is essential that the student should achieve not merely a sound academic background and understanding of the theory and practice of education, but that he is able to synthesise these aspects in the practical teaching situation. Students must also be equipped to meet and adjust themselves to rapidly changing situations as regards educational organisation, curriculum and syllabus content in terms of the knowledge explosion, methods and techniques of teaching.

Teacher education has to be seen as a graded sequence of experience and professional growth. What becomes the objective is continuity and reinforcement of training throughout a teacher's career. Education is itself changing rapidly within a flux of change. In this situation we do not want 'trained' teachers with fixed habits and attitudes. Rather the objective is to prepare teachers who will be attuned to change, have the stability to endure it and the skills which lead them to solutions. Adaptability and the spirit of innovation in teachers become more pressing than erudition. This will lead to true professionalism in teaching.)

To achieve the above objectives, which hitherto may not have been possible because of the pressures of a crowded college curriculum, and because of organisational shortcomings, it is the thesis of this concluding chapter, that a changed institutional framework in Indian teacher education is urgently necessary whereby all the institutions

concerned with the preparation of teachers, work in professional co-operation at all levels. Only a changed institutional framework can have a considerable influence on the teacher education curricula.

The following recommendations are formulated with a view to improvement and modernisation of teacher education for Indian schools in South Africa.

2. Institutional Reforms

As only a changed institutional organisation can have any meaningful influence on the reform of Indian teacher education, it is necessary, as a first priority, to create the necessary machinery for bringing about greater co-operation among all parties concerned with Indian teacher education. As a first step the colleges of education should be accorded the status of institutions of higher education and as such they should enjoy full autonomy in academic matters. College autonomy should be preceded by the establishment of structures such as College Council and College Senate on similar lines to those in White colleges of education e.g. Edgewood College of Education.

2.1 The College Council should be constituted as follows:

Chairman appointed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (House of Delegates) in consultation with the university and the college of education concerned. The chairman should not be in the employ of the Education Department or the university or college;

Vice-Chairman: The Rector of the College;

Senior Deputy Rector of the College.

Three representatives nominated by the Department of Education and Culture (House of Delegates);

Two representatives from the Teachers' Association of South Africa;

Four members appointed by the University, one of whom shall be the Dean of the Faculty of Education;

Two members selected by the College Senate; and

One member appointed by the M.L. Sultan Technikon.

The Council's powers and functions should extend over the entire administrative and financial matters of the college. The Council, through its Senate, should control the academic standards of the college. In matters of academic staff, the Council should establish a staff selection committee to include University representatives. The Council should function in a manner that will enhance the professional training of teachers and provide a milieu where commitment to teacher education would enable two divergent forces such as the college of education and the university to work together. It should foster a sense of teamwork which is essential if the academic standard of the college courses is to be recognised by the University.

2.2 The College Senate should be composed of:

Chairman: The Rector of the College;

Vice-Chairman: The Senior Deputy Rector;

Vice-Rectors and all Heads of Departments;

Two Senior Lecturers appointed by the academic staff of the College

Two representatives of the Teachers' Association of South Africa;

Five representatives nominated by the University, one of whom

shall be the Dean of the Faculty of Education;

Two representatives from other universities;

Two members from the College Council; and

Two members appointed by the Director of Indian Education.

The powers and functions of the College Senate should extend over all academic matters such as courses, curricula, subjects, syllabuses, practice teaching, examinations and research.

2.3 The creation of such structures as College Councils and Senates obviously needs formal agreement between the University and the Department of Education. Therefore every effort should be made to conclude such an agreement as soon as possible. University-College co-operation should be clearly defined and must include arrangements for reciprocal recognition of courses passed, transfer of students from one institution to another and validation and accreditation of college courses by the university concerned.

2.4 All secondary school teachers should be trained at a university except only in such areas as specialist teachers in the technical,

home economics and vocational subjects areas; this means that:

2.5 The M.L. Sultan Technikon should be allowed to train teachers for technical, vocational, physical education and home economics fields. The Technikon should train teachers in close association with a university of its choice. For the purpose of reciprocal recognition of courses, the Technikon could have its courses validated by the university concerned.

