

**A DIDACTIC PARADIGM FOR
SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE
TEACHING FOR COLLEGES
OF EDUCATION IN KWAZULU**

BY

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DECLARATION

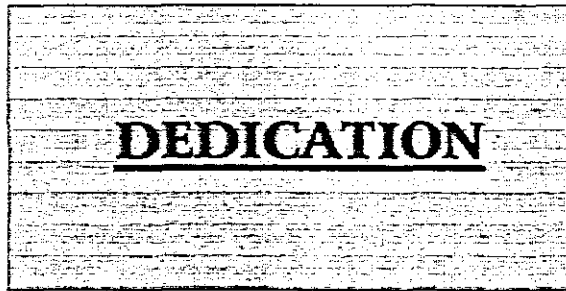
A DIDACTIC PARADIGM FOR SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE TEACHING FOR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN KWAZULU

D.Ed. 1995

I, BHEKITHEMBA WALTER NGCOBO, do hereby declare that this thesis, which is submitted to the university of Zululand for the degree of Doctor of Education, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other university, that it represents my own work in conception and execution and that all sources which I have quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of a complete reference.

Signed by me on the 20th day of December 1994

Signature: BW Ngobo



This work is dedicated to the primary stakeholders in teacher education, black, white or yellow, of a democratic and non-racial South Africa.

ABSTRACT

This research centred on one broad objective, i.e. to establish the effectiveness of school-based practice teaching for student teachers in a selection of Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD) Colleges of Education in KwaZulu.

Chapter 2 covers the review of literature on practice teaching. Firstly, the history of practice teaching is discussed so as to put the study in historical perspective. Secondly, research findings in selected countries are reviewed so that the study can be viewed in relation to international research trends. Thirdly, some approaches, which give a multifaceted nature of practice teaching as a field of study, are analysed.

Chapter 3 discusses the criteria for effective school-based practice teaching with the aim of using such criteria as a yardstick for the analysis of the results of the study.

Chapter 4 looks at the didactic theoretical constructs for a practice teaching curriculum . The implication being that any didactically justifiable practice teaching programme should be informed by what is discussed in Chapters 3 and 4.

The questionnaire survey, as well as the informal interviews, were used in this study. A mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods has enabled the researcher to gain deeper understanding and a more penetrating insight regarding the problem under investigation.

Findings of the study revealed that there was a consistent pattern of conflict regarding the results which emanated from qualitative findings. Qualitative findings, because of the open-ended nature of the questions, tended to be more reliable in terms of the respondents' ability to critically reflect upon current practices regarding practice teaching in KwaZulu Colleges of Education. Quantitative results, because of the close-ended nature of the survey questions, tended to be less realistic regarding practice teaching in these colleges. This became a chief advantage of quantitative and qualitative coupling of research methods as discussed in the above paragraph.

The three most important findings of this study are:

1. There is lack of effective partnership between colleges and schools when it comes to the professional preparation of teachers.
2. The transfer of theory to practice by student teachers is hindered due to the poor quality of the relationship between theoretical training and practice.
3. The supervision of practice teaching is not effective because there is no collaboration between the college lecturer, the co-operating teacher and the student.

The above major findings emphasise the need for colleges and schools to view themselves as institutions for teacher education. In this case teacher education should not be seen as the function of colleges of education only. This has implications for a major paradigm shift regarding teacher education.

The following are the two most significant recommendations:

1. The practical training of teachers requires radical transformation regarding the need for collaboration between colleges and schools in the training of teachers. Partnership between the college and practising schools should not be a haphazard affair, but should be formalised.
2. All those involved in practice teaching supervision should be trained which will lead to practice teaching being a professional exercise, which is presently not the case. At the moment the practical training of students is a ritual which both the lecturers and students endure out of sympathy for students and not because of an understanding of the finer points regarding the importance this area of human experience.

This study recommends major innovations regarding teacher education. One might conclude that viable solutions to the research problem have been found.

ABSTRAK

Die algemene doelstelling van hierdie navorsing was om die doeltreffendheid van proefonderwys vir onderwysstudente in 'n aantal onderwyskolleges vir laerskoolonderwysers in KwaZulu vas te stel.

'n Vralysopname, en informele onderhoude is in hierdie studie aangewend. 'n Vermenging van kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe metodes het die navorser daartoe in staat gestel om 'n diepgaande en indringende insig in die probleem te ontwikkel.

Resultate van die ondersoek het aan die lig gebring dat daar 'n konsekwente konflikpatroon bestaan het tussen kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe bevindinge. Aangesien die kwalitatiewe bevindinge uit ongestruktureerde vrae gespruit het, was hierdie gegewens betroubaarder in terme van response oor huidige praktyke as die kwantitatiewe bevindinge.

Die drie belangrikste bevindinge van hierdie studie was:

1. Daar is 'n gebrek aan effektiewe vermoetskap tussen kolleges en skole met betrekking tot die professionele voorbereiding van onderwysers,
2. Die oordrag van teorie na praktyk deur onderwysstudente word gedwarsboom as gevolg van die swak verwantskap tussen teoretiese opleiding en die praktyk..
3. Die toesig van proefonderwys is ondoeltreffend omdat daar nie samewerking tussen die kollegedosent, die klasonderwyser en die student is nie.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Although this thesis has been written by one person, it represents the wishes and efforts of many people. The space which is available will only allow specific recognition to a few individuals.

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My thanks also go to lecturers and to final year students of colleges of education who participated when the empirical study was conducted. Lecturers of Ntuzuma College of Education deserve special thanks for their ready assistance whenever they were requested to help as this study was nearing the end. Dr Siphon Hlope deserves a special thank you for proof-reading part of this thesis.

The keenness of the library staff of Clark Atlanta University (USA), University of South Africa and University of Zululand in promptly assisting me in tracing relevant material is freely acknowledged.

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I also wish to express my appreciation to family members, dead and alive, who share this glorious and momentous accomplishment with me.

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CHAPTER 1

THE STUDY AND ITS PURPOSE

1.1 ORIENTATION

It is generally accepted that education is one of the most effective means of facilitating development in a country. Education of a society can rise no higher than the qualifications of its teachers. As Corrigan (1982: 37) rightly points out, "to ignore or neglect the role of teacher education is to ignore the intellectual nature of the country itself". This shows the extent to which the country's development is inextricably linked with teacher education.

The above views have also been implied in the following words: "We are convinced that unless we are in a position to supply the system with an adequate number of suitably qualified teachers, there will be little improvement in the quality of education we offer to our pupils" (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture , 1993: 71). This quotation also shows the concern attached to education in KwaZulu. The brief discussion which follows on education and pre-service education, teaching staff in colleges and practice teaching will provide background to the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1 Education and pre-service teacher education in KwaZulu

KwaZulu was, at the time of writing this thesis, in a transitional phase, being transformed from a former self-governing territory to part of a province, namely KwaZulu Natal, in South Africa. Although this thesis was completed after the April 1994 general election in South Africa, reference has been made to KwaZulu education because of the following reasons:

- a] the empirical investigation was conducted in the former KwaZulu colleges of education in 1993,
- b] when this study was completed the KwaZulu education department still functioned as an entity. The process of integration of all the hitherto separate departments into a KwaZulu Natal Department of Education had not been finalised.

KwaZulu runs its own department of education and it has twenty-five circuits. These circuits fall under the Ministry of Education in the region. Schools in these circuits draw most of their teachers from colleges of education.

Besides the question already implied regarding the quality of teachers produced by colleges of education, there is also the question of quantity. This view is expressed in the following quotation: "It is a sad fact that we just do not have anything like the number of places in our ten pre-service colleges of education to meet the needs of the KwaZulu school system" (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1992: 54). The following table depicts some data regarding the college enrolment and output (graduates) in 1991.

TABLE 1: ENROLMENTS OF ALL STUDENTS AND OUTPUT OF PRIMARY TEACHER'S DIPLOMA (PTD) FINAL YEAR STUDENTS IN 1991.

YEAR OF TRAINING	ENROLMENTS	OUTPUT (DIPLOMAS)
First Year Students	1426	-
Second Year Students	1677	-
Third Year Students	1496	990
TOTAL	4599	990

Source: Adapted from KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1992: 54.

Although this table does provide insight concerning enrolment in Primary Teacher Diploma Colleges, it does not give the output for the first and second year students. It only gives the output at the end of the third year, which is a final year at college. Nine hundred and ninety (990), therefore, represented the overall output of all Primary Teacher Diploma Colleges in KwaZulu in 1991. "When considering the ever-increasing pupil population in our schools, the comparatively small number of qualified teachers emerging from our training institutions is cause for concern" (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1992: 56).

Students who attend colleges of education are drawn from both urban and rural schools in KwaZulu. Although some of these students have Matric Exemption, the majority of them have School Leaving Certificates, according to a study which was conducted by the Education Research Unit of the University of Natal (Nel, 1991). The study found that colleges rely mainly on School Leaving Certificates as the major admission criterion (*Ibid.*, 1991). This study also reveals that mere matriculation is an unreliable criterion. The fact that students were able to obtain a matriculation certificate through whatever means, as Nel suggests, is an example of the unreliability of School Leaving Certificates as a criterion for admission.

From the foregoing discussion, it can be assumed that most teacher trainees are not top matric students in terms of achievement. This implies that these students come to colleges of education with disadvantaged learning experiences and social backgrounds.

Research had demonstrated that there is a close relationship between achievement and the socio-economic status (SES) of the student and family (Harvighust and Levine, 1992: 111). Different families create different environments which influence children's intellectual growth and educational achievement.

As Harvighust & Levine further point out, it has been proved that there is a relationship between students' social background and academic achievement, and the single best predictor of achievement has been the amount of reading material at home. It should be kept in mind that social class, level of education, occupation, income and other indicators of social status are positively correlated with reading materials in the home (*Ibid.*)

1.2.2 Teaching staff in KwaZulu colleges of education

Teacher trainees in colleges of education in KwaZulu are taught mainly by lecturers who have been drawn from the same school system from which students emerge. Some lecturers do not have the necessary school teaching experience. Their recruitment into the college system is based on academic standing rather than on teaching experience. According to a survey conducted by the Planning Section of the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture the number and relative frequencies of Primary Teachers Diploma [PTD] college lecturers who have no school-teaching experience were as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. LECTURERS WITHOUT TEACHING EXPERIENCE

NAME OF COLLEGE	NUMBER OF LECTURERS	% OF LECTURING STAFF
	N = 47	N = 100
Ezakheni	5	15,6%
Kwa-Qqikazi	7	13,4%
Mpumaianga	3	7%
Ntuzuma	9	18,8%
Appelsbosh	8	24,2%
Umbumbulu	7	12,7%
Madadeni	8	11,6%
TOTAL	47	Average = 14,2%

Source: Adapted from Thurlow (1992: 51).

The recruitment into colleges of education of lecturers with high academic standing but with little or no school-experience was intensified as from 1982. This was when teacher training colleges were transformed into colleges of education. The minimum academic qualification for a college lecturer became a bachelor's degree. The majority of college lecturers did not have bachelor's degrees. Some of them were transferred to the school system, except those who had made some progress towards completing their degrees on a part-time basis. To complicate the matter further, more colleges were built and this meant that specialist lecturers had to be appointed, i.e. those with degrees and who had majored in the subjects they were teaching. This explains why colleges of education hired inexperienced lecturers who were nevertheless specialists in their subjects in terms of academic standing.

1.2.3 PRACTICE TEACHING IN KWAZULU COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

KwaZulu has ten colleges of education [see map page 7]. Seven of these colleges train primary school teachers, whereas three of them train secondary school teachers. The general practice in South African Black pre-service teacher education (including KwaZulu) is to train teachers for three years, which includes the practical training of teachers as a major component. School-based practice teaching is part of the practice teaching component.

