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STUDYING HISTORY BY CORRESPONDENCE:
ASSESSMENT OF THE WORK AT THE
GRAAFF-REINET COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

by

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to carry out an investigation of history as a correspondence subject for practising teachers and to make an assessment of work at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training. The problems experienced by lecturers and students involved with the study of history at this institution receive particular attention.

At intervals throughout the study attention is given to the need for further training for teachers who are in-service. Teacher qualifications in the Cape Province are also examined to see potential needs for further training in the future. Having determined a need, it is proposed that correspondence courses are best suited to cater for it. A study is made of the models, background and approaches used by other institutions in various parts of the world.

Distance education started in England at the end of the eighteenth century. This idea has spread to various countries and today teaching and learning by correspondence takes place in most countries of the world. It is different to conventional classroom education and thus has certain unique characteristics. The definition, characteristics, background and methodology are important if the problems involved are to be understood. These aspects indicate how effective and popular this form of study has become.

Particular attention is given to the teaching of in-service teachers who are upgrading their qualifications. The existing

and proposed College history syllabi are examined in as far as their appropriateness and relevance are concerned. Emphasis is given to history at Graaff-Reinet College because the author is a history lecturer at this institution.

An extended questionnaire was designed and used to collect the required data on the subjects who were from two groups of students studying history at the College, one in 1986 and one in 1987. A pilot study was done in 1986 and a more extended questionnaire was completed by the 1987 students.

In chapter six the results of the questionnaire are analysed and particular attention is given to the students' background, motivation for studying and difficulties they encounter.

Finally, recommendations are made about how this form of teacher upgrading can be improved and extended in the future.

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INTRODUCTION

Correspondence study has always been seen as inferior to traditional learning. In modern society, however, there has been a tremendous development in electronics, communicational technology and computers. A wider range of media that can be used for home study is now becoming available. This has led to tremendous development in the field of correspondence study over the last decade. Correspondence study is being seen as the ideal form of study for people who cannot attend full-time classes for various reasons.

Correspondence study in South Africa has made great strides since the early 1960's and today the University of South Africa is the largest university in the country. Educational authorities in South Africa have realized that it is important to keep up with changing conditions, new educational developments and the need to provide well-trained teachers. One way to ensure this is to make sure that the full-time teachers in the "field" are well qualified. This would mean providing facilities at which underqualified full-time teachers can improve their qualifications. With the problems involved in removing teachers from their permanent environment, correspondence study appears to be the ideal solution. To make this possible in the Cape, two Colleges for Continued Training have been established.

The author of this dissertation is a history teacher at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training and the fact that he was previously involved solely with pre-service training made him aware of problems in the history correspondence course. After discussions with history students at contact sessions, it became obvious that the history students were also faced with unique problems. The purpose of this dissertation is to make a study of the problems that lecturers and students involved in history at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training are faced with. Solutions to the problems and difficulties are proposed.

This dissertation looks at literature related to teletuition

and the problems that history students may have at four levels:

- general level,
- provincial level,
- college level,
- classroom level.

Firstly, at a general level, literature concerned with tele-tuition in general is examined. Aspects such as definition, characteristics, development, advantages, disadvantages and problems are discussed. The study of the development of correspondence teaching in various countries shows how popular this form of study has become and the tremendous promise it holds for the future. It is obvious that the advantages, disadvantages and problems experienced in the general use of the correspondence method will be reflected in particular and in miniature in the history course presented at the College.

Secondly, at provincial level attention will be given to white primary teacher training in the Cape Province because colleges are involved in primary teacher training. A needs analysis is done to determine if there is a justification for Colleges for Continued Training in the Cape. Two further aspects are investigated: Patterns of teacher training in the Cape Province and the increase and decrease of teacher numbers in the past. These factors will indicate what qualifications teachers have, how many teachers have been trained and what the need for the future will be.

Having examined that there is a need for Colleges for Continued Training, it is necessary to have a brief look at possible models of solutions to the need. The Open University in Britain, the University of South Africa and various other Colleges of Continued Training are examined as possible solutions.

Thirdly, at College level the situation at the Graaff-Reinet College is studied. A short history of the Graaff-Reinet College as a teacher training centre as far back as 1840 is presented. The changing of status from a conventional college

to a correspondence college is described. The correspondence system, as implemented by this institution, is discussed with attention being given to method, students, subject choice, staff and examination.

Fourthly, at classroom level attention is given to history as a teletuition subject as it is presented at the college. The needs of the students are examined and an alternative syllabus to suit these needs is proposed. The system used by the history lecturers, problems lecturers have and the possibility of resource centres is investigated.

After a study of the related literature a questionnaire was designed to obtain information from the subjects concerning the problems they have studying history at the college. The subjects consisted of students studying history at the College in 1986 and 1987. Structured questionnaires, which consisted of a list of alternative responses from which the respondents could select were used to obtain the information. Each question included an open-ended alternative for possible unlisted answers. The questionnaires were administered during the College contact sessions in July which were compulsory. As a result a 100% return was obtained.

The results are presented in percentages of the respondents who selected each alternative for each item. Graphic forms are also used to present the data.

Finally, after analysing the empirical information and evaluating the results, the conclusions and recommendations are made.

CHAPTER ONE

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Distance education was created to give those who could not go to an ordinary school, teachers' college or university for financial, social, geographical or medical reasons a chance to study. Correspondence education was and is a means of providing adult education, based on belief in education for its own sake, and also of improving social status.

Distance education has certain characteristics which make it unique in comparison with other forms of education. Probably the main characteristic which distinguishes it is the separation of teacher and student in time or space. This characteristic produces problems for both student and teacher. Six aspects of teletuition will be discussed in this chapter: definition, characteristics, development, advantages, disadvantages and problems.

There is apparently a lack of unanimity on the terminology used in this field. Keegan (Sewart et.al., 1983:6) reports that terminology such as correspondence study, home study, independent study, external studies, distance teaching and distance education are often used synonymously. There is also some confusion about the position of distance education within education as a whole. Wedemeyer (Kapp, 1987:53), viewed by distance educators as the father of distance education, holds the view that in Europe the term 'distance education' has a usage somewhat comparable to that of 'independent study' in the United States. It is increasingly used in Europe as an omnibus term to include correspondence study, open learning, instruction by radio and television or in short, all learning/teaching arrangements that are not face to face.

The term teletuition is sometimes used as a synonym for distance study, distance teaching or distance training. Holmberg (1981:11), on the other hand, claims that teletuition is wider than both these terms, in that it also applies to media other

than the written word. For example, the University of South Africa uses videotapes, slides and telephone tuition and calls its distance teaching method teletuition. It is important to remember that not all educational institutions use the same term for studying over a distance. The Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training calls its method of instruction, 'teletuition'.

Various educationists have presented different definitions for distance teaching or studying (education at a distance).

Holmberg defines distance study as:

"teaching in which, because of the physical separateness of learners and teachers, the interactive, as well as the pre-active phase of teaching, is conducted through print, mechanical or electronic devices".
(Holmberg, 1981:11)

According to Keegan, Moore views education at a distance as follows:

"Distance teaching may be defined as the family of instructional methods in which the teachers behaviours are executed apart from the learning behaviours, including those that in a contiguous situation would be performed in the learner's presence; so that communication between the teacher and the learner must be facilitated by print, electronic, mechanical or other devices".
(Sewart et.al., 1983:6)

Peters (Kapp, 1987:52) defines distance teaching and education as a method of imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes which is rationalized by the application of division of labour and organizational principles as well as by the extensive use of technical media, especially for the purpose of reproducing high quality teaching material. This makes it possible to instruct great numbers of students at the same time wherever they live. It is an "industrialized" form of teaching and learning.

Finally, distance study is defined by Wolfson in these terms:

"a mode of teaching and learning which, for the most part, allows the student to choose the time, place and circumstances of learning. It requires the design; production and delivery of self-instructional materials and provision for student access to educational resources designed to support independent study".
(Wolfson, 1987:54)

Keegan (Douglas, 1987:21) states that if one examines these definitions of distance education and teaching six characteristics can be high-lighted. All six are to be regarded as essential for any comprehensive definition:

- separation of teacher and student;
- influence of an educational organization;
- use of technical media;
- provision of two-way communication;
- provision of occasional meetings;
- participation in an industrialized form of education.

Definitions of teletuition vary in length and complexity, but none has yet been universally accepted. Most of the definitions include three aspects: teacher, student and separation of the two. For the purpose of this study, teletuition will be seen as a process in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and time from the learner; seminars and technical apparatus will be used to transfer the information.

The nature of distance education makes it unique in comparison with other forms of education. It has certain characteristics which differentiate it from traditional conventional education. Whereas all learning is basically an individual activity, even though it might be supported by co-operation in groups and by face-to-face teaching, distance study is a form of education which is typically based on personal work by individual students, more or less independent of the direct guidance of tutors.

The main general characteristic of distance education according to Holmberg is that it is based on non-contiguous communication:

"the learner is at a distance from the teacher for much, most, or even all the time during the teaching-learning process".
(Holmberg, 1981:11)

According to Holmberg (1981:12), the consequences of this general characteristic of distance study constitute six categories of description:

- The basis of distance study is normally a pre-produced course, which is usually printed but which may also consist of presentations by media other than the written word,

for instance audio- or videotapes, television or radio programmes, or experimental kits.

- It is organised two-way communication which takes place between the students and a supporting organization, for example the university, college or school, with its tutors and counsellors. Communication in most cases is based on assignments for submission, which are commented on and returned to the student with constructive advice. Communication also takes place through the initiative of students and individual tutors. The most common medium used for this two-way communication is the written word, but the telephone is becoming an increasingly important communication instrument.
- Distance education caters for individual study. This is what all education must do, even in cases where teaching is provided in classes or groups. Consider Ripley Sim's dictum:

"in whatever society, for whatever purpose, by whatever means, under whatever ideology, the essential objective in the educating process is learning by an individual learner. the methodologies or strategies employed are only incidental to this end".
(Holmberg, 1981:12)

Distance education expressly serves the individual learner in the study he does on his own.

- As the course develops it can easily, and to great financial advantage, be used by great numbers of students; distance education can be - and often is - a form of reasonably inexpensive mass communication.
- In preparing a mass communication programme, it is practical to apply the methods of industrial work. These methods include planning, rationalizing procedures, division of labour, mechanizing, automation, and controlling and checking.
- The technological approaches implied do not prevent personal communication of a conversational character from being an important characteristic of the distance study. This applies even when computerized communication occurs. Holmberg (1981:12) regards organized distance study as "a mediated form of guided didactic conversation".

Two of these six characteristics are entirely descriptive in character, two also concern applications and the last two in-

clude interpretations aiming at elucidating the essence of distance education.

Kay and Rumble (1981:18-19) give the following key features or characteristics concerning the student, materials and methods, and logistics and economics.

Firstly, concerning students:

- an enlargement or 'opening' of opportunity by provision of education to new target populations, previously deprived through geographical isolation, lack of formal academic requirements, or employment conditions, and
- there is a need to identify particular target groups and their key characteristics (needs, age, distribution, time available for study and local facilities) to enable appropriate courses, learning methods, and delivery system to be designed for them on a systematic basis.

Secondly, concerning the learning materials and methods which characterize the courses, distance education

- has a flexibility in the content and curriculum of the learning materials through, for example, modular structures or credit systems;
- implies a conscious and systematic design of learning materials for independent study, incorporating, for example, clearly formulated learning objectives and containing features for the provision of feedback from students to the learning system staff and vice-versa;
- incorporates the planned use of a wide range of different media and other resources, selected from those available in the context of the system, and suited to the needs of the student, in different contexts these may include specially prepared correspondence texts, books, newspaper supplements, posters, radio and television, broadcasts, audio and video cassettes, films, computer - assisted learning, kits, local tuition and counselling, student self-help groups, lending library facilities and so on.

Finally, four logistical and economic features characterize a distance-learning system:

- a great potential flexibility when compared with conventional

- provision in implementation, in teaching methods and in student groups covered;
- a centralized, high-volume production of standardised learning materials (such as texts, broadcasts and kits) in an almost industrialized manner, implying clear division of labour in the creation and production procedures;
 - a systematic search for, and use of, existing infrastructure and facilities as part of the system, for example libraries, postal and other distribution services, printers, publishers, broadcasting organizations and manufacturers;
 - a potentially significant lower recurrent unit-cost than that needed for conventional teaching arrangements and potentially a considerably lower capital cost per student.

Any specific distance-learning system will bring together a unique combination of these types of features to serve its particular goals.

According to Jenkins (1981:14), distance education, whether concerned with elementary, university, informal, occupational or professional study, regularly includes three basic activities:

- development of self-instructional material;
- teaching at a distance;
- counselling and general support of students' work.

A short history of the development of teletuition is important because it shows how popular this form of studying has become and how it has developed.

According to Erdos (1967:2), correspondence teaching began with the first letter from one person, written to give instruction to another and goes back to such classic examples as Plato's epistles to Dionysius and the letters of the Elder Pliny to the Younger Pliny. But a search for the origins of the twentieth-century pattern of correspondence teaching leads to the individual stories of a number of persons in different countries who saw in it a method of meeting differing needs.

Jenkins (1981:4) claims that the first form of distance teaching in Britain to be developed was the correspondence course.

In 1840, with the advent of the penny post in the United Kingdom, Isaac Pitman started teaching bookkeeping by correspondence to one of his students. Its more systematic organization dates from 1880 and 1890. This idea was taken up elsewhere and ever since, correspondence courses have been used for a variety of subjects.

Glatter and Wedell (1971:4) show that many of the better known colleges in the United Kingdom started during this period (1880-1890) including University Correspondence College, Wolsey Hall, Chambers, Clough's, Faulks Synch and Skerry's. Most of these began modestly with the coaching of a few pupils by an individual - a retired civil servant (Skerry's 1880) or a solicitor (Faulks Synch, 1884). Erdos (1967:2) states that in 1884, Joseph William Kuipe, a young trainee-teacher prepared himself to pass the Certificated Teachers' Examination. Thinking he could help others, Kuipe advertised in The Schoolmaster and enrolled six students whom he taught by correspondence. All were successful in their examination and the next year thirty students enrolled. Out of this small beginning grew Wolsey Hall, Oxford.

As far as universities are concerned the story begins with the foundation of the University of London in 1836. The teaching was done by University and King's Colleges. In 1858 restrictions were removed and anyone could be admitted for degree studies provided they had passed the Matriculation Examination and paid the entrance fee. This change paved the way for the growth of private correspondence colleges which prepared students for the University of London examinations, and enabled them to study independently for the degree, without any formal tuition.

Rumble and Harry (1982:15) explain that in 1898 the University of London was reconstituted as a teaching university. This restructure left the University with a continuing responsibility for the examination of 'external students' who presented themselves for a degree. In 1970 about one third of the external students were either preparing themselves for the examination by independent study or were tutored by private correspondence colleges such as University Correspondence College and Wolsey Hall.

At the moment, according to Rumble and Harry (1982:16), the University of London provides home-based students with the opportunity to study privately for degrees. Of the 10,348 United Kingdom-based students working towards a first degree or diploma in July 1980, at least 46% were taking correspondence courses and a further 31% were studying by 'other methods' which include independent study in their own home.

In 1971 the British Open University was established as a result of developments in Britain after the Second World War. This institution will receive attention in a later chapter.

From a simple beginning, correspondence study in the United Kingdom has flourished into an ever expanding education industry.

Erdos (1967:2) shows that Thomas J. Foster, a newspaper proprietor and editor in Pennsylvania, directed the writing of a course of instruction on mine surveying and machinery designed to teach safety measures in 1891. This course was the beginning of the International Correspondence School of Scranton, Pennsylvania. Also in 1891, William Rainey Harper organised the first university-sponsored correspondence programme in America as a formal part of the University of Chicago. Rumble and Harry (1982:12), however claim that the foundation of a correspondence programme at Illinois State University in 1894 can be taken as the start of distance education at university level in the United States of America. In 1906 correspondence teaching was introduced into the University of Wisconsin, a university that was to have a long and fruitful association with university programmes at a distance.

"during the last half of the nineteenth century, there was a movement in the United States for the extension of university teaching. In keeping with the trend in universities during this period, on 14 July 1891, the Regents of the University of Wisconsin approved a faculty for the development of university extension correspondence study courses".

(Erdos, 1967:2)

In the United States distance education courses at university level have been provided by independent study divisions within the extension colleges of conventional universities. In 1981 sixty-four such departments were affiliated to the Independent

Study Division of the National University Extension Association of the United States of America.

Perraton (1982:9) traces the history of distance education in Russia as far back as 1926. It was given a considerable boost following the end of the Second World War as a result of the Educational Reform Act in 1958. Glatter and Wedell (1971:179) state that this act attempted to fill some of the gaps in the Soviet education system in general, and in evening, extramural and correspondence methods of education in particular. In the late 1920's, the Soviet Union adopted distance teaching to increase the output of the educational system, as there was an urgent need for educated manpower. Since 1929, correspondence education has formed a significant component in the Soviet educational system. Many universities have correspondence sections, and there are some fifteen external polytechnic institutes that teach both part-time and correspondence students. Peters (Rumble and Harry, 1982:20) identified eleven distance teaching universities in Russia which operated in the early 1960's.

Distance education is seen to have two functions in Russia. It provides, firstly, educational opportunities for adults in employment and, secondly, underlines the democratic character of education. Rumble and Harry (1982:16) quote Gorochow who claims that distance study at university level is seen to provide a satisfactory linking between study and productive work, to solve the problem of continuing professional education in engineering and to give people in employment the opportunity to study towards a second career.

Distance education in Russia has developed to the state that, by 1979, 2,2 million people were enrolled in distance courses at a university.

ErDOS (1967:2) has shown that in Australia in 1910, W.A. Grundy, a senior Health Inspector in New South Wales, was worried about the difficulty of training Health Inspectors from rural areas and successfully taught nine by correspondence. In 1914, the Victorian Education Department in Australia received a letter from a settler living eight miles from the nearest school, asking if anything could be done for the education of his two

sons. The problem was referred to the Vice-Principal of the Teachers' College who found five volunteers among the students in training to teach the boys by correspondence. This was the beginning of teaching children in isolated areas in Australia by correspondence.

According to Rumble and Harry (1982:17), the Act establishing the University of Queensland in Brisbane in 1909 made provision for the teaching of university level courses by correspondence. This direction, taken by the University of Queensland correspondence programme seventy years ago, has influenced Australian correspondence studies ever since. In 1980, the 14,109 external enrolments in Australian universities constituted 8,7% of the total enrolment in the 19 Australian universities, although only 5 had formal distance education programmes.

Rumble and Harry (1982:17) show that the University of the Cape of Good Hope was based on the University of London and was founded in 1873. It was renamed the University of South Africa (UNISA) in 1916 and its constituent colleges gradually became universities in their own right. As a result of these changes, UNISA had to seek a new role. In 1946, therefore, it began to teach by correspondence and in 1951 it was reconstituted to provide degree courses for external students. UNISA achieved full autonomy in 1964 and is today a flourishing correspondence-based university with 56,000 students in 1981, and employing 1,000 full-time lecturers (Presently has about 94,000 students).

Administratively, UNISA is a centralised organisation with few study centres. It relies mainly on printed materials, with audio-cassettes, videotapes, slides and telephone tuition as secondary teaching materials, and calls its distance teaching method 'teletuition'.

Educational authorities in South Africa have realized that it is important to keep up with changing conditions, new educational developments and the need to provide well-trained teachers. For this purpose various Colleges of Education for Further Training were established to provide correspondence courses for teachers who were unable to interrupt their service or to leave their families. This aspect receives attention in a later chapter.

Perraton (1982:10) says that in the 1960's, many countries of the third world began looking for unorthodox solutions to the educational problems they had inherited. In many African countries, for example, it was clear that the expansion of schools, within the limits imposed by finance and by the supply of teachers, could not meet the demand for education, even within a generation or longer. The experience of multi-media distance teaching, which was only just being acquired in the wealthier countries, was seen as immediately relevant to the educational needs of the third world. Distance teaching was seen not as a device to offer an alternative route to education for a small disadvantaged minority, but as a resource that should be used on a large scale because of the economics it seemed to offer in terms of teachers and money. The pressure on other educational resources made distance teaching look attractive. As a result, attempts have been made in the third world to use distance teaching for all levels of education, from supporting literacy teaching to offering university degree courses.

Rumble and Harry (1982:16) suggest that the London University was influential in the establishment of the University of New Zealand in the 1880's. This body later sponsored extra-mural study. In 1963 it transferred to the newly chartered Massey University the responsibility for extra-mural tuition of the majority of correspondence students in the country.

Crawford-Nutt (1987:145) believes that the conception of correspondence in Germany took place in 1856. Charles Toussaint, a Frenchman who was teaching French in Berlin, and Gustav Langenscheidt, a member of the Society of Modern Languages in Berlin, co-founded a school for teaching languages by correspondence. From this simple start, it developed to the situation where 15,000 distance students were enrolled in 1980. These constituted 11,5% of all university enrolments.

According to Rumble and Harry (1982:18), distance education in Canada was initiated at Queen's University, in Kingston, Ontario, in 1889. Today twenty Canadian universities have correspondence or distance education departments.

Perraton (1982:10) describes how Hans Hermond came upon the

idea of correspondence teaching in Sweden in the 1890's. In 1895, Hermond published his first correspondence course in bookkeeping. Since then many institutions have followed suit.

Teletuition has developed in many other countries, such as Spain, Iran, Israel, Pakistan, Venezuela, Costa Rica, Thailand, China, Sri Lanka and the Netherlands. A new style of distance institution has developed, with some institutions becoming autonomous multi-media distance teaching institutions, for example UNISA and the British Open University.

Jenkins (1981:27) presents a comparison between a number of dimensions of the conventional system of teaching and the distance learning system, and in doing so gives a useful summary of approaches and of the advantages and disadvantages of the two systems.

Figure 1.1: CONVENTIONAL AND DISTANCE EDUCATION
(Jenkins, 1981:27)

DIMENSIONS	'CONVENTIONAL' SYSTEM	DISTANCE LEARNING SYSTEM
1. Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - relatively homogeneous (age and qualifications) - same location (classrooms) - largely 'dependent' learners - controlled situation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - probably heterogeneous - scattered, at-a-distance - independent learners - relatively uncontrolled
2. Student Records	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - do not need to be highly developed nor very detailed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - accurate student records essential (addresses, allocation to tutors, assessment grades, correspondence)
3. Student Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - automatically built-in to face-to-face systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - need for special provision of local back-up services to help students with learning problems and to minimise drop-out - ways of bridging the gap between student and central institution need to be designed - distance implies control and response (time) problems to be met
4. Media/Methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - essentially face-to-face teaching - labour intensive - teaching skills need to be fairly well defined 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - essentially 'mediated' teaching - capital intensive - skills needed generally not readily available

DIMENSIONS	'CONVENTIONAL' SYSTEM	DISTANCE LEARNING SYSTEM
5. Student Assessment and Accreditation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - problems of validity and reliability minimised - relatively 'cheat-proof' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - assessment at-a-distance increase problems of validity - use of large numbers of correspondence tutors decreases reliability (need for monitoring procedures) - cheating/impersonation a potential problem: credibility
6. Courses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - relatively simple, few and well-defined creation, production and distribution processes - low start-up costs but high student-variable costs, tendency for many options/courses with a few students on each 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - more complex, course creation - production-distribution processes, with specialised staff functions arising from divisions of labour - high start-up costs but low student-variable costs, tendency for few options with many students per course, to achieve economics of scale (if latter an objective)
7. Organisation Administration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - little administrative support required, vast majority of staff in schools and colleges are the teachers - main administrative problems are concerned with time-tabling of teaching periods and with management of teaching staff (personnel functions) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - strong administrative framework needed to link together student support and record functions, course creation functions (industrial and quasi-industrial processes) - some specialist function may need to be carried out outside the Distance Learning System (for example printing, broadcasting)
8. Control and Regulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - conventional problems of planning, scheduling, evaluation, leadership, decision-making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - these problems are magnified and in certain cases are qualitatively different (the capital intensive and multi-media nature of the institution imposes longer planning horizons on many more fronts, integration of multi-media creation production - distribution and teaching systems control)
9. Cost Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - basically labour-intensive, and directly and primarily related to numbers of students, unit costs per student/year do not vary significantly with numbers per course 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - basically capital-intensive, and related more to course creation and production costs than to student costs, unit costs per student/year drop significantly with increased numbers per course

As can be seen from this extended comparison, there are considerable differences between the two systems. In the one system the teacher is in control, while in the other system the student is in control of his own learning process and rates.

Although the two forms of education are different, they can nevertheless complement one another. Many distance teaching institutions, such as the Open University and UNISA make use of face-to-face (contact) sessions to complement their correspondence material. Gibbs (Kapp, 1987:64) believes that contact sessions, if well used, can have some advantages on distance education. Their flexibility, and potential for responsiveness to needs as they arise, and their ability to foster interpersonal relationships, cannot easily be matched by distance methods.

Figure 1.2: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTANCE AND CONVENTIONAL EDUCATION
(Jenkins, 1981:4)

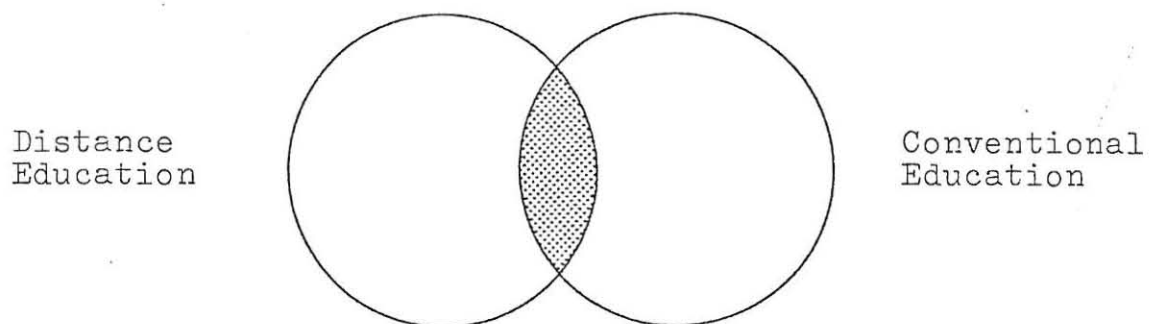


Figure 1.2 shows how and the extent to which distance education and conventional education overlap. It suggests that the two systems frequently work together, often very effectively. The shaded part represents the overlap between the two forms of teaching: the area where they complement each other and work similarly. This is done in the form of winter or autumn schools and the presentation of seminars. The student comes to the institution where the course centre is and attends conventional classes. At such sessions problems can

be solved and difficult sections of the work can be handled. The student and lecturers can meet each other. They also meet fellow students, which is important for effective learning, because it gives the students an opportunity to discuss problems and exchange ideas.

Jenkins (1981:26) claims that face-to-face learning is an important component of distance teaching. According to her, research in human communication and learning has underlined the importance of personal interaction. Distance educators sometimes therefore talk about three-way teaching as the most effective technique - a combination of print, broadcast and face-to-face learning. Conventional teaching is thus an important supplement for distance education and training. Most students seem to benefit from such sessions which are used by most tele-tuition institutions. Holmberg (1981:62) agrees and states that face-to-face sessions are used in distance learning for five purposes:

- practising psychomotor skills (in laboratories and under controlled conditions) and verbal skills (through personal communications);
- facilitating the understanding of the communication process and human behaviour;
- encouraging attitudes and habits of relevance for the study;
- mutual inspiration and stimulation of fellow students;
- training in co-operation.

Finally, it can be said that in the conventional system the teacher and pupil are within the same classroom and this results in the teacher being able to control, support and assist the student. The separation in space and time between the teacher and student makes big demands on the student because he is working on his own. Although the two can compliment one another, they are not necessarily used together. The Open University and UNISA course materials have shown that distance education materials can be quite a reasonable substitute for conventional teaching methods.

To study by correspondence requires an adaptation by the student and just as it would be true to concede that there are disadvantages in using the system, it is also true to say that there

are certain advantages.

According to Young (1980:62), the great strength of distance teaching is that it provides a means of teaching people wherever they are, by means of the radio, television or booklets. In this way a larger number of pupils can be taught by one teacher than in a classroom or other teaching situations. Andrew (1987:23) agrees and states that correspondence courses can be used successfully for students who are at present denied education because of political unrest or because of geographical isolation, especially in South Africa. A correspondence course has the advantage of being inexpensive and combining the high standards and objectivity that the students demand.

Young (1980:62) believes that even when a class has a teacher, distance teaching can help improve the quality of education. If a teacher is inexperienced or unfamiliar with certain subjects, students can learn from a distance while the teacher guides rather than teaches them. In this way a student can follow a certain aspect of a study which interests him, resulting in creative or discovery learning.

Andrew (1987:25) holds that nobody can deny that distance education is cost-effective. Costs are saved because fewer administrative and teaching staff are needed. Here is an extract from an Open University publication on the subject of cost-effectiveness which can be applied to any institution presenting correspondence courses:

"The Open University produces graduates much more cheaply than do other universities.

Campus universities must provide laboratories, libraries and lecture theatres for residential students, but the Open University saves these capital costs because its students live and study at home. And the students are working adults, who continue to contribute to the economy while earning their degrees.

The University achieves additional economics by its method of course production: a relatively small central academic staff produce teaching materials that reach a large student population. The use of correspondence courses and broadcasting imposes a high fixed cost of production, but allows major economies of scale as student numbers rise. The cost of producing a course unit or television

programme is the same for one student or thousands".
(Andrew, 1987:25)

This extract indicates that distance education is cost-effective and can be applied to distance education in South Africa as well.

If teachers are not available for particular subjects, a distance education programme that becomes part of a school curriculum can easily be supervised by a qualified teacher, even though he might not be qualified in that particular subject. Distance education thus can help overcome the problem of a shortage of qualified teachers.

The fact that the student has to read and write every thought has certain advantages over the conventional form of teaching. This can force the student into the habit of exact statement which is not necessarily gained from reciting facts orally. In stating in writing his conception of a principle, or his translation of a paragraph, there is a demand for greater accuracy of knowledge than is necessary in conventional oral communication. Mackenzie (1971:12) argues this point as follows: while each student, in an oral recitation, recites only between one-tenth, and one-sixteenth of the lesson assigned, each correspondence student recites the entire lesson, however long it may be. In four oral recitations, each student in a class of thirty recites eight minutes: in the preparation of a single recitation paper, the correspondence student spends at least two hours, aside from the previous work of preparing the lesson. Whereas the oral student must recite rapidly, often hurriedly, the correspondence student works out his recitation paper slowly and with thought.

The correspondence student is given all necessary assistance, but is compelled to obtain everything else for himself, or write out his questions and wait for the written answer. He is led to investigate, to be independent in his study, and to have confidence in the results of his own investigation, which the student, who has constant recourse to his instructor, does not have. If a written examination is a more thorough test of a student's knowledge of a given subject, a written recitation

is not, in respect to thoroughness, inferior to an oral one. The correspondence system requires of its students more thorough preparation of the lesson assigned, a more thorough recitation of it and a more thorough knowledge of the subject treated in that lesson.

A prime requisite in good teaching is the ability to assign the proper time to a lesson. Many excellent teachers fail on this point. The lesson is too long or too short, the ground to be covered is not definitely indicated, the method of work is not clearly stated. According to Mackenzie (1971:12), the correspondence lesson, since it is generally in printed form, is prepared with the greatest care. No part of it is given out hurriedly. It is the result of hours of careful study and calculation. If it is too long to be prepared within the set time, the student is allowed a longer time; if it can be prepared within a short time, the student can take up the next lesson.

The fact that the student can work at his own pace counts in favour of correspondence studies. The student receives his course early in the year and can thus plan his year's work. He is in a position to fit in study periods wherever he can and he is not forced to attend a formal class at a time which might be difficult for him. Having more time at his disposal he can consult more sources and not just one handbook. Young states:

"Its main advantage is its flexibility: people who have got jobs can study in their own time, in their own homes, without being removed from their work for long periods".
(Young, 1980:62)

Distance education has the advantage of concentrating on the individual, an advantage Andrew (1987:27) believes most other educational institutions find difficult to provide. A correspondence course is ideally designed for a one-to-one relationship between the student and a representative of the college in which he is studying.

Finally, according to Crawford-Nutt (1987:145), it can be claimed that thousands of men and women who are keen to study and cannot get themselves to the class situation, can be assisted by distance education. It is surely an advantage of the corre-

spondence system that it can aid this large group, who otherwise would have no help and would make no progress.

Distance education, on the other hand, has various problems and disadvantages for both the teacher and the student. If one compares the conventional system with the distance learning system, it would appear that the correspondence student is generally at a disadvantage. Niel (1981:40) lists five examples. In each case, a partial answer to this disadvantage is provided:

- The achievement of distance-learning systems can be inferior and second best to those of conventional systems. Van den Bogaerde (1987:41) agrees and says that there are various reasons why distance education is considered to be second-best to contact teaching. One is that learning is supposed to take place only when teaching takes place (and at the same time). In this case, learning is at best a much more laborious process for the distance student or pupil. In certain situations learning must be accompanied by the act of teaching. These statements are questionable because Childs (Holmberg, 1977:61) states that there seem to be no studies of achievement which show that correspondence study students do less well than classroom students, but there are a number which show that they do as well, and a number which show that they do better. This indicates that the distance-learning system is not always inferior to the conventional system;
- Distance learning inevitably leads to a reduction in academic standards, in the subject dealt with and the quality of the teaching. Andrew (1987:24) disagrees and states that this belief results in a high drop out rate;
- Certain subjects and disciplines cannot be learned satisfactorily through distance-learning, especially medicine, science, technology and engineering. This is not altogether true. Not all courses with a practical content are excluded in this way, examples at UNISA would be Practical Art, Social Work, Library Science, Physics, Chemistry and others. The possibility of offering practical courses at a distance is limited by the proportion which practical work forms of the total course content. The development of technology in the future could change this;

- In higher education, open access to distance-learning systems could lead to an over-production of people with degrees. This might be the case in certain countries but in South Africa there is a lack of qualified people in certain directions, for example management;
- Distance-learning systems might possibly be cost-effective, but this is largely owing to massive drop-out of students. This statement is also questionable because although there seems to be a large drop-out rate in distance learning (the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training's drop-out average of 19% from 1982-1986), the first year drop-out rate at residential universities, (the conventional system) is also extremely high.

According to Young (1980:62), one further objection can be brought forward against teletuition: it is essentially impersonal, missing the human communication which is the essence of good learning.

Teaching over a distance certainly creates problems for both parties involved.