2.6 If and when the new Durban College of Education comes into operation to replace the existing Springfield College, consideration should be given to the introduction of the B. Paed. (Primary) degree course at the new college, provided it has the necessary resources and facilities for research. This degree should be validated and accredited by the University.

2.7 The University should play a greater leadership role in Indian teacher education than it has done hitherto. With the proposed creation of structures such as the College Council and College Senate, professional co-operation is possible and it is through such liaison bodies that the University could lead teacher education to true professionalism and thus enhance the status of the teaching profession.

2.8 On a national level the time is now opportune for bringing about some form of co-operation and co-ordination in the field of teacher

education. Although machinery exists for advice to be given to responsible Ministers, nowhere is allowance made for a truly national planning in teacher education in South Africa. The White teacher education institutions in our country, in view of their vast experience, have much to offer the non-White teacher education institutions.

2.9 The South African Council for Education and the South African Council for Teachers should take the earliest opportunity to exploit the current climate of educational reform to bring about a truly co-ordinated structural change in teacher education, otherwise it will lose the opportunity for reform and improvement in the education of the youth of South Africa. In a multi-racial, multi-cultural and multi-national society such as ours the problem of educational co-ordination is urgent and it must be looked at as a whole by representatives of all population groups. In this context the Government should review its decision to encourage separate committees of college rectors based on ethnic lines. To assist co-ordination and co-operation among all colleges of education in the country, a single national committee of college rectors should be established. This committee should be constituent member of the Committee for Tertiary Education as envisaged by the de Lange recommendation.

3. Curricular Reforms

In carrying out their tasks, and particularly with regard to changing requirements, teachers must have all possible support. They, and those

who provide for their training and education, must co-operate closely in a continuing search to match provisions to needs. As schools work out their programmes, varying in detail within a national framework, the colleges of education and the universities must keep the structure of their courses under constant review, bearing in mind that short-term school requirements can be more promptly catered for by in-service training than by initial training. Initial training should provide what a teacher needs in order to make a confident start in his career and a base on which subsequent training can be profitably built. Of fundamental importance is the concept of teacher education as a career-long process. This should be the centre of thought of institutions concerned with teacher education. Attention should be given to achieving a proper balance between personal education and professional studies. It was noted in the chapters reviewing the curricula, that because of the pressures of a crowded curricula, it was not always possible to achieve a proper balance of study. Today, more than ever before teachers need to have a high level of both academic and professional education and training. Presently, Indian teacher education is very fortunate in attracting students of good quality and potential who can be expected to achieve a high level of academic performance in one or more subjects as well as acquiring the professional skills of a teacher. Therefore, it is now possible to raise the standard and quality of training at the training institutions. Quality teacher education should now be the primary aim.

Any re-structuring of the existing courses to extend over four years should consider the following suggestions:-



3.1 It was noted in Chapter Seven of this study that the junior primary education diploma course is in fact basically the pre-primary course as laid down in the National Criteria for the Evaluation of Teachers' Qualifications. This is educationally unsound and raises doubts about the suitability of the course for teachers in an important phase in the educational system, i.e. the junior primary (Class (i) to Standard 1) phase. This course should be re-structured to suit the primary phase leaving out aspects of the pre-primary phase. Moreover, the junior primary course needs to include subjects such as history, geography, elementary science and elementary mathematics not only to enhance the personal education of the student but also to facilitate the teaching of environmental studies and number work.

3.2 The present senior primary education diploma course requires students not only to specialise in teaching of a particular school phase but it also requires them to specialise in a direction subject-wise. This is educationally unsound. A primary school teacher must be a competent generalist to be effective. The teachers' grasp of subject matter will need to include everything from arithmetic and geography to history and general science. Subject or study direction in this phase should be discontinued.

3.3 In view of the fact that Afrikaans is not a medium of instruction in Indian schools, the proportion of time allocated to this subject in relation to English in the various courses needs review. Except in the case of Afrikaans specialisation in the junior secondary

phase, the reduction of time for this subject could have no adverse effect in Indian teacher education.