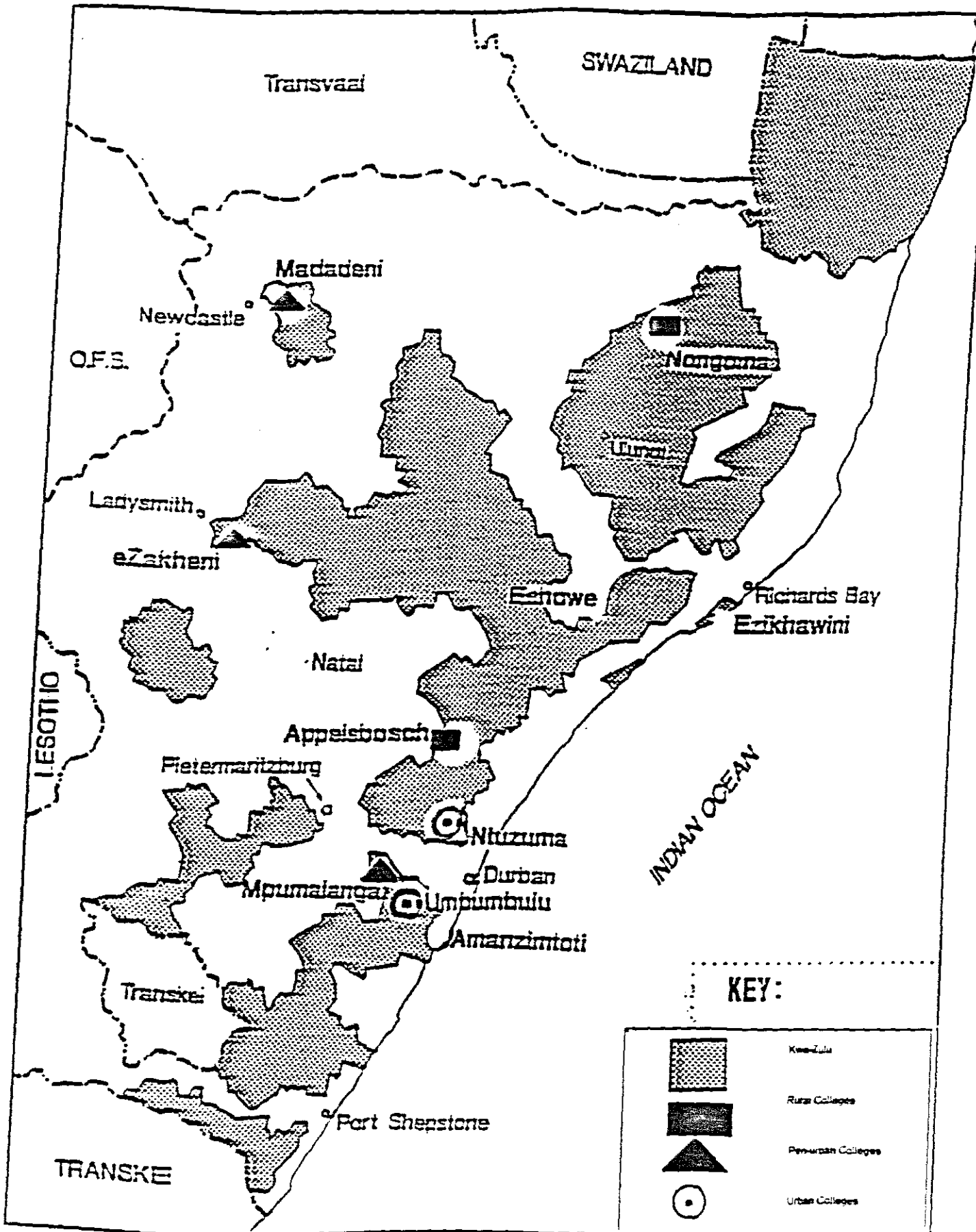
Teaching practice is divided into institute practicum and school-based practicum as reflected in Table 3.

TABLE 3 PRACTICE TEACHING SYLLABUS FOR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

<i>Practicum Curriculum</i>	1st Year periods p.a.	2nd Year periods p.a.	3rd Year periods p.a.	Total
Educational Media	28	28	28	84 periods
Chalkboard work	28	-	-	28 periods
Skills Practice	28	28	28	84 periods
Total	84	56	56	196 periods
School Practicum	10 days	20 days	20 days	50 days

Adapted from the Practice Teaching Syllabus published by DET (1990)

Figure 1



KWAZULU : DISTRIBUTION OF PTD COLLEGES OF EDUCATION.

The relationship between theory and practice in the preparation of teachers is a matter which gives rise to problems in many teacher education systems. It is at times a divisive factor between theorists in training institutions and classroom teachers in schools. If the quality of the teachers produced, including their effectiveness in the classroom, is to be improved, then the problem has to be addressed as a matter of urgency. "It is a problem which can be worsened by overcrowded schools and by unqualified or underqualified teachers who may themselves feel threatened by better educated students whom they are required to train, as well as by well qualified tutors who lack experience of the school situation". (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1990: 73).

The report referred to above further suggested that it was necessary to strengthen the links between regional colleges and the schools used by them for teaching practice as both teachers and lecturers have much to learn from closer contact. These recommendations have, however, not been implemented before the empirical investigation.

1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

1.3.1 Practice teaching problems identified in developed countries.

Only a few general problems will be outlined here:

- (a) In Scotland, the Sneddon Report (1978) has, inter alia, recommended the appointment of regents in every school to supervise students as well as to oversee the requirements of probationers. An example of this approach is provided by Jordanhill, the largest college of education in Glasgow, with a one-year course for students qualifying for secondary school teaching. The college has been reorganised so as to provide more sustained contact with particular schools and a close relationship between professional studies, methods, work and practice. Since 1974

the Jordanhill Regent Scheme has grown to involve more than 40 secondary schools in the Glasgow area. The head of each school selects a member of staff (usually an assistant head or deputy) who is given sole responsibility of overseeing student teachers and tasks, including spending two timetable periods per week tutoring the students according to a prescribed programme. The important point is that the regent and students are involved in a helping relationship during school-based practice teaching (Sneddon Report, 1978: 8).

- (b) Naguran (1985: 443) cites the case of Arizona State Department of Education in the United States. The department requires that students who are seeking a degree in education to have completed a maximum of sixteen semester hours of school-based practice teaching before being certified a teacher. The state department appoints a student sponsor in a co-operating school. Each student teacher is under the direction of a college supervisor.

- (c) In the case of the Canadian teacher education programme, Hopkins and Reid (1985: 77) also recommended that more emphasis should be placed on teaching practice rather than on theoretical training. They further contend that more time should be allotted to this activity in order to give students time to familiarise themselves with the realities of the classroom situation.

The cases cited above show that the problematic nature of practice teaching is recognised even by First World Countries

1.3.2 Practice teaching problems identified in South Africa

Amongst others, the following writers have made reference to the problematic nature of practice teaching in the South African context:

- (a) Mokoena (1981: 9) is of the view that colleges have been criticised for
- being too theoretically oriented and
 - not permitting students to spend enough time in the classroom practising the art of teaching.
- (b) Boyce (1979: 33) recommends a more structured relationship between schools and colleges as well as a clear definition of the individual responsibilities in the training and induction of teachers.
- (c) Du Plessis (1985: 133) found that the most important characteristic of an effective practice teaching curriculum is that it should be based on a scientific theory of teaching which both tutors and students should put into practice.
- (d) Tait (1988: 304) argues that the scope of practice teaching should be broadened as follows:
- by following up graduates in the schools
 - investigating the students' perception of staff supervising skills
 - incorporation of counselling skills into the curriculum
 - establishing comparative statistical bases and the development of a teaching experience model.

1.3.3 Practice teaching problems identified in KwaZulu

The following general problems have been highlighted in the case of KwaZulu:

(a) Walters (1988: 22-23) cites the major problematic areas as lack of communication between:

- colleges and schools
- lecturers and teachers
- lecturers and student teachers
- teachers and student teachers, and even
- student teachers and pupils.

He also reports resentment from school teachers. "They fear that the students will teach better than they can", he argues. Reference is also made to lack of congruence between teaching methods and teaching that goes on in schools. (*Ibid.*: 23).

(b) Nel (1991) has found a number of problems regarding school-based practice teaching. These findings are reflected in Table 4 .

TABLE 4 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY STUDENTS DURING PRACTICE TEACHING

PROBLEMS	NUMBER OF RESPONSES	PERCENTAGE
Classroom difficulties	59	37
Conflict with teachers in school	39	25
Lack of school facilities \ aids \ resources	21	13
Speaking in English	14	9
Lecturers not helpful	7	4
Organisation of teaching practice	6	4
Pupil's background	5	3
Inappropriate methodology	5	3
Don't know	1	1
No Problems	1	1
TOTAL	158	100

Source: Adapted from Nel (1991).

Although the above findings are not based on a comprehensive and wide-ranging study on school-based practice, they do reveal that practice teaching has problems which require an investigation of this nature. Classroom difficulties (37%) gave some direction as to the magnitude of didactic problems during school-based practice teaching.

Table 4 also refers to lack of facilities as a problem. This gives a picture concerning lack of congruence between what is taught at the College (e.g. to use many teaching aids) and what actually happens in the school classrooms (e.g. hardly any teaching aids exist). It will be interesting to find out the extent to which college lecturers make student teachers aware of these school realities so that reality shock can be reduced.

The reported difficulty in speaking English could be related to the use of English as a second language, as well as to the students' home background. This should affect Senior Primary Diploma teacher trainees who are supposed to teach through the medium of English.

In terms of this table other problems, such as lecturers not being helpful (4%), organisation of teaching practice (4%), pupil background (3%) and inappropriate methodology (3%), do not appear to be prominent problems in Nel's study. However, the fact that these problems are mentioned warrants a more comprehensive investigation - hence the need for the current study.

1.3.4 A critique of existing school-based teaching

(a) Student dissatisfaction

Critics of school-based practice teaching have raised a number of concerns. Although Nel's study (1991: 69) did not concern school-based practice teaching as such, it did reveal that students were dissatisfied with the practice teaching component. As noted above, a common complaint by student teachers was that teacher education courses do not equip them with immediate skills required for classroom practice.

In general, practice teaching in KwaZulu is also faced with problems such as large student numbers, overcrowded facilities and additional expenses (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1990: 74).

(b) Insufficient time

The existing twelve weeks of school-based practice teaching in a three year course appears to be inadequate. It does not allow the student enough opportunity to practice, to be exposed to a variety of classroom problems and to the syllabi of

school subjects. In this respect Hartshome (1992: 253) has commented: "The question is rather whether an internship, preferably during the course of initial training and before the final year, would not be preferable and more effective". This would, according to Hartshome, provide some background to the school reality and enrich and enlighten the final year of study.

(c) Supervision and evaluation of lessons

The evaluation of student teachers during school-based practice teaching is done by both college lecturers and subject teachers. Concerning the issue of evaluation of teaching during school-based practice teaching, Ngcobo (1989,b) has sounded a warning about the problem of conflicting expectations when student teachers are evaluated. This conflict of expectations is not only between lecturers and teachers in schools, but it is also likely to arise when a student is evaluated by a lecturer who does not offer the content and/or subject didactics in that particular course or subject. In this way students are torn between two worlds and this leads to the creation of tension in the students.

Research to determine the involvement of teachers during practice teaching (Lombard, 1991: 56-114) revealed, inter alia, the following:

- Although teachers render assistance where they can, it usually occurs in response to students' requests and not to teachers' initiative
- Teachers rarely evaluate lessons presented by students, and hardly ever discuss such lessons with students.
- Students seldom obtain additional information regarding administrative duties and organisational or management tasks from teachers.

Although the foregoing study was not conducted in KwaZulu, it is likely that the same situation may prevail in KwaZulu. Nel (1991) for instance, made the following observation in her study which was conducted in KwaZulu: "A second large category of problems (25%) concerned the animosity of teachers to students. It took many forms: indifference, and on occasion, malicious interference" (Nel, 1991: 70).

It also needs to be pointed out that practice teaching evaluation done by college lecturers is for promotional purposes. Evaluation which is done by subject teachers, however, has nothing directly to do with the students' final grade (i.e. for promotion). It may well be added that in most cases neither the lecturers nor the teachers who evaluate student teachers have prior training in classroom observation and evaluation of classroom instruction, or even in counselling. Ngcobo (1989,b) has suggested that teachers with qualities and competencies in evaluating a trainee's classroom behaviour should be trained specifically to supervise student teachers, but this has not been implemented.

1.4 FORMULATION OF PROBLEM

Against this background, the two major problems investigated were:

- (a) How effective is the present form of school-based practice teaching for student teachers in colleges of education which train primary school teachers in KwaZulu?
- (b) How can this component of teacher education be improved?

1.5 THE PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The purposes of this research are:

- (a) To establish the effectiveness of school-based practice teaching for student teachers in colleges of education in KwaZulu.
- (b) To identify and formulate practical solutions to improve school-based practice teaching in KwaZulu colleges of education.

1.6 DEMARCATIION OF THE STUDY FIELD

Practice teaching

Although the underlying concern about this study is the state of teacher education as a whole, this investigation will have **practice teaching** as its focal point. Radical and critical reflection upon teacher education as a whole thus falls outside the parameters of this study.

School-based

The primary focus of this study is **school-based** practice teaching. Other elements in teacher training which are not school-based did not form part of this study. The campus-based forms of practice teaching, for instance, were not given specific attention. This obviously does not mean that campus-based programmes are not important. In fact, they have a strong bearing on school-based practice teaching.

School-based practice teaching was chosen mainly for the following reasons:

- ◆ it enables student teachers to learn the craft of teaching from practical experience in schools
- ◆ it is an area which is problematic, yet it has been given limited attention in research.

According to the HSRC register of past and current research in South Africa, a study which has systematically investigated school-based practice teaching in KwaZulu has not previously been conducted and is not currently being conducted (apart from this one).

KwaZulu colleges of education

The actual investigation will be focused on **KwaZulu** colleges only. Selected pre-service Primary Teachers Diploma Colleges were targeted. These colleges were selected according to their geographic location. One college is situated in a rural area, the other college is located in the Durban Functional Region (urban area), and the third one is situated in a peri-urban environment. These three locations were chosen to discover whether there were significant differences in practice teaching standards in the various areas.

Much doubt has been raised regarding the ability of colleges of education to produce competent teachers. This criticism has been constant with reference to colleges which train primary school teachers, particularly in KwaZulu. For this reason this study dealt chiefly with colleges of education, particularly those which train primary school teachers. Universities where primary school teachers are also trained thus fell outside the scope of the study.