Kapp (1987:64) states that the distance educator has a number of important 'pedagogical functions' that he must fulfil. He must play a principal part in the 'linking of learning material to learning' - by trying to relate the learning materials to each student's previous reinforcement patterns (Skinner) or to his 'mathemagenic' activities (Rothkopf), or to his previous knowledge and 'cognitive structure' (Ausubel) or to his previous comprehension of the basic concepts and principles of the curriculum (Bruner), or by concentrating on the task of establishing a good personal relationship with the learner (Rogers).

The nature of distance education will create problems for the lecturer or teacher. The first problem to be discussed stems directly from the correspondence process itself. A problem to be faced is that this two-way process results in a sharp break in the learning cycle, because the student has submitted an assignment for evaluation and has to wait for the feedback. The period of waiting causes a break in the learning cycle because it is no longer the centre of his attention. The student

is less likely to be concerned with rehearsing than would have been the case if evaluation had followed immediately after the original learning situation, and relearning had taken place before new material was presented. A study done by the University of South Africa (Greyling, 1981:5) found that 25% of the 719 students who responded said that tutorial letters did not reach them soon enough. A second problem in connection with the two-phase process is that in many cases the syllabus will not have been prepared by the person who evaluates the student's responses. There will be a problem of adjustment. Correspondence teaching also does not provide for individual differences. The syllabus, the lecture notes and methodology are usually rigid and tend to carry all students through the same set of experiences at the same time, irrespective of previous experiences or learning capacity.

Mackenzie (1971:113) states that a second set of problems are those which grow out of the problem of communication in a correspondence study setting. The fact that teachers are accustomed to using verbal explanations, results in difficulties. The change to written explanation causes problems, because teachers do not always express themselves well in writing. In teletuition the instructor is obliged to be precise and accurate in his writing. On the other hand, the classroom situation does not place a really high premium on accuracy of expression. The teacher can repeat something until he finds the right way of expressing himself. This will not be possible when one is writing. Writing is also a more laborious process than oral communication. Another problem resulting from the separation is that the teacher cannot sense immediately if the pupil does not understand. The teacher does not get the chance to get to know certain facts about the student. This results in gaps in the learning situation.

Smit (1987:144) believes that the greatest problem for the distance teacher is how to become an 'inspiring teacher behind the message'. He finds the answer to this question in teaching the student to stand on his own feet intellectually. The correspondence method makes this very difficult.

Mackenzie (1971:114) suggests that another set of problems is related to the fact that in correspondence study one is regu-

larly dealing with teachers who are unfamiliar with teletuition instruction. Smit (1987:146) states that the teachers' problem is how to use educational technology essentially as a way of looking at the total process of teaching and learning in a systematic way, that is, making sure that all elements of such aids are aligned with his didactic design. In other words the problem is how, where and when to use which medium in which part of his course with the greatest effect, not forgetting the follow-up work after having used these media. It is only after a time in the field that teachers begin to think within the correspondence study context.

According to McFarlane (1974:27), a further problem is one which results from rapid changes and discoveries. A study guide is time-consuming and expensive to produce and to change it regularly is also demanding on the teacher. Evaluation of tasks must be done thoroughly because this is the only way in which the pupils can judge their progress. If the teacher must keep abreast of developments in his field and evaluate properly, time will become a problem.

Finally, Childs (Mackenzie, 1971:118) holds that there is a lack of adequate knowledge about how to teach by correspondence. He claims methodology and other aspects of distance education need a lot of research. Teachers seem to find problems with the preparation of study guides. It is difficult to cater for the needs of all the students.

Teacher-student contact is greatly affected by the differing styles of learning among students. Smit (1987:145) believes that the problem from the teacher's point of view is that he has very little he can do about it because he uses a uniform study guide, into which he can build only a limited amount of flexibility.

Although there are problems for the teachers, there are also many for the student. Kapp (1987:57) sees an adult learner as "an autonomous, experience-laden, goal seeking, 'now' oriented, problem centred individual" and links this to distance education which "..... allows the learner to select the content and processes of learning; content and process

are based on individual needs and interests".

This ideal relationship does not always exist. The student is expected to perform his normal daily tasks, at home or work and only after these are done, can he study. One often finds widows, forced to return to their previous profession, studying by teletuition. After many years of being housewives, they have become the breadwinner. Correspondence study places a tremendous demand on such students.

According to McFarlane (1974:24), most teletuition students have lost contact with studying and they often live in environments which lack intellectual stimulus. In these circumstances the student feels out of touch. The feeling of doubt could make him hesitant and reluctant to take initiative when doing tasks.

One of the biggest problems with which a teletuition student has to cope is motivation. What makes a teletuition student study and why does he continue? Two factors are of importance: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation could be based on curiosity, challenge, a search for knowledge or the excitement of discovery. Extrinsic motivation goals are important in generating interest: competition with others for grades, for credits, increase in salary or promotion. Interest involves concepts of the self: the self that one hopes to be in the future. Vrey (McFarlane, 1974:24) did a research project at UNISA and discovered that 66% of teletuition students who passed were studying because they were interested in the course, but 56% were also interested in promotion. Using these facts he concluded that intrinsic motivation is a more important motivation than extrinsic and that motivation is important for successful study. It can be accepted that teletuition students are motivated or else they would not have gone to the trouble of registering and selecting a teletuition course. Harley (1987:46) claims that the nature of the teaching profession is such that it can be expected of teachers to be intrinsically motivated to be involved in academic and professional studies throughout their careers. The large number of teachers enrolled for formal studies at the universities and colleges as well as the sacrifices teachers make to attend conferences and in-

service activities at their own expense and in their own time, is evidence that this intrinsic motivation does exist in the profession in South Africa.

Mackenzie (1971:122) says that the teletuition student is also faced with the problem of readiness. This involves past experience, setting of goals, appraisal of the situation, assessment of the means/goals relationship, a fairly realistic concept of self and acceptance of evoked motives of whatever kind. In the classroom the teacher can sense the readiness of the pupils but the teletuition student must decide, by and large, whether he is ready. Non-starters and early drop-outs are evidence that many teletuition students have a problem with readiness.

As is the case with teachers, teletuition students will find problems because of teletuition's dependence on the written word. Greyling states:

"Words can only be interpreted in the light of previous experience and linguistic poverty may handicap more people than we realize".
(Greyling, 1981:25)

Students who have problems with reading and writing will have problems with teletuition courses. They will find it difficult to express themselves, make many grammatical errors and struggle to grasp what is wanted. This is probably true for most courses but will affect the teletuition student more because he does not have a teacher to turn to and relies very heavily on the written word: very little oral communication takes place. The multi-lingual society in South Africa will also cause a problem because of the various language groups; English, Afrikaans and Bantu languages, found in South Africa. Many courses are available in only one language while the textbooks are in another because the textbooks have to be imported. Teletuition students can be faced with the problem of translation from languages with which they are not comfortable.

Tasks are another source of trouble for teletuition students. Students sometimes do not understand the question or interpret it incorrectly. They often struggle to find adequate information about a specific topic and become frustrated. Tasks some-

times only cover a section of the work and the students find it difficult to determine what of the rest of the syllabus is important.

Mackenzie (1971:124) states that grasping the structure of the subject and seeing the totality of the course can cause problems for teletuition students. The structure of a subject is defined as content learned in a related, meaningful way and includes skills, principles, attitudes, ways of looking at things, information, the understanding of what makes the whole subject and related subjects comprehensible. The teletuition student has to rely mainly on textbooks which are often written for use by a teacher in the classroom, in subjects such as mathematics and science, where past experience, seeing things happen in a laboratory and understanding steps, automatically put the teletuition student at a disadvantage. In seeing the subject as a totality three factors are of importance: evaluation, frequency and time spent on tasks. Evaluation of a task is very important to the student because this is the only way in which he can judge his performance. McFarlane (1974:24) suggested that negative comments or poor results could result in a student dropping out.

Finally, according to Young (1980:68), isolation also seems to create problems for teletuition students. In many of the rural and country areas one often finds just one student doing a specific course. He will lack the stimulus of discussion with his tutor or with other students in his class, and lacking that stimulus and those points of comparison, finds it difficult to know how he is getting on, and is easily discouraged. Crawford-Nutt (1987:54) says that this is especially true for students whose perception of their ability to learn has been adversely affected by their experience at school. This situation in distance education can be disastrous.

As can be seen, distance education lecturers and students are faced with various problems. In a later chapter these problems in relation to history at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training will be examined.

This chapter has examined the original ideas of distance edu-

cation, its subsequent development, its advantages and its disadvantages, and its relationship with other forms of organized learning. The next chapter will assess the need for distance education for teachers in South Africa with special emphasis being given to those employed by the Cape Education Department.

CHAPTER TWO

THE NEED

Is there a need for correspondence facilities for further training of primary school teachers in the Cape? In this chapter an attempt will be made to answer this question. Firstly, the patterns of primary teacher training in the Cape will receive attention. This is important because it will reflect the reasons for the present situation. Secondly, the need for such facilities and the factors which created these needs will be examined. In other words, if there is a need, why? Thirdly, the increase and decrease in the demand for teachers in the Cape will be looked at. This is important because the demand for teachers will determine the need for further teacher training facilities.

The training of teachers is part of the educational structure of a system for the provision of education. No other single factor determines to so great an extent the quality of education in a country as the quality of teachers, lecturers and instructors. The Human Sciences Research Council's report on the Provision of Education in the R.S.A. (1981:180) states "that the quality of work done in education is determined by a number of factors, namely recruitment, selection, education and training". These factors will receive attention in this chapter.

In November 1910, the year in which South Africa became a Union, the Heads of the Education Departments of the four provinces decided that while primary education remained in the hands of the four provinces, each province was responsible for its own teacher training. Visagie (1980:902) says that the Cape Province decided in 1912 that teachers for primary schools should be training at teachers' colleges and teachers for secondary school at universities.

The table that follows is a summary of the certificates which teachers could obtain at various institutions in the Cape until 1920:

Table I: SUMMARY OF TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES IN CAPE UNTIL 1920.
(Malherbe, 1925:156)

Certificate		Length of Course	Standard of Admission
First Class	T1	1,5 years	B.A.
Second Class	T2	2 years	Matric
Third Class	T3 (Senior)	3 years	Std. VIII (VIII in 1920)
Third Class	T3 (Junior)	3 years	Std. VI
Elementary Kindergarten (E.K.G.)		1 year	T3 or P.T. 2
Higher Kindergarten (H.K.G.)		1 year	E.K.G.
Domestic Science		1 year	T3

Behr and Macmillan (1971:268) explain that in 1920 the pupil-teacher system was abolished in the Cape entirely and all training was from then onwards undertaken by normal colleges and university institutions, while after 1924 no person could obtain a teachers' certificate in the Cape merely by passing the prescribed examination after private study. To obtain a teachers' certificate it became necessary to attend full-time an approved course of training at a recognised institution for the training of teachers. By 1930 there were 12 Teachers' Colleges and Training Schools and two universities providing teacher training. The names of certificates and their entry qualifications for primary teaching had also been changed to a pattern of a basic two-year training with the possible addition of another year of more specialised study. The names were now the P.T.C. (Higher) with Standard 10 entry and P.T.C. (Lower), which was expected to bring the student up to the level of Standard 10. This pattern remained until 1968 when a start was made with a new three-year training course; leading to the Primary Teachers' Diploma. The one-year Higher Primary Course which followed on the Primary Teachers' Certificate course was continued until the end of 1970, in order to give serving teachers with only two years training the opportunity to improve their qualifications.

The new three-year course introduced in 1968 for the Primary Teachers' Diploma is based on the 1 plus 2 principle. In the

first year training is basic and uniform for all students. From the second year students must direct their studies specifically to either junior work with a view to teaching the lower primary classes, or senior primary work with a view to teaching the upper primary classes.

Visagie (1980:1 003) explains that to make it possible for specialization of the Primary Education Diploma, a one-year diploma (D.E.) in practical subjects was introduced in 1971. In 1972 a similar one-year diploma course was introduced for academic subjects and in January 1975 a four-year course in junior primary teaching for kindergarten was introduced.

These developments can be summarized in this way. At present Cape teachers' colleges offer:

- A three-year teachers diploma (Junior and Senior) which is split after the first year into junior primary (Sub. A to Standard 1) and secondary primary (Standard 2 to Standard 5).
- A one-year Higher Diploma in Education (Junior or Senior Primary) which follows the three-year course.
- A Higher Diploma in Education (Junior and Senior Primary) which is a continuous four-year course.

The Education Gazette (22 August 1968:1 177) states that since 1968 the training course for these Primary Teachers' Diplomas could be done at the following colleges: Graaff-Reinet, Grahamstown, Cape Town, Oudtshoorn, Paarl, Stellenbosch (Denneoord) and Wellington. The Port Elizabeth Teachers' College was established in 1974 and the Teachers' College in Grahamstown was closed in 1975. Since 1987 two colleges, Graaff-Reinet and Denneoord have become Colleges for Continued Training. This means that there are presently five teachers' colleges at which primary school teachers can be trained. Clase, Minister of Education and Culture in the House of Representatives, announced in September 1987 (Burger, 29 September 1987) that Oudtshoorn and Paarl Teachers' Colleges would be phased out from 1988 and close down in December 1989. This means that as from the beginning of 1990 there will only be three teachers' colleges training primary teachers on a full-time basis in the Cape.

There are also at present four universities (Cape Town, Rhodes, Stellenbosch and Port Elizabeth) involved in primary teacher training and this has increased the number of teachers being trained. From 1980 colleges were joined to universities so that syllabi, evaluation and staff could be determined and co-ordinated (Visagie, 1970:1 010).

Finally, it is important to note that many serving teachers had been trained under older patterns and thus have only a two- or three-year qualification. In fact some of them have been teaching no more than 20 years and still have many years of teaching ahead of them. Much of the need to upgrade primary school teacher qualifications can be attributed to the teacher training pattern followed in the Cape over the years.

Circular 84 (1979:1) of the Cape Education Department stated that the department had carried out a survey in March 1979 to determine if there was a need to upgrade underqualified primary school teachers. This survey indicated that there was a need for such facilities. On what information this conclusion was made is difficult to detect because Bot (1986:88) in her report, An overview of teacher in-service education and training (INSET) programmes in South Africa, states that Natal is the only province in which teacher training needs are exactly known.

A research project done by Norton (1987:6) provides the following figures in connection with the primary school teachers in the Cape Province. These are important because the report appeared in the second half of 1987 and so represents the most up-to-date picture of the situation in the Province. There are approximately 7 700 primary teaching posts in the Cape Province. He speculates that there are about 2 000 teachers who are in possession of a Primary Teachers' Certificate (P.T.C.) or Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (H.P.T.C.); but between 1 600 and 1 700 of these are over 40 years of age. Many of these teachers will not be interested in consolidating their qualifications. He thus estimates that about 400 would be interested in a consolidation course. There are approximately 1 800 teachers who have a Diploma in Education (D.E.) only, but of these between 1 500 and 1 600 are under 40 years of age and so many will find it useful to study for a Higher Diploma

in Education (H.D.E.). The problem with determining these figures is the unknown factor of how many teachers, who are not teaching at the moment and possess P.T.C., H.P.T.C. and D.E. qualifications, might wish to upgrade their qualifications. Norton estimates that about 200 teachers fall into this category. From these figures it would seem as if there may be approximately 2 200 primary school teachers in the Cape Province who would be interested in upgrading their qualifications. These figures indicate that there is still a need for Colleges for Continued Training.

In response to a questionnaire of Norton's (1987:7), 26% of the respondents stated that they were teaching subjects or in areas of the school for which they had not trained, and of these 74% stated that they would like to receive further training in the subject or area for which they had been trained. The questionnaire also indicated that 33% of respondents would like to receive training in subjects for which they were not teaching at present. It would thus appear that there is also a need to offer training in certain individual subjects at the Colleges for Continued Training.

Yule (1987:71) shows that 25% of the students at UNISA are teachers and this makes it the largest institute in South Africa for the academic training of teachers. Harley (1987:49) says that a vast majority of these teachers, 17 373, are studying at the undergraduate level and of these 4 701 (27%) were white. Yule (1987:72) therefore claims that there is a definite need for expansion of primary school teacher training facilities that make use of distance teaching.

The following figure, compiled from the Report of the Director of Education in the Cape 1977 to 1984, can be used to make deductions in connection with the needs for such training facilities.

Table II: TEACHERS WITH TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES OR DIPLOMAS IN CAPE PRIMARY SCHOOLS BETWEEN 1977 AND 1984. (Reports of the Director of Education in the Cape Province 1977 to 1984).

Year	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
Non-graduate								
- without additional diploma	3470	3586	3377	3609	3702	3704	5704	5643
- with additional diploma	2122	2174	2416	2179	2155	2065	205	187

This table indicates that between 1977 and 1982 there were about 3 500 teachers who had only one diploma and were teaching full-time. This in itself indicates a need for facilities to study. In 1983 there was a tremendous increase in the number of teachers with only one diploma. This can be attributed to three factors. Firstly, married women could now be appointed to permanent posts. For example in 1984 1 370 women qualified for permanent appointments. As a result many married women with two- and three-year qualifications returned to teaching. Many of these women have indicated that they wish to improve their qualifications. To encourage this, the Cape Education Department provided incentives, for example, a bursary of R500 per person per year, a consolidation course, increase in salaries, studying facilities and study leave concessions. As mothers, wives and established members of various communities, they could not study on a full-time basis, so it was necessary to provide correspondence facilities. Secondly, students tended to stay longer as full-time students and completed the four-year Higher Diploma in Education. For this group special courses are being investigated, such as Educational Management, Gifted Child and Curriculum Development. Thirdly, teachers could consolidate two diplomas and obtain a single three-year diploma.

Although there has been a drastic drop in the number of students (Table II) with additional diplomas, many of these stu-

dents have got a two-year diploma plus a one-year specialization diploma. Thus they basically only have a three-year qualification. These students need facilities to enable them to study further and get a four or five-year qualification.

In the light of Yule and Norton's work, the survey done by the Department and the deductions made from table I, it can be concluded that there is a need for facilities at which full-time primary school teachers can study to improve their qualifications. Important to remember is the type of student involved and their needs. An institution presenting teletuition courses seems to be the ideal solution to these students' needs.

What caused this need? It will be remembered that in 1920 the minimum qualification for a teacher was the Primary Teachers' Certificate (P.T.C.), obtained after two years of study. Although various three and even four-year courses were introduced, the P.T.C. was to be the basic minimum qualification for teachers until 1968. In 1968 a three-year training course, the Primary Teachers' Diploma, became the basic minimum qualification for primary school teachers. This means that many of the teachers who qualified before 1968 have only a two-year qualification which has many disadvantages in the teaching profession today.

The first disadvantage is that such teachers fall into category B for salary purpose. The following figure shows the relationship between qualifications and salaries.

Table III: CATEGORIES AND SALARY SCALES FOR TEACHERS.
(Circular 57/1987 Annexure B)

Years of successful teacher training completed	Category	Salary in Rands	
		Male	Female
1	A	R 8 604-16 596	R 6 186-13 473
2	B	9 561-17 637	6 930-14 514
3	C	13 473-22 629	11 475-20 133
4	D	15 555-25 353	13 473-22 629
5	E	16 596-26 715	14 514-23 991

To study by means of correspondence at the institutions provided gives a full-time teacher an ideal opportunity to improve low qualifications and salaries. This in turn will increase pension and gratuities. Opie (1982:45) states that it is also a way of furthering personal job satisfaction and development.

The second disadvantage for teachers with a two-year qualification concerns promotion which in turn will effect their financial position. According to Visagie (1980:1 084), until 1968, the P.T.C. was sufficient for promotion, but this changed in 1980. The Cape Education Department Circular 44 (1979:1) determined that from 1 January 1980, minimum qualifications for promotion posts in the primary school would be:

- Head of Department - Category D and 5 years actual teaching experience or category C and 6 years actual teaching experience.
- Deputy Headmaster - Category D and 6 years actual teaching experience or category C and 7 years actual teaching experience.
- Headmaster P4 (The smallest primary school) - Category C and 5 years actual teaching experience.
- Headmaster P1 (The biggest primary school) - Category D and 7 years actual teaching experience.

From discussions held with students (teachers) it appears that the Cape Education Department Selection Board is reluctant to put teachers with three-year qualifications on the various shortlists to be nominated for promotion.

It can be seen, therefore, that teachers with two-year qualifications cannot be considered at all for promotion. Most promotion posts require three-year and even four-year qualifications. This in itself should motivate teachers, especially breadwinners, to study further. Many teachers who were qualified before 1968 are presently in senior (promotion) posts but only have temporary appointments because of a lack of qualifications.

The Cape Education Department has tried to motivate teachers to study further by means of legislation. Circular 57 (1984:1)

states that since January 1978 the recognition of diplomas for categories and salary purposes has been limited to a maximum of two diplomas in Education, and to a maximum of category E. This means that students with a three-year qualification (category C) made up from two diplomas such as a Primary Teachers' Certificate and a further one-year (Higher) Teachers' Diploma cannot get to category D, unless they study full-time. According to Van Niekerk (1987:143) it has become possible to consolidate two such diplomas to Higher Diploma in Education level by means of correspondence. A consolidation course does not lead to a higher category, but places the full-time teacher in a position to study for a diploma which will be recognized for salary purposes. In other words it provides students with the qualification to study for a Higher Diploma in Education, raising their qualification to category D. This course can only be taken at a College for Continued Training. The Prospectus (1987:3) of the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training states further that it has become impossible for in-service teachers with a two-year diploma to improve their qualifications by attending college full-time. These students must also follow a correspondence course to improve their qualifications.

Petersen (1987:63) states that the Transvaal Education Department was faced with similar problems. They established in 1974 an institution, the Transvaal College of Education for Further Training in Pretoria, to provide correspondence courses for primary school teachers to enable them to improve their qualifications. The Cape Education Department decided to follow suit and in 1980 established correspondence departments at Cape Town, Graaff-Reinet, Paarl, Port Elizabeth and from 1985 Denneoord colleges. In 1987 Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College and Denneoord became institutions exclusively presenting correspondence courses on a full-time basis to primary school teachers.

The demand for teachers in the Cape Province has increased and decreased over the years and this has influenced the need for teacher training institutions. In 1912 it was decided in the Cape that primary school teacher training would be done

only by teachers' colleges and secondary teacher training by universities. Coetzee (1963:115) states that by 1930 the teacher training in the Union was in chaos because there was no universal control, which resulted in each institution presenting its own degrees and diplomas, with differences in facilities and the training of primary and secondary teachers by both colleges and universities. At provincial level there were also problems because many of the teacher training institutions were not properly run. The depression years created its own problems, since children did not remain in schools for long and there was thus a surplus of secondary school teachers. This resulted in a transfer of teachers from secondary schools into primary schools. The Second World War (1939-1945), also created problems for the teaching profession. Many teachers went to fight or were drawn into the private sector because of better salaries, working benefits and future prospects.

According to Visagie (1980:921-925), there was a great shortage of primary school teachers in the Cape by 1947. The number of students in teachers' training colleges in the Cape Province declined from 1 201 in 1943 to 920 in 1948. In 1951 the Cape Education Department decided to raise the salaries of teachers, which led to an improvement in the situation. By 1953 the first year intake of students increased to the extent that additional classes had to be established at the Paarl, Wellington and Stellenbosch Teachers' Colleges. Although this was an improvement of the situation, it was not the ultimate solution. For example, by June 1955 there were 1 126 vacancies in Cape school staffs. This shortage of teachers was world-wide at this time.

As far as primary schools are concerned the problem remained consistent. Malan, Director of Education in the Cape (1961), stated that in each year between 1956-1960, there were 1 200 vacant primary school posts (Visagie, 1980:428). This number remained consistent throughout the period indicating that just enough new teachers were being trained to replace those that left the profession.

Visagie (1980:930) shows that the problem of teacher training

continued throughout the 1960's. For example, in 1967 there was a shortage of teachers in the primary schools of 23% and secondary schools of 50%. In the primary schools the problem could be solved by using married women but this resulted in poor teaching and a lack of continuity because they were poorly qualified and have only taught for short periods at a time.

By the early 70's new demands were being made upon the provision of education which also affected the supply and the nature of the training of teachers. Visagie (1980:939) believes that it is important to look at the situation in a number of ways:

- industry and the private sector draw teachers away through better salaries,
- increase of compulsory school going age to 16 and the growing tendency amongst White pupils to remain to the end of secondary school,
- growing number of pupils in both the primary and secondary school. A survey by the Institute of Race Relations (1985:3) shows that the White pupil numbers in South Africa reached a peak in 1980 (959 000 pupils). Since then there has been a steady decline in the number of White pupils in both primary and secondary school,
- teaching became a profession in that societies were established to look after the interests of teachers,
- differentiated teaching was established in all the provinces. This meant firstly that pupils could select to do subjects on a higher standard or lower level. Secondly, Technical, Commercial and Agricultural schools were established to cater for the needs of the various pupils,
- economic and political circumstances in South Africa.

The above factors indicate that there was a need for more qualified teachers. Visagie (1980:939) believes that at this stage teachers' colleges in the Cape had inadequate facilities to cater for this need.

The problem was tackled by improving salaries, pensions, general service benefits, bursaries for students and the permanent appointment of women. Towards the end of the 1970's it became clear that difficult economic conditions in the country had resulted in a tremendous influx of schoolleavers into teaching

as a profession.

Table IV presents a picture of the number of White schools, pupils and teachers in South Africa between 1967 and 1985. It can be seen that as far as schools are concerned there has been a decrease of 202 schools in South Africa in the period 1967 to 1985. In Natal and Transvaal, however, there has been a steady increase of 43 and 69 respectively. In the Orange Free State there has been a decrease of 68 schools. In the Cape there has been a very considerable decrease of 336 schools. This is more than the total decrease in the rest of South Africa. This can be attributed to more prosperous working opportunities in the Transvaal and Natal and to population migration. Pupil numbers also show variations between the Provinces. The number of school-going children in Natal (28 890) and particularly the Transvaal (155 072) has increased substantially. In comparison, the increase in the Cape (6 039) and Orange Free State (5 378) has been moderate. While the number of pupils in the other provinces has been increasing gradually, in the Cape a peak was reached in 1978. This has been followed by a gradual drop in pupil numbers. The table also shows that there has been an increase in the number of teachers in all four provinces. In the Transvaal (9 869) there has been the largest increase, followed by the Cape (3 272), Natal (1 886) and the Orange Free State (625). In the Cape, therefore, an imbalance between schools, pupils and teachers has developed.

According to Knoetze (Die Unie, 1987:213), Assistant Director of Education in the Cape, the number of Sub. A entrants in the Cape since 1977 has dropped by 20,57%. This amount has stabilized since 1984 and in 1987 the decrease was only 0,83%. The number of primary school teachers dropped from 6 700 in 1978 to just under 5 500 in 1986. The position in the secondary school is different because "kinders word langer op die skoolbanke gehou" (Die Unie, 1987:213). The number in Standard 6 increased from 19 840 in 1977 to 20 962 in 1986. During the same period matriculants increased from 13 221 to 15 364.

From table IV it can be seen that in the Cape there has been an over production of teachers in relation to the pupils which

Table IV: THE NUMBER OF WHITE SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS
IN SOUTH AFRICA.
(South African Statistics, 1986:5.15)

Year	South Africa	Cape	Natal	Transvaal	O.F.S.
Schools					
1967	2 672	1 153	278	967	274
1968	2 641	1 126	284	962	269
1969	2 591	1 100	283	950	258
1970	2 631	1 087	298	988	258
1971	2 613	1 067	306	986	254
1972	2 570	1 041	305	976	248
1973	2 543	1 020	309	973	241
1974	2 505	989	309	975	232
1975	2 477	967	312	972	226
1976	2 453	944	305	984	220
1977	2 431	918	305	990	218
1978	2 424	909	304	996	215
1979	2 410	889	309	997	215
1980	2 403	869	310	1 011	213
1981	2 397	856	311	1 021	209
1982	2 388	843	310	1 027	208
1983	2 383	833	312	1 029	209
1984	2 377	829	311	1 031	206
1985	2 380	817	321	1 036	206
Pupils					
1967	786 269	235 640	86 930	394 619	69 080
1968	802 367	236 190	89 293	406 716	70 168
1969	812 195	237 758	89 384	415 014	70 039
1970	854 413	247 269	93 283	441 709	72 152
1971	866 622	247 927	94 962	461 730	72 003
1972	874 891	247 412	98 315	457 447	71 717
1973	884 928	247 322	100 282	466 103	71 021
1974	890 695	246 667	101 949	471 494	70 585
1975	903 877	246 587	103 546	483 225	70 519
1976	922 120	248 601	106 164	496 145	71 210
1977	936 632	247 881	107 923	509 010	71 818
1978	945 077	248 179	109 386	514 997	72 482
1979	951 816	245 787	110 746	522 989	72 294
1980	954 375	245 088	110 446	530 851	71 990
1981	964 449	242 466	112 257	537 381	72 345
1982	973 873	242 038	114 481	544 220	73 134
1983	982 278	242 608	115 919	549 517	74 234
1984	982 369	242 173	115 857	549 380	74 959
1985	981 648	241 679	115 820	549 691	74 458

Table IV (Continued): THE NUMBER OF WHITE SCHOOLS, PUPILS
AND TEACHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA.
(South African Statistics, 1986:5.15)

Year	South Africa	Cape	Natal	Transvaal	O.F.S.
Teachers					
1967	36 855	11 697	4 683	16 781	3 700
1968	37 932	11 851	4 934	17 402	3 745
1969	38 733	12 140	5 166	17 625	3 802
1970	42 067	13 013	5 683	19 336	4 035
1971	42 995	13 019	6 086	19 901	3 989
1972	44 957	13 297	7 219	20 986	2 012
1973	43 013	12 938	6 099	20 024	3 952
1974	43 750	13 023	6 178	20 601	3 939
1975	44 565	13 168	6 294	21 119	3 984
1976	45 577	13 371	6 249	21 922	4 035
1977	46 816	13 610	6 423	22 692	4 091
1978	47 815	14 009	6 394	23 303	4 109
1979	48 483	14 224	6 445	23 606	4 208
1980	50 093	14 320	6 474	25 091	4 208
1981	51 186	14 505	6 630	25 849	4 202
1982	52 207	14 780	6 662	26 562	4 239
1983	52 941	14 803	6 597	27 263	4 295
1984	53 507	14 879	6 678	27 616	4 334
1985	52 507	14 963	6 569	26 650	4 328

would obviously result in a decline in demand for teachers especially primary school teachers. The following table shows the increase/decrease in vacant posts for White teachers in Cape schools between 1980 and 1984.

Table V: THE INCREASE/DECREASE IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING POSTS IN CAPE SCHOOLS BETWEEN 1980 AND 1984.
(Director of Education Report, 1984:23)

Posts	Increase/Decrease in Teacher Numbers				
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
Pre-primary Teachers	11	33	31	-	22
Primary Teachers	42	104	128	2	- 37
Special Classes and Special Schools	17	- 18	- 23	- 20	- 8
Secondary Teachers	183	68	42	33	61
Lecturers at Teachers' Colleges	14	- 6	- 6	- 14	- 9
Music Teachers	30	25	49	11	- 4
TOTAL	263	204	221	12	25
PERCENTAGE INCREASE	1,88	1,43	1,53	0,08	0,17

As far as primary schools are concerned there was a considerable drop in the number of primary school posts between 1983 and 1984. Viljoen, Minister of National Education, told Die Burger (2 December 1986:6) that in 1986 about 270 primary posts were terminated and in 1985, 234. He also said that 798 newly qualified teachers had bursaries and required posts. Visagie (1980:947) explained that in 1977 the Cape Education Department undertook a research project which resulted in the department being able to make projections towards the future. There was subsequently a drop in the number of students in colleges. A quota system was introduced and the number of bursaries reduced. The number of students who received bursaries for universities and technicons in 1983 was 2 173 but only 1 958 in 1984. The number of bursary students

studying at teachers' colleges dropped from 1 711 in 1983 to 1 676 in 1984. An article in Die Unie (1987:214) shows that the problem of present bursary holders who would required posts, would create problems for another two years. Steps have been taken to cut bursary holders in the Cape by 30% this year, a figure which was based on projections to 1991.

The following table shows the number of White students in colleges throughout the country between 1970 and 1985.

Table VI: THE NUMBER OF WHITE STUDENTS IN TEACHERS' COLLEGES IN SOUTH AFRICA.
(South African Statistics, 1986:5.59)

Year	Institutions				Students			
	Cape	Natal	Trans-vaal	O.F.S.	Cape	Natal	Trans-vaal	O.F.S.
1970	7	3	4	1	2 305	947	7 403	753
1971	7	3	4	1	2 373	996	8 378	806
1972	7	3	4	1	2 541	1 128	7 507	880
1973	7	3	4	1	2 574	1 110	7 500	877
1974	8	3	4	1	2 623	1 150	6 040	882
1975	8	3	4	1	2 652	1 128	5 515	856
1976	7	3	4	1	2 651	1 165	5 869	840
1977	7	3	4	1	2 698	1 292	6 929	849
1978	8	3	4	1	2 737	1 380	6 935	781
1979	8	3	4	1	2 734	1 385	6 980	785
1980	8	3	5	1	2 590	1 254	6 635	651
1981	8	3	5	1	2 397	1 197	5 895	628
1982	8	3	5	1	2 401	1 151	5 678	683
1983	8	3	5	1	2 242	1 138	6 168	693
1984	8	3	5	1	2 155	1 168	6 672	708
1985	7	3	5	1	1 802	1 206	6 944	718

This table shows that in all four provinces there was a student boom between 1975 and 1978. In the Transvaal, Natal and Orange Free State between 1982 and 1985 the student numbers have remained more or less consistent. In the Cape Province during

this period there has been a gradual decline but it did not match the decline in the number of pupils (table IV).

The reason for the decline in the number of pupils in the Cape is the drop in White birthrate and poor economic prospects. According to Die Burger (1986:6), the drop in birth rate among White South Africans is a general occurrence in South Africa. In 1915 the growth rate was 29,3%, in 1930 it was 16,4% and in 1980 it was 16%. Between 1981 and 1985 the growth rate stabilized at 16%. Although there has been a general decrease in the White birthrate, the Cape Province seems to have suffered most from this phenomenon. The following table shows the growth rate of the White population in the various provinces between 1980 and 1985.