3.4 In the examination of the curricula of both the college and university teachers' courses, the need for achieving a proper balance of studies was highlighted. Also the problem of bridging the gap between theory and practice was examined. There is doubt that even by extending initial preparation of teachers to four years, a full and proper balance of studies could be achieved. Therefore consideration should be given first of all to viewing initial preparation of teachers as only the first phase of a career long training. Secondly, the present practice of offering all the part disciplines of education for in-depth study should be reviewed. Is it not possible to leave out certain part-disciplines such as comparative education and possibly sociology of education to be studied at a later stage as in-service requirement?

The problem of bridging the gap between theory and practice could be narrowed by the more effective use of educational technology. In the previous Chapter the use of microteaching and other techniques were examined in relation to theory and practice. It is in general didactics that there is scope to exploit educational technology in narrowing the gap between theory and practice. Educational technology should not be seen as educational hardware. It is not simply the incorporation of audio-visual aids in education. It is the application of technology of education to the process of teaching. During initial teacher education, students must be taught

to handle and evaluate educational technology, programmes and media, and integrate them successfully in teaching practice. It is also necessary in the didactics course that there be co-ordination between lecturers in the other part-disciplines of education and didactics. It also requires that there should be co-ordination between the general and specialised elements of the course in methodology. It is essential also that there be close co-operation between the lecturers in the general and subject method courses and the latter might participate directly in the teaching practice sessions.

Current trends in teacher education overseas, suggest that teacher educators and teacher trainees will be more active in more varied ways than before, following the simple principle that, they as well as children, learn by doing, and learn best when they engage more directly in practising the skills required of them. They will be active as problem solvers, setting up hypotheses and experiments, retrieving information, observing, measuring and reporting conclusions and proposals. In this regard they will use the full range of media to produce curriculum units and supporting materials; they will observe the behaviour and learning responses of children and practise instructional management and guidance skills in micro-teaching and classroom teaching. They will carry out these assignments in all-purpose auditoriums, learning resource centres, class and seminar rooms and study cubicles. All of these point towards independent and purposeful study allowing for greater flexibility in an unobtrusively structured teacher education programme.

3.5 School based teaching practice should only commence in the second year and not in the first year of training. Premature introduction to the classroom may do more harm than good. Inexperienced students, unacquainted with essential background knowledge, will tend to adopt teaching models based on their past experience as pupils when confronted by classroom situation. The first year should be utilised to evaluate the students potential as a teacher. The use of microteaching techniques could be exploited during the first year to develop specific skills. It is particularly important for students to have a clear grasp of the objectives of teaching practice, since it is for them that this experience is organised and their future depends on their satisfactorily fulfilling the objectives.

There should be a more structured relationship between schools and the teacher education institutions. Reference has been made in the previous Chapter to arrangements in the United States and Britain in respect of teaching practice. Consideration should be given to the appointment of a senior member of co-operating schools to whom is assigned the task of co-ordinating and supervision of arrangements for teaching practice, liaison with the institutions concerned, assistance and encouragement to students on teaching practice. Persons so appointed should receive special training at in-service courses to equip them to handle students. In the supervision of students' teaching practice emphasis must be placed not on a specific skill (this is useful in microteaching where specific skills are developed) but on a range of general teaching skills which teachers have to master in their daily work such as stimulus variation, questioning skills, reinforcement skills, closure, silence and non-

verbal cues. Supervisors should appreciate that the student's experience of the reality of a classroom episode will differ from their own experiences. A deeper understanding of supervision, which is a professional activity, would not only promote student effectiveness but assist the schools to become centres of learning for their own staff members.