Didactic

A **didactic** paradigm has been chosen because the end product of pre-service teacher preparation is a teacher who should be able to deal with the realities of the classroom situation. No matter how sophisticated a teacher may be in other areas of knowledge, his/her competence can be judged on the basis of his/her ability to contribute to pupils' learning in a didactic situation.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Although this section will be given further attention in chapters 5 and 6, it is useful at this stage to briefly outline the methods which were used in the investigation.

1.7.1 Review of literature

A critical review of literature has formed an important part of the study. The researcher has consulted literature on teacher education and Didactics readily available in South Africa and the United States. The recent study trip to the United States by the author has been useful in this regard. The emphasis in the review of literature is on the practical aspects of teacher preparation. This provides a conceptual framework around which the problem will be analysed.

1.7.2 Questionnaire survey

The full procedure concerning the administration of the questionnaire will be explained in chapter 5.

Modus operandi regarding questionnaires

- (a) Location and selection of colleges.

Location

During the time of the investigation there were seven Primary Teachers' Diploma colleges in KwaZulu. Two of these are situated in urban areas. Three are located within townships

attached to developed settlements i.e. in peri-urban areas. Two are in regions which are regarded as rural in terms of service development and access to urban facilities.

Selection

Three colleges were selected for purposes of this study and their selection was based on their geographic location. In other words, the three colleges which were selected represented urban, peri-urban and rural colleges. This arrangement would enable the researcher to compare and contrast some of the results in terms of the location of the college.

(b) Student enrolment and number of lecturers

The urban college had an enrolment of 650 students. There were 55 lecturers in this college. The second college is situated in the peri-urban environment. It had an enrolment of 630 students and a lecturing complement of 45. The rural college had an enrolment of 646 and 44 lecturing staff.

(c) Selection of population sample

Final year teacher trainees at KwaZulu colleges of education formed the population from which the sample was drawn. The primary motive for the selection of final year students was as follows: Final year students are in a more authoritative, well-informed position to articulate ideas about school-based practice teaching. This is based on the assumption that final year students would have experienced school-based practice teaching for a period of three years. It was thus considered that other students (those in the first and second year of study) would not have had sufficient teaching experience to be able to develop particular perspectives regarding school-based practice teaching. At the time of the investigation all the final year students involved in the research had completed their school-based practice teaching programmes.

(d) Size of sample

- The urban college had 154 final-year students, of which 36 were selected, i.e. 23% of the final-year student population.
- The peri-urban college had 182 final-year students from which 25 were selected, i.e. 14% were included in the sample.
- In the rural college there were 148 final-year students from which 39 students were selected, i.e. 26% were included in the sample

Table 5 depicts the sample size.

TABLE 5: SIZE OF SAMPLE ACCORDING TO GENDER

Type of college	Male	Female	Total
Urban	10	26	36
Peri-urban	10	15	25
Rural	-	39	39
Total	20	80	100

As can be seen, there was a definite paucity of male respondents in the sample. This is mainly due to two reasons:

- (a) As reflected on the above table the rural college which was visited is a women's college and this inevitably reduced the number of male respondents in this sample.

- (b) Primary Teachers' Diploma colleges generally have more females than males. It is thus natural that a sample drawn from such a population would have more females than males. This is related to the fact that primary school teaching is traditionally regarded as a female occupation.

1.7.3 Informal interviews

The researcher used interviews to identify a number of key issues which were raised in a conversational style as suggested by Cohen and Manion (1980: 241). This research method enabled the interviewer to procure first-hand information from the interviewees themselves. It also made the probing of more deep-seated issues possible rather than religiously accepting initial and sometimes unreflective responses. Interviews, compared to other techniques, are popular because they allow researchers opportunities for closer and more detailed questioning than is possible with other methods (Borg and Gall, 1989: 401), such as surveys or statistical analysis. All student teachers (100) who completed questionnaires were interviewed. This was taken advantage of in this study. Further attention will be given to this research method in chapter 6.

1.7.4. Analysis of data

Using the conceptual framework designed after the review of literature on teacher education and Didactics, the empirical data collected from the interviews and questionnaires were analysed.

1.7.5 Writing report

The final stage of the research methodology was writing the thesis in which all findings are systematically presented and scientifically analysed. The study culminates in a number of

well-substantiated recommendations for the improvement of school-based practice teaching in KwaZulu colleges of education.

1.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher has highlighted the critical position of teacher education in general and school-based practice teaching in particular. The background of the study focused on present practices in KwaZulu colleges of education in order to place the investigation in context. Of special importance were low admission standards, as well as lack of school experience among lecturing staff in KwaZulu colleges of education. Utilising this background as a launching pad for further inquiry, the research problem was stated. The most pertinent point made was that a vacuum exists insofar as that no in-depth study has previously been conducted on the school-based component of practice teaching in KwaZulu.

As a result the purposes of the study were formulated as:

- to establish the effectiveness of current school-based practice teaching
- to suggest guidelines for improvement.

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the study methodology will take the following forms:

- review of literature
- questionnaires
- interviews

Using the results of this study, an innovative programme of school-based practice teaching will be suggested. The importance of this study lies in its uniqueness and its high relevance

to the new dispensation in South Africa. It will hopefully break new ground in the field of teacher education in this country.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON PRACTICE TEACHING

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON PRACTICE

TEACHING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

School-based practice teaching in teacher education has long been credited as an essential component in the education of future teachers. Even in countries where there has been serious debate over whether or not to include practice teaching as a requirement for *graduation and certification* for teachers, such debate seems to be over (Jones, 1990: 1). As things stand at the moment, practice teaching is routinely considered as the bridge between the students' world and the teachers' world.

This chapter aims at reviewing some of the literature on practice teaching available in South Africa and the United States of America. Firstly, practice teaching will be reviewed from a historical perspective in order to put the present study in a historical framework. Secondly, research findings emanating from Britain, the USA, Canada, India and Australia will be reviewed in order to place the present study in an international perspective. Thirdly, practice teaching approaches will be discussed to show that no agreement has been reached by educationists concerning the broad approaches which should be adopted during practice teaching.

2.2 THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF PRACTICE TEACHING

Turney *et al.* (1982: xi) point out that the history and development of practice teaching can be divided into the following phases:

- the pupil-teacher system 1850-1900
- the training college system 1900-1960
- the reconstruction period 1960 to the present

2.2.1 The pupil-teacher system 1850-1900

During this period students who had completed primary schooling were apprenticed, on a small salary, to experienced and competent teachers for a period of five years. During school hours these students taught classes and were supervised by the teacher, usually a principal. After school they received instruction for up to two hours from the teacher on primary school syllabi and on the art of teaching. The pupil-teacher system can be divided into three developmental phases:

- the monitorial phase
- the normal college phase, and
- the pupil-teacher phase (*ibid.*)

These developmental phases are discussed below.

(a) The monitorial system

In terms of the **monitorial** system the older and more promising pupils were encouraged to stay on at school to teach younger beginners. A competent teacher, with the assistance of monitors, would cope with teaching up to a thousand children (Cruickshank, 1970: 20). However, Wragg (1974: 31) reveals that the actual training of monitors was a haphazard and rudimentary affair with limited doses of theory being added to the practical experience on a daily basis. The training, as it was, was school-based and lasted a few weeks with only one-week probationary period. Although teacher training was to begin in England in the 1840's, this form of practical training did provide a basis for the practical training of teachers (Dent, 1971: 14).

According to Napier (1926: 30), this system spread to the United States where it found widespread acceptance. When assessed against the background of the present study, this form of practical training appears to have been highly inadequate. Besides the reported low academic level of monitors, these monitors were accused of mechanically reproducing lessons modelled by the model teacher without themselves showing evidence of growth (Wragg, 1974: 33).

(b) The college phase

The **normal college phase** can be traced to Scotland. The idea of a normal college system is based on the assumption that an ideal norm or model exists in teaching and that students should strive for that ideal (*Ibid.* 34).

Teacher trainees were trained in a model school. The first model school was Glasgow Normal Seminary founded in 1837 (*Ibid.*: 33). In such schools proven methods of teaching could be demonstrated to students. That is why, in addition to their academic education, students would receive practical training experience and instruction in methods of teaching. Students were attached to tutors who taught model lessons. As early as this period students

had the opportunity to teach criticism lessons of their own which were followed by discussion lessons. Insight into teaching and proper handling of pupils had to be demonstrated. Stow's idea of a normal school became very influential, even in England. Hayms (1979: 5) testifies that it became the model for future colleges in England.

It needs to be pointed out that the normal school idea had great influence even in South Africa where the first teacher training institutions had model schools attached to them (Hartshome, 1992: 220).

(c) The pupil-teacher system

The **pupil-teacher** system started in Britain in 1846. Cruickshank (1970: 56) maintains that the idea behind it was to replace *child monitors* with *teenage assistants*, and to provide normal schools with better-qualified candidates. The pupil-teacher system was thus a direct development from the monitorial system. Its principles of operation were similar but served to improve upon the weaknesses of the monitorial system which related to academic quality and mechanistic approaches.

The characteristic of the monitorial system, which the pupil-teacher system retained, was the principle of apprenticeship where thirteen year olds were apprenticed to master teachers for seven years (Wragg, 1974: 37). According to Dent (1971: 15) the pupil teachers were paid for their services and were given annual examinations by Her Majesty's inspectors. At the end of this apprenticeship graduating pupils sat for the Queen's Scholarships: an examination which enabled attendance at a teacher's college where a teacher's certificate was awarded to successful candidates.

Concerning school-based practice teaching, Hayms (1979: 35) comments as follows: "Often the training in teaching skills was neglected by teachers in charge making the apprenticeship an illusion rather than a reality".

2.2.2 The training college system 1900-1960

During this period teaching practice took the following form: Professional knowledge and skills which were acquired in a teacher training institution were practised in the schools under the guidance of a tutor (Tait, 1988: 32).

Monitorial and pupil-teacher systems were school-based. Normal schools had model schools attached to them which ensured regular and direct contact with the classroom. Gradually, with increasing demand for teachers and the growth of normal colleges, the model school became unable to fulfil its function. "It was adapted to become more of a demonstration centre for students which they were occasionally allowed to use" (Cruickshank, 1970: 148). It was during this era that public schools began to be used for school-based practice teaching. In this system schools in close proximity to the college became involved with teacher training (*Ibid.* 92).

As Tait (1988: 39) correctly states: "in the practising schools the criticism lesson became an increasingly important component of the teacher preparation programme". Before this period criticism lessons were taken as a regular feature of the apprenticeship training; special opportunities then had to be created for it. Assessment of lessons was thus placed on a more formal basis.

"With the shift to college or university-based training an anomalous relationship arose. For the most vital aspects of their professional training, students were placed into schools over which the colleges no longer had any control" (*Ibid.* 40).

2.2.3 The reconstruction phase: 1960 to the present

It is during this period that innovations in both school and campus-based systems have radically altered approaches to teacher education and teaching experience. "In school-based

systems, the teaching practice approach previously referred to is greatly expanded with the school becoming the focus, central resource and arena for extensive, differentiated learning experiences with a close relationship between theory and practice on one hand and between college and school on the other" (Tait, 1988: 32). In campus-based systems the student is able to develop teaching skills in a more controlled environment, thus enabling concentration on specific aspects of teaching without the restraints imposed by the school and classroom. (See Micro-teaching, section 3.5 [d] in Chapter 3). The two approaches referred to above are not necessarily meant to be mutually exclusive.

2.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

2.3.1 Britain

Calderhead and Miller (1986) conducted a study on practice teaching with particular reference to student teachers' subject specialisation. It was found that students themselves valued *their own high level, subject matter knowledge and made use of it in their lesson planning*. However, their practical teaching was hardly influenced by subject knowledge as it was based upon direct practical experience and observation of, and discussion with, other teachers.

In a qualitative study Calderhead (1987) followed ten students through their field experiences during their training year to investigate the importance of reflection in learning to teach and the role of tutors in promoting it. The students' capacity to think reflectively about practice quickly reached a plateau and was constrained by situational factors in the classroom. This study was followed up by Calderhead (1988) with an investigation into knowledge which seven student teachers gained from their introductory school experiences. Substantial efforts were made by tutors and teachers to structure and standardise the school experience for all students. However, school experience took different forms, offering qualitatively different

types of professional learning. Factors contributing to the variety of experience included the student teachers' conceptions of :

- (a) professional learning and their own role
- (b) the supervising teachers and tutors, and
- (c) organisational factors of the school. (Calderhead, 1988: 75 - 83).

Mansfield (1986) investigated the supervisor's role during school-based teaching practice. Previous work in the institution in question indicated that there was a disjunction between supervisors' aims and what students actually practised in schools. In particular, the supervisors claimed that the critical analysis of lessons was important, but it rarely occurred. There was a dearth of demonstrations of good practice by supervisors. Whilst supervisors stressed the importance of good practice, they paid little attention to it in actual practice. This study thus explored the potential of encouraging supervisors to become more involved with students in joint teaching so as to heighten consideration of pedagogical issues. It was found that supervisors were constrained by lack of clear frameworks for developing students' pedagogical skills (Mansfield, 1986: 259-271). It was further found that the supervisors' efforts were hampered by the difficulties of presenting students with critical information in the emotionally charged situation of the classroom (*Ibid.*)

2.3.2 The United States of America (U.S.A.)

In the U.S.A. school-based practice teaching is historically referred to as clinical teacher education. "By definition we include in this cluster of studies early field experiences and observation and participation experiences in school settings... student teaching and internships, stopping short of entry year and induction programmes" (Zimpher and Howey, 1990: 173-174).