Table VII: THE GROWTH OF THE WHITE POPULATION IN SOUTH AFRICA IN THE VARIOUS PROVINCES BETWEEN 1980 AND 1985.
(Volschenk, 1987:12)

Province	Increase in population	Percentage Increase
Transvaal	230 101	79,5
Orange Free State	20 751	7,2
Natal	20 628	7,1
Cape Province	18 055	6,2
TOTAL	289 535	100,0

The Eastern Cape, which is of particular interest to this study because most of the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College students come from this area, is one of the areas affected most adversely. Cull (1987:3) states that between 1980 and 1987 primary schools in the Uitenhage and Port Elizabeth area lost 3 350 primary school pupils. The sharpest drop in enrolment came after 1984 when the motor industry faced financial difficulties. Another factor which has affected the rural areas in the Eastern Cape since 1981, is the fact that many farmers have sold their farms to the Transkei and moved to

other parts of the country. The Human Sciences Research Council in its report on Provision of Education in the R.S.A. (1981:20) reminds the reader that in urban areas demographic movement plays an important role because in established areas with an older population whose children have grown up, schools are closing while in developing areas, where younger families live, new schools were being built. In the Port Elizabeth area not much development is taking place, thus not many new schools are needed.

Cull (1987:3) claims further that while the number of primary school pupils were dropping the secondary school intake was increasing; between 1980 and 1987 the increase in the Eastern Cape secondary schools was 2 900 with the largest increase taking place in 1987. This is a similar situation as in the rest of South Africa.

According to Booysen (1987:6) the drop in pupil numbers has resulted in 34 posts - 32 at primary schools and two at high schools - being scrapped in this area at the end of 1986. In an interview, the secretary of the Port Elizabeth School Board, De Waal, said that a total of 77 teaching posts in the Port Elizabeth/Uitenhage area were in jeopardy. Of these four are in the senior school and 75 in the primary school (Booyesen, 1987:6). The problem of an oversupply of primary school teachers is, therefore, particularly acute in the Eastern Cape.

The Cape Education Department has, therefore, implemented measures to control the training of teachers. For example, it has introduced the college quota system and has cut down the number of bursaries it awards. This has resulted in fewer students entering teachers' colleges (only 75 places in colleges will be filled in 1988). Two residential teachers' colleges, namely Graaff-Reinet and Denneoord in Stellenbosch have been closed. Since 1987 these two institutions have become Colleges for Continued Training, presenting correspondence courses to full-time teachers. As a result of the rationalisation policy adopted by the Cape Education Department in 1988, it was decided that as from 1990 the above institutions would share the correspondence course. Graaff-Reinet College will offer Geography, Xhosa, History, English and Afrikaans, and

Denneoord Education, Mathematics, Biology and Physical Science.

According to Norton (1987:6) the professional personnel at the Head Office of the Cape Education Department believe that Colleges for Continued Training should provide for:

Primary school teachers who:

- need their initial qualifications upgraded, and
- wished to do further education courses.

Secondary school teachers who wished to do further education courses that would help them at the secondary level.

The fact that there is an oversupply of teachers and a need for upgrading teacher qualifications would seem contradictory. But many underqualified teachers presently have permanent appointments, while the intake of trainee teachers is being reduced. It thus became necessary to look at the qualifications of the teachers already in the "field" and upgrade their qualifications.

A need for a correspondence course for primary school teachers has arisen because of the changes which took place in the pattern of teacher training in 1968. Since then the Cape Education Department has approved various regulations in connection with primary school teachers, for example no promotion posts for teachers with a two-year qualification; only two diplomas are recognised for salary purposes; teachers with P.T.C. cannot study full-time; and salaries of teachers are determined mainly by qualifications and not years of experience. These regulations plus the fact that Cape Education Department has made bursaries available to teachers to study further, has not only created a need but also motivated primary school teachers to study further. To cater for the need and type of student two Colleges for Continued Training have been established in the Cape.

The number of qualified teachers needed will be determined by the number of children which in turn will determine the number of institutions needed to present teacher training courses. During the 1920's the teachers trained in the Cape fulfilled the demand. In the years from 1930 to 1945 various developments, for example the Depression and Second World War, resulted

in a decline in the number of trained teachers. Between 1950 and the early 1970's there was an increasing shortage of teachers. This resulted in the Cape Education Department making the teaching profession more attractive to draw more people to the teaching profession. In the mid 1970 there was an exodus of Whites from the Cape and a drop in the White birth rate. By 1978, the situation had arisen where more teachers were being trained than were needed. To solve the problem the Cape Education Department decided to limit college student quotas and decrease the number of bursaries provided. The decrease in student numbers forced the Department to reconsider the existence of certain teachers' colleges. The Department also decided in 1980 to provide in-service teachers the opportunity to improve their qualifications, rather than training more. Thus, instead of closing down the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College and Denneoord completely, they became Colleges for Continued Training.

This chapter has shown that there is a need for facilities at which primary school teachers can improve their qualifications. The Cape Education Department has established two such institutions at which full-time teachers can study part-time by means of correspondence. This means that the teachers can study at home and will not have to leave their schools and family. This also means that teachers not only improve their qualifications but they also come into contact with new teaching methods, resulting, it is hoped, in better teaching. It is important to remember that these colleges only cater for students/teachers who already have a teaching qualification. The following chapter will look at some institutions which provide correspondence courses and to which this study can be related.

CHAPTER THREE

MODELS FOR POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Chapter two has determined that there is a need for facilities at which Cape primary school teachers can improve their qualifications and proposed that because of the position of the students (full-time teachers) correspondence courses seem to be the logical solution. It is thus important to look at various models of distance teaching and how they are applied at certain institutions. In this chapter the British Open University, the University of South Africa (UNISA) and the establishing of Colleges for Continued/Further Training for primary school teachers in South Africa will be more closely examined.

The use of distance teaching methods for university-level education is a practice that goes back over one hundred years. When the University of London was established in 1836, it gave no instruction, it merely registered and examined students for external degrees. Private concerns, such as Wolsey Hall, arose to provide correspondence tuition for students enrolled for London external degrees. This is one pattern of provision, and perhaps the earliest correspondence tuition provided by an independent organization for degrees awarded by a public university. It is still to be found in a number of countries.

According to Kaye and Rumble (1981:15) a second model is that of a conventional university which provides correspondence study facilities itself to external students, as well as examining and accrediting these students. Three variants of this model can be distinguished, but many university schemes fall between these variants:

- universities offering correspondence teaching in one department only, for example the School of Education at the University of the South Pacific.
- universities in which teaching departments are required to accept both internal and correspondence students, with a separate department responsible for administrative aspects of correspondence study, for example the University of

New England in America.

- universities which have separate correspondence teaching units, with both teaching and administrative functions, for example the University of Queensland in Australia.

A third model of university-level correspondence teaching is that of collaboration between a number of different institutions of higher education in catering for external students, for example the Entente de L'Est in France.

A fourth model given by Kaye and Rumble (1981:16), which is probably unique to France, is that of a massive centralised state provision of correspondence education at all levels, including university level. Examinations and qualifications attained are identical to those of the formal school/university sector.

The model which represents the most recent development is that of autonomous institutions established solely and specifically for external students using a variety of distance teaching methods to provide specially prepared multi-media courses, and with formal responsibility for evaluation and accreditation. Kaye and Rumble (1981:16) claim that the first of this new generation of institutions was Britain's Open University, so called because of its lack of formal entry requirements, and the 'open-ness' of its teaching. This model therefore deserves more detailed attention.

The Robbins report on Higher Education in 1963 stated that there was an untapped pool of adults in the United Kingdom who could benefit from an university education but had "missed-out" in their lives (Rumble and Harry, 1982:170). In the early 1960's only 6 to 7 percent of school leavers each year proceeded to any form of higher education.

According to Schuller and Megarry (1979:271) post-war changes in industry and commerce and employment generally under the impact of science and technology, together with changes favouring a more egalitarian society, have led to changes in education and training, and sharpened demands for increasing educational opportunities. Perry (1976:1) holds that the concept of the Open University evolved from the convergence of three

major postwar educational trends. The first of these concerns development in the provision of adult education, the second the growth of educational broadcasting and the third, the political objective of promoting the spread of egalitarianism in education.

MacArthur (Tunstall, 1974:4) quotes a speech delivered by Wilson in Glasgow in which he described his idea of a "University of the Air", integral part of its teaching system, and whose principal purpose would be to increase the number of graduate teachers and qualified scientists and technologists. In 1964 Wilson became Prime Minister of England and asked Lee, a junior minister in the Department of Education and Science, to take responsibility for the University of the Air project. In 1967 the Government established a Planning Committee. Venables (1979:273) states that a Royal Charter was granted in June 1969, establishing the Open University, and the first courses began in January 1971.

The Planning Committee defined the objectives of the university as:

"the advancement and dissemination of learning and knowledge by teaching and research by a diversity of means such as broadcasting and technological devices appropriate to higher education, by correspondence tuition, residential courses and seminars and in other relevant ways, and shall be to provide education of university and professional standards for its students and to promote the educational well-being of the community generally".
(Venables, 1979:273)

Harry (Kaye and Rumble, 1981:308) says that at the beginning of 1980 around 70 000 students were enrolled. From the earliest years, the largest proportion of applicants had been teachers and professional people, but now nearly one-third of applicants are manual and routine non-manual workers. Holmberg (1981,128) states that students are enrolled without being asked for any formal entrance qualifications and people above normal study age, who are gainfully employed, and who have no intention of going in for full-time study are deliberately favoured. The only requirement for degree study is that the student must be at least 21 years of age.

There are basically three programmes of study:

- undergraduate (B.A. Hons.) (over 100 course options).
- postgraduate (B. Phil, M. Phil, Ph.D., all research based).
- self-contained associate student courses.

Tunstall (1974:viii) describes The Open University's unusual timetable. It operates on a calendar year beginning in January, with final examinations in November. This is in contrast with most other educational institutions in the Northern Hemisphere whose calendar year stretches from October to June. There are no terms or semesters; there are no lectures and no conventional timetable clashes. Students can also proceed at their own pace, normally taking between two and eight years to earn a degree.

According to Sewart et.al. (1983:327), Open University tuition takes many forms. The major element is the series of correspondence units, despatched at regular intervals to the student's home. Much of the working material is designed to help the student to learn for himself. Jenkins (1981:163) holds that most of the student's time is spent studying texts alone at home. A typical credit course requires 360 hours study. The main medium of study is the course text of about 32 units. Tunstall (1974:viii) says that the Open University operates a credit system unlike any other British university. Six credits are required to pass a degree and eight credits for an honours degree. A one-credit course requires roughly ten hours of student time per week.

The correspondence units are closely related to radio and television broadcasts. Harry (Kaye and Rumble, 1981:310) states that around 300 television and 300 radio programmes are produced each year by the British Broadcasting Corporation/Open University Productions. The use of technical apparatus by correspondence institutions has developed tremendously over the last couple of decades. This has led to four major trends:

- A wider range of media is available for use in the home. To broadcast television, radio and home experimental kits can be added audio and video cassettes, video discs, cable and satellite television, the telephone, microcomputers, viewdata and teletext systems.

- There is a greater diversity of access to new media because television, radio, printed text and telephones are found in virtually every home.
- Costs of new media are falling.
- New media are giving students greater control over their learning and greater interaction. This is a most significant pedagogical development. New media provide greater opportunities for revision, in-depth thinking and integration.

Jenkins (1981:163) says that in an average course, support for the students' learning is given by 8 computer-marked assignments, 4 tutor-marked assignments, 16 hours of instructional broadcasts (television and radio), 1 week at summer school, together with regular optional seminars at regional study centres and weekly broadcasts on matters of general interest to students.

Sewart et.al. (1983:327) says that the whole package of written and broadcast material is a product of a course-team which is composed of central and regional academic staff, members of the British Broadcasting Corporation and educational technologists. According to Tunstall (1974:viii), this teaching arrangement involves a new division of labour. Central academic staff, work not individually, but as part of a 'course team'; they prepare 'correspondence units' which are printed; and broadcast programmes, which are recorded. Each course is then 'replayed' for a total of four years. Regionally a large counselling and teaching force is employed on a part-time basis. Students can meet counsellors at local 'study centres' - rooms usually rented from local colleges; for each course, students have 'course tutors' who mark their essays or other written work and who are normally available for some evening or weekend tutorial classes. One-week summer schools, compulsory for some courses, are also staffed mainly by part-time teachers.

The student must respond to the teaching material in an active way, by carrying out experiments, writing essays, working through problems or projects and so forth. While some of this work may be used for self-assessment, the majority is assessed

in written form either by a tutor or computer. Ultimately the best of the student's assignments together with the final examination determine the award and standard of a credit; the weighting of the two components is roughly 50:50.

According to Harry (1981:310) the Open University has established 260 study centres throughout the country in areas of high population or where transport links are good. These centres cater for 50 to about 1 000 students, provide facilities for tutoring and counselling, viewing and listening to programmes, sometimes access to libraries and computer terminals. Attendance at the study centres is voluntary. Sewart (1983:328) states that these centres offer a range of facilities which can supplement some of those available at home but above all they enable students to meet each other and to learn from each other in discussion groups. In his first year, each student is allocated a tutor counsellor, who retains this counselling role throughout the student's life. The study centre is also the focal point for the undergraduate students' meetings with tutor-counsellors. These meetings are an important element of the programme at foundation level where numbers normally allow provision for local contact. The main purpose of this contact is to remedy in tutorial sessions any academic weaknesses or deficiencies of understanding and to support in counselling sessions the individual's overall progress.

The range of correspondence units and broadcasts provides the student with information and guidance in a standard package. It is through the tuition and counselling system, however, that this standard package is interpreted according to the student's individual needs and ability.

Although Wilson's plan for a 'University of the Air' may bear little relation to the Open University as it exists today, it was the key that opened the door. Holmberg (1981:129) states that this university would seem to apply consistent distance-study principles. However, it is not a complete innovation. It comprises some traditional characteristics that do not help the distance study of adults with professional and social commitments, but constitute compromises with conventional thinking. Thus, students cannot take up study when it suits them

but have to wait for the beginning of the year. They cannot study and submit assignments when it suits them, but are bound by a pacing system imposed on them by the University and not by the students themselves.

There is a clear link between the purposes of the Open University and the University of South Africa, as well as in its teaching methods, although it will be shown that UNISA cannot make such extensive use of public broadcasting and regional tutorial services. In this account, the writer has drawn heavily on the book Spes in Ardius by Boucher, published in 1973, which is seen as the official history of the University of South Africa (UNISA).

University education in South Africa is only a century old. Through the years of the Dutch East India Company rule at the Cape from 1652 until the first British occupation of 1795, higher educational development extended no further than the creation of a few private secondary or "Latin" schools. Not until the brief period of rule by the Batavian Republic from 1803 until 1806 were there signs of advance in this direction. Real progress in the development of education had to wait for the resumption of British control. Improvement came slowly, but by 1839 a government education department had been established. A system of state and state aided schools was inaugurated through the colony.

According to Boucher (1973:2), Faure and Adamson, both church ministers, took the leading part in founding an "Athenaeum" in Cape Town - the South African College in 1829. This college was at best a secondary school in its early years and in many respects, no more than a primary school. Various other colleges were established: Huguenot College at Wellington in the early 1870's, Graaff-Reinet College in 1860, and the Gill College established at Somerset East in 1869.

The campaign for a university opened in March, 1873. The Argus newspaper called for "a Cape university, with power to grant degrees under charter from the Crown" (Boucher, 1973:25). Act 16 of 1873, creating the University of the Cape of Good Hope, received the royal assent on the 26 June, and in due

course was approved by the parliament. The university was founded as an examining board, invested with the trappings of an university. By 1875, the university had become a vast examining machine to test the products of Cape education at every stage. The Extension Act of 1875 enabled the Cape University to operate beyond the colonial borders in an undefined region of Southern Africa and to frame regulations for the awarding of bursaries to successful students living outside the colony. The Amendment Act of June 1896 widened the range of degrees offered by the Cape University.

Boucher (1973:93-94) believes that the Anglo-Boer War was a turning-point in the history of South Africa and in the evolution of the University of the Cape of Good Hope. The examining university would at last become an institution representative of all the colonies.

The years from 1902 until 1910 not only saw the South African colonies move towards political unity, but also the achievement of a greater degree of educational uniformity under the control of the University of the Cape of Good Hope. In this period, however, when the Cape University attained its goal by becoming the sole degree conferring body for the subcontinent, a campaign for teaching universities was set in motion which would, after a long and hard struggle, destroy its monopoly and transform its nature.

From 1910 higher education became a concern of the national government. Boucher (1973:112) holds that ideology clashes led to the University of the Cape of Good Hope being seen as a British imperialistic institution. The First World War brought the University into even closer contact with the clash of ideals which the Union had failed to heal in South Africa.

In 1916 the University Act was passed, which decreed that the University of the Cape of Good Hope was to be incorporated in a federal University of South Africa. This act stated

"that the University of the Cape of Good Hope shall together with certain institutions (Huguenot College, Wellington; Rhodes University College, Grahamstown; Grey University College, Bloemfontein; South African School of Mines and Technology, Johannesburg; Trans-

vaal University College, Pretoria; Natal University College, Pietermaritzburg) became and be incorporated in a Federal University to be styled the University of South Africa, and to have its headquarters at Pretoria".
(Malherbe, 1925:420)

The change was to be effected on 2 April 1918. Boucher (1973:138) says that although there was no break in the continuity of the university (despite its new title) its constitution was radically amended. Control was vested in a Council and Senate, upon which six constituent colleges were represented. The central administrative body was responsible for such functions as the organization of examinations, the controlling of results and the issue of certificates. The last council meeting of the University of the Cape of Good Hope was held on 15 March 1918.

The University of South Africa was legally bound under section 18 of Act 12 of 1916, "to make provision for examining every student not a student at a constituent college" (Boucher, 1973:193). It has been suggested that the relevant section was included as an after-thought to conciliate the few who, in the last days of the University of the Cape of Good Hope, called attention to the plight of non-collegiate students. Section 18 was to open the door to an ever-increasing number of private students. In 1919, they numbered 208; by 1944 more than 3 000 external candidates sought the degrees and diplomas of the University. The intervening years saw a notable increase in enrolments at the college and independent universities of South Africa, but the proportion of external students to the national total rose from 8,6% in 1919 to 21,5% in the last full year of the Second World War.

Boucher (1973:193-196) explains that the federal university did not teach private students; it merely examined them. Not all such candidates for its examinations, however, were entirely deprived of instruction, for even before the disappearance of the University of the Cape of Good Hope, tutorial classes and correspondence colleges had been founded in South Africa to cater for their needs. Among the latter, the Uni-

versity Correspondence College of Cambridge, England extended its activities to the colonies before Union. Undertakings of this kind were to proliferate in the twenties and thirties. Some, like the Helpmekaar of the Transvaalse Onderwysersvereniging, founded in 1927, developed out of the pioneering efforts of teachers or teaching associations. Two commercial institutions which did much to help the external students were David Young's Rapid Results College of Durban, established in 1928, and P.W. Zorn's University Correspondence Courses of Pretoria. By 1945, there were over twenty such businesses in existence.

According to Boucher (1973:200), further reasons for the growth of the system of external study lie in South African conditions during the depression years. The examination of the University of South Africa offered an opportunity for improvement to many whose parents could not afford to send them to a teaching university or university college. This university also offered Coloureds, Indians and Blacks the opportunity to study at a "White" university. Finally, the examination of external students were often welcomed by older men and women who, for one reason or another, had found it necessary to discontinue their studies after leaving school. Irritation over the poor quality of students trained by the correspondence colleges tended to reinforce the idea that the system of external study should be brought to an end. There were even a few suggestions that the University of South Africa itself should become a teaching university for the benefit of this class of student.

From 1942, there was a sharp rise in external enrolments for examination purposes, after an initial drop in the first years of the war. Boucher (1973:209) states that the University of South Africa faced the possibility of a deluge of applications when serving members of the armed forces returned to civilian life and saw the advantages of "learning while earning". Now that the university seemed certain to lose several, if not all, of its constituent colleges, its role as examiner for students not connected with those scattered teaching units assumed a greater importance.

Boucher (1973:212-213) states that a movement which would in

time lead to the reconstruction of the University of South Africa began in 1944. The Senate's Standing Committee on External Students recognized in 1944 "that the external student system has come to stay". It was decided to establish a Division of External Studies as part of the University. Professor van der Walt began his career as full-time Director of the Division of External Studies on 15 February 1946, with one typist to assist him. The University of South Africa of today, both as a teaching institution and as an administrative body, had been born. By the end of February 1947, all was ready for the start of postal tuition. The first batch of lectures were prepared for despatch and a small ceremony was held on Saturday morning, 1 March to inaugurate the new service.

In 1947, 1 250 men and women enrolled, a total representing no more than one-third of all those registered with the university for examination purposes. In 1949 and 1950 more than one student in three came from the African, Coloured and Indian sections of the community.

The Division of External Studies decided to hold an annual Vacation School from 1948. This has undoubtedly become one of UNISA's most successful ventures. It was, from the outset, open to all students and many of those who attended were under the tuition of the correspondence firms. Throughout the last years of the federal period in the university's history, two separate schools a year were arranged.

The University of South Africa was, until 1951, primarily a federation of constituent colleges. Boucher (1973:264) states that between 1949 and 1951 colleges such as Natal, Rhodes, Potchefstroom and Orange Free State became independent universities. At the end of that year, the Division of External Studies was supplying courses for 2 215 undergraduates.

After 1951, with the "White" universities becoming independent, UNISA had to re-examine its role. It became an overseeing university for Black, Coloured and Indian University Colleges established throughout the country by the Government after 1959. UNISA thus filled a dual role - overseeing Black, Coloured and Indian University Colleges and the conducting of

correspondence courses for all racial groups. These university colleges eventually became independent and by 1967 UNISA was solely concerned with correspondence courses.

In 1953 the University of South Africa came into possession of a home of its own. On the morning of Saturday, 21 March a ceremony took place at which the new three-storied building at 263 Skinner Street, Pretoria was inaugurated. Later, an adjoining block of flats was purchased and an extra storey added to the main structure.

By means of Act 54 of 1955, which was approved on 20 June and known as the University of South Africa Amendment Act, the Principle of the university became Vice-Chancellor and the Division External Studies simply a division of study. By 1960, when the number of students registered with the University of South Africa had exceeded the 10 000 mark, more than 90% of them were enrolled with the division of external studies.

In 1961 South Africa became a republic and left the Commonwealth. Boucher (1973:313) believes that this resulted in a tremendous influx of students which in turn resulted in the increase in staff. For example, the Department of History became the largest of its kind in the country by the early sixties. In 1960 UNISA was set upon the broad highway of uninterrupted development, with a triple function as examiner, teacher and the guardian of students both internal and external. From 1964 all students registered for examination were obliged to receive their tuition through the university.

In 1967, the "new" University of South Africa - the teaching university for many thousands of scattered students throughout the world - came of age. A campaign inaugurated by Professor Pauw, enabled the University of South Africa to construct the University Building on Muchleneck Ridge overlooking the city of Pretoria and the wooded Fountains Valley. Occupation began in June 1972. The first meeting of Council in the new premises was held on 17 June 1972 and that of the Senate on 1 September 1972.

The method used by this institution is very similar to those

used by the British Open University. Students are provided with a series of correspondence units despatched to their homes. Much of the working material is designed to help the student to learn by himself. Van As (Yule, 1983:6) says that the student does 85% of the work at home and only 15% at work or at contact sessions. The Prospectus of UNISA (1987:17) states:

"Tuition is provided by means of correspondence. Discussion classes are also arranged in various centres from time to time".
(Prospectus of UNISA, 1987:17)

According to Gräbe (1987:224), the basic tutorial matter of UNISA consists of prescribed and recommended reading, study guides and tutorial letters, each fulfilling a specific function within the educational programme:

- the prescribed and recommended texts supply the necessary information on the subject matter to be studied;
- the study guides are supposed to help the student to understand the prescribed and recommended reading and;
- the tutorial letters attempt to address students' problems or to complement the study guides where it becomes clear that difficult sections necessitate some elaboration or additional explanation.

This institution also makes use of contact sessions held at certain centres (Pretoria, Durban, Cape Town) at various times during the year. Technical apparatus, such as tape recordings and computers are used in some subjects, for example psychology and languages.

Figures provided by the Central Statistical Service (1986:5.59) indicates that there has been a tremendous increase in the numbers of students studying at this university. There has been a total increase (all races) from 19 089 in 1967 to 77 028 in 1985. This year (1987) the student numbers have topped 93 000. Yule (1987:71) states that of these students, 25% are teachers. These figures again show how popular correspondence courses has become especially among teachers. This form of study also seems to be heading towards greater things and will be implemented by more institutions in the future. Van Wijk, the Rector of UNISA, agrees and states:

"new information and communication technology will transform the classroom and the campus in such a way that students will be attending fewer lectures and working more independently".
(du Plooy, 1987:183)

De Jager (1987:75) shows, however, that UNISA does not offer sufficiently wide possibilities for basic or further teacher education through distance education. This is particularly so for teachers who do not have the basic qualifications to enter university study. UNISA is by statute required to admit only those students who have acquired a Matriculation Exemption certificate. This is unlike the genuinely 'open' entrance requirements of the British Open University. In these circumstances new institutions to cater for these needs had to be created. They are called Colleges for Continued or Further Training.

Van der Merwe (1984:4) holds that as recently as ten years ago the view on teacher training in overseas countries, as well as in South Africa, was confined to basic or pre-service training. Since then it has been realized that in the past another component, namely the continuous training of teachers, had received too little attention. It has now been subjected to closer scrutiny without detracting from the importance of basic training and has led to the establishment of various institutions which present further teacher training courses. Kritzinger (1984:1) states that in South Africa the further training of teachers enjoys the ongoing attention of the Department of Education. The reason for this is not only the improvement of the quality of teaching but also because the dynamic nature of education requires that continuous attention be given to the training and further training of teachers.

As far as the provision of facilities for the upgrading of the qualifications of White primary school teachers in South Africa is concerned, a new type of college has been established. All the provincial departments have Colleges for Continued Education or Colleges of Education for Further Training under their administration, where teachers employed by the department concerned can upgrade their teaching qualifications. From the teachers' viewpoint this is very important, especially since

the government has introduced parity with regard to salaries and laid down the same requirements for professional recognition for both male and female teachers.

According to the Human Sciences Research Council report on Education for Whites in the RSA (1987:62), the first of this kind of college was established in Pretoria in 1974 and was called the Teachers' College for Further Training. This College of Education for Further Training offers correspondence courses for those teachers who are unable to interrupt their service or to leave their families. Full-time training is offered to a select group of teachers who are in position to make use of such training, and constitute only 5% of the total number of students.

The Prospectus of the Pretoria College for Further Training (1985:12) states that all teachers in the service of the Transvaal Education Department and other selected White teachers who are not teaching at present and teachers from other Departments of Education can use this college to improve their qualifications. For this purpose the Transvaal Education Department offers every one of its teachers one or more of the following:

- a variety of diploma courses;
- special study facilities;
- study bursaries and loans;
- ample leave.

The method used by this college for 95% of its students is correspondence. De Jager (1987:76) states that the college makes use of the "IVIS"-system (Integrated Video Instructional System). The programme includes contact sessions and operates on mastery-learning principles. The system is very similar to the system used by UNISA, in that study guides, prescribed readings and tutorial letters are used. Contact sessions are held in Pretoria on Saturday mornings, holidays and during week day evenings. Trips are also made by groups of lecturers during the week to other centres, on demand, for example Witbank and Middelburg.

The University of South Africa validates some of the courses

that are offered by this College, in other words it recognizes them for degree and/or diploma purposes. The Prospectus of the Pretoria College for Further Training (1985:12) holds that this college provides an opportunity for teachers who have not had the chance before to obtain, apart from higher diplomas, recognition of certain approved subjects towards the eventual attainment of a degree.

Natal also opened a new teachers' training college in Pietermaritzburg in 1977, the Natal College of Education for Further Training. The following figures indicate the improvement in teacher qualification (1978 to 1985) since the establishment of this institution:

"Matric plus 2 years training : numbers decreased from 510 to 180;
 Matric plus 3 years training : numbers decreased from 1 938 to 956;
 Matric plus 4 years training : numbers increased from 421 to 1 589".
 (Bot, 1986:88)

In the Orange Free State, the Bloemfontein Teachers' College is providing correspondence courses to primary school teachers. Bot (1986:96) states that the aim of this institution is to give the large number of teachers in possession of a two-year diploma the opportunity to qualify for a three-year diploma. Between 26 - 100 teachers participate annually. The method used is both theoretical and active: lectures, both formal and informal, and self study tasks. The students are expected to attend contact sessions of five hours on 11 Saturdays per year for two years.

In the Cape two colleges for Continued Training have been established: Denneoord and Graaff-Reinet. The aim of both colleges is to give qualified teachers the opportunity of upgrading their academic qualifications. The method used is both theoretical and active: study guides, self-study tasks and two- to three-week contact sessions per academic year of approximately 8 - 9 hours tuition per day.

This chapter has examined various correspondence models which have developed all over the world as a result of conditions in different countries. De Jager (1987:75) shows that rather than

using the classic correspondence model the current trend is to create locally-devised models to suit the particular needs of the particular country, area or community. The British Open University seems to be the leader as far as the establishment of independent autonomous institutions is concerned. This institution has developed around the particular needs of British society.

In South Africa, UNISA has much in common with the British Open System in that they both are autonomous institutions presenting courses to external students only and having formal responsibility for evaluation and accreditation. UNISA uses video-tapes, slides and teletuition and calls its distance teaching method 'teletuition'.

As far as Colleges for Continued Training in South Africa is concerned, each province has established institutions to satisfy its special needs. The method of instruction used by these colleges are basically the same as that used by UNISA because the students have the same problems.

In the Cape Province, two Colleges for Continued Training have been established because of the great geographical area for which there must be catered. The students studying at these colleges are faced with certain problems. In the following chapters some of the problems that students studying history at these institutions have, will be more closely looked at.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE GRAAFF-REINET STORY

Muir was responsible for placing the training of teachers in the Cape on a sound footing. He believed that all training of teachers should be done by teachers' training institutions. This led to the establishment of several institutions in the Cape between 1878 and 1919. In this chapter one of these institutions, the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College, will be looked at.

According to The Arkiana² (1964:24), the first attempt to train teachers in Graaff-Reinet goes back to 1840. At that stage the education of children in the district were almost solely in the hands of "boereskoolmeesters" (traveling farm tutors). Christie (1986:31) says that this was the trend throughout the Cape. To improve the matter, the local School Committee of Graaff-Reinet proposed that the authorities make bursaries available to promising children who were keen to become teachers. The authorities rejected this and introduced the pupil-teacher system, the first student selected being a boy by the name of Ford. He unfortunately dropped out after only one year. Twelve years later, in 1862, the first teacher qualified in Graaff-Reinet. His name was Richard Henrey Levey and he joined the staff of the Graaff-Reinet Boy's College after qualifying.

Henning (1975:121) states that in 1860 a Bill was passed in parliament establishing a college in Graaff-Reinet. According to Minnaar (1987:103) this institution was called the Graaff-Reinet Boy's College and was situated in Bourke Street. The College went through difficult times and in 1885 Dale placed

² The Graaff-Reinet College Annual has undergone various name changes over the years, namely The Graaff-Reinet College Annual, The Arkiana, The Graaffie and The Graaff-Reinetter.

the Boy's College on the same footing as a first-class school. College studies were dropped and it was reorganised into three departments, namely primary, intermediate and superior. New premises were build for the Boy's College across the river in Spandauville in 1906. Henning (1975:127) claims that the Boy's College maintained excellent standards for many years and in 1922 it amalgamated with the Midlands Ladies' Seminary to become Volksskool.

The Afrikaanse Kultuuralmanak (1980:102) explains that the Midlands Ladies' Seminary which was established on 1 April 1876 was the predecessor of the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College. In the beginning the teacher training was casually organised but in 1894 the "Seminary" established a Training Department. Judd (1919:11) says that when the Boy's College was build in Spandauville in 1906, the Training Department moved into the "Old College" in Bourke Street. By 1908 there were 101 pupil-teachers in the school and Graaff-Reinet had become a recognised training centre for teachers. Pienaar (1945:5) states that in 1917 the Training Department was separated from the Girls' School and became a Training School. Gie was the first principal and men were admitted for the first time. The Graaffie (1965:5) says that Taute replaced Gie in 1918 at which stage the institution had 112 women and 34 men. According to the G.R.O. Annual (1942:42), the Training School became a Training College in 1922 and moved into the buildings of the Graaff-Reinet Boy's College in Spandauville. Pienaar became principal in 1923, a post he was to hold until 1943. Pienaar was followed as principal of the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College by Vivier, Groenewoud, Meyer, Lambrechts, Fourie and Dreyer, the present rector. The G.R.O. Annual (1975:4) states that in 1956 provision was made for English speaking students to enter the college. In 1963 extentions were made to the college buildings which were named after Groenewoud. This included a hall and a new wing for the woodwork and metalwork classes. Numbers at the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College increased steadily and reached a peak in 1974 with a total of 425 students. As was shown in a previous chapter, this number declined steadily until the college was closed down as a full-time teacher training institution in 1986.

The Spes Bona School was used as a "practice school" for the students from 1917. The G.R.O. Annual (1943:2) reports that this school which had shared the College buildings with the Teachers' College, moved into new buildings next to the College in 1943 and changed its name to the W.E. Pienaar School. This school closed down in 1971 and the buildings became part of the Teachers' College.

It is also important to examine boarding facilities over the years. The women students of the Training Department of the Midland Ladies' Seminary originally stayed in Spandau House on the corner of Cradock and Somerset Street, but from 1917, as students of the Graaff-Reinet Training school, they were housed in the front part of the college building in Bourke Street known as Cypressenhof. According to Pienaar (1942:5), girls also stayed in Reinet House. In 1922 a hostel for girls, College House, was built next to the college buildings in Spandauville. In 1947, houses belonging to the Municipality behind the college were also used to house the girls. In 1952 a second hostel, Vivier House was built on the campus for girls. The Arkiana (1962:13) states that College and Vivier House were renovated and extended in 1962 to their present state.

The Dutch Reformed Church took responsibility for the boarding of men during the early years. The Graaff-Reinetter (1965:2) explains that before 1922 men stayed in the present college buildings. The G.R.O. Annual (1947:48) says that Reinet House became a hostel for men in 1922 and that men were also housed in Werda and Voortau until 1944. In 1944, the men's hostels were taken over by the Cape Education Department and Barnard House was also bought. While this house was being rebuilt (adding on rooms known as Naudeshof) the men stayed temporarily in the Libertas building in Church Street. According to the G.R.O. Annual (1965:4), Reinet House stopped being a mens hostel in 1944 and became a dining hall for the men of Werda. Werda was closed in 1945 and reopened in 1956. The Graaffie (1965:4) states that in 1971, Barnard House and Werda were finally closed down and the men moved into the present residence, Pienaar House.