The assessment of students' teaching performance has always been regarded as an important function of teaching practice, but the evaluation of skills as complex as teaching is an area where reform is needed. Successful teaching is in the performance of the pupils. Its criteria are gains in pupil-learning and these are ostensibly easier to define and measure. Reference has been made in the previous Chapter to the situation in the United States where colleges of education have been held accountable for the effectiveness of their programmes. This has led to the Performance Based Teacher Education (PBTE) where clear goals are specified. The focus, as was noted, is on the student's ultimate competence to produce learning gains in pupils. In this approach methods of assessment are criterion-referenced, and the assessment criteria are competency based. Therefore mastery of skills at an acceptable level has to be demonstrated. In such a system of assessment, a certain measure of objectivity could be attained. This does not mean that the PBTE method should be adopted here. The example is quoted to indicate that assessment of students' teaching practice should be as objective as possible. The system of awarding grade points on a scale to assess student performance should be replaced by Pass/Fail system.

The Pass/Fail system is better than using say a 15 point scale

because the latter could lull tutors into thinking that they are objectively assessing teaching when in fact they are merely grading their own feelings about students whom they are observing. In order to minimise college and university lecturers' idiosyncracies in respect of students' evaluation as was noted in the preliminary findings by the Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville in the previous Chapter, lecturers who tutor students in the schools should be given a systematic training in observational skills.

3.6 The problem of helping beginning teachers with the difficulties associated with the first year of teaching should receive urgent attention. The present system of the probationary year leaves much to be desired. There is an absolute separation between the training and the probationary period. The training of the probationer, if any, is unstructured, unplanned and haphazard. It is left to individual headmasters and the senior staff to make whatever provision they consider fit to assist the new teacher. The inspectorate of the education department pay routine advisory visits to new teachers with a view to confirming the appointment of teachers who have satisfied the inspectorate, to the permanent staff of the school. This situation, apart from possibly perpetuating teaching methods and techniques outworn by usage, helps to develop the attitude that theory and practice are two separate and unrelated aspects of teacher education. Teacher induction should be regarded as an important element in teacher education. It is agreed that financial considerations would make it impossible for the appointment of a professional tutor at every school for the purpose of inducting

beginning teachers. One possible solution could be the appointment of itinerant or peripatetic tutors who could be allocated on a regional basis to serve a cluster of schools.

3.7 The perspectives of initial training can be correctly viewed only when it is realised that for all teachers, training will include an effective induction into teaching and be followed by a continuing series of opportunities for in-service education and training.

Pre-service and in-service training should be seen as a continuum. There are at least four good reasons why the education and training of teachers must continue beyond the initial training.

These are:-

- (i) It is not possible to provide, during the initial course, all the knowledge and insights that the teacher will need in his long career;
- (ii) The expansion of knowledge calls for curricular renewal or reform;
- (iii) New discoveries about the way children learn and conceptualise suggest provision for new learning styles, teaching methods and approaches; and
- (iv) Developments in educational technology and the speed of technological progress and the changes it causes are together creating a major challenge for education at large, as well as offering scope for new techniques and methods.

The above observations suggest that there is a need for a well structured in-service training programme as opposed to the present ad-hoc system of orientation courses conducted by members of the inspectorate. An analysis is needed of the ways in which in-service courses are organised, to determine for example the effectiveness of such courses and to discover the extent to which the offerings are isolated and episodic or are planned as sequential and cumulative experiences. We need to know more about the methods that are employed in in-service courses - the extent to which reliance is placed on the traditional modes of instruction such as lectures and seminars as compared with for example, informal discussion groups or co-operative research projects. The findings are necessary prerequisite to the process of any reform in in-service education.

4. Conclusion

No other single factor is as decisive in determining the quality of education in a country as the quality of its 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. Given the great significance of teacher education, it is vital that efforts to improve and upgrade it are unrelenting.

Finally, the far-reaching educational reforms suggested by the de Lange Report together with the new political dispensation for Coloureds and Indians and the school boycotts have accelerated the pressure for educational change in South Africa. Unless the Government is prepared to break out of the "own" affairs, separate shells and allow the sharing

of scarce resources available in a region and in particular make use of teacher education facilities in White education that are seriously under-utilised at present, there is no way the Government can avert a national disaster. The problems of teacher education must be approached from a common non-segmented planning base so that all the country's national resources - manpower, facilities and finance can be deployed effectively where they are most needed.

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