The impact of teacher preparation curricula on the field and clinical experiences remains a critical concern in the U.S.A. Most research literature is based on studies which seek to determine the influence of university supervisors and co-operating teachers in the development of student teachers. Zeichner (1988: 1) found that the socialisation of student teachers results from placement in the school sites. He thus argues that it is less a function of either the particular belief systems of the student or the influence of co-operating teachers.

Other research findings on the professional socialisation of student teachers suggest that most of them passively "fit into" the practices found in the student teaching field placements (Crow, 1986; Gibson, 1976; Goodman, 1985; Tabachink & Zeichner, 1984). The uncritical acceptance of such school practices is referred to as "excessive realism," i.e. to accept the practices student teachers observe in the field placements as the upper and outer limits of what is possible (Zeichner, 1981: 3). In other words, they accept the existing conditions as they are in the schools.

There are also studies which have attempted to look into the following concerns regarding school-based practice teaching:

- ◆ the degree of stress encountered during student teaching (Kaunitz *et al.*, 1986)
- ◆ student teacher concern regarding classroom discipline (Wright, *et al.*, 1988)
- ◆ More effective ways to involve co-operating teachers in planning student teaching experiences (Hollingsworth, 1988)
- ◆ Ways to involve pupils in providing feedback to student teachers (Martin, 1987).

From the above studies it can be concluded that there is a need to delve in more detail into the experiences of student teachers in practice, and to look more carefully at the interaction or discourse phenomenon of co-operating teachers, student teachers and institutional (college) supervisors in triadic and dyadic situations.

2.3.3 Canada

The most prevalent means of examining the practicum and determining how it might be improved has been to study the views of student teachers (Wideen and Holbor, 1990) Montobello (1986)). These studies, *inter alia*, provide the basis of student opinion in different institutions across Canada from which some inferences about the experience can be drawn.

Wideen and Holborn (1990: 11, 32) make reference to a study that provides an interesting finding. This study was about a content analysis of reflective essays of 97 students near the end of their one year programme at the University of Western Ontario. One third of the respondents expressed dissatisfaction with the practicum. Students' criticism centred on the dual role of the student teacher. They also alleged that the faculty did not practice what they preached and that they provided courses which lacked challenge.

In contrast to the above study, Montobello's (1986: 20) study of students' reflective journal entries at Simon Fraser University indicated that students appreciated their relationship with faculty members and faculty associates who would work closely with them throughout their entire practice as well as in the on-campus portion of the programme.

From these studies it appears that students experience practice teaching as an opportunity to adapt to the role of the teacher. They also placed considerable importance on learning to interact with children, and saw the main criterion of success as the demonstration of interest and enthusiasm. In terms of improving the practicum students suggested a better selection and preparation of school associates. Students in six week classroom experiences

recommended a lengthening of the practicum period, and more time free from performance evaluation in the classroom. One weakness of these studies is the small number of students who were involved, e.g. less than 100. Replication with larger numbers will be necessary before the results can be more generally accepted. However, the strength of these studies lies in their heuristic value, and they also carry with them implications for practice.

Concerning the role of co-operative teachers, some studies indicate that their role is poorly defined, that they feel unprepared for their supervisory role and that they seek more input into the planning process (Rastoy, *et al.*, 1978; Rust, 1988; Hollingsworth, 1988). Despite a poorly defined role of the co-operative teacher, a high level of agreement exists amongst those in the triad (student teacher, co-operating teacher and college supervisor) on the expectations for the co-operative teacher's role.

2.3.4 India

In India a core component of all pre-service teacher education programmes is the direct school experience given to prospective teachers through teaching practice sessions in the real school situation. Field surveys on school-based practice teaching have been conducted by Pande (1980); Rai (1982); Mohanty (1984), as cited by Govinda and Bush (1990: 141 - 161). The main purpose of these studies was to understand the various dimensions of teaching practice programmes, their organisation and the problems involved.

It was found that there were considerable variations across the country in the organisation of teaching practice. Some institutions adopt **block practice** teaching according to the internship model. In other words, student teachers are attached to particular schools on a full-time basis for a period ranging from two to six weeks, during which they are required to participate in all the activities of the school along with their practice lessons (*ibid.* 153). In other institutions students attend **theory classes**, receive guidance from their supervisors at the teacher training colleges and participate in teaching practice at the school on alternate

days (*ibid.*). In the third approach adopted by a small number of institutions student teachers spend half the day with their supervisors on the college premises and the remaining half at practising schools (*ibid.*).

Two problems which were identified in the above approaches were:

- (a) inadequate guidance and supervision of the teacher educators and
- (b) lack of co-ordination and co-operation between school and college authorities.

Mohanty (1984: 120) pointed out that the stress in the teaching practice programme was only on the delivery of the prescribed number of lessons and not on providing feedback to student teachers for improving the quality of performance.

Govinda and Bush (1990) refer to a study that focused on identifying the factors which helped in the development of teacher effectiveness during practice teaching. They reported that teacher effectiveness was influenced significantly in cases where subject experts observed the lessons and gave appropriate feedback to their students. The commonly observed elements of teacher effectiveness were:

- ability to motivate the pupils
- ability to communicate effectively
- apt use of the chalkboard, and
- a certain level of personal maturity.

Pande (1980: 150) reported that most of the colleges surveyed were not adequately equipped for providing the necessary guidance for teaching practice at college premises. Very few of them had practising schools attached to them and some of the teacher educators possessed inadequate knowledge of the subjects being taught in schools. "The picture that emerges from various research findings on the practice teaching programmes in India is

quite dismal. This may partly be because of unprecedented growth in the number of teacher training colleges during the last two decades" (Govinda and Bush, 1990: 154).

Many of these institutions, it appears, do not have the facilities for organising the practice teaching programme effectively. In many cases this disregard for quality has also affected the relationship between teacher training institutions and practising schools (*ibid.*). Pande (1980) further reports that many school authorities are generally not in favour of having student teaching practice in their schools. Kakkard (1983: 200) analysed curricula practices adopted in 24 teacher education institutions and concluded that an internship of three months is ideal for equipping prospective teachers with teaching capabilities. Conclusions also revealed that it is necessary to incorporate action research in classroom practices as part of teacher education programmes to ensure that teachers remain responsive to the demands of the classroom setting and continue their efforts in tackling the problems involved (Govinda and Bush, 1990: 154).

2.3.5 Australia

The practicum and its supervision have in recent years received increased attention in Australia. Thirteen years ago a small group of teacher educators convened the first national, special interest conference. The following are some of the issues that were raised by research workers, as Thisher explains:

- a working mold for reflective teaching practice
- utilisation of a clinical observation system
- a collaborative planning review exercise (Thisher, 1990: 67 - 87).

In each project trainees had to reflect on their own and their supervising teacher's classroom behaviour. In an exercise on clinical observation, for example, the trainees examined their supervising teachers' skill, after the trainees had been briefed about recording data, setting

objectives and post-observation conferences with the teachers (Tisher, 1990: 75). All investigators reported some success such as commitment to the programme, valuing the experience and developing positive perspectives about pupils. In this clinical observation study trainees saw a great deal of value in the system, but very few used it during practice teaching. "Reasons for this may be that too much time and effort were required to gather the data and discuss them with the teachers. Alternatively the mode of briefing students in the study, through a compulsory seminar and printed handout, may not have been effective..." (Ibid.)

Another Australian project (Duck and Cunningham, 1985) revealed that teachers, school administrators and trainees believed that the most desirable qualities of supervisors are fairness, approachability, consistency, friendliness and the ability to be considerate and tactful. These researchers suggest that problems with respect to practice teaching supervision were generally related to failures in communication between trainee and supervisor (Tisher, 1990: 74).

2.4 SOME APPROACHES TO PRACTICE TEACHING

Du Plessis (1985: 39) rightly points out that "one of the most critical problems in teacher education is that of reaching agreement concerning the broad approach that should be adopted towards Teaching Practice courses". There is obviously no consensus amongst educationists on this matter. Over a period of time some approaches have merged, of which, for purposes of this thesis, the following approaches are discussed:

- The Apprentice Approach
- The Competency-Based Approach
- The Humanistic Approach
- The It-Inset Approach
- The Internship Approach

Each approach will be outlined under the following subheadings:

- description
- strengths
- critique and
- appraisal.

2.4.1 The Apprentice Approach

2.4.1.1 Description

The apprentice approach appears to be the oldest approach to teaching practice. The very first attempt to train teachers was based on this approach. This approach is in accordance with the idea of trades and crafts. Initiation into a particular trade has typically been a system of apprenticeship, that is, by placing a young person in the care of a skilled person in that area for a specific time . This is also referred to by Stolurow (1972: 165) as "Model the Master Teacher" approach to teacher preparation. "The Master teacher is the Master craftsman and teaching practice is viewed as a process of initiation in which the master teacher's teaching skill, performance, personality and attitudes are acquired by the student, through observation, imitation and practice" (Stones and Morris, 1972: 8).

2.4.1.2 Strengths

In arguing for this approach, Peters (1977: 136) claims that some kind of apprenticeship to a 'master teacher' "must be the linchpin of any system of training". Tait also points out that the "apprenticeship system continues to enjoy the support of some of the modern educational milieu" (1988:41). The strength of this approach lies mainly in its emphasis on **knowing how**

rather than on theoretical understanding. This, of course, does not mean that the former cannot guarantee the latter.

In support of this approach Lyons (1980: 108) raised the following issue: "Since teaching is a pragmatic art best learned by experience, school districts should establish apprenticeship programs for people who can satisfy the literacy requirements and show a command of subject matter".

2.4.1.3 Critique

The apprenticeship approach has been criticised for the following reasons:

- it concentrates on a fairly restricted area, i.e. a particular craft, and does not seek to develop an understanding of a relationship which a particular craft may have with the context in which teaching takes place.
- the craft concept of teacher education fails to distinguish between knowing something and knowing how to teach it.
- "Sitting with Nellie" is the description of this approach which was coined by Plaskow (1969: 2). Nellie is a caricature of a now abandoned industrial model of training where new recruits were sent to sit with the old and experienced Nellie until they mastered the skills of the trade.

"One imagines her with a doek over her hair, her bent and listless body in a shapeless overall, her face dull and shiny with sweat and her mind a blank" (Tumner, 1983: 67). By implication the suggestion is that our students, too, will become inefficient, listless and vacuous (*ibid.*). Plaskow argues that the concept of asking students to model teachers is:

- "extravagant and kinky"
 - is based on "legend rather than logic"
 - it tends to "penalise innovation"
 - the job is likely to be "learned ineffectively"
 - that "Nellie's methods... are usually found to be wasteful of time and effort"
- (Plaskow, 1969: 3-5).

"Sitting with Nellie" is an expression which has caught on in the literature, for example, in Stones and Morris (1972: 3), Haberman (1983: 99) and Alexander (1984: 96). Reference to Nellie, as has been suggested above, however, emphasises the negative aspects of the apprenticeship approach by discounting the powerful influence that an inspiring master teacher has on the student teacher.

2.4.1.4 Appraisal

Even though this approach may appear to be outdated it still reflects the truth that teaching ability is something which needs to be learned and developed.

The way around the potential weaknesses of this inherent modelling relationship would be to maximise the advantage by moving towards much closer co-operation with the schools and the use of selected master teachers whose practice has been shown to be effective (Tait, 1988: 42). The problem, however, is that even when an excellent master model is offered for a student to imitate, the concept of apprenticeship as a training model has severe limitations, as was seen in the monitorial and pupil-teacher systems (see section 2.2.1 [c]). Stones and Morris point out that even an excellent teacher is not perfect (1972: 9). His method may, for instance, not be the only or, indeed, the best method to adopt. The student's horizon of teaching will end up being no broader than that of his master. It might even contribute to frustration of the teacher preparation process as the master's teaching style is a function of his personality. The master teacher's personality could clash with the personality of his student. Even if it were possible as an ideal model, the shortage of sufficient master

teachers, as well as the difficulty in defining who would qualify, would hamper the success of this approach. This could result in a tendency to conservatism and traditionalism and operates against experiment and innovation (Stones & Morris, 1972: 9,10).

2.4.2 The Competency-Based Approach

2.4.2.1 Description

Competency-based education has developed into a major trend in teacher education where it is known as Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE). The Latin word for competence '*competare*' means **to be suitable**. A competent person is, therefore, one who is able to perform suitable skills for completing a given task (Friedman, *et al.*, 1980: 11-12). Notwithstanding Roth's contention (1977: 760) that there is no acceptable definition because "CBTE is not the same from institution to institution", the following description by Cooper *et al.*, (1973: 4) articulates the key elements:

"A competency-based teacher education program specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing the student's competencies, and holds the student accountable for meeting those criteria".