At the time of writing, the College offers a Woodwork and Metalwork course on a full-time basis. The few men involved share Pienaar House with the Open Air School established in 1984. The rest of the buildings which include the W.E. Pienaar School and hostels (College and Vivier House) are used to house the teletuition students during contact sessions.

The demand for teachers in the Cape Province decreased in the late 1970's and the Cape Education Department decided that full-time primary school teachers should be provided with an opportunity to improve their qualifications. Their decision was based upon a survey undertaken by the Cape Education Department in 1979 (Circular 84/1979:1). To cater for this need it was decided to make correspondence and vocational courses available as from the beginning of 1980. For practical reasons, the subjects, colleges and pupils involved in the new project were limited to senior primary standards and each college to 25 students (100 in total for the four Colleges in the plan). Cape Town and Graaff-Reinet Teachers' Colleges offered English, Geography, Biology and Scripture while Paarl and Port Elizabeth Teachers' Colleges offered Afrikaans, History, Mathematics and Education.

Circular 5 (1983:1) announced that "with effect from 1983 it will be possible to obtain a Higher Diploma in Education (Senior or Junior Primary) after a two-year correspondence course". This meant that both senior and junior primary teachers were able to improve their qualifications at these institutions. To enrol for the Higher Diploma in Education (Senior Primary or Junior Primary) a candidate would have to be in possession of a three-year Diploma in Education and have a minimum of three-years teaching experience.

Teachers in primary school with two diplomas also created a problem. To cater for these teachers it was decided to make it possible to consolidate two diplomas. For example, a Primary Teachers' Certificate and Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate holder with either Specialization subjects, Academic subjects or Infant School Teaching could consolidate qualifications to a Diploma in Education.

In 1984 the Cape Education Department decided to convert two Teachers' Colleges, Graaff-Reinet and Denneoord into full-time colleges for further training. Circular 57 (1984:1) explained that correspondence courses were to be phased out at Cape Town, Paarl and Port Elizabeth colleges by the end of 1985. Since 1985, Graaff-Reinet has offered the complete correspondence course over a period of two years, covering: Afrikaans, English, Education, History, Geography, Biology, Mathematics, Bible Education and Xhosa. Denneoord from 1985 offered: Afrikaans, History, Mathematics and Education and from 1986 Geography, Biology, English and Bible Education.

It can thus be seen that, from 1980, the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College has been involved with further training in the form of correspondence courses. In 1984, this institution registered full-time first year students for the last time and from the beginning of 1987 it became only a full-time College for Continued Training, and became known as the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training. This institution and Denneoord are presently the only training colleges responsible for further training of White primary school teachers in the Cape Province.

The conversion of the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College from conventional to a correspondence institution has resulted in problems for the lecturers. The biggest problem facing the lecturers is the difference in the methodology involved in the two forms of instructing. All the lecturers have received pre-service training in how to instruct in a conventional situation and are thus unfamiliar with and inexperienced in correspondence teaching. Presently, all the lecturers are feeling their way in how to instruct by means of correspondence. This indicates that it is necessary to train the lecturers in this type of teaching. Sending the lecturers on courses or visits to institutions that have refined the art of distance-teaching, for example UNISA or the Transvaal College for Further Training, is one way of overcoming this problem. Smit (1987:154) believes that training lecturers in correspondence teaching should not be regarded as an optional extra to be fitted in as and when possible but that lecturers require additional training for distance teaching, especially in simulation, marking

and course writing. If the student problems discussed earlier, are looked at and the role that the lecturer plays in the correspondence process, it is essential that the lecturer is familiar with the teletuition process.

Another problem with which the lecturers are faced, is the lack of facilities. The obvious reason for this is that the College was built for pre-service teacher training and not correspondence in-service teacher training. The lecturers do not have offices of their own and there are only a limited number of telephones available. This results in "tagging" or in messages being passed on which often leads to confusion and frustration.

The syllabi, as previously discussed, are unsuitable in that they have been designed for pre-service students. Lecturers cannot change the syllabi as they wish because the University of Port Elizabeth keeps control and moderates the examination papers. Often the moderators are unfamiliar with the problems and difficulties of implementing the present syllabi in the form of correspondence.

A further problem concerns forms of communication of which the written word is the main form. Most of the lecturers have got many years of conventional teaching experience. To convert to the written word as the main form of communication results in problems. Lecturers with writing problems find it difficult to express themselves, especially when it is in their second language. Translating from one language to another is difficult and time-consuming. If the language is clumsy, which is often the case, the student will suffer.

A problem related to history is to find resource material in both languages. Resource material is often available in only one language, for example F.A. van Jaarsveld's book: From Van Riebeeck to Vorster. Afrikaans copies are freely available but the latest editions in English have not yet been printed. This causes problems when working out study guides and to translate the resources is very time-consuming for both the lecturer and the student. The limited history resources at the College library does not help matters either.

Finally, another problem experienced by the history lecturers is the lack of contact. The lecturer is continually asking himself: Does the student understand the question? What problems does the student have? Are the comments meaningful? The contact sessions do help to solve some of the problems. It enables the lecturer to put a face to students and it gives them the opportunity to determine what sections of the work are creating problems.

The lecturers at the college are faced with a new challenge which will obviously make demands on both the lecturer and the student.

It is not only the lecturing staff who have had to re-think their teaching approaches but the College itself has had to make adjustments to a largely mature and physically-distant student body.

Firstly, the tuition at the college is characterized by a separation of the teacher and the student for most of the course. Tuition takes place through the medium of correspondence. Students are not provided with formal regular lecture notes. Instead they receive study guides, containing notes as well as references to specific source materials which guide the students' reading. Further guidance is given from time to time in the form of tutorial letters. Students are expected to submit assignments for evaluation throughout the academic year; these enable lecturing staff not only to keep a check on the progress of each student, but also to identify problem areas. Tuition is done through the medium of either Afrikaans or English, according to the wish of the student.

Two contact sessions per year are presented, attendance at which is compulsory, with the students housed in the college hostels. Students are required to use part of their school holidays, as well as some school days in order to attend these sessions. This absence from school does not adversely affect a teacher's accumulated leave, as it is regarded as in-service training, and the school principal can appoint a substitute teacher for the longer courses.

The first contact session is held in January of every year.

At these sessions study guides are distributed, prescribed books are on sale and the students are introduced to the course. The second contact session takes place at the end of July and beginning of August. This session is used to discuss problems and to introduce the work for the second semester. Each session lasts one week and consists of 12 one-hour periods per day. There are 13 periods of history per week for each class group.

The students have to be full-time teachers at Cape Provincial primary schools who hold a two or three-year certificate with specialization in academic subjects such as, Physical Education, Needlework, Woodwork, Handwork or in Infant School Teaching.

The maps (figure 4.1 and 4.2) indicate the distribution of students registered at the two Colleges in 1987, and show the main areas from which each institution draws its students.

The Cape is a large province and this accentuates the distance between lecturer and student. To overcome this problem to some extent the Province has been roughly divided into two regions, North East and South West of a line drawn between Outshoorn and Springbok but the lack of compulsion can be seen from the overlap of areas served by both colleges. All students South West of this line are encouraged but not forced to register at Denneoord and those North East of the line at Graaff-Reinet College. It can be seen that the majority of the students at the Graaff-Reinet College came from the Eastern Cape and Border areas and that the core area for Denneoord is the Western Cape. It should be noted, however, that Denneoord offers a conversion course from senior primary to junior primary for teachers with experience in that field, which Graaff-Reinet does not offer.

In the selection of students preference is given to those with a permanent or a five-year appointment, but on occasions other teachers can be accommodated.

The courses offered by the College are set out in appendix A. The following is a summary of the courses in total for each year and the position of history in the various courses.

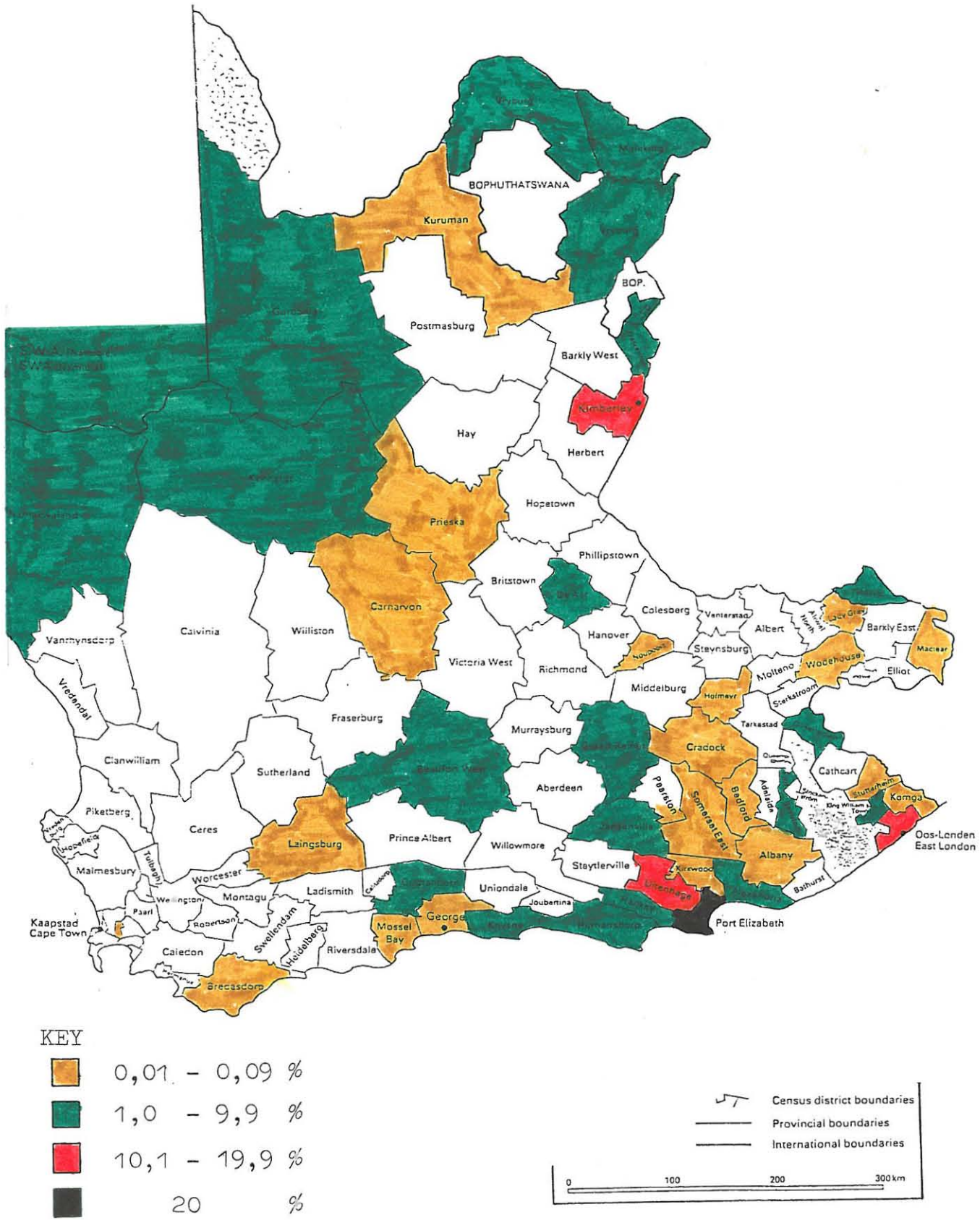


Figure 4.1: DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS REGISTERED AT THE GRAAFF-REINET COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING PER CENSUS DISTRICT - 1987.

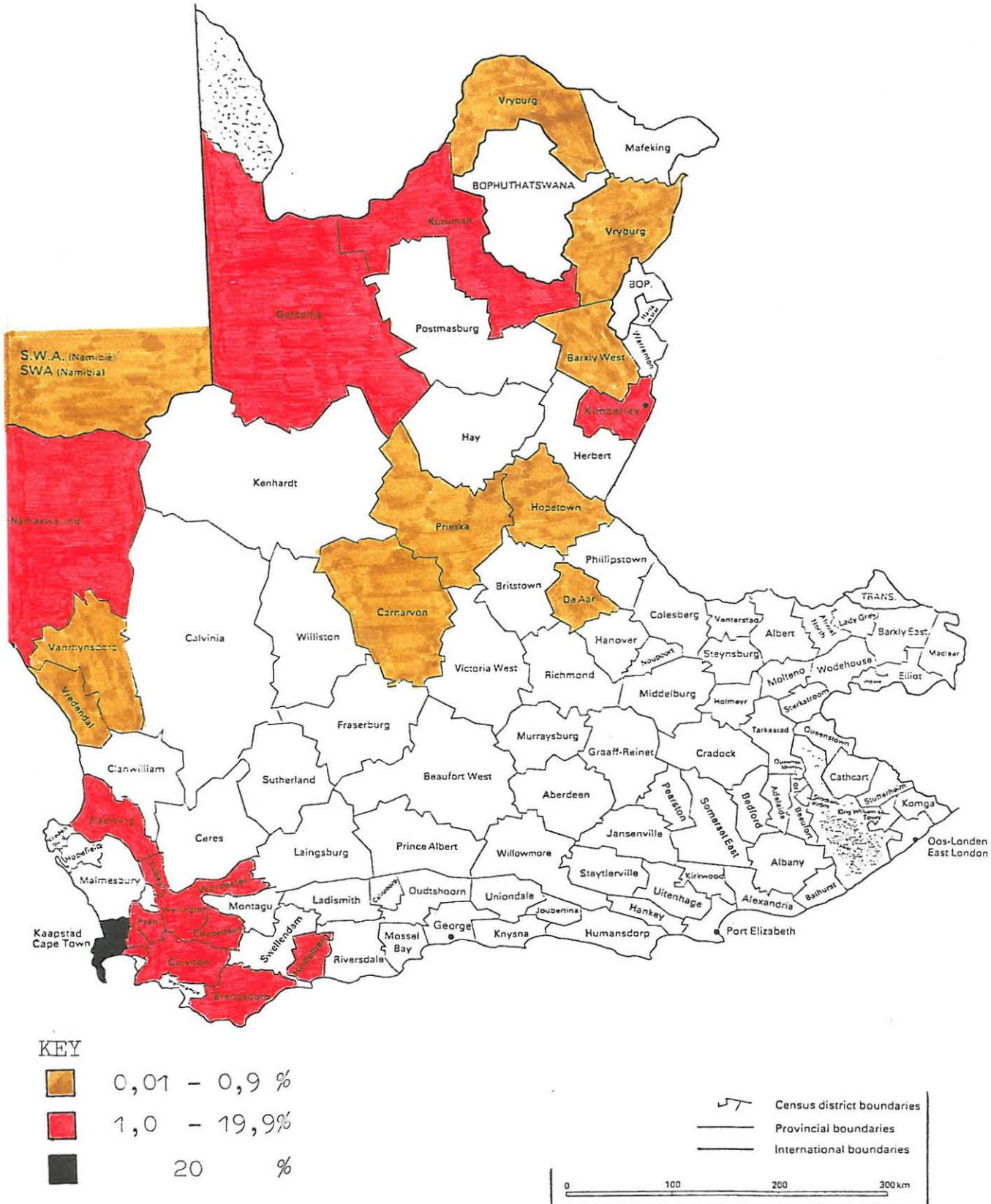


Figure 4.2: DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS REGISTERED AT THE DENNEOORD COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING PER CENSUS DISTRICT - 1987.

The consolidation course is normally completed in one academic year, but may be taken over a two-year period part-time. A teacher with a Primary Teachers' Certificate (P.T.C.) and Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (H.P.T.C.) with Specialization subjects must take three courses to consolidate. For these students history is an optional subject. Teachers with a P.T.Certificate and H.P.T.Certificate (Academic subjects) need only one course, namely Education to consolidate. Teachers possess a P.T.C. and H.P.T.C. (Infant School Training) must also do three courses to consolidate but for them history is compulsory.

Teachers in possession of a P.T.C. can obtain a Diploma in Education (D.E. III) Senior Primary by taking six subjects at D.E. III level over a period of two years. History is an optional subject in this course.

To obtain a Higher Diploma in Education (H.D.E.) Senior Primary, a candidate must take two subjects at fourth-year level and two subjects at third-year level. The subjects must be a continuation of third-year and second-year courses respectively. The student can select history at third or fourth year level but may not select a combination of Geography IV and History IV.

The H.D.E. (Junior Primary) course also stretches over a period of two years and consists of three compulsory and one optional subject. It is important to note that History IV is for students who have obtained the D.E. III in or after 1984. History III (Junior Primary) can also be taken during the D.E. III year.

It can thus be seen that all the courses demand a minimum of two years part-time study and that history is a compulsory or optional subject in all the courses except one. The details for the requirements and subject choice for the various courses at the College is set out in appendix A.

Students require a year mark of 40% in any subject to qualify for examination, and 50% is the passing level for the examination. In certain circumstances a student may qualify for a re-examination, which can be written only in the components in which the student failed.

Students who are attempting to obtain a third-year qualification are seen teaching by inspectors and principals and this assessment is part of the requirements for the granting of the diploma. Students registered for a fourth year qualification have the assessment of their teaching included only if it improves the final grading. Nevertheless there is not a great emphasis placed upon this aspect of training, partly because the students have had many years of practical experience before enrolling at the College.

End of the year examinations are conducted at centres determined by the Department of Education in consultation with the College. High Schools are used and it is recommended that students sit their examination together with candidates for the Senior Certificate. Use is also made of the Teachers' Centres at Kimberley, East London, Port Elizabeth, Cape Town and Oudtshoorn. Some candidates are unable to sit the examination at any of these centres. Such candidates must themselves make arrangements for a suitable examination room and an invigilator. In such a case the invigilator must be approved by the College, and must be remunerated by the candidate, at departmental rates. Re-examinations and supplementary examinations are conducted only at the College. It can be seen from this description that the organization of teletuition is complicated and demands much from the students themselves.

The College has a staff of 24, of whom 20 are involved in teletuition. This means that with the 1987 total student registration of 176 students the staff-student ratio is 1:10. Lecturers are available for consultation every morning, Monday to Friday, between the hours of 07h30 and 13h00, and on Monday, Tuesday and Thursday afternoons from 14h30 until 16h00.

College library staff are available on weekdays (mornings and afternoons). The Departmental Educational Library in Cape Town is also available to teletuition students.

Graaff-Reinet has been involved in teacher training for over a century. The Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College had a small beginning but has developed into one of the most important teacher training institutions in the Cape Province. The stu-

dent numbers reached a peak in 1974, but since then the numbers have dropped dramatically. This resulted in the Cape Education Department converting the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College into a college for continued training. The College has had to make various adaptations to present correspondence courses.

History forms an important part of the various teletuition courses presented by the College. In the following chapter history as a teletuition subject at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training will be looked at.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE TEACHERS' COLLEGE HISTORY SYLLABUS

Towards the end of the previous chapter, the reasons for, and organisation of distance education at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training was discussed. In chapter two some indication of the kinds of people who need to make use of the opportunities offered by the Graaff-Reinet College were described.

The students being closely examined in this thesis are studying history by means of teletuition at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training. It is now necessary to look at the suitability of the syllabi they are expected to follow. It is important to remember that there are two different syllabi for the two different groups of students: Senior Primary and Junior Primary. Although students sometimes can choose Senior Primary history after having completed Junior Primary history, as is indicated in chapter four, there is a difference in the syllabi followed by the two groups.

The present history syllabi used by teachers' colleges in the Cape Province have been in use since 1979. It seems obvious that these syllabi would have certain weaknesses today because no subject is static and new developments in subjects are taking place all the time. But it is also important to remember that these syllabi were designed for pre-service students. In other words, these students would be following the syllabus over a continuous period of three or four years and on a full-time basis.

The various syllabi need to be scrutinized in terms of their suitability for part-time students who have been teaching for many years and are also years away from their previous full-time studies. It is also important to look at the syllabi in their appropriateness for teachers who might be looking for methodological and practical support, rather than extended content or background knowledge. In the latter part of this chapter a modification to the present College

history syllabi will be examined.

The first part of the analysis of the syllabi will be concerned with the Junior Primary history course. Students following this history syllabus will teach in the Junior Primary school which includes Sub A, B and Standard I. In Cape schools pupils only start studying history in standard two. In other words these students will not teach formal history at school. They do, however, teach environment studies which includes some history, for example heraldics, and an introduction to the past of the town or region in which the school is situated.

The first point to examine when criticising or justifying a certain syllabus is the aims set out for that syllabus. The aims for the Junior Primary history syllabus (appendix B) are questionable if one looks at the needs of both pre-service and in-service students. The General Aims of the history syllabus is to "provide the students with the necessary knowledge and skills to teach history". This syllabus provides knowledge in the form of subject content but there is no provision for the development of history teaching skills. The syllabus includes no method whatsoever. The need of these students is not to remember facts, which they will forget anyway, but to develop history skills which they can use in various classroom projects. History must be presented as a process rather than a body of knowledge. It can thus be argued that there is little relationship between the general aims and the syllabus which is one of the major weaknesses of this syllabus.

It is also doubtful whether this syllabus was planned with the specific aims, as stated in the syllabus, clearly in mind. The aims mention "right attitude towards teaching history" and "develop history teaching skills" but the syllabus does not make specific provision for these aims. The other specific aims such as "developing student abilities", "preparing pupils for Junior Primary phase" and "providing students with skills to help them help pupils to settle down in the junior phase" seem to be appropriate aims. The syllabus does not cater for

these either. Are these aims the specific function of history or education in general?

It is however, equally important that the Junior Primary history syllabus contributes to the general education and development of the student in teacher training. Certain skills the student can only obtain by studying history. The requirements of these skills is vital to the student if they are to be successful teachers. The weaknesses in this syllabus will obviously effect this aim.

It appears as if this syllabus is not based on a clear and rational plan. There seems to be no relationship between the work done in the first, second or third year. For example, in the first year the syllabus concentrates on building styles, local history, the development of transport and communications; while in the second year the inhabitants of South Africa and civics are handled; and in the third year ideologies, religion and the Renaissance is explored. There is no chronological order for students on which to build their knowledge. It must be remembered that some students have studied history no further than standard 6, while others have included history in their matriculation certificates. A logically-ordered syllabus would assist the students who have a lack of history background. A well-planned chronological syllabus would cater for this, but the present syllabus does not.

The topics of a syllabus must be relevant, challenging and interesting. The Civics section, for example, is very dull. The South African and ethnology topics such as "building styles", "development of transport and communications" and "heraldics" are useful to a primary school teacher because they teach them in environment studies. They also concern the environment in which pupil and teacher find themselves. A problem here could be that someone who has just written the matriculation certificate might not find such topics challenging or interesting. The topic "Development of Religion and the Renaissance" done in the third year is completely irrelevant to these students and their teaching needs. A topic of more contemporary significance might be more interesting, challenging and relevant.

It is important to revise a syllabus periodically. It is sometimes necessary to remove outdated history from the syllabus. In this syllabus students are expected to study the "Provincial Councils" and "White Parliament". These bodies have been replaced by other bodies, namely the "tricameral parliament" and "regional councils". It can thus be seen that the present syllabus is outdated and in need of updating.

The length of the syllabus is appropriate and the lecturer and student can handle the work quite easily in a year. The third year syllabus could become too long if too much detail is given, but because the syllabus does not follow a chronological order it is easy for the lecturer to leave out a topic.

It is important for a syllabus to be flexible and adaptable. This will encourage lecturers to choose an approach that will satisfy the interest and the needs of the students. This syllabus consists of three (first, second and third year) loose components and thus the chronological approach cannot be used. The line or development approach can be used successfully with the topics of the first year (transport) and second year (constitutional development). Both topics are relevant and both can be started if required, from the contemporary situation, for example a retroactive approach to the content. The syllabus, however, does not make clear the aim that the student should study the development of the topic through time, involving concepts like continuity and change. The "patch" approach can be used when studying the French Huguenots and their contribution to South African history. The biographical approach is unfortunately only catered for in the second year. Students are expected to make a biographical study of personalities such as Henry Dumant, Admiral Nelson and Dick King. More modern personalities are more meaningful to the students. It is a pity that this type of study only appears in the second year syllabus because it gives the student who is interested in a topic the opportunity to explore that topic in more detail. The syllabus also does not indicate what aspects of the personalities should be emphasised: The people should be seen in relation to time, problems, limitations, background, motivation

and what they could accomplish as individuals in relation to their society. The author feels that this section should be extended and that the lecturer and student be made aware of the purpose for studying the personality.

The order of the topics in the third-year syllabus is poor because it again does not follow chronologically. Religion should follow the Renaissance and then modern ideologies could be introduced. The topic on Religion should include Hinduism and should be studied with the various religions practised in South Africa in mind. The Renaissance topic should include the Reformation because these happenings are closely linked. The ideologies should be studied by making the student aware of his own society and the society's pressures. The study of the Renaissance and the 18th Century revolutions will show that people have required a broader view of social responsibility.

Probably the greatest weakness of this syllabus is that it does not provide for teacher development in history methods, thinking and attitudes. In fact, it has no section on subject didactics throughout the entire course. For any teacher the method is surely more important than the content. Jamieson (1971:1) believes that to serve a valid educational purpose the syllabus must make provision for the development of attitudes, train minds, weigh evidence, make judgements and develop skills. McMinn (1979:11) states that the study of history should be an intellectual exercise which trains the mind to think systematically. It ought to develop scepticism and critical judgements. This indicates the importance of method which is lacking in the Junior Primary syllabus. The most important thing about teacher training is that students acquire history skills, theory and methods. These students must have knowledge about child psychology and development because it will help them to determine what the pupils are capable of, and how to start with a project. This will assist Junior Primary teachers when organising excursions which are emphasised in the Environment Study syllabus. Junior Primary students should also study the Senior Primary school history syllabus so that they know what they are preparing the children for.

The author believes that local history should form a more prominent part of the Junior Primary syllabus because the Environment Study syllabus is based on visits to buildings and various other institutions in the local town and district. All college students must be taught how to supervise such outings.

Another major weakness of this syllabus is that it does not give the reasons for the inclusion of the various topics, nor does it indicate what must be emphasised. Thus, the lecturer is guessing all the time and the student does not understand the purpose for the inclusion of certain topics.

The discussion shows that this syllabus has certain strengths but also has many weaknesses which must be amended.

Greater attention must be given to the Senior Primary history course because history is a separate subject in the timetable and can also be studied as a single subject. A more detailed analysis than the one made for the Junior Primary syllabus will be made.

The Senior Primary history syllabus (appendix C) was designed for pre-service Senior Primary school teacher training, as was the Junior Primary syllabus. Many of the weaknesses and problems of the Junior Primary syllabus are also reflected in this syllabus. It is important to keep in mind that students with a three-year diploma in Education or a four-year Higher Diploma, of which this history syllabus forms a part, will teach history at Senior Primary school level (Standard 2, 3, 4 and 5).

There seems to be a reasonable relationship between the aims of this course and the syllabus content. The general aim of this syllabus is to "lead and equip the student to teach history in the primary school". The history method or subject didactics included throughout the course appears to make this course achieve this aim. Just as in the Junior Primary course, however, the aims for this syllabus are not specifically geared to history teaching in the primary school (appendix C). Aims such as "history is about people",

"South Africa in the Western World", "importance of the term time", "citizens' duties" and "living an orderly life" can be seen as related to history. These aims are also catered for in the topics in the course, for example topics like "privileges, duties and responsibilities of a citizen" and "Scramble for Africa".

The College history syllabus for Senior Primary teachers thus has two major aims: Firstly, the general development of the student and secondly, specific history teaching methodology. There appears to be an appropriate link between the student's general education needs and the needs of the school syllabus because topics from the school syllabus are placed at random within the syllabus.

When looking through the syllabus the first weakness that can be observed is that it is also "White Orientated". In other words it reflects "White" ideologies, beliefs and interpretations. This syllabus has been put together over a number of years which will obviously create problems, such as the chronological order of topics. A fourth year was added in haste in 1982 without revision of the whole syllabus or considering the original aims. This in turn has resulted in a lack of continuity in the syllabus. This also means that it is not an orderly-based, clear and rationally-planned syllabus. For example, the General history syllabus has Ancient History at first year level; Renaissance in the second year; Technical Revolution and Unification attempts in Europe at third year level; and the Cold War and American constitutional development during the fourth year. The sections on methodology and South African history show greater signs of continuity.

Another weakness of this syllabus is again the lack of direction given to the lecturer. Although the lecturer is given great freedom in content selection within each topic, it is important for lecturers to know in what direction the freedom is going. The lack of direction results in the lecturer guessing and the student not grasping the purpose for the inclusion of various topics.

As a whole, many of the topics are suited and relevant to

the standard required but there are certain problems, for example the study of "Historical Places and Monuments" at first and second year level, and studying of the "Discoveries of the Pole Religions" at third-year level. This indicates bad planning. It is important to remember that the third year syllabus must be of first-year university level. Topics such as "British Imperialism and Afrikaner Nationalism", "South Africa and South West Africa" and "Unification attempts in Europe" can be considered first-year university level material, while topics such as "Communism in China and Russia", "Attempts at Internal co-operation" and the "Racial composition of South Africa" can be presented at second-year university level. Although the syllabus might appear disjointed, it has certain interesting and challenging topics such as "Place of South Africa in the Modern World" and the "Influence of the Technical Revolution".

One of the biggest draw-backs of this syllabus is its length. Experience has shown that this syllabus is too long. Full-time college students have shorter terms than a school and are also involved in four weeks of practical teaching. The lecturer has only one term for each section, Subject Didactics, South African and General History. The fourth term is usually used for revision and final examinations. It can thus be seen that the time is limited and the lecturer is often forced to leave out certain topics.

Problems of maintaining a balance between content appropriate for the school syllabus and general background for students often arise. In this syllabus there is a correlation between the school syllabus in Standard 3, 4 and 5 and the South African history in the syllabus. For example, the "French Huguenots" in the first year syllabus and the standard 3 school syllabus; "The Progress in medical sciences" in the second year syllabus and the standard 5 school syllabus; and "Technical Revolution" in the third year and standard 5 school syllabus. Here again the added-on fourth year syllabus shows up as unrelated to the school syllabus and the other three years of the college syllabus. For example the "Cold War", "Slavery and the reaction of the Humanities" and "Westward Expansion in America" are not part

of the primary school syllabus.

If these topics are linked to happenings in South Africa, they will lead to the total development of the student, for example "Westward Expansion in America" linked to the "Great Trek" or "Difaqane". Again the lecturer has not been instructed specifically to do this.

The next problem is whether the College history syllabus should be thought of as a chronological development. The present syllabus is not consistently so. In the South African history section the chronological approach can be used successfully, because there is continuity. For example, the first-year syllabus starts with Van Riebeeck and ends at the end of the 17th century; the second year stretches from this period until 1850; the third year covers the period 1850 to 1910; and the fourth year handles the period from 1910 to the present. Unfortunately there seems to be no similar continuity in the General History. It consists of a number of wide ranging topics with no apparent connection. For example, "Ancient World" history at first-year level; "Middle Ages" and "Renaissance" at second-year level (these might follow) but "Unification Attempts in Europe", the "Cold War" and "American Constitution" have no relation to the rest of the syllabus.

The line or development through time approach can be applied to topics in the first year (development of transport), second year (development of medical sciences) and third year (constitutional development in South Africa). Again there is only one opportunity for the biographical approach at second-year level. Fortunately, the personalities are related to the syllabus. As stated in the discussion of the Junior Primary syllabus, the lecturer again has to guess what method to use and what methodological implications came from this alternative.

This syllabus has a subject didactic component which is very important for the achievement of one of its aims, teaching students how to teach history. There also seems to be continuity in the content from the first year through to the fourth year. The only criticism is that aspects such as

"What is history?", "Why is it important?" and "History writing" are not studied.

Finally, it can be said that although the syllabus has certain problems, it does include certain interesting, modern and relevant topics, for example "attempts at international co-operation". Appendix D shows how a section of the present South African syllabus (1987) is organised by the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training.

At the beginning of 1987 a Departmental Committee was set up to revise the whole four-year syllabus structure for both Junior and Senior Primary teachers-in-training. After this preliminary meeting, individual colleges were invited to comment on the proposals. The final version has not yet emerged but a discussion on the proposed amendments will be appropriate. In particular, the applicability to students in distance education will have to be considered.

Much of the criticisms of the Junior Primary syllabus as discussed earlier can be applied to this revised syllabus. For example, it is "White Orientated" because it is very similar to the present syllabus in aims and contents.

The big improvement in this syllabus (appendix E) is that a subject didactic component has been included. It must be remembered, however, that virtually no direct historical content is given in the Junior Primary phase and so the methodological content needs to be very carefully assessed. This component consists of two sections consisting of six and four topics respectively, which must be distributed over all three years of the course. The problem with this is that it is too little to be really effective. It can be argued that didactics should form a third of the course which is substantially more than is proposed by the new syllabus. It could also be argued that the subject didactic component should be delayed until the third year. At this stage the student would have enough content knowledge on which to build.

The order of the subject didactic component is poor. The Hystography topic should be included in the Theory of History section and should be related to the various topics. This will enable the students to look at the way topics are created by historians and their interpretation of events.

The revised syllabus has obviously led to improvements, for example the changing of topics in Civics. The change of the biographical study topics is not a great improvement because world personalities such as "Luther King", "Booth" and "Rowland Hill" are just as meaningless and irrelevant to the students as "Dumant", "Nelson" or "Lincoln". As suggested earlier, a more modern personality such as Mao Tse-Tung would be more appropriate.

At third-year level, a new South African section has been included. The lecturer must choose two modules from the three Senior Primary South African history sections. These topics are university first-year level and will thus create problems for the student because of the lack in history background that many of the students have. The impression is gained that this section was included as an after-thought.

The rest of the amended syllabus is the same as the present history syllabus. Thus the arguments that applied to that syllabus can also be applied to this new proposed syllabus.

Because history is a specific subject in the Senior Primary phase a careful assessment of the revised syllabus for the training of these teachers is important. The proposed amendments (appendix F) appear to be a big improvement.