Du Plessis (1985: 40-41) further elaborates on the description of this approach by referring to techniques used. She maintains that techniques applied in this approach are strikingly similar to those found in behaviour modification. The following are characteristics of CBTE:

1. Instruction is individualised and personalised
2. Learning is guided by feedback
3. The overall programme is systematic

4. Emphasis is on exit, not on entrance requirements
5. The student is held accountable for performance (AACTE, 1974).

This implies that the teacher trainer selects specific target skills at any time. The target skill which has been selected is then translated into specific observable behaviours and are communicated to the student. With these behavioural objectives in mind the student, under the guidance of a tutor, practises sub-skills individually. Finally, each student performs a competency test to ensure that the target has been reached before the next target is selected (Goodwin & Coates, 1976: 144).

2.4.2.2 Strengths

This approach fulfils varied functions and has many advantages. According to Van der Linde (1985: 76):

- (a) duplication is avoided
- (b) individualism is possible
- (c) curriculum revision is necessitated
- (d) consistency is achieved
- (e) communication is improved
- (f) feedback is more specific
- (g) required skills are more broadly based
- (h) accountability is enhanced
- (i) achievement is more measurable
- (j) capability (or lack of it) is demonstrable

Du Plessis (1985) is also of the opinion that CBTE has had considerable success both in the United States and South Africa. "All in all proponents of CBTE consider the specificity to be a great improvement on the unstructured, haphazard practices found in traditional teaching practice programmes" (Du Plessis, 1985: 42).

2.4.2.3 Critique

(a) Lack of validity

Despite the advantages and the widespread popularity of competency programmes, CBTE has become increasingly criticised in the literature at the presuppositional level (Tait, 1988: 78). Cocker *et al.* (1980: 132) are of the view that "in the virtual absence of evidence of validity of these competency measures, implementation of CBTE and teacher certification programmes may well do more harm than good".

It is further reported that five of thirteen basic competencies of required teacher behaviour in their evaluation procedures were found to decrease achievement gains by students. Seven of twelve competencies were negatively related to growth in self-concept. While student teachers conforming to required basic competencies would contribute on the whole to achievement of cognitive goals, 'incompetent' teachers would make a better contribution towards the achievement of affective goals (Cocker *et al.* 149). This may lead one to wonder whether the achievement of cognitive and affective goals is compatible in the same programme and, if one had to choose between them, which one would be more important in teacher education.

(b) Problem with identification of skills

Bracey (1983: 717) reports a "compelling need to go beyond minimum competency". In doing so he picks up on the two areas discussed earlier on: the identification of basic competencies and the possible primacy of the affective domain. In criticising the 'basic skills' easily measured by competency approaches, he claims that "truly basic skills may not even be teachable". Examples of the kinds of skills considered to be truly basic include listening and speaking, divergent and convergent thinking and strategic and tactical reasoning. In addition "skill associated with the right hemisphere of the brain... should also be candidates

of study" because of their contribution to balanced, 'centred' individuals (*Ibid.*, 1983: 720-721).

(c) Lack of control over teaching variables

Lack of understanding of all the variables involved in teaching undermines the whole accountability process and invalidates many research findings, especially at the level of learning outcomes. As Houston (1974: 8) points out, teachers have "little or no control over many of the relevant factors influencing the learning (e.g. student ability, interest, motivation, availability of resources)". This negation of one of the chief advantages of CBTE greatly reduces its benefits.

2.4.2.4 Appraisal

It cannot be disputed that CBTE has attracted a considerable controversy. Turney (1977: 17) maintains that, "probably no other development in teacher education has had at the same time so many staunch advocates and strong critics". In evaluating the role of CBTE, Du Plessis (1985: 44) is concerned that rejection of CBTE would render a curriculum irrelevant and out of touch with modern trends.

The criticism that CBTE dehumanises education is not justifiable if one considers that promotion of CBTE does not necessarily mean losing sight of the humanistic side and the mystery of education.

Concerted action, it seems, is required on the part of educational researchers to establish a sound empirical foundation upon which competency programmes may be built. For some researchers CBTE appears to be "an idea whose time has come" (Houston, 1974: 5). Whilst for others the major issue is what weighting it should be given in the curriculum (Du Plessis, 1985: 44).

2.4.3 The Humanistic Approach

2.4.3.1 Description

The humanistic approach was developed as an alternative to behavioural and performance or competency approaches, which, according to Combs, *et al.* (1974: 37) are considered to be "much too limited in scope". Combs, *et al.* are chief proponents of this approach. They consider that humanistic teacher education has progressed along a continuum of definitions of good teaching. The continuum has progressed from early conceptions of the teacher as a knower and later conceptions of the good teacher as one who is generally competent in a number of specified areas (*ibid.*, 1974: 1).

Perceptual psychology is the theoretical foundation of this approach. The perceptible basis of behaviour, the relationship between self-concept and behaviour, and the fact that the fundamental motivation of every human being is the basic need for personal adequacy, are important tenets of this school of thought (*ibid.*, 1974: 14-19).

The implication of perceptual psychology for teacher education are embodied in the "self-as-instrument" concept of teaching. The self-as-instrument concept of professional training is a personalised discovery-oriented approach of which a key feature is active involvement of student teachers in schools at every stage of the programme. This is done in order to develop a sense of reality and self-discovery in teaching. Their involvement in the school is graded, ranging from being a tutor, to a teacher aide, an assistant teacher, an associate teacher and finally to participating in intensive teaching in a full programme (*ibid.*, 1974: 149-159).

In terms of this approach the campus component of the programme consists of regular seminars providing a 'homegroup' base to which a group of thirty students, operating in two subgroups meeting twice a week, are assigned for the duration of the two year sequence of

professional education (Turney, 1977: 27). Emphasis in the groups is on counselling and support and developing a 'know thyself' philosophy (Combs, *et al.*: 1974: 110).

Human Relations departments have been established on some campuses pursuing the humanistic approach in recognition of the fact that each of the social sciences "is but a different way of looking at the same problem..." (*Ibid.*: 135).

In addition to the smaller groups referred to above, a hundred and twenty students are assigned to a 'substantive panel' consisting of lecturer representatives of the different academic departments who prepare and distribute lists of learning activities and tasks required by students, many of which are optional. This is seen as a particularly important development in helping academic material to be seen as relevant to college students (Tait, 1988: 66).

A further key feature of the humanistic approach is that course evaluation is continuous, with self-evaluation playing a major role. A more formal mid-year and pre-graduation evaluation also takes place. Assessment is either seen as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. There is no emphasis on failing students. Work is repeated until quality results are produced (*Ibid.*, : 156).

The self-as-instrument concept calls for a different conception of the supervisor function in teacher education. Rather than helping students learn how to teach, "the supervisor's task must be to help another person find his best ways of teaching" (*Ibid.* 125). This function requires supervisors with well-developed people skills in addition to the capabilities of master teachers (*Ibid.*, 1974: 128).

2.4.3.2 Strengths

The strength of this approach lies in the fact that it is "an innovative programme... developed in a systematic fashion rarely seen in curriculum development" (Turney, 1977: 26). Du

Plessis refers to its theoretical base as being far stronger than that of the competency approaches (1985: 47-48).

What is conspicuously absent in a humanistic programme is the impersonal role of tutors so often found in other approaches (Du Plessis, 1985: 48). Instead, a heavy emphasis is placed on the more personal, pastoral function of the tutor, based on the belief that student teachers need to experience for themselves the kind of teaching it is hoped they in turn will implement (Turney, *et al.*, 1977: 31). As far as the student's analyses of teaching actions are concerned, the humanist's rejection of mechanistic techniques has been welcomed by many educators. These educators feel that a very limited account of classroom events is provided by categorising them, counting their frequency and examining sequences (McIntyre, 1980: 295).

2.4.3.3 Critique

Problems with this approach are usually at a logistic level. As a labour-intensive approach, cost factors could restrict quality, especially in terms of school placements. Considerable use though, is made in the system of the class teacher who is considered "the professional in the best position" to be responsible for supervision, rather than the fleeting and irregular visits of college lecturers (Combs, *et al*, 1974: 160).

Another fundamental problem with this approach lies in its reliance on counselling skills in supervision, whereas most educators have little or no training in counselling skills and humanistic psychology (Du Plessis, 1985: 49).

2.4.3.4 Appraisal

The importance of the humanistic approach in teaching practice cannot be disputed. Du Plessis thus rightly argues when she says: "I shall content myself with the belief that this ideology is of sufficient importance to make its partial implementation mandatory in a Teaching Practice curriculum that claims to be relevant" (1985: 50).

Despite organisational problems which are inherent in this approach, it seems as if its strengths cannot be disregarded. The schools used for practice teaching are a great distance away from the college and this would be an overriding factors.

Du Plessis advises that it is wise to merge the elements of competency and humanistic approaches with the onus resting upon those responsible for planning and implementing the practical teaching programme to decide the relative weighting given to different aspects of each programme (1985: 50).

2.4.4 The IT-Inset Approach

2.4.4.1 Description

This approach began with a teacher education project based on the Open University and was financed by the United Kingdom Department of Education and Science from 1978 to 1981 (Ashton *et al.*, 1983: 23).

It-Inset has been described as co-operative curriculum evaluation and development (Ashton *et al.*, 1983: 17). IT stands for initial training and INSET for inservice education and training. The It-Inset approach to teacher preparation involves bringing initial training and in-service education and training together in a school-based pattern (Ashton *et al.*, 1983: 9).

The purpose is to weld initial and in-service education of teachers through implants of student teacher groups and their tutors into classrooms for up to one day a week for at least a term (Tickle, 1989: 38). An area in the curriculum is selected by the classroom teacher as a project for joint investigation.

Ashton, the chief advocate of this approach, has formulated the following principles essential to the It-Inset system:

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

1. Analysing practice;
2. Applying theory;
3. Evaluating the curriculum;
4. Develop the curriculum;
5. Working as a team, and
6. Involving other teachers in the schools" (Ashton, 1983: 21).

2.4.4.2 Strengths

The strength of this approach is demonstrated by the fact that in-depth evaluation of the programme has shown that over 80% of participants consider it to be worthwhile and over two thirds consider it to be very worthwhile (Tait, 1988: 70). Ashton, *et al.* (1983: 129) have the following to say concerning the strengths of this approach: "It helps them to be better teachers... and frees them from the isolation of being a class teacher, a student on teaching practice, or a visiting tutor".

The value of this approach also lies in its emphasis on training with qualitatively enhanced classroom experience for student teachers, classroom-centred in-service training, and

consideration of real problems of tutors (Tickle, 1989: 33). The marriage of theory and practice thus becomes a reality.

Its strength further lies in the following characteristics:

- it bridges organisational gaps between initial and inservice education
- tutors in training institutions (and even their students) have a role in Inset and teachers have a no less important role in initial training.
- it overcomes the difficulties of centralised courses in which content does not match the needs of teachers, and from which the application of theory-based learning in classrooms proves unsuccessful (*Ibid.*).

2.4.4.3 Critique

The following problem areas have been highlighted concerning this approach:

- (a) implementing this approach requires learning and use of a cluster of professional skills which are not commonplace;
- (b) *the struggle with the methodological and theoretical problems involved makes the aspirations for the application of this approach adventurous and ambitious;*
- (c) The realities of practice teaching supervision and partnership are often far removed from the school experience partnership assumed by the advocates of this approach (Tickle, 1989: 34).

Booth, *et al*, (1990: 48) maintain that the problem of power relationships between lecturers and teachers is inherent in this approach. They go on to contend that, exactly who holds that

balance of power depends on the particular facet of partnership. In some cases, for instance, college lecturers and teachers in schools may in practice not have the same decision power. This may be apparent when decisions regarding the raising of marks, for example, are taken at a teacher training institution. In this way teachers would not be available to give their input. Teachers may sometimes feel unable to challenge the views of lecturers, who are supposed to be superior in terms of their academic standing. This can be more professionally damaging if teachers are junior partners in the process of professional teacher preparation.

2.4.4.4 Appraisal

Responses to questionnaires have enabled the researchers to distinguish between more successful and less successful teams. However, nowhere in the report of the project is mention made of means of assessment of individual participants' contribution and growth (Tait, 1988: 71).

Tickle (1989: 35) suggests that this approach has a major role in the practical training of teachers if the following is clearly understood:

- (a) the complexities involved in order to implement closer co-operation between schools and teacher education institutions; and
- (b) that, even between students and supervisors, there is a long way to go towards effective two-way partnership.

2.4.5 The Internship Approach

2.4.5.1 Description

This approach has recently come into favour in Canada, notably at Simon Fraser University. In the Professional Development Programme at this university, for example, one third of the

year is devoted to classroom observation and seminars on curriculum and teaching skills, another third is devoted entirely to classroom practice and the final third to the academic course work (Hopkins and Reid, 1985: 132).

The internship approach is referred to as an extended practicum which is defined as follows: the period of time student teachers spend in the classroom observing and practising teaching. The use of the qualifier 'extended' is indicative of an innovation which occurred when the traditional time allocation for practice teaching was extended from 30 days to thirteen weeks (*ibid.*)

The internship approach derives its existence when compared with the period of internship by medical students. Hartshorne (1992: 253) is of the view that the application of this approach in teacher training would take the following form: an internship which lasted a year (and could consist of two consecutive six-month periods in different schools, or other variations), and for which the student was paid a reasonable salary.

2.4.5.2 Strengths

The strength of this approach lies in the fact that it appears to seek to create a more favourable image of teacher education and this serves to account for the analogies drawn with the medical profession.

This approach also has a wider area than practice teaching as currently practised. The intern is, for instance, not only concerned with developing certain teaching skills. In addition, he observes other teachers, establishes relationships with students and, in general, concerns himself with the *enterprise of teaching* rather than with the activity.

The amount of time a student teacher spends in school and the integration between what is observed and practised there and what is taught in educational institutions, has a significant

effect upon the development of his motivation to become a teacher, as well as his self-concept as a teacher (Clifton and Covert, 1977: 23-32).

Hartshorne outlines the following strengths of this approach:

- it would provide some background to school reality to school teachers;
- it would considerably enrich and enlighten the final year of study;
- it would be an opportunity for students to decide, on the basis of full-time work experience, whether he/she wished to continue with education as his/her chosen field of study;
- it would create a cadre of 'national service' teachers which could be used in special projects, which could release serving teachers for periods of full time study and provide support to schools that stood in particular need;
- the college would remain in contact with the student throughout the year (Hartshorne, 1992: 253-254).

2.4.5.3 Critique

The following research findings point to the disadvantages of this approach:

- (a) Walberg (1967: 15-155) found that student teachers' professional self-concepts declined as a result of extended practice teaching experience
- (b) Gregory and Allen (1978: 53 - 55) also reported a decrease in professional self-concept as a consequence of extended practicum.

The internship approach may also not be regarded as a new concept, for its length of time may not make it distinguishable from practice teaching as it is currently known. It is sometimes difficult to see how it is different from both the apprentice and humanistic approaches.

2.4.5.4 Appraisal

This approach appears to be in line with current thinking regarding the practical training of teachers. The whole idea behind this appears to be very attractive. However, the following issues should be borne in mind regarding its application:

- (a) merely extending the length of practice teaching is no guarantee that student teachers will be made perfect (Hopkins and Reid, 1985: 148). It is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition. The extended practicum can be an effective tool in the preparation of student teachers if it is combined with other programme variables.
- (b) the variables referred to above can be sorted into three major categories:
 - the first category is called 'structural' because the variables in that category are the result of negotiations between school and college over a period of time;
 - the second category contains 'environmental' variables and reflects the milieu in which the student teacher operates;
 - the third category, 'operational', refers to those variables under the control of the college supervisor (*Ibid.* : 136).

This approach could be the answer if one operates on the assumption that teachers require more on-the-job training. This could be regarded as commitment to the integration of theory and practice and to the improved performance of new teachers. In this way more practice would perhaps make perfect.

2.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the position of practice teaching within the framework of this study was outlined. The subsection on the history and development of practice teaching aimed at analysing the problems of practice teaching from a historical perspective. This was done in order to demonstrate that practice teaching has been a problem ever since the inception of schooling and teacher training.

Research findings on practice teaching in selected countries have been analysed in order to show that practice is still a problem worldwide. What is fundamental about these research findings is that critics of practice teaching seem to agree that whatever else might be dispensable, practice teaching is not, as Ngcobo (1993: 23) has also suggested. Countries which have been mentioned in this study are some of those which have given major prominence to research in teacher education in general and practice teaching in particular. Five approaches on practice teaching have been focused on.

CHAPTER 3: CRITERIA FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE TEACHING

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CHAPTER 3

CRITERIA FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE TEACHING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter some criteria for effective school-based teaching will be discussed. The contention is that a didactically-justifiable paradigm for practice teaching should meet these criteria. These criteria are:

- Effective partnership between colleges and schools
- College theoretical preparation
- Efficient organisation of practice teaching
- Ability to transfer theory to practice
- Effective supervision
- Time - on - task

3.2 CRITERION ONE: Effective partnership between colleges and schools

The view adopted in this study is that no school-based practice teaching can be effective unless there is an effective partnership between colleges and schools. This obviously has

multiple benefits: for students to improve their teaching practice; for lecturers to learn from teachers in the field; for teachers to gain support and insight from learning about the latest trends and innovative didactic practices.

Partnership between colleges and schools does not mean a superordinate-subordinate relationship between the two institutions. Effective partnership implies reciprocal partnership. Dow (1979: 4) views partnership in the following way: "Teacher training must find a way of relating theory and practice for its students. Schools must be able to turn to teacher training institutions for practical as well as academic help; and teacher training bodies have to inform themselves of new realities in the schools."

When school teachers regard themselves as teacher educators, student teachers will not be viewed as a 'necessary evil' whom school teachers have to endure out of a sense of professional duty. The idea of teachers becoming teacher educators in partnership with colleges has been supported by research (Sneddon Report, 1978 i, Berg and Murphy, 1992).

The Sneddon Report suggests that there should be a structured relationship between the college and local schools. This could be achieved by the appointment of regents who will socialise student teachers with the ethos of the teaching profession during school-based practice teaching.

Berg and Murphy are of the opinion that partnership during school-based practice teaching can be an effective form of staff development for both college and school staff. Studies such as the above show that students teach more effectively when they do their practice teaching in schools which are in equal partnership with a college. It is further recognised that there will be congruence between college-learned teaching methods and methods which are used in schools. Lack of such congruence will naturally cause college methods to be out of touch with the realities of schools. On the other hand, if recent innovations taught in college do not reach schools, teachers are likely to be out-dated in their approaches to teaching.

Partnership between the two institutions is thus essential for the proper application of college-learned teaching methods since there must be strong correlation between college and school teaching methods.

Effective partnership between colleges and schools goes beyond school-based practice teaching. The implication is that teacher development is shared by schools and colleges. Beginner teachers, for instance, need guidance to acquire classroom management skills and in learning to orchestrate a myriad of teaching tasks. The fertile nature of a co-ordinated approach between colleges and schools is strikingly illustrated by the IT-INSET approach discussed in Chapter 2.

3.3 CRITERION TWO : College theoretical preparation

College theoretical preparation forms the basis for school-based practice teaching. This view was highlighted by Dhlomo (1979: 87-88) when he advocated a symbiotic relationship between theoretical understanding and practical experience. This presupposes that didactic theory which students learn at the college should be applied when they are faced with the realities of teaching during school-based practice teaching.

College theoretical preparation is of such importance that it has been allocated a separate chapter, Chapter 4, which is devoted to this aspect of practice teaching.

3.4 CRITERION THREE: Efficient organisation

Efficient organisation of practice teaching is an important prerequisite for school-based practice teaching to be meaningful. The following are organisational procedures for effective organisation of practice teaching:

a) Patterns of student placements

There are two distinct patterns for the placement of student teachers in schools.

- Placement of students in schools surrounding the college

The organisation of practice teaching should be the responsibility of the Head of Department of Practice Teaching in a college of education. The placement of student teachers in schools surrounding the college is done in order to facilitate guidance by college lecturers. This is usually the case during two weeks of block practice teaching. The Practice Teaching Committee under the chairmanship of the head of department for Practice Teaching should be elected in order to carry out this function.

- Placement of students near their homes

In terms of this placement pattern student teachers arrange these sessions themselves with the principals of schools concerned. These sessions are usually for observation and teaching. Generally, these sessions leave a lot to be desired (Walters, 1988: 23).

In both the placement patterns described above, effective organisation is the key. When student teachers are placed in schools surrounding the college and the

organisation of practice teaching is not efficient, the whole school-based practice teaching experience becomes problematic. The same applies when student teachers are sent to their home schools without proper documentation and information.

b] Number of students per school

Normally the number of students per school should be commensurate with the number of classroom placements available in each school. However, experience proves that this is usually not the case in KwaZulu colleges of education. Due to the scarcity of primary schools within commuting distance of the college, schools are usually inundated with as many as 20 students per school. When a school has more student teachers than which can, under normal circumstances, be accommodated, it stands to reason that teachers in such a school may not effectively supervise student teachers. Likewise, student teachers may not gain much from school-based practice teaching if they outnumber the number of subject teachers in each school. This problem could have serious consequences if the college has, for instance, a greater number of junior primary teachers trainees than can be accommodated by the few local primary schools.

c] Preliminary visits

Student teachers are usually afforded the opportunity to visit the schools, before the onset of formal teaching practice, in a number of half-day or one-day sessions in the week or weeks leading up to the actual practice.

The purpose of preliminary visits

The preliminary visits enable the students to:

- meet the principal and staff ;
- become acquainted with the class and subject teacher;
- collect time-tables;
- meet the children he or she will be teaching;
- become familiar with the layout and routine of the school;
- gather specific information relevant to the work he /she will be undertaking.

Information to be gleaned during the preliminary visits

- ◆ The Physical Features

The student teacher should investigate features and resources of the neighbourhood in which the school is situated. Some of these resources may prove to be relevant to the lessons the student teacher will be teaching, e.g. the social nature of the area - is it rural or urban?

- ◆ Layout of the School

The general architectural style should be observed by the student, as suggested by Cohen and Manion (1977: 28). The engagement of the students' attention with the layout of the school should enable them to know the location of all the buildings in the school, e.g. principal's office, staffroom, general office, assembly hall, etc.

- ◆ The School in General

Student teachers should know how many pupils there are in the school, the size of the annual intake, the approximate location in the catchment area, etc. The school's recent history may also prove to be important for the student teacher to know.

- ◆ The ethos of the School

This has an important bearing on the work of both teachers and pupils. Student teachers should acquaint themselves with the prevailing atmosphere of, for example, the staffroom or the morning assembly.

- ◆ Control and Discipline

The student teacher should find out how the system of control and discipline works: what the rules are; whether all members of staff have the authority to enforce them and how effective they are.

- ◆ Philosophy of Education

Student teachers should also familiarise themselves with this as there may well be a clash of philosophies at some schools or between the philosophy of the college and that of the school.

- ◆ School Expectations

Student teachers should be aware of what is expected of them regarding, inter alia, time of arrival, attending morning assembly,

involvement with extra-mural activities, free periods, leaving the school premises, dress, general appearance, conduct and preparation of lessons.

- ♦ Forms of Pupil Grouping

According to Cohen and Manion (1977: 31), there could be vertical grouping, open education, mixed ability, team teaching, integrated studies, etc. A student teacher placed in a school where one or more of these approaches are used should make a special effort to find out how it works.

- ♦ Significant People

Student teachers should meet and become acquainted with significant people, e.g. heads of departments, clerks, caretaker, etc.

d] Supervisory lectures

The committee which organises practice teaching should be responsible for the placement of supervisory lecturers. The head of department of Practice Teaching should, as previously suggested, chair such a committee. Du Plessis (1985: 91) is of the opinion that such a committee should be elected.

The briefing of lecturers on their duties during practice teaching should be done at a meeting organised by the practice teaching committee. The briefing session should also involve the evaluation of criticism lessons. At such a staff meeting there should be freedom of expression. A meeting in which lecturers are told what to do and what not to do is both professionally and didactically counterproductive.

The number of visits by lecturers to each student should be discussed. Because of the high number of students in relation to the number of lecturers in colleges, the researcher's experience with colleges is that lecturers usually visit each student teacher once. What appears under sub-section 3.6.2 is an exception rather than the rule. The college which is referred to has a very low student-lecturer ratio.

In that sub-section even forms which are to be completed by lecturers should be organised by the practice teaching committee. It is also at this meeting that the criteria for lesson evaluation, as reflected on the form, should be discussed. This could enable lecturers to develop more of a uniform view of what is expected of each student during criticism lessons.

There should be a supervisory lecturer responsible for students at a particular school.

e] Transport

The practice teaching committee should designate one member of the committee as the transport officer. This person should have a dual role concerning transport arrangements in that he/she should organise transport for both the lecturers and the students.

Transport for students

The transport officer should ensure that the organisation of transport for students includes the following:

✓ Students should be informed of the time of departure of the transport. This includes the time of departure from the college as well as the time of departure from schools. It needs to be pointed out in passing though, that in the one day college which was selected for this study, transportation

of students to schools did not need to be arranged by the college. At the time of this investigation students were allocated to schools which were within their commuting distance.

Transport for lecturers

The time-table which places lecturers in each school on a particular day should be drawn up and made available to the lecturers in good time. Arrangements regarding the transport of lecturers should correspond with this time-table. This, of course, is dependent upon the type and nature of transport available, as well as the distance between the college and participating schools.

fj Schools for student placements and group leaders

This is usually a very difficult task because the subjects which students take at college should correspond with subjects taught in the schools. Although this is not a serious problem with junior primary student teachers, the placement of senior primary student teachers could prove more problematic. This is in view of the fact that senior primary student teachers currently specialise in four teaching subjects, depending upon the grouping in each college. However, this is not the case in schools because a teacher is expected to teach all the subjects.