As far as the subject didactics are concerned, it appears as if more thought has been given to the needs of these students. At first-year level questions such as "What is History?" and "Why study History?" are important and are well-suited for the first year. The syllabus also introduces students to how to teach history which is vital because this is what the course is all about. At second-year level, for instance, students are taught how to interpret the primary school history syllabus. Activities such as

pupil's self-activity, teaching local history and planning in history are also examined. At third-year level, curriculum development, group work, evaluation and examining are studied. During the fourth year Philosophy of History, Historiography, Theory of History and Research Methods are included. It can be seen that the student is introduced to a number of classroom techniques and should have some understanding of the theory of history.

As far as South African history is concerned, the newly proposed syllabus is very similar to the old syllabus. It is still chronological, with each year covering a certain period of South African history in time-order from the establishment of the Cape to the present. This syllabus is also "White Orientated". New topics such as "Development of own Racial Policy" and "Expansion in the Cape before 1900" have, however, been introduced. These topics could make the course more interesting and challenging. Another improvement is the possibility of using the biographical approach of relevant personalities at first, second and third year level. The planning of the South African course allows for continuity which is important for students who have not studied history to matric-level.

The biggest improvement of this course is the General History component. At first-year level a line or development approach can be used for the study of the development of transport, printing and communications. These topics are relevant to the students because these are topics which they will handle with their pupils in the Senior Primary school. The second year syllabus has a strange combination of topics, for example "Middle Ages", "Renaissance", "National States" and various "Ideologies". There is little relationship between these topics. A study of ideologies such as "democracy", "capitalism", "nationalism" and "communism" is interesting and relevant because these terms regularly appear in the media. It could be asked why these were placed in the second year syllabus. If one looks at the first and second year syllabus there is a certain amount of continuity, for example "Ancient History" at first-year level and "Middle Ages" and "Renaissance" at second-year level. Topics

such as "Western Civilization" and the "Influence of the Technological Revolution" are interesting at third-year level but seem to stand apart from the rest of the syllabus topics.

The fourth year syllabus again appears to have little in common with the syllabi of the other three years. At third-year level topics such as "Development of Christianity", "Unification of Europe", "Discovery of the Pole Regions" and "Technical Revolution" are studied. The fourth-year course consists of topics such as "International Co-operation", "Communism", "Cold War", "Africa", "South West Africa" and the "Constitutional Development in the United States of America". It can thus be seen that there is no real chronological continuity from third to fourth year General History. Another improvement on the old syllabus, however, is the inclusion of the "Middle East Conflict" because it is relevant, interesting and still in process.

Taken as a whole, the proposed Senior Primary amended syllabus is an improvement on the present College history syllabus but also has certain flaws.

In an earlier chapter the problem of using precisely the same syllabi for mature and experienced teachers and for pre-service students was raised. It is now necessary to look at this problem insofar as it applies specifically to those who choose to study history. Clearly the general criticisms of the old and the proposed amended syllabi could also apply to these students.

At the Graaff-Reinet College, students study history at Junior Primary (third year) or Senior Primary (third or fourth year) level. Chapter six will show that many of these students have not studied history for a considerable time which means that there will not be continuity from first year to second year to third year to fourth year in their studies as with pre-service students.

The present College history syllabus is not ideally suited for teletuition purposes. An example is the use of the biographical approach, which is excellent for full-time students because through their College libraries they have access to a wide range of books and resources. This is of less value to a teletuition student because he is doing self-study. The rural students do not have easy access to such facilities.

The Junior Primary teletuition students only do history for one year at third-year level. As will be indicated in chapter six, many of the students have very little history background and have not studied history for a considerable period of time. The present third year Junior syllabus consists of five topics, namely "Ideologies", "Development of Religion", "Renaissance", "Historiography", "Own Time Happenings" and "Project Work". Experience has shown that "Ideologies" is well-suited for teletuition because each ideology can be handled on its own. Such an example is the origins and the development of democracy and examples of democracy in various countries. Many of these ideologies can also be linked to "Own Time Happenings". "The Renaissance" can be done in the same way. The author's personal experience has shown that students found the "Development of Religion" to be a difficult topic which they failed to justify in their course.

Not included in the present course is a South African history section nor subject didactics component. This is an obvious weakness because, at the Graaff-Reinet College, history is seen as a process rather than a body of knowledge. This is in agreement with the Open University (1976:5) in England. This institution is similar to the above College in that its history students are faced with the same problems. It is believed that the syllabus should not be concerned with particular facts about particular periods in the past but should be concerned with the methods of history, how the historian goes about his tasks, how to distinguish good history from bad history, how one should read history, and how one should write a history essay. In the Open University first year syllabus references are made to Roman history,

medieval history and to modern history, but students are not expected to remember the facts of any of the topic. The concern here is with methods, purposes and techniques, not with the topics themselves.

The third year Senior Primary course has the problem that students can take history at this level without having completed either the first or second year history course. This will create a lack of background knowledge in history for many students. The subject didactics as it appears in the third year syllabus cannot be taught to these students because it will be meaningless as it presupposes exposure to earlier topics. Experience of lecturing these students for four years has shown that there is a great need for instruction in classroom techniques. It is thus important to combine parts of the first, second and third year subject didactics course to cater for this need. This will provide the students with the necessary knowledge of history methods, purposes and techniques which at this stage is more important than knowing the facts. The topics in the General and South African history must be of such a nature that the Higher Diploma in Education (H.D.E.) course can chronologically be continued from them. Therefore topics from the present syllabus such as "Imperialism and the Scramble for Africa", "Clashes between British Imperialism and Afrikaner Nationalism", "South Africa and South West Africa", "Discovery of the Pole Regions" and the "Development of Religion" are seen as unsuited to the teletuition situation and students' needs.

The history syllabus for the H.D.E. course is also divided into three sections. The Subject Didactics of the present syllabus is very theoretical, including philosophical, historiographical, research techniques and curriculum development components. Such topics are relatively easily dealt with by correspondence courses and by private reading. It is obvious that it would be difficult to include specific practical or applied aspects of methodology in the training of distance-learning students. But some of the techniques used in the Education courses of the Open University are useful models

upon which to build. It is also a continuation of the third year course and it can be studied as a unit. This syllabus might create problems for students who last studied history many years ago, but it will bring them up to date with modern developments in the subjects. The topics in South African history are good because they are an extension of the third-year course. General History topics will create problems because there is no continuity. This has come about as a result of putting the present syllabus together over a number of years. Students in the fourth year will not have the history background on which to build for topics such as "Communism in China and Russia" and "Dictatorship and Democracy".

Another factor which will influence the syllabus for the tele-tuition student is the resources available to all the students. Rural and urban students do not have the same facilities available. Resources will determine how wide and narrow the syllabus will be.

In this chapter the suitability of three College history syllabi were examined. It is concluded that the present College history syllabus has many weaknesses and needs to be revised. Amended history syllabi are also proposed for the Teachers' Colleges. These syllabi are a big improvement on the old syllabi but also have certain limitations. None of these syllabi are suited for tele-tuition, simply because they were designed for pre-service and not in-service training.

Some authorities could argue that it is not appropriate to have separate syllabi for teachers (full-time and part-time) getting the same qualifications after following two different history syllabi. The author argues that acquiring history methodological skills for the tele-tuition students (discussed in chapter two) is of more value than specific content knowledge. Part-time students (teachers) are already involved in day-to-day history teaching and thus have ample opportunity to study the existing school history syllabi.

They can also study it in a more adult way. Method integrated with content would be more meaningful and relevant for these students.

In the next chapter an analysis of the questionnaire will be made.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study is to determine the problem areas in the history course as presented by the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training and to propose possible solutions to the problems. In 1986 a pilot study was administered to 25 history teletuition students of which 18 were female and 7 male. The subjects completed a questionnaire during the 1986 Winter School which contained the same questions as those found in sections B and C of the questionnaire administered during the 1987 Winter School (appendix G). The purpose of the pilot study was to detect possible problem areas before designing the expanded questionnaire:

The expanded questionnaire was completed by 46 history students (13 men and 33 women) who attended the Winter School between 27 July and 20 August 1987 at the College. This means that a 100% return was obtained and passes the 70% needed for a valid return as proposed by Ary (1972:172) by a good margin. To follow up and check the validity of the questionnaire, interviews were held with a random sample (15 students) of the respondents during the Winter School. The results obtained from these interviews were in agreement with the questionnaire results. It is important to remember that the questionnaires were completed only by students studying history at the College.

The nature of structured questionnaires provides for objectivity and reliability. All students received the same instructions, thus the researcher's personality did not influence the results. The quality of the measuring instrument will provide a degree of consistency.

In this chapter an analysis of the questionnaire will be made. The questionnaire used in 1987 was divided into four sections:

- Section A - concerning the respondent's general teaching experience,
- Section B - concerning the respondent's history teaching

- experience,
- Section C - concerning the problems that history students have,
 - Section D - concerning the history teacher in the class-room.

The results of the questionnaire will be discussed in five sections, each related to the information provided by a question or groups of questions.

Section 1

The questions in this section are related to the respondents general background. The first question will indicate the qualifications of the respondents. This is important because it will show what courses must be catered for at the Colleges for Continued Training.

Table VIII: QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

Qualifications	Length of Training	Total	Percentage
Higher Diploma in Education (Pre-primary)	3	3	6,5
Diploma in Education	3	13	28,3
Primary Teachers' Certificate (P.T.C.)	2	13	28,3
Primary Education Diploma	3	8	17,4
Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate	3	<u>9</u>	<u>19,6</u>
	N -	46	100,1

This table indicates that all the respondents have either a two or three (2 plus 1) year qualification, with just over a quarter (28,3 of the respondents) possessing only a two-year qualification. This certificate was issued before 1970 and in that year was replaced by a three-year qualification (Diploma in Education). The Diploma in Education consists of a three year course which is split after the first year into Junior and Senior courses. These two courses indicate that

there is a need for third-year and fourth-year upgrading at either Senior or Primary level. The Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate, is a two year diploma (P.T.C.) followed by a one year specialization course in Academic subjects, Physical Education, Needlework, Woodwork or Infant School Teaching. As stated earlier, the Cape Education Department only recognises two diplomas for salary purposes. To enable these students to move from category C to D the Department has made it possible for primary school teachers to consolidate two diplomas and then study to fourth-year level. The consolidation course thus does not lead to a higher financial category, but places the teacher in a position to study for a further diploma.

It can be assumed that all the respondents are interested in obtaining ultimately a four-year qualification for reasons which will be discussed later.

The following table indicates the number of years that the respondents have been teaching. These figures will indicate when teachers were qualified which in turn will reflect problems that might arise.

Table IX: NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years experience	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26 - More
Number	4	12	17	8	4	1
Percentage	8,7	26	37	17,4	8,7	0,46

These figures show that 26,6% of the respondents had qualified before 1970. By that date the two-year Primary Teachers' Course and the one-year Higher Primary Course which followed the two-year course had ceased to be offered, and the shortest course provided was the three-year Diploma in Education. In other words many of the students (37%) who had been at training colleges in the early 1970's (11-15 years ago) had done a three-year diploma. There was not a big demand for teachers and higher qualifications were not considered important by many prospective teachers. Although opportunities for four-

year courses were available during this period, comparatively few students took advantage of this possibility at that time. It can further be deduced that in more recent times (0 - 5 years ago) many students were opting for four-year continuous training and more are being encouraged to do a fourth year. This figure also shows that Norton's conclusion (chapter two) that teachers over the age of forty are not interested to study further, could be true, as only 9,1% of the respondents had been teaching for more than 21 years.

It can also be deduced from the table that those in service with only three years of training behind them have not yet fully realised the value of a fourth year for category increase and promotion. Of the respondents, 28,3 are men and 71,7 are females. It can be further deduced that women remain at colleges for shorter periods of time than men during the pre-service period and that after a certain period of married life they return to teaching. Women who have qualified more recently (0 - 5 years) are probably at the stage of married life where they have young children and are not teaching, which could also explain the small number of teachers with fewer than five years experience in the group.

The final conclusion that can be made is that Colleges for Continued Training in the Cape cater mainly for teachers with a two or three year qualification and who had originally studied before 1980.

The following table indicates the courses that the respondents are studying and bears out the above arguments. This is important for history because it is a compulsory or optional subject in the various courses, as discussed in chapter five.

Table X: THE COURSES THAT THE RESPONDENTS ARE STUDYING AT THE GRAAFF-REINET COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING

Course	Year level	Number	Percentage
Junior Primary	3	3	6,5
Senior Primary	3	12	26,1
Higher Education Diploma	4	16	34,8
Consolidation		15	32,6
N - 46			

The first two types of students (32,6%) are studying at a third-year level, as their initial training was P.T.C. (two years) and are specializing in either Senior or Junior courses; 34,8% of the respondents are following a fourth year of study. This confirms the deductions made from table X, that respondents are interested in obtaining a Higher Diploma in Education (fourth year).

The position the respondents hold at their school is important because it reflects the advancement that the respondents have made, despite their initial fairly low qualifications, within the system.

Table XI: POSITION HELD AT SCHOOLS BY THE RESPONDENTS

Position at School	Total	Percentage
Principal	6	13
Deputy Principal	-	-
Head of Department	4	8,7
Subject Head	4	8,7
Teacher	32	69,6
N - 46		

It is likely that respondents in promotion posts (30,4%) have been forced to study further because of inadequate qualifications. Some of them were filling acting rather than permanent posts at these levels. It is clear that it is becoming more difficult for teachers to get permanent promotion without a four-year qualification.

All six principals have three-year qualifications and are trying to get a fourth year. Four are from rural areas and two hold posts at prominent urban schools. This is a good example of there being a need for institutions such as the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training because such respondents deserve to have an opportunity for upgrading their qualification. In these circumstances it is surprising that no deputy principals were making use of the opportunity to improve their qualifications in this sample.

The large number of ordinary class teachers in the sample (nearly 70%) can be attributed to the large number of women (71%) amongst the respondents. It is possible that many of them have temporary appointments or they have returned to teaching after a long absence and then found it necessary to improve their qualifications. This has been prompted by the decrease in the number of posts and the availability of teachers with four-year qualifications who have just completed their teacher training or military service.

This section has provided important information concerning the general background of the respondents. It is necessary to have this information so that the implications concerning history and teletuition in general can be seen.

Section 2

The questions to be discussed in this section are specific to the history training of the respondents. In other words the history background of the history students will be examined in more detail. In this section, information obtained from the pilot study done with the 1986 history students will be added to that obtained from the questionnaire administered in 1987. It is important to remember that the same questions were put to both groups.

The first question concerns the number of years since the respondents last studied history. It is hoped that the figures will throw light on problems such as break in studying and lack of historical background knowledge.

Table XII: THE NUMBER OF YEARS AGO SINCE THE RESPONDENTS
LAST STUDIED HISTORY

Years ago	1986 (Pilot Study)		1987	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
0 - 5	0	-	3	6,52
6 - 10	0	-	10	21,74
11 - 15	3	12	8	17,40
16 - 20	8	32	9	19,57
21 - 25	8	32	14	30,43
26 - 30	6	24	2	4,35
More	0	-	0	-
		N - 25		N - 46

Over one-third (nearly 35%) have not studied history for 21 years or longer, and 70% of the students had not studied history for 11 years or longer. This could have serious implications for their conceptions (or misconceptions) about history as a discipline. Their content knowledge is also likely to be thin and to have been heavily influenced by the textbooks they have been using with their pupils rather than material written for adult readers. It is also likely that their awareness of methodological advances will be limited (this was confirmed by the answers to a later question). A careful balance between content (particularly that related to updating their knowledge of historical interpretations) and changing method should therefore be built into their courses. At the same time lecturers must be aware that not all the students were currently teaching history (see a later question), so the course must also take into account the possibility that the training for such teachers must concentrate upon their general rather than strictly professional development. Finally, the problems of distance-learning (isolation, lack of resources) could especially affect those teachers who have been removed from serious personal study for many years. The personal situation of the students needs therefore to be looked at in terms of the comments in the previous chapter on the aims and content of the colleges'

history syllabus.

The following two tables will show the level of history qualification obtained by the respondents. The purpose for these questions is to show in more detail the wide range of history backgrounds for which there must be catered. Only history students taking history in 1987 completed this question, as it was not included in the pilot study.

Table XIII: THE RESPONDENTS HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS IN HISTORY AT SCHOOL

Qualifications in History					
Standard	6	7	8	9	10
Total percentage	21(45,7)	1(2,3)	7(16,6)	0	17(36,9)

This table shows that nearly half of the respondents did not take history after standard 6. This can be attributed to a number of factors: Wide subject selection in secondary schools, decrease in history popularity because it is not a "bread and butter" subject and that girls are less inclined to take history to matric than boys. The latter is clearly reflected in the table because 70% of respondents are female.

Table XIV: THE RESPONDENTS HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS IN HISTORY AT COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

Qualifications in History				
Years	1	2	3	4
College	0	39(84,4)	7(15,2)	
University	7(15,2)	4(8,7)		

This table shows the highest level of qualifications in history obtained at college and university by the respondents. It is interesting to note the number of students who have university level history, probably obtained through study at

UNISA. These tables indicate the wide history background of the respondents, from second year university to third year college after virtually no school history.

It can be seen that all the respondents have studied history up to college second-year level. This means that the lack of background knowledge can be attributed to the long break between pre-service training and further training. Another reason for the lack of background knowledge can be as a result of the small number of students (36,9%) who have studied history to matric-level. This means that when they start their third year history course they have limited knowledge and background in history because they have only mastered the first and second year syllabus. This again indicates that the present syllabus should be changed to suit the needs of the students.

It can also be expected that some of the respondents are studying history because it is compulsory rather than an optional subject (the Junior Primary students). Others, it is expected have chosen history rather than science because the latter subject is believed to be difficult. This could lead to a negative attitude towards history. Thus, the lecturer cannot expect too much enthusiasm from all the students for additional reading and projects. The lecturer will also have to prepare thorough study guides and must be very positive in his motivation.

The results of the questionnaire show that there is a great need for in-service training courses in history (Section B, No. 3). Of the respondents, 45 (97,8%) have never attended an in-service course in history and only one had had such an opportunity. Earlier tables show that there is a need for such courses in that large numbers of students are poorly qualified in history and many have had a long time lapse between pre-service and further training.

In-service training is of vital importance. Yule (1987:64) argues that the initial training of a teacher is not enough to ensure personal and professional growth of the teacher in a career which may last as long as 45 years. In-service

training can be seen to mean:

"the development of the individual which arises from the whole range of events and activities by which serving teachers can extend their personal academic or practical education, their professional competence and their understanding of educational principles and methods".
(Reeler, 1986:2)

Since the 1960's there has been a most significant resurgence of interest and activity in in-service education for teachers in many countries. The Cape Education Department recognises the value of in-service courses but claims that it does not have the finance to run such courses, thus there have not been many such courses in recent years. Unfortunately, the question did not make a distinction between courses sponsored by the Department, lasting two or three days, and simple meetings run by the various Teachers' Centres. It is possible that the respondents were thinking more of the former than of the latter. Nevertheless, simple lectures or workshops at Teachers' Centres cannot carry as much impact as a more extended course. Balam stresses the importance of in-service training clearly using a similar definition to Reeler's:

"First, it is inherently important that teachers of all people should continue with their personal and professional education. Second, the rapid, extensive and fundamental nature of present day change - technological, economic, cultural, social, political - makes it imperative for the education system in general and teachers in particular, to review and modify teaching methods and curricula"
(cited in Murphy, 1985:2)

It can thus be deduced that there is a definite need for in-service courses for history because, as Yule (1987:64) states, "in-service training is not a luxury but crucial in any education system".

The questions in this section have raised some interesting points related to history, such as a large period between pre-service and in-service training, lack of background knowledge, history qualifications of teachers and the need for a history in-service course. The deductions made from this section are important and relevant to this study.

Section 3

It is important to know what the students' motivation is for studying at the College. This will be investigated in this section. This section was only completed by the 46 history students of 1987, and was not originally included in the pilot study. Although an opportunity was given to present other reasons for enrolling for the College course, no respondent used this option.

Table XV: REASONS FOR STUDYING AT THE GRAAFF-REINET COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING. (N - 46)

Reasons given	Choice									
	1		2		3		4		5	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Interested in future promotion	18	39	8	17	9	19	4	10	7	15
Challenge	10	21	8	17	12	26	12	26	4	10
Increase in salary	9	19	18	39	12	26	2	4	5	11
Present post requires it	6	14	4	10	7	15	11	24	18	39
Interested in the subjects presented	3	7	8	17	6	14	17	36	12	25
Totals	46	100	46	100	46	100	46	100	46	100

By inspecting this table one can see that "Interest in future promotion" and "Increase in salary" are given as a high priority reason for studying. In contrast "Challenge" and "Present post requires it" received low ratings. "Interest in the subject" was also not considered a problem for motivating students in their studies.

The following table is an attempt to amalgamate the choices made by the respondents and makes the results easier to interpret. Choices 1 and 2 and, 4 and 5 are combined. The middle choice is ignored because it indicates an uncommitted response.

Reasons given	Choice			
	1 and 2		4 and 5	
	n	%	n	%
Interested in future promotion	26	56	11	24
Challenge	18	39	16	35
Increase in salary	27	59	7	15
Present post requires it	10	21	27	59
Interest in the subjects presented	11	24	29	63
N - 46				

Table XV indicates that most of the teletuition students are doing the course because they are interested in either promotion, increase in salary or they see it as a challenge. Although no particular "Interest in subject" is indicated, there is nevertheless an equal division between those that rate "Challenge" as high and low priorities. This could modify the problem of the lack of specific subject interest. As was seen in an earlier chapter, many primary school teachers have only a two- or three-year qualification but have been teaching for many years. This means that for salary purposes they are on category B or C. The correspondence course presented by the two Colleges for Continued Training in the Cape provides these teachers with the opportunity to improve their qualifications and attain category D, which means a big salary-increase. It can be expected that promotion, increase in salary and better qualification go together.

Although many respondents indicated that they were studying because of the challenge, it must nevertheless be remembered that many primary school teachers have been forced to improve their qualifications, because the demand for White teachers is dropping and less well-qualified teachers have to compete with better qualified "beginner" teachers. Thus, pressure is greater if the teacher wants to apply for promotion posts, or convert a temporary post into a permanent post.

The second table shows the general feeling towards the choices more clearly. Reasons such as "Present post requires it" and

"Interest in the subject" enjoys little support. This can be attributed to the fact that financial gain and promotion are the overwhelming factors motivating the students.

These results are in agreement with the needs analysis at the various Colleges for Continued Training in the Cape Province done by Norton (1987:8), which showed that financial reward, promotion and the importance of extra qualifications as being the most important reasons for teachers obtaining additional qualifications. According to Kaye and Rumble (1981:36) improvement of career prospects and a general desire to learn are the main reasons cited for taking courses at the Open University in the United Kingdom.

This section has discussed the reasons why the students study further at the College. As far as history is concerned, experience has shown that students are not interested in history as a subject. All they want is to pass. Thus, the lecturer cannot expect too much additional effort from the students.

Section 4

This section is concerned with problems that the students have in studying by means of teletuition. Although this section is related to the other sections in the chapter, it is of exceptional importance because this is one of the main concerns of this study.

The first aspect to be looked at concerns the area in which the school is situated at which the respondent teaches. The question is relevant because it will suggest that there are differences in the needs of teachers working in urban or rural areas, and in access to resources and facilities.

Table XVI: THE AREA IN WHICH THE SCHOOL IS SITUATED AT WHICH THE RESPONDENTS HAVE TAUGHT.

Area where schools were situated	Number	Percentage
Urban	17	36,9
Rural	14	30,4
Urban and Rural	15	32,6
N - 46		

This table indicates the number of respondents who have taught at schools in urban, rural or in both rural and urban areas at any stage during their careers.

It appears as if there is an even spread of respondents between urban and rural areas. According to figure 4.1, the Graaff-Reinet College has two core areas from which it attracts urban students: Port Elizabeth/Uitenhage and East London. In fact, 48,58% of the total number of students came from these two areas. UNISA has a slightly different situation as far as their history students are concerned. A report published by UNISA (1987:19) on first year history students indicates that the majority of history students live in the larger centres.

It is likely that the urban students could have many advantages over their rural counterparts: Better libraries are available; there could be easier access to fellow students; there is a quicker postal service; and knowledgeable people in a particular subject are within easy reach. The College drop-out rate is 1 in 6 and it is predicted that the larger number of drop-outs will come from this group. The type of children taught and facilities available to the two groups will differ greatly.

It could be expected therefore, that rural students could need more support, encouragement and motivation than would urban students. The differences should affect the planning, subject content and evaluation of course material. It could be assumed that contact sessions would be of greater importance for rural

than for urban students.

As far as the contact sessions conducted by the College is concerned, 37 (80,4%) were satisfied and only 9 (19,6%) of the respondents were dissatisfied with the sessions. The following reasons were given by the dissatisfied respondents: Poor lecturing (2,2%), too little time per subject (6,5%), too little contact with the lecturers (6,5%) and at the wrong or difficult time of the year (4,3%). It can be deduced from the open-ended part of the question that the respondents were also satisfied with the college's accommodation facilities.

Contact sessions are of great value to both the lecturer and the student as was discussed in chapter one. According to the Progressio (1983:53), 85% of UNISA students have found contact sessions of value. It can thus be deduced that contact sessions are an essential part of correspondence and that students are generally satisfied with the contact sessions conducted by the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training. At this institution, contact sessions are held for a week in January and for a week in July/August. The College has one residence which houses the students while they are attending these sessions. During the January session the study guides are handed out and the content of the history courses is discussed and explained. At these sessions most of the time is used to explain the methods and techniques involved in the studying of history. The different resources are shown and the students are told where to obtain additional information. Various examples of questions are discussed so that students can grasp the problems involved in answering a history question. In other words, emphasis is more on the methodology involved in history studying than with the topics themselves.

At the second contact session, problems of the work done in the first semester are discussed and difficult parts of the second semester's work are concentrated on. The format of the examination paper is explained and the students are encouraged to complete at least one assignment while at the College. A compulsory interview is also held with each student. This not only helps the lecturer to get to know the students better but also provides an opportunity to discuss

any problems that the student might have. Making the interview compulsory is important because many of the students are reluctant to approach lecturers on their own about problems.

In chapter one, there is a discussion by various authors of possible problems that teletuition students might have. In section C of the questionnaire these problems were related to history because that is the main concern of this dissertation. It can thus be claimed that answers to these questions are very important to solving problems that history students at the College might have.

The first group of problems (statements) concern time, motivation and the returning of assignments. Of the respondents to the questionnaire, 63 (88,7%) felt that they did not have enough time. This is a problem found by most students studying by means of correspondence. This problem can be better grasped if one looks at the reasons for the student taking the course, as is indicated earlier in this chapter. Tables VII and XV indicate that many of the respondents are holding senior positions in the school which is time-consuming, plus history is a "time-consuming" subject to study. In history, about 70% of the students are women, and they are studying because either they have become the breadwinner or they need permanent appointments. These women do not only hold full-time teaching posts but many have homes to look after. Extramural activities can also take up a lot of a teacher's time. The time factor more than anything else leads to the high drop-out rate at the college. To study under these conditions is difficult. It can thus be seen that the respondents are faced with a real problem as far as time and commitment is concerned.

According to the questionnaire, 33 (46,5%) of the respondents have motivational problems with the studying of history. This is understandable if one considers that many of the respondents did not take history to standard 10 and they do not teach it at school. From the questionnaire figures and previous tables, the deduction can be made that extrinsic motivation is what is driving the students in their studies. The

students are virtually only interested in passing, getting their diplomas and reaping the benefits of their improved qualifications. The reason for this is that students either need the extra money, want permanent appointments or promotion. Table XV presented earlier seems to agree with this. Harley (1987:46) believes that the nature of the teaching profession is such that it can be expected of teachers to be intrinsically motivated to be involved in academic and professional studies throughout their careers. The large number of teachers enrolled for formal studies at the universities and colleges as well as the sacrifices teachers do make to attend conferences and in-service activities at their own expense and in their own time, is clear evidence that intrinsic motivation does exist in the teaching profession in South Africa.

According to the questionnaire, the students seemed satisfied with the speed at which assignments were returned because only 9% felt that the present system was too slow. It is predicted that this will become a major problem because the government has curtailed the number of trains from Graaff-Reinet to Port Elizabeth per week. This will obviously create problems as far as speed of written communication between the student and college is concerned. If assignments are returned too slowly it will affect the student's motivation and the time the student has set out for a particular section.

The second group of questions concerns problems related to the student's history background. Factors such as history background, lack of contact, structure of the subject and subject content are looked at. The questionnaire indicates that 50 (70,4%) of the respondents feel that they are out of touch with studying. The previously discussed section of the questionnaire verifies this fact. This can be attributed to poor qualifications, ex-teachers returning to the profession and the recent establishment of Colleges for Continued Training which presents a new opportunity to primary school teachers to study further. The deduction can thus be made that the respondents do have a problem with time lapse and that the biggest problem is the syllabus which was designed for pre-service and not in-service students.

This figure is a summary of the results obtained from the 1986 (appendix H) and 1987 (appendix I) history students who completed section C of the questionnaire (appendix E). The respondents were able to rate their problems on a five point scale from A (strongly agree) to E (strongly disagree). As was done in table XV the high ratings (A and B) and the low ratings (D and E) have been combined in the final column.

Table XVII: SUMMARY OF FIGURES OBTAINED FROM SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Problems as seen by students	1986 Number Ratings					1987 Number Ratings					Combined Ratings			
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E	A + B		D + E	
											n	%	n	%
1. Time	18	7	0	0	0	24	14	3	5	0	63	88	5	7
2. Lost contact	14	9	1	1	0	19	21	4	2	0	63	88	3	4
3. Motivation	1	7	11	6	0	12	13	8	10	3	33	44	19	26
4. Background lack	12	6	3	4	0	13	16	9	8	0	47	66	12	16
5. Study Methods	6	10	5	4	0	11	13	10	12	0	40	56	16	22
6. Writing	5	11	2	7	0	9	14	9	14	0	39	54	21	29
7. Translating	3	9	5	8	0	8	12	6	19	1	32	45	28	39
8. Sources	3	7	3	10	2	2	12	6	20	6	24	33	38	53
9. Structure	3	11	7	4	0	3	20	8	14	1	37	52	19	26
10. Isolation	16	7	1	0	1	10	18	3	14	1	51	71	16	22
11. Contact Lecturer	0	1	1	21	2	0	5	4	25	12	6	8	60	84
12. Returning	2	0	2	18	3	0	5	3	30	8	7	9	59	83
13. Content	4	6	11	3	1	0	5	7	29	5	15	21	38	53
14. Study guides	0	4	6	13	2	0	3	10	26	7	7	9	48	67
15. Books	10	9	2	4	0	15	17	2	10	2	51	71	16	22

The biggest problem with which the respondents are faced is the lack of background in history. This factor has been referred to on many occasions in this study. The questionnaire and tables XII, XIII and XIV seem to agree with this statement. According to table XII, the range for 1986 varies from 10 to 30 years break in study and in 1987 the situation is very similar with the majority being between 5 and 25 years. In 1986, 21 of the 25 respondents did the P.T.C. course lasting 2 years and 4 had history up to matric-level. Tables XIII and XIV tell a very similar story in that 45,7% of the respondents only took history to standard 6 and 84,4% have passed history at college second-year level. It can thus be deduced that a large percentage of the respondents have got a P.T.C. obtained before 1968. This in itself indicates a "big gap" between pre-service and further training, which will result in a lack of history background. It can also be deduced that the lack of history background will obviously create problems and this could cause a lack of intrinsic motivation which would lead to students dropping out. The syllabus which consists of abstract terms such as communism, capitalism and socialism, adds to this problem. To meet academic requirements laid down by all the Provincial Education Departments, a university second-year level must also be maintained. This means that the history lecturer cannot change or simplify the course to suit the group or individual. A special syllabus, as proposed in recommendations, geared to primary school teaching should be designed for these students. The lack of historical background is a big problem which cannot be solved over-night but a more appropriate student related syllabus will contribute substantially to the solving of the problem.

Students (52%) seemed to have problems with the structure of the subject. This can be attributed to the lack of historical background and long break from studying. At the College, cognisance is taken of this problem. The work-programme is divided into between six and nine modules. Each module is divided into three sections. Five questions are set for each section. The student is expected to submit one question from each of the three sections for evaluation (three in total) and must work out the other four for examination purposes.

A student may submit more than one question per section for evaluation but this is not compulsory. The examination papers are set in such a way that they include one question from each section (An example of one module is given in appendix D).

From the questionnaire it can be seen that 53% of the students are satisfied with the content of the syllabus. Three respondents proposed alternative content that they would like to see included: Japan, Russia and Eastern History. The fact that very few students suggested alternative syllabus structures cannot necessarily be attributed to student satisfaction. Lack of response might reflect ignorance of general history and the fact that respondents are not really interested in history as a subject. Respondents are only keen to pass the subject and get their diplomas. The content of the subject is seen as irrelevant although many have indicated that they find certain sections of the syllabus more interesting than others.

The next group of questions is concerned with the correspondence study method and includes study guides. According to the two questionnaires, unfamiliarity with the correspondence study method, as is discussed in chapter IV, also seemed to create a problem because 53,3% of the respondents agreed with the statement. This is to be expected as all the respondents received their pre-service training in the conventional form of instruction. The deduction can thus be made that the students must be taught how to study by means of correspondence so that they can work with confidence. If this is not done they will lose interest and drop-out. Gräbe (1987:227) agrees and states that there is nothing 'automatic' about the skills required to cope with distance learning. She suggests that the basic skills - reading with comprehension and writing with clarity - required for correspondence learning must be taught to the students.

A further problem lies in the methodology and communication used in the correspondence situation, namely reading and writing. With this problem will go the question of translating from English to Afrikaans and vice-versa. According to

Gräbe (1987:227), UNISA has the same problem but their problem is increased by the ethnic diversity of the students. It is clear that if the subject content is not in the students first language there will be problems. The respondents (54%) have indicated that they do not have a problem with translation. This can be attributed to the fact that most of the notes received by the students have been translated. Problems sometimes arise, however, because books are not available in both official languages. Finding the necessary resources does not seem to create too many problems because the students are encouraged to use other libraries and the College has a good history section. This library can be used effectively during the contact sessions. Students with reading and writing problems will obviously have problems with any correspondence course. Students sometimes find it hard to understand questions or to interpret them correctly. To solve this problem the lecturer must explain clearly during the contact sessions what it is he wants done in the study guides. Problems arising from translating and reading/writing problems can be overcome by making effective use of the contact sessions.