What is important is that there should be a group leader for all students placed at a particular school. This group leader should perform the following duties:

- * be responsible for the general welfare of student teachers at his or her school;

- * liaise between student teachers and the practising school and also between the students and the college.

g] Pre - practice teaching conference

Colleges should, in consultation with participating schools, organise a conference prior to practice teaching. The practice teaching committee should make arrangements for this conference which principals, co-operating teachers, lecturers and student representatives should attend. This conference should have the following objectives:

- o to decide how student teachers will be supervised and evaluated, e.g. whether marks will be awarded for each lesson or whether comments only will be made;
- o to iron out problems which co-operating teachers and students experience during school -based practice teaching;
- o to improve teaching practice;
- o to discuss how student teachers will be disciplined should there be a violation of rules, e.g. abuse of children, unexplained absence from school;
- o to determine how lecturers or co-operative teachers will be dealt with if they neglect their duties.

Political considerations

It is at the pre-practice teaching conference that this sensitive issue should be dealt with. The fact that there are schools in Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) controlled areas versus those in the African National Congress (ANC) controlled areas could influence school-based practice teaching. The issue and importance of political non-partisanship should be understood clearly by student teachers. Otherwise, if student teachers display their allegiance to

one political party while they are in schools, they can jeopardise the smooth running of school-based practice teaching. This is a serious consideration if one considers that the rivalry between the IFP and the ANC has spilled over into the schools in recent years.

The organisational procedures which are discussed in this section play a crucial role in successful school-based practice teaching due to the following reasons:

- ▶ All stake holders become informed about practice teaching expectations. The problem of conflict of expectations is minimised. Student teachers know what is expected of them during practice teaching. Co-operative teachers know exactly how to supervise student teachers. College lecturers also know exactly what to do once they are in the schools.

- ▶ Besides effective communication alluded to above, the smooth running of the practice teaching programme is likely to lead to a sense of systematisation and order in the minds of student teachers. Things which are done orderly and systematically are likely to influence the students' orderly behaviour once he/she qualifies as a teacher. The smooth running of the programme has thus to do with the development of a positive professional attitude and work ethos.

3.5 CRITERION FOUR: Ability to transfer theory to practice

The relationship between theory and practice in the preparation of teachers is a matter which gives rise to problems in many education systems and is, at times, a decisive factor between theorists in the training institutions and classroom teachers in schools (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1990: 73).

School-based practice teaching can only be effective if student teachers are able to relate theory to practice. Colleges have the responsibility to provide opportunity, guidance and assistance to student teachers to practice how to transfer their theoretical knowledge to practice. In this respect competent, experienced and sympathetic supervising lecturers are key persons. A close and positive relationship between the teacher educator and the student as well as a clear understanding of each other's roles are important pre-requisites (*Ibid*: 73).

Persaud (1992: 82) and Thembela (1985: 1) are of the view that the way in which courses in colleges of education are structured can cause problems when it comes to practical application. Theoretical courses are, for instance, delivered independently of one another to students in a teacher education programme. This creates problems when students are supposed to integrate and transfer theory to practice during school-based practice teaching.

The problem of theory practice dichotomy raised above has implications for divergent views which different lecturers may hold regarding, for instance, how objectives should be stated. The Didactics lecturer may insist on behavioural objectives, whereas the Subject Didactics lecturer may be strongly against behavioural objectives. The problem of transfer of theory to practice can be further compounded if the campus-based practice teaching lecturers believe that objectives can be left out of the lesson preparation. On the other hand, the supervisory lecturer at school may want objectives to be stated in the form of a question and the co-operative teacher may believe that only a vague aim or goal is sufficient .

A situation like this may leave the student so confused that he or she ends up not seeing the value of theoretical knowledge which was learnt at college and, as a result, the student teacher may reject all theoretical knowledge taught at the college. This means that the student teacher will be locked in a cocoon where only primitive ideas about teaching become the permanent status quo of the student's view of teaching. It is exactly this type of unproductive and stagnant view of teaching and learning theories which effective practice teaching should prevent.

Campus - based curriculum content

Four methods which have been found to be particularly effective in accomplishing meaningful transfer from theory to practice are:

a) Lesson preparation

The formal teaching activity is seldom, if ever, the result of intuitive or spontaneous activities by the teacher (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 63). Careful preparation of a lesson is a pre-condition for the success of a lesson. Lesson preparation is a vehicle for the transfer of theory to practice. The amount of preparation a lesson receives will usually determine whether or not the lesson achieves its purpose (Piek, 1984: 62).

Lesson preparation includes the following aspects:

- selection and ordering of learning content
- the introduction of teaching and learning aids
- choice and use of teaching methods (van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 63).

Student teachers should constantly be exposed to both theory and practice of lesson preparation under the controlled conditions of campus-based training. Peer group teaching could, for instance, ensure that student teachers design lessons which find expression in the practical situation of the classroom.

b] Demonstration lessons

A demonstration lesson is usually a model lesson. Demonstrations by experienced practitioners provide models for the learner to observe and take note of. Demonstration lessons must also be supported by a certain amount of information or theory in order that the learner understands what is being done and why (Duminy, *et al.*, 1983: 30).

Before a demonstration lesson is conducted, the student should be given enough theory so as to be able to observe the demonstration accurately and to discuss and evaluate it afterwards. The student should then be given an opportunity to practice the skill or behaviour himself during school-based practice teaching. This could also be achieved through peer group teaching.

It needs to be pointed out that there is no perfect lesson. Demonstration lessons should be so organised that there is time for critical evaluation of the demonstration lesson as suggested above. A critique of a demonstration lesson should highlight both the strong and the weak points of the lesson. Demonstration lessons should thus be seen as a process of professional growth for the one who has been conducting the lesson as well as for those who have been observing the delivery of instruction.

c] Educational media (teaching and learning aids)

The theoretical aspects of educational media should be taught alongside their practical application. Student teachers should not only be taught about educational media, but they should also be afforded the opportunity to handle and operate media as much as possible.

Student teachers and lecturers should never forget that most of the schools in which student teachers will begin their teaching careers have limited facilities (Duminy *et al.*, 1983, 58). This includes lack of electricity (especially in rural areas), a shortage of classroom space and desks, large groups of pupils, shortage of textbooks and very limited duplicating facilities.

In view of the discrepancies cited above, student teachers should be afforded an opportunity to make teaching aids so that they learn to improvise under these circumstances. All items which are made might only require cheap materials, but, if they are made with care and are looked after, they will be excellent aids which will last for many years and which will eventually form media kits (*Ibid.* 58).

d] Micro - teaching (skills practice)

In micro-teaching a student teaches a small part of a lesson to a small group of learners. This is not a complete lesson but an episode within a full lesson. It may last between five and ten minutes and concentrate on one teaching skill; so it is a method of training student teachers intensively in the use of certain skills (*Idib.*: 1).

The practice teaching skills or micro-teaching should be regarded as preparation for the student teacher to improve competence in the preparation of lessons. Although the students' performance of practice teaching is not evaluated, it should contribute to the improvement of the standard of student performance during school-based practice teaching (DET, 1990). The advantage of micro-teaching is that it gives the student teachers the opportunity to practice selected teaching skills in a scaled-down non-threatening environment before they are exposed to the full rigors of the classroom.

Conceptually the pioneers of micro-teaching acknowledged their indebtedness to the behavioural psychology of Skinner. His view was that the process of gaining competency needs to be broken down into a large number of small steps which can be achieved through systematic reinforcing of behaviour (Soobiah, 1983: 4).

There are, however, a large variety of other methods which can supplement these four, as has been expounded in chapter 2 (see section 2.4).

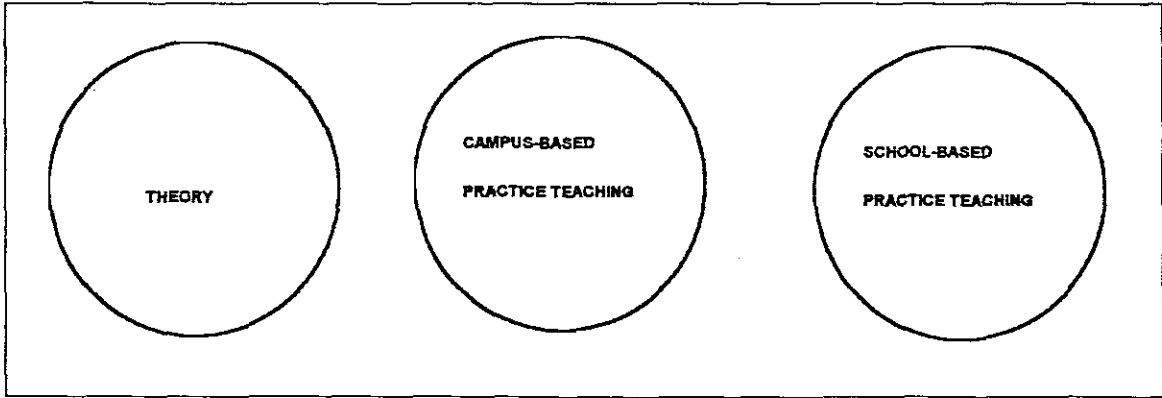
Theoretical Underpinning of Meaningful Didactic Transfer

Turney defines practice teaching as "that body of professional experience during which the student applies, tests and constructs the theory which he is evolving, and during which he further develops his competence as a teacher" (1977: 32). This means that the chief purpose of practice teaching is to lead each student to develop a didactically sound personal theory of teaching which can only be achieved if three components of the students' practice teaching curriculum are well-orchestrated. viz.

- a] Theory (about education, subject content and subject didactic content)
- b] Campus - based Practice Teaching
- c] School - based Practice Teaching.

Transfer from theory to practice is didactically meaningless if these three components remain isolated from each other, as shown in Figure 2.

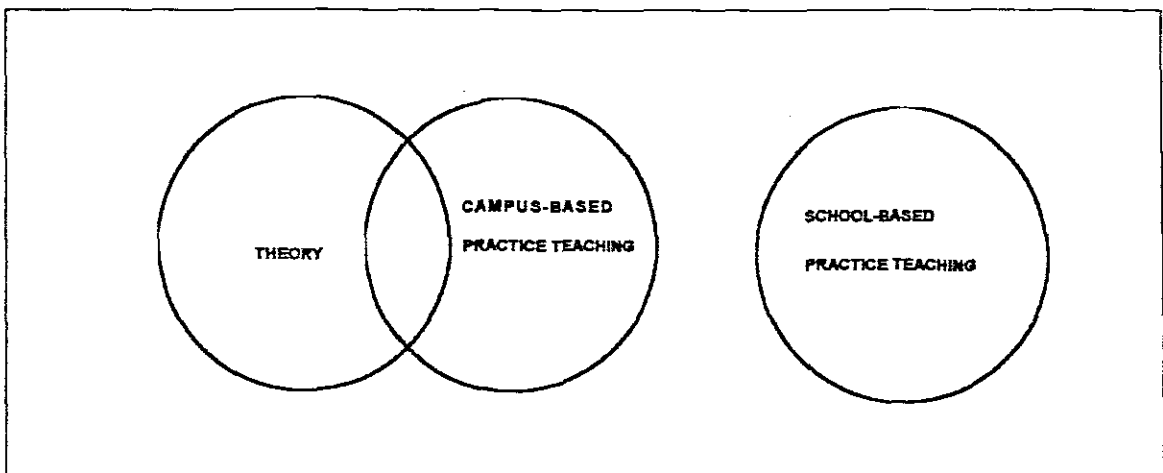
Figure 2: Isolation of theory, campus and school-based teaching practice.



Here the three components are compartmentalised, leaving vacuums or gaps in the student's mind. The student may not see how one component relates to the others. The student's personal theory of teaching is likely to be primitive because it is derived from the student's memories of his/her school days. It is for this reason that some teachers end up teaching as they were taught and therefore be responsible for the perpetuation of the status quo.

Transfer also has little meaning if college-learned knowledge remains separate from school-learned knowledge, even if there is some overlapping between the theoretical component of the college and its campus-based practice teaching component. This situation is illustrated in Figure 3.

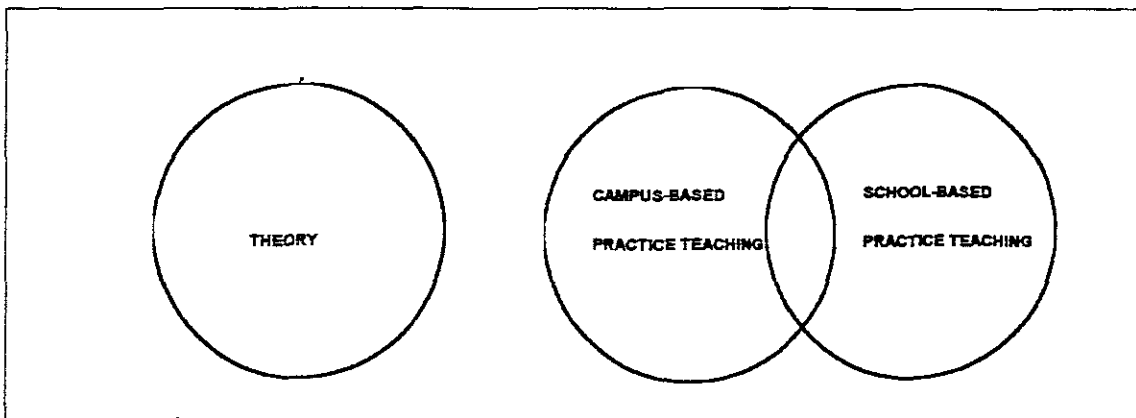
Figure 3: Overlap of theory and campus-based practice teaching.