Working in isolation is another set of problems which respondents have and this means isolation from lecturers and peers. This is shown by the 53 (74,6%) respondents who found working in isolation a problem. The Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training caters for students covering a large geographical area which includes most of the Cape Province and even has students from the Transkei and South West Africa. Crawford-Nutt (1987:149) states that for any student, the absence of ready help can be very disheartening, and the delay in response to written appeals for help invites giving up even the attempt to study. For students whose perception of their ability to learn has been adversely affected by their experience at school, the situation in distance education is a disaster. They are without a teacher to tell them how they are doing and have no readily available peers with whom to compare themselves. From the figures provided by the questionnaires it can be seen that correspondence students have isolation problems and that institutions providing such courses must have effective support systems.

Nevertheless, in general it would seem that students are satisfied that they can contact lecturers and with the speed which assignments are returned.

The next group of problems is concerned with obtaining the necessary resources and handbooks. The main problem concerns the expense of both resource materials and books. Of the respondents, 71% indicated that they were dissatisfied with the expense of handbooks. As far as libraries are concerned, 48% of the respondents indicated that they make use of the Cape Education Library. Other libraries used by students are: College Libraries 12%, Municipality Libraries 18%, and University Libraries 9%. It also appears that the contact sessions are successful in that they are exposing the students to the relevant resources.

It is of concern that fewer than half the students used the Cape Education Department Library. They might be ignorant about the facilities of the library even if they have other services available. All the books recommended in the history course are available in the College library and photostat facilities are easily available for the students during contact sessions. Nevertheless, further background readings could be difficult to obtain in rural areas unless facilities like those from the Cape Education Department Library are used.

Another solution to the problem would be the establishment of resource centres especially in rural towns and in Teachers' Centres in the bigger cities. A number of distance-learning systems, support services are built on the concept of local resource centres. These centres provide facilities for tutoring, counselling, viewing, listening to programmes and access to library material. Kaye and Rumble (1981:147) hold that local resource centres carry out one or more of three functions: academic, advisory and administrative. While it may be argued that there is some contradiction in the notion of a local resource centre in a distance-learning system, the provision of local resource centres can be part of a strategy to decentralise a highly centralised and sometimes

bureaucratic organisation as well as putting a human face to an impersonal system. Local centres can provide a focus of contact for students with each other and with tutoring and counselling staff, and enable access to materials and a place to study. The Open University, discussed in chapter three, makes extensive use of such centres.

It can thus be deduced from this discussion that resource centres would be ideal and that it would be of more value to establish them in rural areas than other areas.

This section of the questionnaire has provided some interesting information on the problems the history correspondence students have. If the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training is to be successful in its function, it must overcome these problems.

Section 5

This section of the questionnaire was completed by 27 (58,7%) of the respondents, and was designed to obtain information concerning the teacher in the classroom situation. All of these respondents have taught or are teaching history in the primary school. It can also be deduced that the majority of the 41,3% not teaching history are Junior Primary teachers and are female. The picture given by respondents claims is relatively satisfactory. The important question of how effective is their use of the resources cannot be asked. This is one of the limitations of this dissertation.

As far as textbooks are concerned, 20 (74,1%) of the students indicated that they use more than one textbook. The number of textbooks used by the respondents varies from 2 to 5 books. It is clear that most history teachers are exposing the pupils to more than one viewpoint. Of the respondents who only use one textbook (7 - 25,9%), one teaches at a Special School. At these schools only one resource is required. It might be that the other teachers teach in rural areas where they do not have many resources available.

The questionnaire shows that 24 (88,9%) of the respondents

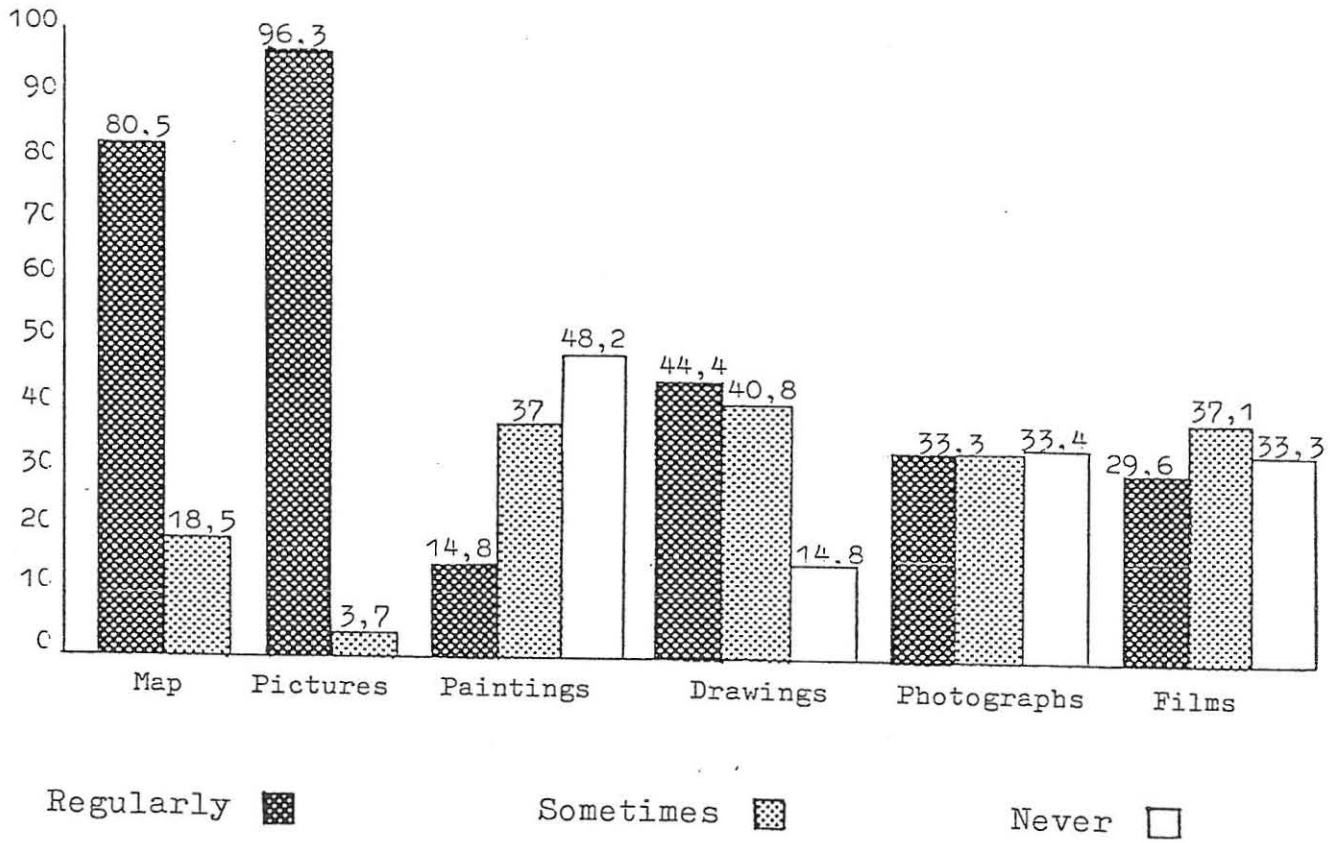


Figure 6.2: A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION OF RESOURCE MATERIAL USED BY THE RESPONDENTS.

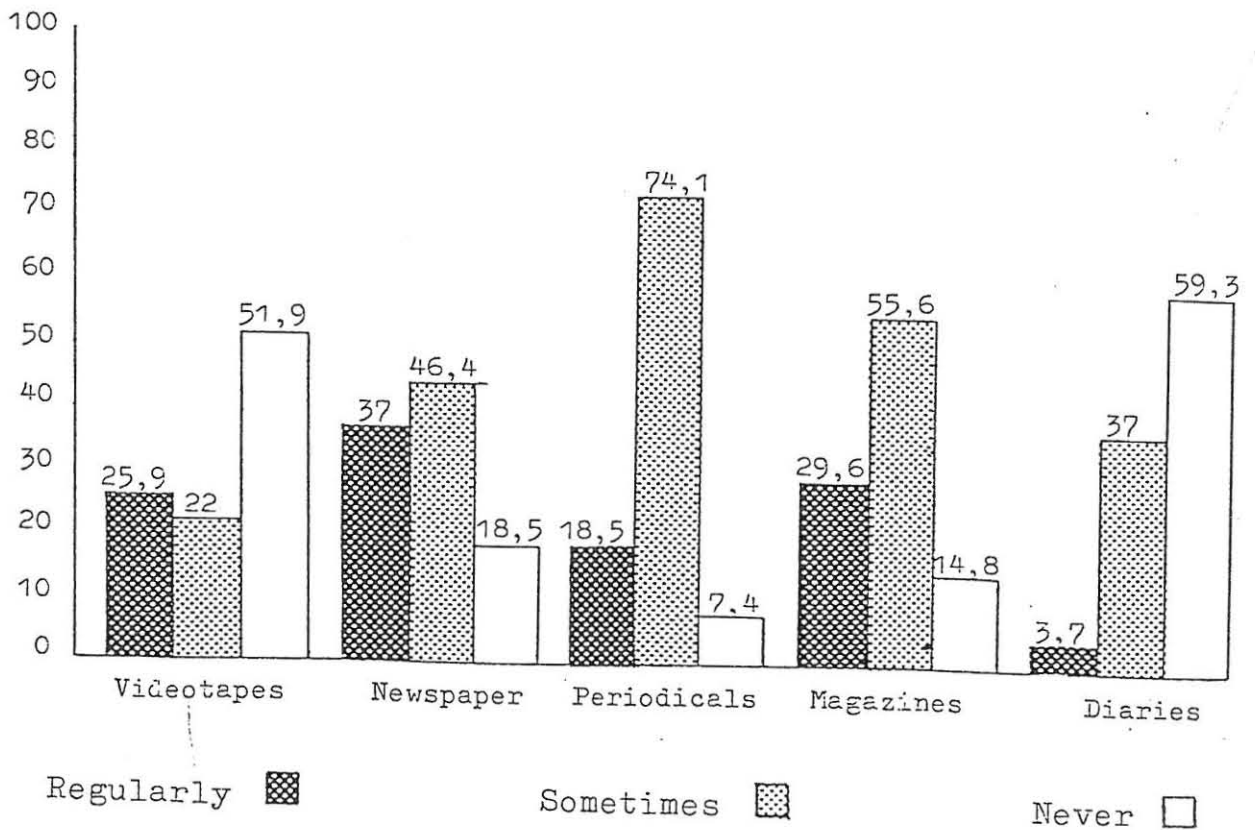


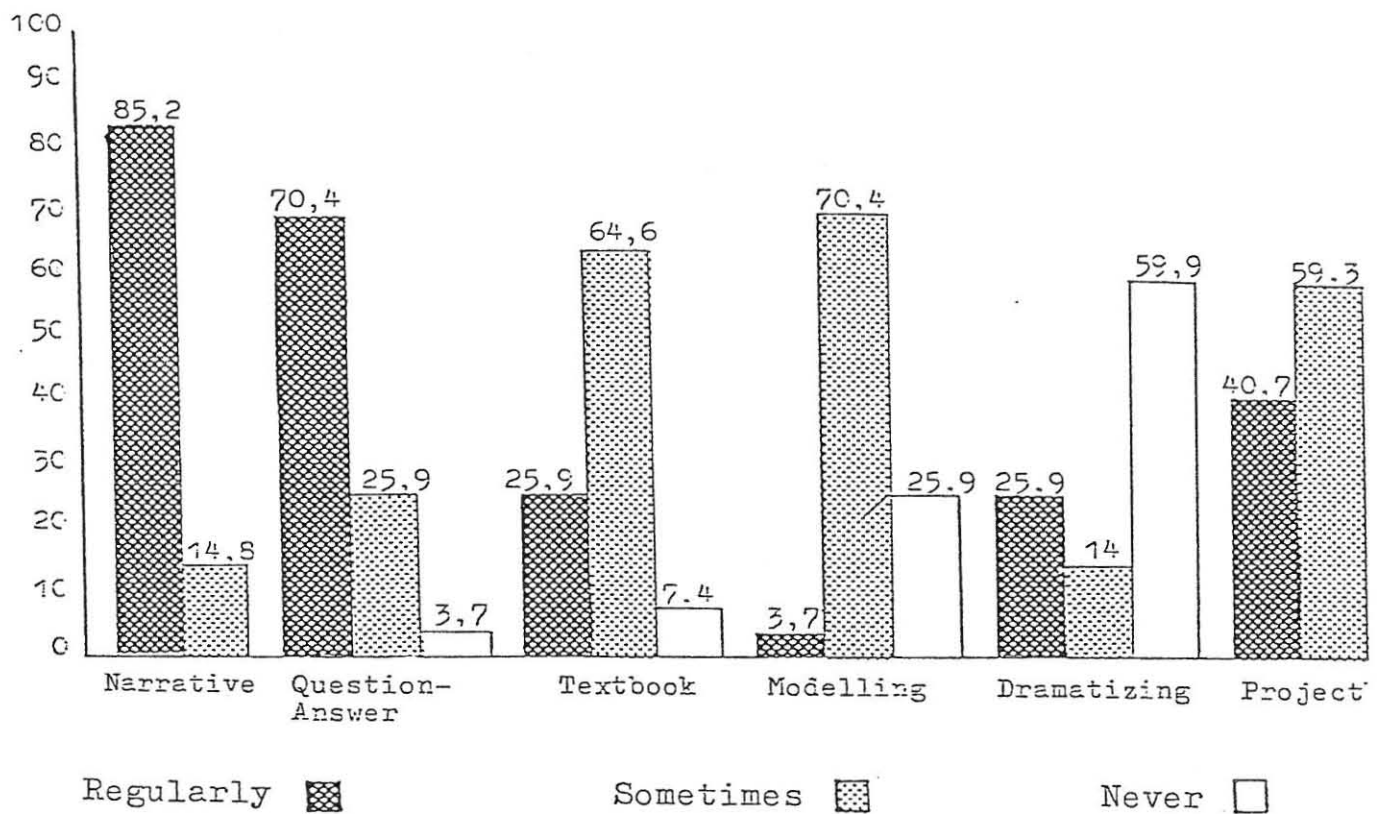
Figure 6.2 (Continued): A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION OF RESOURCE MATERIAL USED BY THE RESPONDENTS.

make use of resources other than textbooks. Figure 6.2 indicates that maps, pictures and periodicals are the most commonly used resources. The least used resources appear to be paintings, videotapes and diaries. This can be attributed to the fact that they are either very expensive or they are hard to come by. What is surprising about the results is how few teachers really make use of drawings, photographs, films, newspapers and magazines. Paintings and drawings are of great value to history teachers and can be obtained from various institutions and companies, for example Shell Petroleum. It is surprising that films and newspapers are not more regularly used. Films can be freely obtained from the Cape Education Department. Newspapers and magazines often have articles and a variety of stories which can be used by history teachers, especially in the primary school.

These two resources are also very easily obtainable. The deduction can be made that the respondents are either ignorant of how to use or obtain many of the resources. The lack of possible resource centres in far off rural areas could also be the reason for not using certain resources. In-service courses and changing of the present syllabus could solve the above problems and assist to widen the awareness of the number of resources that are available and of their importance for teaching effectively.

Figure 6.3 shows that there is a link between the narrative and textbook method and that the narrative and the question-and-answer methods are the most regularly used teaching method used by the respondents. This is not surprising because story-telling is the most commonly used teaching method in the primary school. Children in the primary school have a great sense of imagination which should be exploited to the full. History is the ideal subject in which this can be done. It is thus a pity to see that modelling, role play and dramatizing are not used more regularly. This can again be attributed to ignorance and the lack of knowledge about new teaching methods in history. The irregular use of projects can be attributed to the lack of resource materials in certain rural areas. This statement is supported by the questionnaire results which show that only 15,2% of the respondents make use

Figure 6.3: A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION OF THE TEACHING METHODS USED BY THE RESPONDENTS.



of library assignments regularly and 66,7% sometimes. The solution to the problem would be for teachers to study local history if they have a shortage of resources. According to Coetzee (1987:33), local history will help orientate the pupil in his own environment, the pupils will also become actively involved in history and working with resources (documents, clothes and furniture) can lead to new discoveries. The important point here is that teachers must be taught how to make use of local situations when instructing history.

The final deduction that can be made from this section is that primary school teachers need to be instructed in modern classroom techniques. They also need to be made aware of where and what resource materials are available to them. It can also be deduced that obtaining suitable resources is more of a problem in rural than urban areas. The lack of knowledge of primary school teachers of modern resource material and teaching techniques could be one of the reasons for the drop in the number of children taking history to matric-level.

The information discussed in this chapter shows that there is a need for certain changes to be made in the present teletuition course as far as history is concerned. The next chapter will be used to draw conclusions from the discussions and to make recommendations.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this dissertation is to make a study of the problems experienced in the history teletuition course as presented by the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training. Using the information obtained from the questionnaire (appendix G) completed by the teletuition students studying history at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training in 1986 and 1987, the following conclusions and recommendations have been made by the author.

Chapter two of this study has indicated that there is a need for facilities whereby primary school teachers can improve their qualifications. This conclusion is based on Yule's work, the survey done by the Department and the deductions made from table II, chapter two, and the conclusions reached by Norton in his research project, Colleges for Continued Training : Course Needs Analysis and Evaluation. In the Cape the situation has been reached where the need for newly trained primary school teachers has decreased, while there is a demand for the upgrading of full-time but under-qualified teachers. This state of affairs can be attributed to the pattern of primary teacher training used in the Cape over the years and to bad planning on behalf of the Cape Educational authorities. It is important to remember that these teachers are established in society, have families and cannot leave their schools for long periods at a time. The ideal solution to this problem is to provide institutions which offer correspondence courses at which primary school teachers can upgrade their qualifications. In the Cape two such institutions have been established. From the figures, Graaff-Reinet 176 students and Denneoord 196 students, it can be concluded that in the Cape there is no need for two Colleges for Continued Training. It is thus recommended that one of the Cape Colleges for Continued Training be closed down and that one College does all the teletuition for primary school teachers in the Cape. It is also recommended that the Graaff-Reinet

College perform this function because it is more centrally situated than Denneoord (figure 4.1 and 4.2) and it would be difficult for the Department to find an alternative use for the facilities at the College.

The conversion of the Graaff-Reinet Teachers' College from a conventional to a correspondence institution from 1980 has resulted in problems for the lecturers. All the lecturers have received pre-service training in how to instruct in a conventional situation. This has resulted in many of the present lecturers feeling their way around in how to instruct by means of correspondence. If one looks at the vital role that the lecturer plays in correspondence teaching, it is important that they should be in command of the situation. He must be sympathetic, helpful and encourage students at all times; criticism of assignments must be positive, as this is the only way in which students can judge their progress. The recommendation is made that the lecturers must attend courses in how to instruct by means of correspondence. Norton's (1987:48) proposals are recommended:

- in-service courses being organised where experts can discuss their methods;
- in-service courses being organised by the lecturers themselves, for example monthly staff seminars;
- lecturers reading widely on the subject and analysing course materials of courses about which they have no knowledge.

This dissertation has shown that there is a difference in the needs of teletuition and conventional students. In the conventional system students do not need as much support from the lecturer as they do in the correspondence method. It is also concluded that teletuition students who live in rural areas need more support than students living in urban areas. Urban students could have an advantage because they have more facilities and expertise at their disposal. The ideal recommendation to address this problem would be to establish resource centres in rural areas and for lecturers to go out to various centres during week-ends and holidays. Teachers' Centres would be ideal for such resource centres because figure 4.1 and 4.2

show that the majority of the students are within "reasonable distance" of such a centre. In the Cape there are Teachers' Centres at Cape Town, Oudtshoorn, Kimberley, Port Elizabeth and East London. Use can also be made of local high schools because they usually have more facilities available than primary schools. A further recommendation is that use be made of well-qualified secondary school teachers, either as tutors or consultants for two or three students within a town or certain area. The tutors or consultants could be paid for their services. They would not, however, mark assignments but would advise and assist in connection with resources and other additional information needed by the student.

As far as the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training is concerned, the ideal situation would be to set up resource centres in Kimberley, Upington, Queenstown, East London, Graaff-Reinet, Oudtshoorn and Port Elizabeth. According to figure 4.1, this would mean that there would be a centre within "reasonable distance" of all the students. These centres could be established either at a local school or Teachers' Centre in the abovementioned towns or cities. At these centres would be kept resource material, technical apparatus and other information needed for the various subjects. Ideal also would be week-end visits by lecturers to these centres resulting in a "mini" contact session. The main purpose of this contact would be to remedy in tutorial sessions any academic weaknesses or deficiencies of understanding and to support in counselling sessions the individual's overall progress.

To put these ideals into practice in the Cape Province would be problematic. Firstly, to provide enough resources to make such a centre functional would create a tremendous financial burden on the Education Department. The staff needed to man the centre would also have to be paid a salary. At present, the Cape Education Department does not have the finance needed to establish and administer such an institution. Secondly, the student numbers (175 in 1987) do not warrant the expenses necessary for these centres. Thirdly, the geographical spread of the students makes it difficult to determine where to set

up such a centre because no matter where they are established, some students will still be a long way from them.

The Open University in the United Kingdom is able to run local resource centres because of the large number of students they have registered and the geographical spread of the students. UNISA has also found the establishment of such centres impractical. To overcome this problem they provide contact sessions at certain times of the year in centres where student numbers warrant it, for example Durban and Cape Town. The Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training conducts contact sessions twice a year at the college because it has the facilities and it is relatively inexpensive.

As far as lecturers going out to the various centres is concerned, there would also be problems. It can be suggested that these visits should take place over week-ends because teachers cannot be expected to leave their classes during the week. Week-ends could also be problematic as a result of teachers being involved with extra-mural activities. A week-end consisting of a Friday and Saturday would be too short to make the visit worthwhile because the College courses consist of a large subject choice (24 subject combinations). This will cause timetable problems and result in the students not being able to attend all the necessary lectures. Finally, such contact sessions would be expensive as far as students and lecturers are concerned.

It can thus be concluded that it is not feasible to set up resource centres for correspondence students in the Cape. Week-end visits by lecturers to certain centres are impractical (in urban areas, yes, but in rural areas, no) but not impossible. It is recommended that the above possibilities be more thoroughly investigated.

From the results of tables VIII, IX and XV, it can be concluded that primary school teachers have realised the importance of improving their qualifications to fourth-year level. They have realised that promotion, increase in salary and better qualifications go together. It can thus be concluded that many teachers are studying not because they are interested in

the subject but because they want to gain financially. It can also be concluded that if students are looking for promotion and pay-merits then the methodological component of a subject would have long term implications for the improvement of teaching and chances of promotion. As far as promotion courses are concerned, it is recommended that additional courses in subjects for promotion posts be presented, for example Gifted Child, Curriculum Development and Educational Management. In chapter two it was concluded that there is a need for single subject courses for interested teachers. It is thus recommended that single subject courses be offered by the Colleges for Continued Training.

Many of the teachers (28,3%) were qualified before 1968 and only have a two year (P.T.C.) qualification. It can be concluded that respondents who have studied since 1970 either have a fourth year or are not interested in studying further. Table IX, chapter six, indicates that teachers over the age of 40 are unlikely to study further. The conclusion is also reached that women in temporary posts have been forced to study further if they want to compete for a declining number of posts in the Cape. It is recommended that the Cape Education Department pass legislation forcing all teachers to upgrade their qualification to fourth-year level. This could also be done by making a fourth-year qualification very attractive, for example big salary difference between third or fourth year. This would lead to an improvement in teaching because it would force teachers who have been in the "field" for a long time to study further and get up to date with new developments in the various subjects. Chapter three indicates that this takes place all over the world.

The conclusion can be drawn that the biggest problems with which the history students are faced are the lack of history background and a long break between pre-service and in-service studies. Table XII shows that more than 50% of the respondents have not studied history for 10 years and more. During this period many changes have taken place in the subject. To add to this problem, tables XIII and XIV show that there is a wide range of history qualifications among the

respondents, ranging from standard 6 to college third-year and university level. It can thus be seen that these students have unique needs. Junior Primary students do history for one year at third-year level as a compulsory subject. But they do not teach history at school because they teach Sub A, B and standard 1 and history in Cape schools only starts in standard two. It can thus be seen that history is of no value to these students. It is recommended that history be removed from the Junior Primary college curriculum and be replaced by a subject such as Environment Studies which is of more value to the student.

Senior Primary history students also have background and break-in-study problems. Another problem is that these students may select history at third-year level without having done the first two courses in history. This means that there will be no chronological development as with pre-service students. Because of the unique needs of these students and the above-mentioned problems it was concluded that the present history syllabus is not suited to meet the needs of these students. It is thus recommended that a new syllabus be designed specifically for the teletuition students studying at the Colleges for Continued Training.

A proposed alternative history syllabus for the teletuition courses at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training is presented here. The modification of the syllabus has two limiting factors. Firstly, a work standard of university first-year level (3 J.P. and S.P.) and university second-year level (H.D.E.) must be maintained. Secondly, all information for a specific topic must be available at the College library which has limited information on certain topics. As far as the Junior Primary course is concerned, a course consisting of three sections is proposed (appendix J). Each section will constitute a third of the work and be of equal value, namely 100 marks. The section on Subject Methods is new to this course and is included to assist these students to overcome some of their problems and is also in line with the College approach to history, namely that it is a process and not a body of knowledge. The topics in the General and South African

sections concern other relevant present-day issues, the situation in South Africa or are related to their school situation, for example Heraldics in Environment Study.

The third year Senior Primary course has the problem that students can take history at this level without having completed either History One or Two. The subject didactics course in the syllabus cannot be taught to these students at third-year level because it would be meaningless. It is thus proposed that subject didactics comprise half the content for the Diploma in Education Senior Primary history syllabus. Experience of lecturing these students for four years has shown that there is a great need for instruction in classroom techniques. Figures 6.2 and 6.3 also indicate a need to expand the methodological component of the syllabus. This justifies the necessity to spend more time and marks on method.

Theoretically, the fourth year course could become irrelevant for students if they failed to see the connection between theory and classroom practice (figures 6.2 and 6.3). Therefore one of the models of the Open University referred to in chapter five should be explored. For example, each student could receive a copy of various lessons illustrating different strategies. Students would then provide an analysis and transcription of each. Other methods could include questioning techniques and their responses; how students respond to small group discussions; sending out various kinds of stimulus materials; methods of analysing these materials and textbooks. Students could then be asked to try out these techniques in the classroom, analyse them and discuss how successful they have been.

The proposed syllabus (appendix K) thus shows a Subject Method section which consists of relevant topics from the first, second and third year syllabi. This will provide the students with the necessary knowledge of history methods, purposes and techniques which at this stage is more important than knowing the facts. The General and South African history topics must be of such a nature that the H.D.E. course can chronologically be continued from them. The syllabus must also be interesting, challenging and relevant. The proposed syllabus (appendix K)

caters for all these aspects. Also included are topics in which changes in theories and beliefs have taken place in the last decade, for example the origins of the Blacks in Southern Africa.

The history syllabus for the Higher Diploma in Education is also divided into three sections. It is proposed that the Subject Didactics remain as it is in the present syllabus because although it is very theoretical, it could also be made practical if the methodological aspect of the syllabus were to be developed in the future, and it is also a continuation of the third year course and it can be studied as a unit. This will create problems for the students who studied history years ago, but it will bring them up to date with modern developments in the subject. The topics proposed for the General and South African history (appendix L), have been selected in such a way that the students can build on the knowledge obtained in the third-year course, for example the ideologies done in the third year and Communism, Cold War (ideological clashes) and Nationalism in Africa done in the fourth year.

The conclusion can also be drawn that there is a definite need for in-service courses in history because only one of the respondents had attended an in-service course in history since the completion of pre-service training. This means that the majority of the respondents teaching history have not kept up with the new methodological developments in history. The graphic presentations in figures 6.2 and 6.3 confirm this conclusion. These figures show that 85% of respondents use the narrative method of teaching and 70% the question-and-answer method. There is also an obvious link between the textbook method and the above two methods. These figures also show that there is a need for methodology in the subject to familiarise the students with new resources and teaching methods in history. These needs not only justify the expanding of the methodological component but also the need for further courses. It is recommended that in the subject didactics of the various courses, more attention be given to teaching methods and resources. It is also recommended that the Cape Education

Department present in-service courses for primary school history teachers. Finally, it is recommended that the Colleges for Continued Training offer these courses because they have the staff and facilities to conduct history in-service courses.

From the questionnaire results in Table XVII, it can be concluded that the following create the most problems for history teletuition students: time shortage, loss of contact with studying, lack of history background, studying in isolation, study methods and the expense of books and resource material. To overcome the problem of time shortage it is recommended that study guides should be well set out, given to the students early in the year and must encourage the students to work every day. The dates for the handing in of assignments must be well-spaced and must not clash with the normal busy times at the school, for example examination time. A well-balanced time table for handing in assignments for all the subjects should be worked out. If students are forced to partake in group discussions, tutorials and prepare work for the contact sessions, they will work more regularly throughout the year. It is recommended that these practices be implemented in all the subjects. To overcome the problems of the gap between pre-service and in-service training and the lack of background knowledge, a syllabus change as discussed earlier is recommended. A further problem is the methodology used in correspondence learning which includes reading, writing and translating. To overcome these problems it is recommended that a course in study skills on how to study by means of teletuition be presented to the students during the Summer School in January. As far as history is concerned, it is recommended that Unit 5 of the Open University should be used as an early part of the course. This would incorporate study skills with theoretical knowledge of what history is and why it is important. Another recommendation as far as the method of mark allocation is concerned, is that a year mark be calculated from completed assignments which counts 25% of the final mark.

The College caters for students covering a large geographical area (figure 4.1 and 4.2), thus working in isolation will create

problems. It is recommended that students be divided into groups living geographically close to each other while doing group work. This should create the situation where the students would get to know each other and would not be reluctant to make contact when at home.

From Table XVII it can be concluded that the method used by the history lecturers at the College is satisfactory as far as the students are concerned because only 6% found it difficult to contact lecturers, 7% thought that assignments were returned too slowly and 9% were unhappy with the study guides. Respondents also seemed to be happy with the contact sessions.

The structure of teletuition allows for multi-racial education because the student does not have to be physically present at the institution at which he is studying. Students of various racial groups can thus study at teletuition institutions without contravening the Group Areas Act. The author believes that the facilities, expertise and experience of the staff at the Graaff-Reinet and Denneoord Colleges for Continued Training should be extended to other racial groups. Although these groups have their own correspondence facilities at Roggebaai, they are insufficient to cater for the demand. It is recommended that, if both Colleges for Continued Training in the Cape are to be retained, they be used for the further training of all racial groups in the province.

Although many of the problems and needs are not restricted to history, the author believes that should all recommendations of this research be accepted and adopted, history could be presented more successfully at the Colleges for Continued Training.

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APPENDIX A

COURSES OFFERED BY THE
GRAAFF-REINET COLLEGE FOR CONTINUED TRAINING
AS SET OUT BY THE 1986 PROSPECTUS OF THIS INSTITUTION

Consolidation to D.E. level

The Primary Teachers' Certificate and the Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (Specialization subject) to a Diploma in Education (Senior Primary Standards) by the addition of both official languages and one of the following: Mathematics, History, Geography, Biology and Physical Science at D.E. III level.

The Primary Teachers' Certificate and the Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (Academic subjects) to a Diploma in Education (Senior Primary Standards) by the addition of Education III.

The Primary Teachers' Certificate and the Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (Infant School-Teaching) to a Diploma in Education (Junior Primary Standards) by the addition of both official languages and History at D.E. III level.

It is also possible to consolidate diplomas to H.D.E. level. The three-year Diploma in Education (or Primary Teachers' Diploma) and a further one-year (Higher) Teachers' Diploma/Diploma in Education can be considered for consolidation.

Diploma in Education (Senior Primary Standards)

Teachers in possession of a Primary Teachers' Certificate can obtain the Diploma in Education by taking six subjects at D.E. III level over a period of two years (three subjects in the first year and three subjects in the second year).

Compulsory subjects:

Afrikaans First or Second Language

English First or Second Language

Education

Bible Education

(At least one language must be taken at First Language level)

Two subjects chosen from the following:

Geography, Biology, Physical Science, History, Mathematics, Xhosa.

H.D.E. (Senior Primary Standards)

To obtain this qualification a candidate must take two subjects at fourth-year level and two subjects at third-year level. The subjects must be a continuation of third-year and second-year courses respectively. In exceptional cases students are allowed to take three subjects at fourth-year level and one subject at third-year level.

Fourth-year level

Afrikaans
English
Mathematics
History
Geography
Biology (Physical Science III)
Education

First language only

Third-year level

Geography
Mathematics
History
Biology
Physical Science
Xhosa
Teaching Science: Gifted
Child

It is important to note that the Education Department prohibits a combination of Geography IV and History IV and the two subjects, other than those taken at fourth-year level, are chosen from the third-year level.

H.D.E. (Junior Primary Standards)

Compulsory Subjects

Education IV
Remedial Teaching III
Teaching Science IV

Choice Subjects

Afrikaans IV (First language only)
English IV
History IV
History III (J.P.)
Mathematics III
Geography III
Natural Science III
Biology III

It is important to note that History IV is for students who have obtained the D.E. in or after 1984 and who offered History III and that History III (J.P.) can be taken during the D.E. III year. The H.D.E. course for both Senior and Junior Primary Standards is presented over a period of two years (permission may be obtained to spread the course over three years).

APPENDIX B

KAAP ONDERWYSKOLLEGE GESKIEDENIS SILLABUS
(JUNIOR PRIMÊR)

ALGEMENE DOELSTELLING

Om die onderwysstudente toe te rus met die nodige kennis en vaardighede van die Geskiedenis en om 'n positiewe gesindheid teenoor hul beroep, opvoedingstaak en medemens te kweek.

BESONDERE DOELSTELLINGS

1. Om onderwysstudente op te lei en te bekwaam in die onder-
rig van Geskiedenis in die primêre skool deur:
 - 1.1 hulle toe te rus met die nodige kennis oor die Suid-
Afrikaanse geskiedenis sowel as die algemene geskiedenis
en meer bepaald die deel daarvan wat in direkte verband
met die Westerse beskawing staan.
2. Om by onderwysstudente die vermoëns te ontwikkel:
 - 2.1 om selfstandige navorsing en naslaanwerk te doen;
 - 2.2 om selfstandig en met begrip die vak te bestudeer;
 - 2.3 om hulle ten opsigte van die geskiedenis en geskiedkun-
dige begrippe mondeling en skriftelik duidelik uit te
druk.
3. Om by onderwysstudente die regte gesindhede teenoor die
geskiedenis te kweek deur:
 - 3.1 'n blywende liefde en belangstelling in die vak te bewerk-
stellig;
 - 3.2 hulle te vorm tot volwasse lede van die gemeenskap wat
hulle plek as verantwoordelike lands- en wêreldburgers
kan volstaan;
 - 3.3 hulle die geskiedenis te laat sien as die handeling van
mense, van die mense in ander tye en in ander situasies;
 - 3.4 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die mens se lewe sinvol
is, dat hulle in geordende gemeenskappe lewe, dat menslike
dade verantwoordelikhede meebring en dat die welsyn van

- ons land die verantwoordelikheid van elkeen is;
- 3.5 die begrip van tyd en die wisselwerking tussen oorsaak en gevolg by hulle tuis te bring;
 - 3.6 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die hede 'n erflating van die verlede is en dat kennis van die verlede noodsaaklik is om die hede te belig om sodoende die hedendaagse lewensomstandighede en probleme beter te verstaan en te waardeer omdat die toekoms ook deur die hede bepaal word.
4. Om studente in die Junior Primêre Kursus toe te rus met die nodige agtergrondkennis ten aansluiting by die Senior Primêre Skoolfase.
 5. Om studente sodanig toe te rus dat hulle die verworwe kennis en gesindhede aan hul leerlinge sal kan oordra om sodoende die leerlinge in staat te stel om beter by die Junior Primêre fase in te skakel.

EERSTE JAARGANG

1. 'n Studie van menslike wonings en die leefwyse wat daarmee verband hou
 - 1.1 Oorsigtelike beeld van menslike wonings uit die vroegste geskiedenis.
 - 1.2 Boustyle van Suid-Afrika:
 - 1.2.1 Hottentotte
 - 1.2.2 Swart rasse
 - 1.2.3 Blanke pioniers
 - 1.2.4 Boustyle:
 - 1.2.4.1 Kaap-Hollands
 - 1.2.4.2 Goties
 - 1.2.4.3 Victoriaans
 - 1.2.4.4 Britse Setlaars
 - 1.2.5 Ambagslui
2. Plaaslike Geskiedenis
 - 2.1 plekke
 - 2.2 persone
 - 2.3 gebeurtenisse
 - 2.4 geboue

3. n Studie van die ontwikkeling van vervoer
 - 3.1 die ontwikkeling van landvervoer
 - 3.2 die ontwikkeling van watervervoer
 - 3.3 die ontwikkeling van lugvervoer
4. Die ontwikkeling van kommunikasiestelsels
 - 4.1 oorvertelling
 - 4.2 skilder
 - 4.3 skrif
 - 4.4 telekommunikasie:
 - 4.4.1 telegraaf
 - 4.4.2 telefoon
 - 4.4.3 radio
 - 4.4.4 beeldsending
5. n Oorsigtelike studie van die ontwikkeling van die Wetenskap met Geneeskunde as voorbeeld
6. Heraldiek

Simboliek van die heraldiek van die:

 - 6.1 skool-
 - 6.2 stads- of dorpssimbole

Kort geskiedkundige oorsig en verklaring van die heraldiek van die nasionale simbole.
7. Nasionale feesdae
8. n Studie van geskiedkundige plekke en bekende monumente in die Republiek van Suid-Afrika
9. Eietydse gebeure
10. Selfstudie-projekwerk

TWEEDE JAARGANG

1. n Studie van die kultuurhistoriese ontwikkeling van die Suid-Afrikaanse bevolking
 - 1.1 Vroegste bewoners van Suid-Afrika
 - 1.1.1 Khoisan
 - 1.1.2 Blankes

- 1.1.2.1 Nederlandse verbintenisse
- 1.1.2.2 Franse verbintenisse
- 1.1.2.3 Britse verbintenisse
- 1.1.2.4 Duitse verbintenisse
- 1.1.3 Asiërs:
 - 1.1.3.1 Maleiers
 - 1.1.3.2 Indiërs
- 1.1.4 Swart nasies:
 - 1.1.4.1 verspreiding aan hand van kaart
 - 1.1.4.2 stamorganisasie
 - 1.1.4.3 politieke ontwikkeling
 - 1.1.4.4 integrering van bevolkingsgroepe:
 - 1.1.4.4.1 ekonomies
 - 1.1.4.4.2 verstedeliking
 - 1.1.4.4.3 tuislande

2. Burgerleer

- 2.1 'n Studie van die samestelling en funksies van plaaslike bestuursliggame in Suid-Afrika.
 - 2.1.1 Skoolrade
 - 2.1.2 Skoolkomitees
 - 2.1.3 Stadsrade (dorpsrade)
 - 2.1.4 Afdelingsrade
 - 2.1.5 Provinsiale Raad
 - 2.1.6 Volksraad
 - 2.1.7 Regte, pligte en verantwoordelikhede van 'n landsburger
 - 2.1.8 Die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie

3. Die twee amptelike landstale ('n Kort historiese oorsig)

4. Belangrike historiese persone

('n Studie van minstens 4 persone word verlang uit elke afdeling)

- 4.1 Buitelandse persone:
 - 4.1.1 Henry Dunant
 - 4.1.2 Admiraal Nelson
 - 4.1.3 Abraham Lincoln
 - 4.1.4 Florence Nightingale
- 4.2 Suid-Afrikaanse persone:
 - 4.2.1 Dirkie Uys
 - 4.2.2 Andrew Bain

- 4.2.3 Dick King
- 4.2.4 Emily Hobhouse

(Daar word aanbeveel dat bogenoemde tema veral as groepstudieprojek aangepak word).

- 5. Eietydse gebeure
- 6. Selfstudie-projekwerk

DERDE JAARGANG

- 1. Formulering van die begrippe wat belangrik is in die studie van Geskiedenis
 - 1.1 Ideologieë
 - 1.1.1 Demokrasie
 - 1.1.2 Totalitarisme
 - 1.1.3 Kapitalisme
 - 1.1.4 Kommunisme
 - 1.1.5 Sosialisme
 - 1.1.6 Nasionalisme
 - 1.2 Godsdienste
 - 1.2.1 Christendom - Kort oorsigtelike studie
 - 1.2.2 Mohammedanisme - Kort oorsigtelike studie
- 2. Die Renaissance
 - 2.1 Oorsigtelike studie van die Middeleeue
 - 2.2 Begrip Renaissance en redes
 - 2.3 Die verskillende terreine waarop die Renaissance tot uiting gekom het.
- 3. Historiografie
 - 'n Studie van bronne met besondere klem op geskikte materiaal vir die junior fase.
- 4. Eietydse gebeure
- 5. Selfstudie-projekwerk

APPENDIX C

KAAP ONDERWYSKOLLEGE GESKIEDENIS SILLABUS
(SENIOR PRIMÊR)

DOELSTELLINGS

1. Om die student op te lei en te bekwaam vir die onderrig van Geskiedenis in die laerskool.
2. Om die student toe te rus met dié middele wat hom in staat sal stel om die studie van geskiedenis vir die leerlinge 'n belewenis te maak.
3. Om die student die geskiedenis te laat sien as 'n handeling van mense, van die mens in ander tye, van die mens in bepaalde situasies. Daarom moet ook hierdie vak as middel gebruik word om die student tot mens te vorm wat as volwasse lid van die gemeenskap sy plek as lands- en wêreldbürger waardig kan vol staan.
4. Om die geskiedenis van sy eie land te bestudeer teen die agtergrond van die buiteland en meer bepaald dié doel daarvan wat in direkte verband met die Westerse beskawing staan.
5. Om by die student 'n begrip van tyd en van die wisselwerking tussen oorsaak en gevolg tuis te bring asook die besef dat die hede 'n erflating is van die verlede, dat die toekoms weer deur die hede bepaal word en dat kennis van die verlede noodsaaklik is om die hede te belig, en om sodoende die hedendaagse lewensomstandighede en probleme beter te verstaan en te waardeer.
6. Om die student tot die besef te bring dat die welsyn van ons land die verantwoordelikheid van elke burger is.
7. Om die student te help om in te sien dat die mens se lewe sinvol is, dat hy in 'n geordende gemeenskap lewe, en om die student te laat insien dat menslike daede met verantwoordelikheid gepaard gaan.
8. Om die student daartoe te bring om onder die leiding van die dosent selfstandig te dink en selfstandig te werk en om

hom in staat te stel om hom ten opsigte van Geskiedenis en geskiedkundige begrippe beide mondelings en skriftelik in presiese en suiwer taal uit te druk.

ALGEMENE OPMERKINGS

1. Alhoewel afdelings I, II en III van die sillabus duidelikheidshalwe geskei is, behoort die drie afdelings as 'n geïntegreerde eenheid behandel te word.
2. Die kernsillabus is in breë trekke opgestel. Die dosent word groot vryheid en ruimte vir eie inisiatief gegun.
3. Differensiasie, verryking of verdunning binne die raamwerk van die sillabus sal moontlik en selfs ook noodsaaklik wees.
4. Die dosent behoort die geleentheid te benut om van verskillende onderrig- en benaderingsmetodes gebruik te maak.
5. Werkopdragte en seminaarwerk van akademiese aard word sterk aanbeveel.
6. Korrekte en beplande boek- en biblioteekgebruik is noodsaaklik.
7. Die belangrikheid van oudio-visuele onderrig behoort deurgaans beklemtoon te word.

SILLABUS

EERSTE JAAR

Afdeling I : Metodiek

1. Die probleme by die geskiedenisonderrig en die oplossing daarvan aan die hand van enkele grondbeginsels van die onderwysmetodiek.
2. Die doelstellings van die geskiedenisonderrig.
3. Die Geskiedenisonderwyser en die beplanning van 'n les.
4. Waarneming deur studente van studente.
5. Demonstrasie van die gebruik van hulpmiddels by die geskiedenisonderrig.
6. Demonstrasielesse deur die dosent.

Afdeling II : Vaderlandse Geskiedenis

1. Omstandighede en gebeurtenisse wat lei tot die ontdekking van die Kaap die Goeie Hoop.
2. Die inboorling-bevolking van Suidelike Afrika, die Boesmans, Hottentotte en Bantoe.
3. Die opkoms van die Nederlande as handelsmoondheid gedurende die 16de en 17de eeu.
4. Die vestiging van die Blanke beskawing in Suidelike Afrika gedurende die 17de eeu.
 - 4.1 Nederlanders (Veral die Vryburgers)
 - 4.2 Die Franse Hugenote
5. Biografiese studie: (Slegs in breë trekke)
 - 5.1 Jan van Riebeeck
 - 5.2 Simon van der Stel
 - 5.3 W.A. van der Stel
6. Aspekte van die sosiaal-maatskaplike lewe in die Kaapkolonie gedurende die 18de eeu.
7. Uitstaande kenmerke van die bestuur en bewind aan die Kaap.
8. Plaaslike bestuursliggame in die Republiek.
9. Geskiedkundige plekke en monumente.

Afdeling III : Algemene Geskiedenis

1. Die antieke wêreld as die bakermat van die Westerse Beskawing.
2. Die eeu van ontdekkings: Spaanse en Engelse ontdekkingsreise.
3. Die ontwikkeling van vervoer en verkeer.
4. Eietydse gebeure.

TWEEDE JAAR

Afdeling I : Metodiek

1. Die Geskiedenisillabus van die primêre skool : opset, benadering en die seleksie van feite.
2. Verskillende metodes van geskiedenisonderrig.
3. Selfwerkzaamheid.
4. Hulpmiddels vir gebruik by die geskiedenisonderrig.

5. Toetsing, meting en evaluering.
6. Proeflesse deur die studente.

Afdeling II : Vaderlandse Geskiedenis

1. Rewolusionêre idees beïnvloed die Kaap:
 - 1.1 Die denke van die Franse skrywers van die 18de eeu.
 - 1.2 Die opstande van Swellendam en Graaff-Reinet.
 - 1.3 Betaafse bewind.
2. Die hervestiging van die bevolkingsgroepe in Suidelike Afrika:
 - 2.1 Difaqane.
 - 2.2 Britse Setlaars.
 - 2.3 Die botsing tussen die lewensbeskouing van die Boerenasie en die rewolusionêre idees as grondliggende oorsake van die Groot Trek.
 - 2.4 Die vestiging van die Blanke beskawing noord van die Oranje en die stigting van die Boererepublieke.
3. 'n Biografiese studie van minstens TWEE geskiedkundige figure wat aansluit by hierdie sillabus.
4. Die ontwikkeling tot verantwoordelike bestuur in die Kaapkolonie.
5. Die grondwet van die Republiek van Suid-Afrika.
 - 5.1 Die Sentrale regering: Die Uitvoerende, Wetgewende en Regtelike magte.
 - 5.2 Die Provinsiale regeringstelsel.
 - 5.3 Die Simbole van die Republiek van Suid-Afrika.
6. Die voorregte, pligte en verantwoordelikhede van 'n landsburger.
7. Geskiedkundige plekke en monumente.

Afdeling III : Algemene Geskiedenis

1. 'n Oorsigtelike behandeling van die Middeleeue en die Renaissance met besondere aandag aan bepaalde temas.
2. Die ontwikkeling van die mediese wetenskap gedurende die afgelope honderd jaar.
3. Eietydse gebeure.

DERDE JAAR

Afdeling I : Metodiek

1. Die ideale Geskiedenisonderwyser.
2. Die Geskiedenis-handboek, die opbou van 'n naslaanboekery en die integrering van Geskiedenis by die Skoolbiblioteek.
3. Die aardrykskundige grondslag van Geskiedenis.
4. Indiwidualisering, groepwerk en die organiseer van studie-besoeke.
5. Verdere uitbouing van toetsing, meting en evaluering.
6. Verdere uitbouing van verskillende metodes.
7. Proeflesse deur die student waarin didaktiese beginsels toegepas en die resultaat bespreek word.

Afdeling II : Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis, 1854 - 1910

1. Europese imperialisme en die stormloop om Afrika.
2. Die botsing tussen Britse imperialisme en Afrikaner-nasionalisme gedurende die tweede helfte van die 19de eeu.
3. Pogings tot nouer vereniging in Suidelike Afrika, 1875-1910.
4. 'n Tematologiese behandeling van minstens twee aspekte van eie keuse uit die geskiedenis van die Kaapkolonie, 1854 - 1910.
5. Suid-Afrika en Suidwes-Afrika tot 1920.
6. Die industrialisering van Suid-Afrika sedert die ontdekking van diamante en goud en die maatskaplike gevolge daarvan.

Afdeling III : Algemene Geskiedenis

1. Die invloed van die tegnologiese rewolusie.
2. Die ontdekking van die poolstreke.
3. Verenigingspogings in Europa gedurende die 19de eeu.
4. Die westerling: sy wêreld- en lewensbeskouing soos dit tot uiting kom in byvoorbeeld sy godsdiens, die demokrasie en die kapitalisme.
5. Die opkoms en groei van die Christelike Kerk tot die Romeinse Ryk.

6. Eietydse gebeure.

VIERDE JAAR

Afdeling I : Metodiek

1. Teorie van die Geskiedenis.
 - 1.1 Beskouingswyses oor Geskiedenis.
 - 1.2 Aspekte van die Wetenskapsleer van Geskiedenis, bv.
 - 1.2.1 Oorsaaklikheid.
 - 1.2.2 Wetmatigheid.
 - 1.2.3 Objektiviteit en Subjektiviteit.
2. Jeugpsigologiese veronderstellings by geskiedenisonderrig.
3. Historiografie
 - 3.1 Verskillende uitgangspunte in die Suid-Afrikaanse Historiografie.
 - 3.2 Temas uit die Suid-Afrikaanse Historiografie wat betrekking het op die primêreskoolsillabus.
4. Die aanleer en aanbieding van historiese tegnieke.
 - 4.1 Bibliografiese hulpmiddels.
 - 4.2 Taal en Styl in Geskiedskrywing.
 - 4.3 Apparaat by die studie van veral die Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis.
5. Praktiese onderwys.

Afdeling II : Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis sedert 1910

1. Die politieke en staatkundige ontwikkeling van Suid-Afrika na 1910.
2. Die rassesamestelling in die Republiek van Suid-Afrika na 1910.
3. Industrialisasie in Suid-Afrika na 1910.
4. Die plek van Suid-Afrika in die moderne wêreld.

Afdeling III : Algemene Geskiedenis

'n Tematologiese benadering van nommer 1 en minstens nog twee temas.

1. 'n Vergelykende studie van minstens EEN van die volgende:

- 1.1 Die toepassing van die Kommunistiese ideologie deur Stalin in Rusland teenoor dié van Mao-tse-Toeng in China.
- 1.2 Die ideologiese stryd tussen die Weste en die Ooste (die Koue Oorlog) na die Tweede Wêreldoorlog.
- 1.3 'n Diktatoriale staatsbestuur en 'n demokrasie.
- 1.4 Die suksesse en mislukkings van enige twee politieke rewolusies.
2. 'n Studie van die grondwet van die V.S.A.
3. Slawerny en die reaksie van die Humaniste.
4. Die weswaartse uitbreiding in die V.S.A.
5. Pogings tot internasionale samewerking in die 20ste eeu.
6. Dekolonisasie en die huidige staatkundige verdeling van Afrika.
7. Suidwes-Afrika en die internasionale politiek.

APPENDIX D

AN EXAMPLE OF SYLLABUS PRESENTATION IN 1987INTRODUCTION

The D.E. 3 course in History is divided into three sections:

- Section 1 - South African History
- Section 2 - General History
- Section 3 - Subject didactics (Method)

This guide contains the basic information and learning content for section 1 - South African History.

No formal lectures on this section will be sent to you. You must study it in the textbook, making use of the guidelines set out in this guide.

If there is any problem concerning any aspect of the work, feel free to contact me personally (telephone or letter). I am available from Mondays to Saturdays from 8h00 to 22h00 and will be glad to help you. My college and private telephone numbers will be sent to you in the first study letter.

All information concerning assignments, examination dates, the Autumn School etc. will be sent to you by means of study letters during the course of the year.

PRESENTATION OF THE LEARNING CONTENT1. Study guide

This study guide does not contain any formal lectures. I only point out the most important aspects concerning the different sections of the syllabus. It is therefore only a guide that will show you how to study your textbook: 500 Years: A history of South Africa.

2. Assignments

During the course of the year a number of assignments must be handed in. The content and range of the assignments will be of such a nature as to help you in preparing for the examination.

The list of assignments for this year will be sent to you in a study letter. You will also be sent notes on how to go about writing an academically correct assignment. YOU MUST FOLLOW THE INSTRUCTIONS IN THESE NOTES PRECISELY.

LEARNING CONTENT

You must study the following aspects:

(I always refer to 500 Years: A history of South Africa, unless another book is specifically mentioned).

1. Conflict between British imperialism and Afrikaner nationalism : 1854-1902

1.1 New British interest in the interior - chapter 14,
p. 302-303

1.1.1 What was the Convention policy and why did Britain now change this policy?

1.1.2 What were the main principles of the British and Republican policies?

In regard to numbers 1.1.1 and 1.1.2 study F.A. van Jaarsveld: From Van Riebeeck to Vorster, chapter 11, p. 164-167.

When studying the rest of this section keep these main principles always in mind when evaluating the actions of the different leaders and states involved.

1.2 The annexation of Basutoland - p. 303-304

Study the British motives for this decision and the results of this step on the Free State Republic. Read chapter 12, p. 238-244 for additional information concerning this event.

1.3 The annexation of the Diamond Fields

Study the background to this problem. Consult the index to find the appropriate pages. You must learn the following:

1.3.1 The states and groups that claimed the Diamond fields, the exact areas that they claimed and their reasons for claiming these areas. You must also study the Keate Award.

1.3.2 The reasons why Britain decided to annex this area - p. 304-305.

- 1.3.3 The results of the discovery of diamonds for the Boer Republics - Political, economic and social results - p. 305-306.
- 1.4 The annexation of the Z.A.R. and the First Anglo-Boer War
- 1.4.1 The reasons for the annexation - p. 308.
- 1.4.2 The period of passive resistance (1877-1880) p. 268-274.
Pay special attention to the actions and motives of the Z.A.R. leaders as well as the British government. Also study this clash between nationalism and imperialism. Also pay attention to how the personalities of the different leaders influenced events.
- 1.4.3 Study briefly the course of the First Anglo-Boer War p. 274-275. Pay attention to the military significance of the Battle of Amajuba.
- 1.4.4 Study the terms of the Pretoria and London Conventions p. 275-276. You must be able to explain why the London Convention was an improvement for the Z.A.R.
- 1.5 The rise of Afrikaner nationalism, p. 310-312
Study the background, rise and development of Afrikaner nationalism. Pay special attention to the influence of the First Anglo-Boer War on Afrikaner nationalism.
- 1.6 The "New Imperialism", p. 312-313
You must be able to define it, explain how it developed and how it influences events in Southern Africa.
- 1.7 The conflicting ideals of Rhodes and Kruger
You must be able to identify the different ideals of Rhodes and Kruger and explain how they came to the fore by referring to certain aspects. For this section you must use: D.W. Kruger (red.): Geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika. Chapter XV - "Kruger en Rhodes".

You must study the whole chapter to be able to identify their ideals.
- 1.8 The British policy of encirclement, p. 312-315
Study the following:
- 1.8.1 What did this policy consist of?
- 1.8.2 What was the part of the New Imperialism and Rhodes in the formation of this policy?
- 1.8.3 What was Britain's aim with this policy?
- 1.8.4 How would this policy influence the two Boer Republics?

1.9 The implementation of the policy of encirclement

1.9.1 Territorial implementation, p. 315-318

Study the clashes that developed between the Z.A.R. and Britain by referring to the attempts of the Z.A.R. to expand to the west, east and north. Pay attention to the role of Rhodes in this regard as well as the conflicting ideals of Rhodes and Kruger that can be clearly seen here.

1.9.2 Economic conflicts, p. 318-322

Study the following aspects:

The influence of the discovery of gold on the economic situation in South Africa.

The situation of the Free State that had conflicting political and economic interests.

The race to build a railway line to Johannesburg and the economic and political problems resulting from this.

The problem concerning railway tariffs and the influence of this problem on the relations between the Z.A.R. and Britain.

Once again you must pay attention to the conflicting ideals of Kruger and Rhodes as they came to the fore in this regard.

1.10 The "Uitlander problem" - chapter 13, p. 285-289

Study the following aspects:

1.10.1 Who were they?

1.10.2 What were their grievances and were they justified?

1.10.3 What were the problems of Kruger regarding the "Uitlanders"?

Study in detail the struggle of the "Uitlanders" to gain political rights in the Z.A.R. You must be able to explain the actions and motives of Kruger, Rhodes, the British government and the "Uitlanders".

1.11 The Jameson Raid, p. 291-293 and p. 322-324

You must be able to explain the reasons, aims, course and results of the Jameson Raid. Pay special attention to the results of the Raid. Pay attention to the fact that there were direct and indirect reasons for the raid.

You must evaluate the significance of this event against the background of the general South African situation at that stage.

- 1.12 The role of Chamberlain and Milner, p. 324-327
Study the motives and methods of these two statesmen in their struggle against Kruger. Show how they took over the job of Rhodes. How did Kruger try to resist them? Was he successful? You must be able to explain how Chamberlain and Milner used the "Uitlander" problem to step by step bring about a war situation in South Africa.
2. Unification and federation attempts in South Africa - 1854-1910
- 2.1 The attempts of Sir George Grey and M.W. Pretorius 1854-1872 - Chapter 14, p. 297-302
- 2.1.1 The different attempts of M.W. Pretorius to unite the Z.A.R. and O.F.S. must be identified and combined into one section. Pay attention to the motives of Pretorius, the attitude of the different groups in the O.F.S., the different attempts of Pretorius and the results of his actions. You must also be able to explain why he failed.
- 2.1.2 You must critically evaluate the federation scheme of Sir George Grey. Study the reasons, course and results of his attempt. What were the most important reasons for the failure of his attempt?
- 2.2 The federation scheme of Lord Carnarvon - p. 306-310
You must study the reasons why Carnarvon wanted to federate South Africa. Also study the course of his scheme - the different meetings that he called together and why they failed. You must also be able to explain the true reasons and the pretexts why Carnarvon wanted to annex the Transvaal. Also study the Zulu War of 1879 and the other reasons why this scheme of Carnarvon failed. Keep in mind that there is a very close link between the federation scheme of Carnarvon and the annexation of the Z.A.R. in 1877.
- 2.3 The unification of South Africa in 1910, chapter 16, p. 370-384
- 2.3.1 You must study the reasons why a National Convention was convened - the Non-White problems, customs and railway problems, the role of the "Kindergarten", the Selborne memorandum and the attitude of South African statesmen.
- 2.3.2 Study the various problems discussed by the National Convention of 1908/9 and explain how they were solved.

- 2.3.3 Study the South African Act of 1909 by referring to the following: Executive power, legislative power, judicial power, provincial system and the entrenched clauses.
- 2.3.4 Concerning the first Union government you must be able to explain why Louis Botha was appointed as Prime Minister.

3. The Constitutional development of the Cape Colony - 1806-1872

- 3.1 The period of autocratic government - 1806-1834, chapter 8, p. 117-124

You must study the following aspects:

- 3.1.1 The factors that influenced the British Colonial policy.
 - 3.1.2 The general situation at the Cape.
 - 3.1.3 The power and authority of the Cape governor.
 - 3.1.4 The personality of Lord Charles Somerset.
- Pay attention to the following measures that first curtailed the power of the Governor.
- 3.1.5 The Commission of Inquiry (1823).
 - 3.1.6 The Council of Advice (1825).
 - 3.1.7 The Charters of Justice (1827 and 1834).
 - 3.1.8 The freedom of the press (1828).

Regarding all four of the above-mentioned aspects, you must be able to explain in detail why and how each of them curtailed the power of the governor.

- 3.2 The Legislative Council (1834) - p. 124-125

You must study the reasons why this council was established. You must study the functioning as well as the advantages and disadvantages of the Council and you must be able to explain why it was an improvement. You must also be able to explain what problems still existed as far as democratic rights for the inhabitants of the Cape Colony were concerned.

- 3.3 The establishment of Representative government - 1853, chapter 10, p. 183-185

- 3.3.1 The Anti-Convict Movement (1849).

You must study the extent and nature of this movement and be able to explain how it contributed towards the

- granting of self government to the Cape by the British government.
- 3.3.2 You must study the composition of the legislative authority and explain what problems still existed after 1853 in the government system at the Cape.
- 3.3.3 You must study the aims of the Separatist movement, and show what influence they had on the constitutional development of the Cape.
- 3.4 Conflict between the governor and Parliament, p. 185-187
You must be able to explain how the actions of Wodehouse led to conflict between himself and the Cape Parliament. Pay attention to the problems that resulted from the incorporation of British Kaffraria and the financial measures of Wodehouse. You must be able to explain how these actions influenced the constitutional development of the Cape Colony.
- 3.5 The establishment of Responsible government - 1872, p. 187-188
- 3.5.1 You must be able to explain the factors that led to the acceptance of the 1872 constitution.
- 3.5.2 Explain briefly the functioning of responsible government. What is the role of the cabinet and the governor?
- 3.5.3 What were the advantages of this new constitution for the Cape Colony?

QUESTIONS ON SECTION 1 - CONFLICT: AFRIKANER NATIONALISM AND BRITISH IMPERIALISM

1. Determine the significance of the discovery of diamonds for South African history in the 19th century of referring to the most important political, economic and social results thereof.

Sources:

- Muller : See index - Diamond fields
Van Jaarsveld : Chapter 10
De Kiewiet : Chapter 4

2. Paul Kruger, as Afrikaner nationalist, and Cecil John Rhodes, as British imperialist, had contrasting ideals that led to

conflict. Discuss this statement.

Sources:

Kruger : Chapter 15

Muller : Chapters 13, 14

3. Discuss Paul Kruger's attempts to expand the boundaries of the Z.A.R. to the west, north and east and show how Cecil John Rhodes reacted to this.

Sources:

Muller : Chapter 14

Davenport : Chapter 8

Van Jaarsveld : Chapter 11

4. Explain in full how Cecil John Rhodes tried to subject the Z.A.R. by exerting economic pressure.

Sources:

Muller : Chapters 13, 14

Davenport : Chapter 8

5. Discuss the Uitlander franchise problem as a cause of the Second Anglo Boer War - 1886-1899.

Sources:

Muller : Chapters 13, 14

Van Jaarsveld : Chapter 12

Davenport : Chapter 8

QUESTIONS ON SECTION 2 - UNIFICATION AND FEDERATION ATTEMPTS

6. The main reason why the unification attempt of M.W. Pretorius, concerning the Z.A.R. and the Orange Free State, failed, was because of his own tactless and over-hasty actions. Discuss this statement critically.

Sources:

Muller : Chapter 14

Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 9

Kruger : Chapter 11

7. The actions of president J.H. Brand of the Orange Free State caused the failure of the federation scheme of Lord Carnarvon. Discuss this statement by referring to the period 1874-1881

Sources:

Muller : Chapters 13, 14

Kruger : Chapter 12

Davenport : Chapter 8

8. Explain why Britain refused to allow the federation attempt of Grey in 1859, but did allow Carnarvon to annex the Z.A.R. in 1877.

Sources:

Muller : Chapters 12, 13, 14

Davenport : Chapter 8

9. Economic considerations were the most important reason for the unification of South Africa in 1910. Discuss this statement critically.

Sources:

Muller : Chapter 16

Kruger (2) : Chapter 2

Davenport : Chapter 9

10. The constitution drawn up by the National Convention in 1908/1909 was a victory for the White English speaking population. Discuss this statement critically by referring to the most important problems discussed at the National Convention.

Sources:

Kruger (2) : Chapter 2

Muller : Chapter 16

Van Jaarsveld : Chapter 13

See last page of Study Guide for full details concerning sources.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION 3 - CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE CAPE COLONY

11. Explain the term 'autocratic government system' as it was implemented in the Cape Colony after 1814 and indicate the changes that had occurred in this system by 1828.

Sources:

Muller : Chapter 8

Kruger : Chapter 8
Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 7

12. Write an essay on the introduction of Representative government at the Cape (1853) by referring to the causes, terms and problems of this new constitution.

Sources:

Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 7
Kruger : Chapter 8
Muller : Chapter 10

13. Events during the period that Sir Philip Wodehouse was governor of the Cape Colony showed that there were serious defects in the constitution of 1853. Discuss this statement critically.

Sources:

Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 7
Muller : Chapter 10

14. Explain the role of the Eastern Province Separatism Movement and its influence on the political development of the Cape Colony 1830-1872.

Sources:

Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 7
Muller : Chapter 10
Davenport : Chapter 6

15. Discuss the development of political rights for the Non-Whites in the Cape Colony by referring to the period 1814-1853.

Sources:

Wilson and Thompson : Chapter 7
Muller : Chapters 8, 10
Davenport : Chapter 3

See last page of Study Guide for full details concerning sources.

FULL DETAILS CONCERNING SOURCES REFERRED TO IN QUESTIONS1. Muller

Muller, C.F.J. (ed.), Five Hundred Years: A History of South Africa.
Academica, Pretoria, 1981.

2. Van Jaarsveld

Van Jaarsveld, F A., From Van Riebeeck to Vorster, 1652 - 1974.
Perskor, 1975.

3. De Kiewiet

De Kiewiet, C.W., A History of South Africa, Social and Economic.
Oxford University Press, London, 1975.

4. Kruger

Kruger, D.W. (red.), Geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika.
Nasou, Goodwood, 1979.

5. Davenport

Davenport, T.R.H., South Africa: A Modern History
MacMillan, Johannesburg, 1978.

6. Wilson and Thompson

Wilson, E. and Thompson, L. (edt.), A History of South Africa to 1870.
David Philip, Cape Town
and Johannesburg, 1985.

7. Kruger (2)

Kruger, D.W., The Making of a Nation
MacMillan, Johannesburg, 1978.

APPENDIX E

VOORGESTELDE GESKIEDENIS SILLABUS
VIR KAAPSE ONDERWYSKOLLEGE
 (JUNIOR PRIMÊR)

ALGEMENE DOELSTELLINGS

Om die onderwysstudente toe te rus met die nodige kennis en vaardighede van die Geskiedenis en om 'n positiewe gesindheid teenoor hul beroep, opvoedingstaak en medemens te kweek.

BESONDER DOELSTELLINGS

1. Om onderwysstudente op te lei en te bekwaam in die onder-
rig van Geskiedenis in die primêre skool deur:
 - 1.1 hulle toe te rus met die nodige kennis oor die Suid-
Afrikaanse Geskiedenis sowel as die Algemene Geskiedenis
en meer bepaald die deel daarvan wat in direkte verband
met die Westerse beskawing staan.
2. Om by onderwysstudente die vermoëns te ontwikkel:
 - 2.1 om selfstandige navorsing en naslaanwerk te doen,
 - 2.2 om selfstandig en met begrip die vak te bestudeer,
 - 2.3 om hulle ten opsigte van die geskiedenis en geskiedkundige
begrippe mondeling en skriftelik duidelik uit te druk.
3. Om by onderwysstudente die regte gesindhede teenoor die
geskiedenis te kweek deur:
 - 3.1 'n blywende liefde en belangstelling in die vak te bewerk-
stellig,
 - 3.2 hulle te vorm tot volwasse lede van die gemeenskap wat
hulle plek as verantwoordelike lands- en wêreldburgers
kan volstaan,
 - 3.3 hulle die geskiedenis te laat sien as die handeling van
mense, van die mense in ander tye en in ander situasies,
 - 3.4 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die mens se lewe sinvol
is, dat hulle in geordende gemeenskappe lewe, dat menslike
dade verantwoordelikhede meebring en dat die welsyn van
ons land die verantwoordelikheid van elkeen is,

- 3.5 die begrip van tyd en die wisselwerking tussen oorsaak en gevolg by hulle tuis te bring;
- 3.6 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die hede 'n erflating van die verlede is en dat kennis van die verlede noodsaaklik is om die hede te belig om sodoende die hedendaagse lewensomstandighede en probleme beter te verstaan en te waardeer omdat die toekoms ook deur die hede bepaal word.
4. Om studente in die Junior Primêre Kursus toe te rus met die nodige agtergrondkennis ten aansluiting by die Senior Primêre Skoolfase.
5. Om studente sodanig toe te rus dat hulle die verworwe kennis en gesindhede aan hul leerlinge sal kan oordra om sodoende die leerlinge in staat te stel om beter by die Junior Primêre fase in te skakel.

VAKDIDAKTIK EN METODIEK : JUNIOR KURSUS O.D. I, O.D. II EN O.D. III

Onderstaande leerplan strek oor 'n tydperk van drie jaar en word deur die dosent na goeddunke oor die kursus versprei.

Vakdidaktiek

1. Teorie van Geskiedenis
 - 1.1 Wat is Geskiedenis?
 - 1.2 Waarom word Geskiedenis bestudeer?
 - 1.3 Wetmatigheid
 - 1.4 Objektiviteit en subjektiviteit
2. Die aanleer en aanbieding van historiese tegnieke
 - 2.1 Bronnekunde
 - 2.2 Hulpmiddele by die studie van Geskiedenis
 - 2.3 Die historiese metode
 - 2.4 Taal en styl in Geskiedenis
3. Die tegniek van storievertel
4. Die eienskappe en kenmerke van 'n fabel/sprokie, fiksie, nie-fiksie
5. Historiografie

6. Konsepvorming

Vakmetodiek

1. Die gebruik van lyftaal
2. Dramatisering
3. Dramategnieke
4. Improvisasie- en simulasetegnieke

EERSTE JAARGANG

1. n Studie van menslike wonings en die leefwyse wat daarmee verband hou
 - 1.1 Oorsigtelike beeld van menslike wonings uit die vroegste geskiedenis en hulle leefwyse.
 - 1.2 Boustyle van Suid-Afrika:
 - 1.2.1 San
 - 1.2.2 Khoi
 - 1.2.3 Swart rasse
 - 1.2.4 Blanke Pioniers
 - 1.2.5 Boustyle:
 - 1.2.5.1 Kaap-Hollands
 - 1.2.5.2 Goties
 - 1.2.5.3 Victoriaans
 - 1.2.5.4 Ambagslui
2. Plaaslike Geskiedenis
 - 2.1 Plekke
 - 2.2 Persone
 - 2.3 Gebeurtenisse
 - 2.4 Geboue
3. n Studie van die ontwikkeling van vervoer
 - 3.1 Die ontwikkeling van landsvervoer
 - 3.2 Die ontwikkeling van watervervoer
 - 3.3 Die ontwikkeling van lugvervoer
4. Die ontwikkeling van Kommunikasiestelsels
 - 4.1 Oorvertelling
 - 4.2 Skilder

- 4.3 Skrif
- 4.4 Tele-Kommunikasie:
 - 4.4.1 Telegraaf
 - 4.4.2 Telefoon
 - 4.4.3 Radio
 - 4.4.4 Beeldsending

5. Heraldiek

Oorsigtelike studie van die geskiedenis van Heraldiek.

- 5.1 Kollege-wapen
- 5.2 Stads of dorpswapen
- 5.3 Provinsiale simbole
- 5.4 Nasionale simbole

6. Nasionale feesdae

- 7. 'n Studie van Geskiedkundige plekke en bekende monumente in die Republiek van Suid-Afrika
- 8. Eietydse gebeure
- 9. Selfstudie-projekwerk

TWEEDE JAARGANG

- 1. 'n Studie van die Kultuurhistoriese ontwikkeling van die Suid-Afrikaanse bevolking
 - 1.1 Vroegste bewoners van Suid-Afrika
 - 1.1.1 Khoisan
 - 1.1.2 Blankes:
 - Franse verbintenisse
 - Nederlandse verbintenisse
 - Britse verbintenisse
 - Duitse verbintenisse
 - 1.1.3 Asiërs
 - Maleiers
 - Indiërs
 - 1.1.4 Kleurlinge
 - 1.1.5 Swart nasies
 - Verspreiding aan hand van kaart
 - Stamorganisasie

- Politieke ontwikkeling
- 1.1.6 Politieke ontwikkeling
 - Integrering van bevolkingsgroepe
 - Ekonomies
 - Verstedeliking
 - Tuislande

2. Burgerleer

- 2.1 'n Studie van die sentrale regeringstelsel soos vervat in die grondwet van die R.S.A.
- 2.2 Goeie burgerskap met spesiale verwysing na Diensorganisasies soos bv.:
 - 2.2.1 S.A. Polisie
 - 2.2.2 Burgerlike Beskerming
 - 2.2.3 Brandweer
 - 2.2.4 Verkeer
 - 2.2.5 Rooikruis en Noodhulp
 - 2.2.6 Poswese

3. Die Twee Amptelike Landstale ('n Kort historiese oorsig)

4. Belangrike historiese persone

('n Studie van minstens 4 persone word verlang uit elke afdeling). Enige ander persone kan bestudeer word.

Onderstaande dien slegs as voorbeelde:

4.1 Buitelandse persone, bv.:

- 4.1.1 Luther King
- 4.1.2 Abraham Lincoln
- 4.1.3 Gandhi
- 4.1.4 Booth
- 4.1.5 Rowland Hill

4.2 Suid-Afrikaanse persone, bv.:

- 4.2.1 Thomas Pringle
- 4.2.2 Andrew Bain
- 4.2.3 Emily Hobhouse
- 4.2.4 M. Koopman De Wet

(Daar word aanbeveel dat bogenoemde tema veral as groepstudieprojek aangepak word)

5. Eietydse gebeure

6. Selfstudie-Projekwerk

DERDE JAARGANG

1. Formulering en studie van die begrippe wat belangrik is in die studie van Geskiedenis met klem op die invloed wat dit op die Kinderleefwyse het.
 - 1.1 Ideologieë
 - 1.1.1 Demokrasie
 - 1.1.2 Totalitarisme
 - 1.1.3 Kapitalisme
 - 1.1.4 Kommunisme
 - 1.1.5 Sosialisme
 - 1.1.6 Nasionalisme
 - 1.2 Godsdienste
 - 1.2.1 Christendom
 - 1.2.2 Islam
2. Die Middeleeue - Studie van die Middeleeue
3. Die Renaissance - Studie van die Renaissance
4. Eietydse gebeure
5. Selfstudie-projekwerk
6. Keuse van minstens twee modules uit die Senior Kursus O.D. 3 - Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis

APPENDIX F

VOORGESTELDE GESKIEDENIS SILLABUS
VIR KAAPSE ONDERWYSKOLLEGE
 (SENIOR PRIMÊR)

DOELSTELLINGS1. Algemene doelstellings

Om die onderwysstudente toe te rus met die nodige kennis en vaardighede ten aansien van die Geskiedenis en om 'n positiewe gesindheid teenoor hul beroep, opvoedingstaak en medemens te kweek.

2. Besondere doelstellings

2.1 Om onderwysstudente op te lei en te bekwaam in die onderrig van Geskiedenis in die primêre skool deur:

2.1.1 hulle toe te rus met die nodige kennis oor die Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis sowel as die Algemene Geskiedenis en meer bepaald die deel daarvan wat in direkte verband met die Westerse beskawing staan;

2.1.2 hulle toe te rus met kennis van die teoretiese en filosofiese grondslae van die vak;

2.1.3 hulle toe te rus met die nodige vakdidaktiese kennis;

2.1.4 geleenthede te skep waartydens hulle self ervaring van die onderrig van die vak kan opdoen.

2.2 Om by onderwysstudente die vermoëns te ontwikkel:

2.2.1 om selfstandige navorsing en naslaanwerk te doen;

2.2.2 om selfstandig en met begrip die vak te bestudeer;

2.2.3 om hulle ten opsigte van die geskiedenis en geskiedkundige begrippe mondeling en skriftelik duidelik uit te druk.

2.3 Om by onderwysstudente die regte gesindhede teenoor die geskiedenis te kweek deur:

2.3.1 'n blywende liefde en belangstelling in die vak te bewerkstellig;

2.3.2 hulle te vorm tot volwasse lede van die gemeenskap wat hulle plek as verantwoordelike lands- en wêreldburgers kan volstaan;

2.3.3 hulle die geskiedenis te laat sien as die interaksie van mense, van die mense in ander tye en in ander situasies;

- 2.3.4 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die mens se lewe sinvol is, dat hulle in geordende gemeenskappe lewe, dat menslike daade verantwoordelikhede meebring en dat die welsyn van ons land die verantwoordelikheid van elkeen is;
- 2.3.5 die begrip van tyd en die wisselwerking tussen oorsaak en gevolg by hulle tuis te bring;
- 2.3.6 hulle tot die besef te bring dat die hede 'n erflating van die verlede is en dat kennis van die verlede noodsaaklik is om die hede te belig om sodoende die hedendaagse lewensomstandighede en probleme beter te verstaan en te waardeer omdat die toekoms ook deur die hede bepaal word;
- 2.3.7 om studente in die Junior Primêre kursus toe te rus met die nodige agtergrondkennis ten aansluiting by die Senior Primêre skoolfase;
- 2.3.8 om studente sodanig toe te rus dat hulle die verworwe kennis en gesindhede aan hul leerlinge sal kan oordra om sodoende die leerlinge in staat te stel om beter by die Junior Primêre fase in te skakel.
- 2.4 Studente van alle jaargroepe moet bewus gemaak word van die wye verskeidenheid vaardighede en bekwaamhede wat moontlik in alle primêreskoolklasse aangetref kan word. Die student se didaktiese of metodologiese agtergrond moet die verskeidenheid van vermoëns en vaardighede wat deur onderwysers in verskillende fases van onderrig ervaar word, ondervang en tegnieke moet aangewend word wat die insig en prestasiepeil van die leerlinge sal bevredig of uitdaag. Dit kan geïnterpreteer word as onderrig op en ook bokant die aanvanklike vlakke van prestasie wat deur die leerlinge geopenbaar word. Voorbeelde van sodanige tegnieke is groepwerk, individuele werkkaarte, dinkskrums en probleemoplossingsessies.

VOORGESTELDE SILLABUS

O.D. I SENIOR PRIMÊR

Afdeling 1 : Vakdidaktiek

1. Teorie van Geskiedenis

1.1 Wat is Geskiedenis?

- 1.2 Waarom word Geskiedenis bestudeer?
- 1.3 Inleiding tot wetmatigheid (klem op interpretasie)
- 1.4 Objektiviteit en subjektiviteit

2. Die aanleer en aanbieding van historiese tegnieke
 - 2.1 Bronnekunde
 - 2.2 Hulpmiddele by die studie van Geskiedenis (bv. bibliografie)
 - 2.3 Inleiding tot die historiese metode
 - 2.4 Taal en styl in die Geskiedenis

3. Basiese beginsels van lesbeplanning
 - 3.1 Doelformulering
 - 3.2 Bekendstelling van media
 - 3.3 Basiese aanbiedingstegnieke
 - 3.4 Begeleidingslesse

4. Demonstrasie, Waarneming en Oefenlesse (Dosent, onderwyser, student)

Afdeling 2 : Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis

1. Plaaslike geskiedenis
 - 1.1 Plekke, persone en gebeurtenisse van historiese belang
 - 1.2 Die ontwikkeling van die dorp en/of distrik
 - 1.3 Nasionale gedenkwaardighede in die omgewing

2. Die inlandse bevolking van die R.S.A.
 'n Kultuur-historiese studie van die Pre-koloniale bewoners van Suidelike Afrika met verwysing na:
 - 2.1 Die San
 - 2.2 Die Khoi
 - 2.3 Die Swartmense

3. Europese kolonialisme en die ontdekking van die Kaap die Goeie Hoop
 - 3.1 Faktore wat as stimilus vir kolonialisme gedien het
 - 3.2 Franse en Britse kolonialisme in breë trekke
 - 3.3 Portugal en die soeke na 'n seeweg na die Ooste
 - 3.4 Die opkoms van die Nederlande as 'n handelsmoondheid

4. Die stigting en uitbreiding van 'n verversingspos aan die Kaap. Ontwikkelinge tydens die bewind van:

- 4.1 Jan van Riebeeck
- 4.2 Simon van der Stel
- 4.3 W.A. van der Stel
- 4.4 Ryk Tulbagh
- 4.5 Aspekte van die Sosiaal maatskaplike lewe aan die Kaap gedurende bogenoemde figure se regeringstyd
- 5. Besondere kenmerke van die bestuur en bewind van die VOC aan die Kaap
 - 5.1 Politieke beleid
 - 5.2 Ekonomiese beleid
- 6. Burgerleer
 - 6.1 Goeie burgerskap
 - 6.2 Plaaslike bestuursliggame in die R.S.A.: samestelling en funksies
- 7. Eietydse geskiedenis

Afdeling 3 : Algemene Geskiedenis

- 1. Die antieke wêreld as bakermat van die westerse beskawing. Ontwikkeling tot ongeveer 1500 met betrekking tot:
 - 1.1 Skrif en die boekdrukkuns
 - 1.2 Wetenskap
 - 1.3 Landbou en Nywerheid
 - 1.4 Handel en verkeer
- 2. Die ontwikkeling van vervoer (insluitende vervoermiddele en verkeersweë) ook in die R.S.A.
 - 2.1 Vervoer op land
 - 2.2 Vervoer op water
 - 2.3 Vervoer in die lug en die ruimte
- 3. Die ontwikkeling van kommunikasiemedia
 - 3.1 Vroeë stelsels van kommunikasie
 - 3.2 Die Boekdrukkuns
 - 3.3 Telekommunikasie:
 - telegraaf
 - telefoon
 - radio
 - beeldsending

4. Persone wat die mensdom gedien het. (Hierdie afdeling word aanbeveel as selfstudie-onderwerpe vir studente. Minstens 3 biografiese studies moet in elk van die twee afdelings gedoen word. Elke inrigting kan sy eie keuse doen. Onderstaande dien slegs as voorbeelde)

4.1 Suid-Afrikaanse persone:

- 4.1.1 Andrew G. Bain
- 4.1.2 Charles Michell
- 4.1.3 Emily Hobhouse
- 4.1.4 Thomas Pringle
- 4.1.5 M. Koopman-De Wet
- 4.1.6 Dr. N.J. van der Merwe

4.2 Buitelandse persone:

- 4.2.1 Henri Dunant
- 4.2.2 Sir Rawland Hill
- 4.2.3 Lord Baden-Powell
- 4.2.4 Alexander Bell
- 4.2.5 Thomas A. Edison
- 4.2.6 Edmund Hillary
- 4.2.7 Robert F. Scott

O.D. 2 SENIOR PRIMÊR

Afdeling 1 : Vakdidaktiek

1. Die interpretasie van die Geskiedenisillabus van die primêre skool
2. Beplanning in Geskiedenis
 - 2.1 Makro
 - 2.2 Meso
 - 2.3 Mikro
3. Benaderingswyses in Geskiedenis
4. Metodes, tegnieke en evaluering
5. Leerlingsselfwerkzaamheid
6. Die onderrig van plaaslike geskiedenis
7. Konsepvorming (bv. studiemetodes, vakatmosfeer, kousaliteit, tyd)

8. Praktiese onderwys

Afdeling 2 : Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis

1. Nuwe idees beïnvloed die Kaap
 - 1.1 Die denke van die Franse skrywers van die 18de eeu
 - 1.2 Die Patriotte-beweging
 - 1.3 Die opstande van Graaff-Reinet en Swellendam
 - 1.4 Die eerste Britse bewind aan die Kaap
 - 1.5 Die Bataafse bewind
 - 1.6 Die filantropiese beweging

2. Die difaqaane
 - 2.1 Oorsake
 - 2.2 Verloop
 - 2.3 Gevolge

3. Die Westerse beskawing dring die binneland in
 - 3.1 Britse Setlaars
 - 3.2 Duitse Setlaars
 - 3.3 Die Groot Trek
 - 3.3.1 Oorsake
 - 3.3.2 Die vestiging van die blanke beskawing in Natal en noord van die Oranje
 - 3.3.3 Die stigting van die Boererepublieke

4. Persone wat 'n belangrike rol gespeel het. (Minstens 3 biografiese studies moet gedoen word. Slegs voorbeelde word genoem. Selfstudie)
 - 4.1 Lord Charles Somerset
 - 4.2 Tsjaka
 - 4.3 Mosjesj
 - 4.4 Dingane
 - 4.5 Mzilikazi
 - 4.6 Piet Retief
 - 4.7 Andries Pretorius
 - 4.8 Gerrit Maritz
 - 4.9 A.H. Potgieter

5. Nasionale simbole
 - 5.1 Die simbole van die R.S.A.

- 5.1.1 Ons landswapen
- 5.1.2 Ons landsvlag
- 5.1.3 Ons volkslied

6. Burgerleer

Die sentrale regeringstelsel soos vervat in die grondwet van die R.S.A.

7. Eietydse gebeure

Afdeling 3 : Algemene Geskiedenis (Minstens DRIE van die volgende modules moet behandel word)

1. Die Middeleeue

- 1.1 'n Breë oorsig van dié periode
- 1.2 Spesifieke kenmerke uit dié periode

2. Die Renaissance

- 2.1 'n Breë oorsig van dié periode
- 2.2 Spesifieke terreine waarop dit tot uiting gekom het
- 2.3 Hervorming en opkoms van Nasionale State

3. Die ontwikkeling van die mediese wetenskap gedurende die afgelope 100 jaar

4. Ideologieë en hul invloed

- 4.1 Demokrasie
- 4.2 Totalitarisme
- 4.3 Kapitalisme
- 4.4 Nasionalisme
- 4.5 Sosialisme
- 4.6 Kommunisme
- 4.7 Nasionaal-Sosialisme

O.D. 3 SENIOR PRIMÊR

Afdeling 1 : Vakdidaktiek

- 1. Kurrikulumontwikkeling: 'n inleiding
- 2. Differensiëring en individualisering
 - 2.1 Groepwerk

- 2.2 Die hantering van gekombineerde klasse
- 2.3 Die begaafde kind
- 2.4 Die minderbegaafde leerling
Vergelyk paragraaf 4 by doelstellings
- 3. Leerlingsselfwerkzaamheid met die klem op skriftelike werk
- 4. Die ideale geskiedenisonderwyser
- 5. Beplanning. Verdere uitbouing van verskillende onderrigmetodes
- 6. Evaluering en eksaminering
- 7. Die geskiedenis-handboek, die opbou van 'n naslaanboekery en die integrering van die mediasentrum by die onderrig van geskiedenis
- 8. Korrelasie met ander vakke met die klem op die aardrykskundige grondslag van die Geskiedenis
- 9. Die gebruik van primêre bronne
- 10. Praktiese onderwys

Afdeling 2 : Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis

- 1. Europese imperialisme en die stormloop om Afrika
 - 1.1 Oorsake
 - 1.2 Die verdeling van Afrika
 - 1.3 Die invloed van dié beweging op (Suider) Afrika
- 2. Die botsing tussen Britse imperialisme en Afrikanernasionalisme gedurende die tweede helfte van die 19de eeu
 - 2.1 Die herlewing van imperialisme
 - 2.2 Die anneksasie van Basoetoland
 - 2.3 Die anneksasie van die diamantvelde
 - 2.4 Die omringingsbeleid en die anneksasie van die Z.A.R.
 - 2.5 Die Eerste Vryheidsoorlog
 - 2.6 Ekonomiese botsings
 - 2.7 Die Jameson-inval en sy gevolge
 - 2.8 Die Tweede Vryheidsoorlog
- 3. Pogings tot nouer vereniging in Suidelike Afrika tot 1910
 - 3.1 M.W. Pretorius se plan
 - 3.2 Sir George Grey se verenigingsplan

- 3.3 Lord Carnarvon se federasieskema
- 3.4 Geweld as middel om vereniging te bewerkstellig
- 3.5 Die pad na Uniewording

- 4. Die industrialisering van Suid-Afrika voor 1910
 - 4.1 Die ontdekking van diamante en die gevolge daarvan
 - 4.2 Die ontdekking van goud en die gevolge daarvan

- 5. Die ontwikkeling van 'n eie inboorlingbeleid in die Kaapkolonie

- 6. Die ekspansie van die Kaapkolonie voor 1900

- 7. Persone wat 'n belangrike rol gespeel het
(Minstens DRIE biografiese studies moet behandel word)
 - 7.1 Sir George Grey
 - 7.2 John Molteno
 - 7.3 Lord Alfred Milner
 - 7.4 S.J.P. Kruger
 - 7.5 J.H. Brand
 - 7.6 M.T. Steyn
 - 7.7 J.C. Smuts
 - 7.8 Louis Botha
 - 7.9 Kreli / Sandile / Ghandi / Waterboer en Kok

- 8. Eietydse geskiedenis

Afdeling 3 : Algemene Geskiedenis (Minstens DRIE modules moet behandel word)

- 1. Ontwikkelinge op godsdienstige gebied
 - 1.1 Die Christendom
 - 1.2 Die Islam

- 2. Verenigingspogings in Europa tydens die 19de eeu
 - 2.1 Die unifikasie van Duitsland
 - 2.2 Die unifikasie van Italië

- 3. Die ontdekking van die poolstreke

- 4. Die westerling: sy lewens- en wêreldbeskouing

- 5. Die invloed van die tegnologiese rewolusie

H.O.D. JUNIOR EN SENIOR PRIMÊRAfdeling 1 : Vakdidaktiek

1. Filosofie van die Geskiedenis en die psigologie van geskiedenisonderrig
 - 1.1 Verskillende beskouingswyses
 - 1.2 Jeugpsigologiese veronderstellings by die geskiedenisonderrig
2. Historiografie
 - 2.1 Soorte geskiedskrywing
 - 2.2 Verskillende uitgangspunte in die algemene historiografie
 - 2.3 Verskillende uitgangspunte in die Suid-Afrikaanse historiografie
 - 2.4 Temas uit die Suid-Afrikaanse historiografie wat betrekking het op die laerskoolsillabus
3. Teorie van die Geskiedenis - enkele van die volgende aspekte
 - 3.1 Die verloop van die Geskiedenis
 - 3.2 Die indeling van die Geskiedenis
 - 3.3 Takdissiplines van die Geskiedenis
 - 3.4 Geskiedenis en die aangrensende wetenskappe
 - 3.5 Geskiedenis en sy hulpwetenskappe
 - 3.6 Die relatiwiteit van historiese kennis
 - 3.7 Objektiwiteit en subjektiwiteit
 - 3.8 Historiese metode
4. Meer gevorderde navorsingstegnieke
5. Kurrikulumontwikkeling
 - 5.1 Inisiëring
 - 5.2 Beplanning
 - 5.3 Toepassing
 - 5.4 Evaluering
 - 5.5 Beskikbaarstelling
6. Praktiese onderwys

Afdeling 2 : Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis

1. Die staatkundige ontwikkeling van Suid-Afrika, 1910 - 1961
2. Politieke ontwikkelinge in Suid-Afrika na 1910
3. Die industrialisering en verstedeliking van Suid-Afrika in die twintigste eeu
4. Suid-Afrika, 'n veelvolkige gemeenskap
 - 4.1 Die Indiërs
 - 4.2 Die Kleurlinge
 - 4.3 Die Swart volkere
5. Die plek van die R.S.A. in die nuwe wêreld en die R.S.A. se internasionale verhoudinge
6. Eietydse geskiedenis

Afdeling 3 : Algemene Geskiedenis (Minstens DRIE modules moet behandel word)

1. Pogings tot internasionale samewerking
 - 1.1 Die Volkebond
 - 1.2 Die VVO
 - 1.3 Die Statebond
 - 1.4 Die EEG
 - 1.5 NAVO
 - 1.6 Die OAE
2. Die Kommunisme
 - 2.1 Die begrip
 - 2.2 Die beginsels waarop dit berus
 - 2.3 Die toepassing daarvan in die USSR
 - 2.4 Die toepassing daarvan in China
3. Die ideologiese stryd tussen die Weste en die Ooste na die Tweede Wêreldoorlog
4. Die reaksie teen kolonialisme in Afrika: dekolonisasie
 - 4.1 Die nasionalistiese strewe
 - 4.2 Die huidige staatkundige verdeling van Afrika
 - 4.3 Die probleme van die Afrikastate
 - 4.4 Die OAE

5. Suidwes-Afrika in die internasionale politiek
6. Konflik in die Midde-Ooste
 - 6.1 Die stigting van die staat Isreal
 - 6.2 Konflik tussen Isreal en sy buurstate
 - 6.3 Die PBF
 - 6.4 Die huidige posisie in die Midde-Ooste
7. Die grondwet van die VSA
8. Die weswaartse uitbreiding van die VSA
9. Slawerny en die reaksie van die Humaniste

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE

You are requested to answer all the questions in Section A, B and C. Those of you who are presently teaching history or have taught history in the primary school, must complete Section D. Make a cross in the appropriate space.

Section A

1. Why did you register for the correspondence course? (Arrange in order of preference, e.g. 1 to 5)
 1. Increase in salary. _____
 2. Present post requires it. _____
 3. Interested in future promotion. _____
 4. Challenge. _____
 5. Interested in the subjects presented. _____
 6. Other. _____

2. What are your teaching qualifications?
 1. Higher Diploma in Education. _____
 2. Diploma in Education. _____
 3. Higher Primary (Woodwork and Agriculture) Diploma. _____
 4. Primary Teachers' Certificate. _____
 5. Diploma in Education (Junior Primary). _____
 6. Primary Education Diploma. _____
 7. Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate. _____
 8. Other (name):
 -
 -

3. For how many years have you been teaching?

0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	More
-----	------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------

4. In what area(s) are the school(s) situated in which you have taught?

Urban. _____

Rural. _____

Urban and Rural. _____

Other:

.....

.....

5. What course are you studying at the Graaff-Reinet College for Continued Training?

Junior Primary. _____

Senior Primary. _____

Higher Education Diploma. _____

Consolidation. _____

6. Is your appointment at the school at which you are teaching permanent?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "No", give the reason:

.....

.....

7. What position do you hold at your school?

Principal. _____

Deputy Principal. _____

Head of Department. _____

Subject Head. _____

Teacher. _____

Other:

.....
.....

8. Do you make use of the Cape Education Library?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "No", where do you get your information from?

.....
.....

Section B

Answer the following questions by making a cross in the appropriate space.

1. How many years ago did you last study history?

Years ago	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	More
-----------	-----	------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------

2. What is your highest qualification in history?

School Standard
College Years
University Years

6	7	8	9	10
1	2	3	4	
1	2	3		

Other:

.....
.....

3. Have you ever attended an in-service training course in history?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "Yes", explain what course, where and when you attended it:

.....
.....

4. Are you satisfied with the contact sessions presented by the college?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "No", indicate with a cross next to the following your reason(s):

- 1. Poor lecturing. _____
- 2. Too little time per subject. _____
- 3. Too little contact with the lecturers. _____
- 4. At the wrong time of the year. _____
- 5. Other:

5. What content would you like to see included in the history course?

General	South African	Subject Didactics

Section C

Here are some statements about problems found by teletuition students studying history. You may agree strongly, agree, be neutral, disagree or disagree strongly.

- A : Agree strongly
- B : Agree
- C : Uncertain
- D : Disagree
- E : Disagree strongly

1. Do you use only one textbook?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "No", indicate how many and why:

.....

.....

2. Do you use any other resource material?

YES	NO
-----	----

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate by means of a tick which of the following:

	Regularly	Sometimes	Never
Maps			
Pictures			
Paintings			
Drawings			
Photographs			
Films			
Videotapes			
Newspapers			
Periodicals			
Magazines			
Diaries			

Other:

How do you present the resource material to your pupils?

.....

.....

3. Which of the following teaching methods do you use when teaching history?

	Regularly	Sometimes	Never
Narrative			
Question-and-answer			
Textbooks			
Modelling			
Dramatizing			
Project			
Library Assignments			

Other:

.....

4. What difficulties do you find in teaching history?

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX H

1986 ANSWERS TO SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Here are some statements about problems found by teletuition students studying history. You may agree strongly, agree, be neutral, disagree or disagree strongly.

- A : Agree strongly
- B : Agree
- C : Uncertain
- D : Disagree
- E : Disagree strongly

	A	B	C	D	E
1.1 Students do not have enough time.	18	7	0	0	0
1.2 Students have lost contact with studying because of time laps.	14	9	1	1	0
1.3 Motivation.	1	7	11	6	-
1.4 Lack of background in history.	12	6	3	4	0
1.5 Unfamiliar with correspondence study methods.	6	10	5	4	0
1.6 Writting problems - expressing oneself.	5	11	2	7	0
1.7 Translating language.	3	9	5	8	-
1.8 Difficulty to obtain the necessary sources.	3	7	3	10	2
1.9 Grasping the structure of the subject.	3	11	7	4	-
1.10 Working in isolation - away from student and lecturers.	16	7	1	0	1
1.11 Difficult to contact lecturer.	0	1	1	21	2
1.12 Returning of assignments is slow.	2	0	2	18	3
1.13 Subject content too difficult.	4	6	11	3	1
1.14 Poor study guides.	0	4	6	13	2
1.15 Books are very expensive.	10	9	2	4	0

Please state any other factors which you find create problems:

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX I

1987 ANSWERS TO SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Here are some statements about problems found by teletuition students studying history. You may agree strongly, agree, be neutral, disagree or disagree strongly.

- A : Agree strongly
- B : Agree
- C : Uncertain
- D : Disagree
- E : Disagree strongly

	A	B	C	D	E
1.1 Students do not have enough time.	24	14	3	5	-
1.2 Students have lost contact with studying because of time laps.	19	21	4	2	-
1.3 Motivation.	12	13	8	10	3
1.4 Lack of background in history.	13	16	9	8	-
1.5 Unfamiliar with correspondence study methods.	11	13	10	12	-
1.6 Writting problems - expressing oneself.	9	14	9	14	-
1.7 Translating language.	8	12	6	19	1
1.8 Difficulty to obtain the necessary sources.	2	12	6	20	6
1.9 Grasping the structure of the subject.	3	20	8	14	1
1.10 Working in isolation - away from student and lecturers.	10	18	3	14	1
1.11 Difficult to contact lecturer.	-	5	4	25	12
1.12 Returning of assignments is slow.	-	5	3	30	8
1.13 Subject content too difficult.	-	5	7	29	5
1.14 Poor study guides.	-	3	10	26	7
1.15 Books are very expensive.	15	17	2	10	2

Please state any other factors which you find create problems.

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX J

PROPOSED JUNIOR PRIMARY SYLLABUS

1. Subject Method - (a third of the work - 100 marks)
 - 1.1 What is History?
 - 1.2 Justification for the study of history
 - 1.3 The basic concerns of the historian
 - 1.4 The subjective element in history
 - 1.5 The development of the Modern Discipline of History
 - 1.6 History as Science, History as Art, History as Art and Science
 - 1.7 Concept formation with special emphasis on the primary school child
 - 1.8 Local History
2. General History - (a third of the work - 100 marks)
 - 2.1 Renaissance
 - 2.2 Comparative study of the Industrial and the Technical Revolution
 - 2.3 Ideologies - Democracy
 - Totalitarianism
 - Capitalism
 - Communism
 - Socialism
 - Nationalism
3. South Africa - (a third of the work - 100 marks)
 - 3.1 Constitutional development
 - 3.2 Inhabitants of South Africa (Whites, San, Khai, Blacks)
 - 3.3 Heraldics - flag struggle, anthem, national symbols, festival days
4. Contemporary happenings

APPENDIX K

PROPOSED DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION SYLLABUS

1. Subject Didactics - (half of the work - 150 marks)
 - 1.1 Theory of History
 - 1.1.1 What is History?
 - 1.1.2 Justification for the study of history
 - 1.1.3 Objectivity and subjectivity in history
 - 1.1.4 Specific problems that primary school pupils have in studying history
 - 1.1.5 Introduction to history method
 - 1.2 History syllabus in the primary school
 - 1.2.1 History teaching principles
 - 1.2.2 Planning in history
 - 1.2.3 Interpretation of the primary school history syllabus
 - 1.3 Pupil self study activities
 - 1.3.1 Oral work
 - 1.3.2 Practical work
 - 1.3.3 Written work
 - 1.4 Teaching of local history
 - 1.5 Concept formation
 - 1.5.1 Development
 - 1.5.2 Time
 - 1.5.3 Language and terminology
 - 1.6 Differentiation and individualisation
 - 1.6.1 Group work
 - 1.6.2 Combined classes
 - 1.6.3 The gifted child
 - 1.6.4 The less gifted child
 - 1.7 Evaluation and examination
 - 1.8 Basic teaching aids
 - 1.8.1 Text books
 - 1.8.2 Research
 - 1.8.3 Incorporation of a media centrum with the teaching of history

1.9 Use of primary sources

2. General History - (a quarter of the work - 75 marks)

Three of the following topics:

2.1 Technological revolution compared to Industrial Revolution

2.2 Ideologies:

- Democracy
- Totalitarianism
- Capitalism
- Communism
- Socialism
- Nationalism

2.3 An indepth study of one of the ideologies under 2.2

2.4 International Conflicts - First or Second World War

3. South African History - (a quarter of the work - 75 marks)

Three of the following topics:

3.1 Peoples of South Africa up until about 1910:

- Whites
- Coloureds
- Indians
- Blacks

3.2 Migration in South Africa (Difaqane versus Great Trek)

3.3 Industrialisation (Gold and diamond discoveries and their effects)

3.4 Constitutional Development - Colony, Union, Republic, Tricameral

APPENDIX L

PROPOSED HIGHER DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION SYLLABUS

1. Subject Didactics - (20% of the work - 100 marks)
 - 1.1 Philosophy of history and psychology of history teaching
 - 1.1.1 Various concepts of history
 - 1.1.2 Child psychology in history teaching
 - 1.2 Historiography
 - 1.2.1 Types of history writings
 - 1.2.2 Various approaches to the historiography
 - 1.2.3 Various approaches to South African historiography
 - 1.2.4 Themes from South African historiography that are related to the primary school syllabus
 - 1.3 Theory of History - single aspects of the following:
 - 1.3.1 The progress of history
 - 1.3.2 The division of history
 - 1.3.3 Sub-disciplines of history
 - 1.3.4 History and the sciences
 - 1.3.5 History as a supporting science
 - 1.3.6 Relativity of historical knowledge
 - 1.3.7 Objectivity and subjectivity
 - 1.3.8 Historical methods
 - 1.4 Advanced research techniques
 - 1.5 Curriculum development
 - 1.5.1 Initiating
 - 1.5.2 Planning
 - 1.5.3 Application
 - 1.5.4 Evaluation
 - 1.5.5 Availability
2. General History - (35% of the work - 150 marks)

Do three of the following:

 - 2.1 Communism - comparative study U.S.S.R. versus China
 - 2.2 Ideological clashes
 - 2.3 Attempts for universal unity
 - 2.4 Africa or Middle East conflict

3. South African History - (35% of the work - 150 marks)

Three of the following:

- 3.1 Political development of Whites 1910-1948
- 3.2 Racial policies 1910 to present
- 3.3 Industrialisation and urbanisation
- 3.4 The place of the R.S.A. in the New World / Foreign policy

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