In terms of Figure 3, the student's theory of teaching is based upon the belief (so often instilled by practising teachers), "Forget everything you have learned at college - it's all impractical, idealistic stuff. At school things are done differently." In this case the student tends to shelve most knowledge acquired at college, thus compartmentalising school-based knowledge. The student plunges into the deep waters, trying to cope with the pressing daily teaching demands without much understanding or direction. Many teachers' theories of teaching hardly develop once they find themselves in this situation.

The theory-practice transfer may be slightly more meaningful when college-learned theory is divorced from the other two components, provided that there is some continuity (overlap) between campus-based and school-based practice teaching. This is conceptually illustrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Overlap between campus and school-based practice teaching



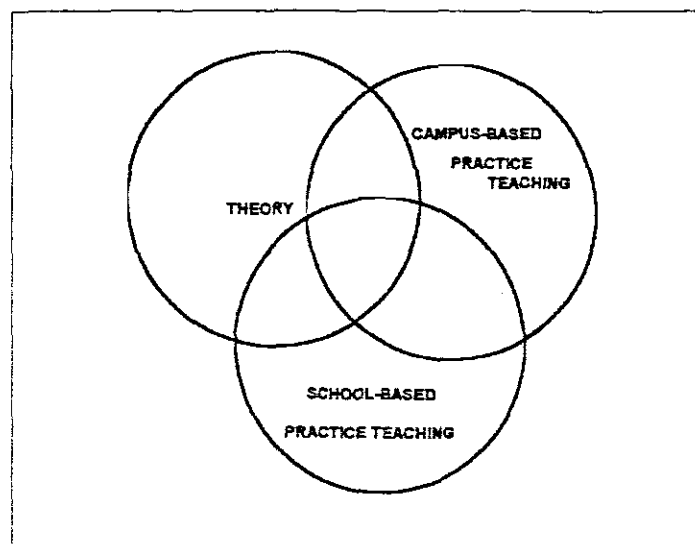
In this case the student's personal theory is, to a limited degree, informed by college - learned skills and techniques which give him some opportunity to solve teaching problems which an unqualified teacher may be unable to solve. The separation of theory from practice, however, may still leave most problems unresolved because a more profound understanding of didactic values may be lacking. The student may, for example, use an overhead projector and transparencies "correctly", as taught during campus-based practice teaching, but use these aids in inappropriate situations, or overuse them because knowledge of important

didactic concepts (lesson structure, developmental stage of the child, need for socialisation, etc.) will be lacking.

Meaningful didactic transfer from theory to practice can only occur if there is congruence, compatibility and continuity between all three components. The most meaningful type of the practice teaching course is one in which students:

- a) learn a theoretical construct (e.g. rationale behind a specific lesson structure)
- b) practice on campus to put this construct into practice until they can do it competently
- c) practice at school to apply the construct in such a way that it makes teaching effective (e.g. teach lessons at schools which have been prepared using the lesson structure taught). The desired situation is conceptually depicted in Figure 5.

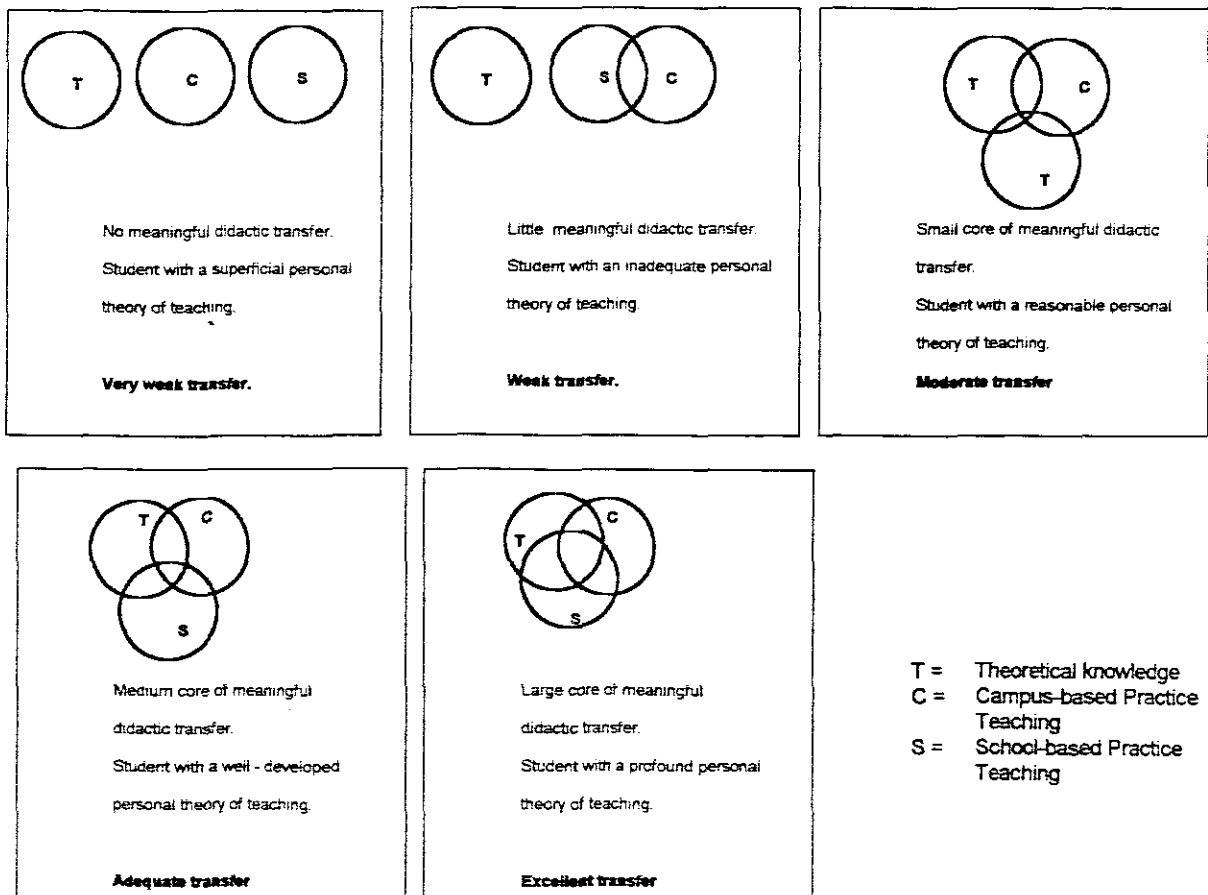
Figure 5: Compatibility and continuity between theory, campus and school-based practice teaching



In South Africa there are probably Practice Teaching Curricula characterised by features of all types illustrated in Figures 2 - 5. The crux of the paradigm being developed in this thesis, however, is that there should be meaningful didactic transfer from theory to practice as shown in Figure 5.

It stands to reason that, in a perfect world, the three circles representing theory, campus-based practice teaching and school-based practice teaching (see Figure. 5) should collapse into one. All the theory taught at college should be practised both on campus and in schools. Unfortunately this type of situation is almost impossible to attain. The most that can be hoped for is that student teachers should all experience meaningful didactic transfer during practice teaching. No doubt some students will experience this to a smaller and others to a greater extent, creating personal theories of teaching differentially. This notion is illustrated in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Meaningful didactic transfer



It is also important to note that the ability of a student to transfer theory to practice is dependent on many variables, such as the intelligence and character of the student, the relationship between students, the structure of the college curriculum and the quality of the lecturers. It is important to realise, however, that all other criteria listed here (effective partnership, college theoretical preparation, effective organisation, effective supervision and time-on-task) are dependent on and determined by this pivotal criterion: ***the ability to transfer theory to practice.***

A didactically-justifiable paradigm for practice teaching should be one which would enable all students to achieve meaningful didactic transfer from theory to practice. In terms of the theory set out above, this means that an effective practice teaching course should have a large core created by a strong integration of college-learned theory, campus-based practice teaching and school-based practice teaching. This does not mean that all students will develop **profound** personal theories of teaching (see Figure. 5). Each student is obviously a unique individual with a unique ability to transfer theory to practice; some will develop weaker personal theories and others stronger personal theories. However, if the course is based on a didactic paradigm which strongly emphasises the necessity of a three-fold integration of the three curriculum components outlined here, the chances are that even weak students will develop **reasonable** personal theories of teaching, while high achieving students may very well emerge from the training with **profound** personal theories of teaching. In fact, if this criterion is met, it would be impossible for students to qualify as teachers if they have **superficial** or inadequate personal theories of teaching (on the lines illustrated in Figure. 6).

3.6 CRITERION FIVE: Effective Supervision

There seems to be no doubt that the supervision of practice teaching is a vital element in the process of pre-service teacher preparation.

One question which this investigation will address is: Who should supervise practice teaching - the co-operating teacher or the lecturer? The discussion below will therefore look into the role of the co-operating teacher as well as that of the college lecturer. The view being propagated is that the supervision of practice teaching can only be effective if both co-operating teachers and college lecturers play their part during school-based practice teaching.

3.6.1 Supervision by co-operating teachers

In chapter 2 the role and influence of the co-operating teacher as a master teacher was discussed (see the Apprentice Approach sub-section 2.4.1). This shows that the supervision of practice teaching has traditionally been done by teachers in schools since the inception of teacher training. This is also partly in line with the Internship Approach, as discussed in chapter 2 (see sub-section 2.4.5).

The responsibility of the co-operating teacher during school-based practice teaching has been highlighted by many research findings. For purposes of this thesis the following research is quoted:

Dow (1979: 197) reports that "if teaching practice is the linchpin in a course of teacher education, it follows that teachers in practice schools have a central place. It is not only inevitable that this should be so: it is also desirable." This is important if one takes into account that co-operating teachers naturally spend more time with student teachers in schools, particularly in the classroom.

Govender (1988: 28) also emphasises the influence of co-operating teachers when he says: "the most significant person in practice teaching is the teacher to whom the student is attached. In many ways he holds the key to the student's success in teaching practice

because of his direct and continuous influence during the block teaching periods". He hastens to mention that this may not be the case because of the following reasons:

- some teachers regard teaching practice as an intrusion into their scheme of things which disrupts their planned instructional activities;
- many teachers find it cumbersome to assist and guide students in planning and preparation in helping with resource material, supervision and assessment of lessons and having post-teaching conferences with students;
- there are many young and inexperienced teachers who have no supervisory expertise to guide the students. Above all, they do not know what is expected of them in the supervision and evaluation of students;
- consequently, such teachers tend to give unrealistically high assessments and leave the student with no scope for growth and development (Govender 1988: 28)

Despite the above stated problems regarding the supervision of practice teaching by co-operating teachers, the following roles have been defined:

- to familiarise the student teacher with expectations;
- to orient the student teacher to school;
- to plan a programme for the student teacher during teaching practice;
- to structure teaching practice to enable the student teacher to progress from the simple to the more complex activities;

- to outline objectives and lessons to be taught ;
- to demonstrate teaching techniques;
- to assist with planning;
- to provide resource material;
- to explain and demonstrate the implementation of classroom organisation, management and control strategies;
- to observe students' lessons;
- to analyse students' performances and provide a feedback to the student on a formative basis;
- to encourage a distinctive personal style by engaging in a variety of teaching tasks and consistently utilising self-evaluation;
- to complete an evaluation profile to be submitted at the end of practice teaching (Govender 1988: 28).

Unlike the medical, legal and other professions, it seems as if teaching has yet to assume professional status in South Africa. The awareness of belonging to a profession is built into the programme of a medical student, a law student or an engineering student. The argument being advanced here is that there is very little in our teacher education programmes that can make our students feel that they are preparing for a profession (Falayajo, 1976: 299). Although professionalisation of teaching is not the subject of this thesis, the view that is held here is that practice teaching is the most obviously professional aspect of our teacher education programme. The role of co-operating teachers is critical in any effort at the

professionalisation of teaching. The supervision of student teachers by co-operating teachers during school-based practice teaching should be done in a professional way.

3.6.2 Supervision by college lecturers

Research findings support the idea that college lecturers should occupy a visible role in the supervision of practice teaching (Nel, 1991: 123; Govender, 1988: 27).

In most teacher education institutions in this country, practice teaching is more assessment-oriented than guidance-oriented (Govender, 1988: 27). Student teachers have to be assessed to fulfil the practice teaching requirements. The supervisory lecturers are assigned a certain number of students to be assessed during practice teaching. Three factors regarding supervision by college lecturers are noteworthy, viz. common problems, clinical supervision and self-evaluation.

3.6.2.1 COMMON PROBLEMS

When practice teaching supervision is done by college lecturers the following two problems usually arise:

- ◆ Large number of student teachers to be supervised by each lecturer.

The following statistics regarding evaluation of student teachers in one KwaZulu college indicate the magnitude of the problem of large student numbers.

<u>Period for practice teaching</u>	<u>13 to 26 July</u>
Number of days:	10
Staff available for evaluation:	37
Number of students to be evaluated:	266
Number of lessons evaluated:	1467
Average number of lessons per evaluator	40:

(Walters, 1988: 22)

In view of the picture painted above, Govender (1988: 27) is apparently correct to maintain that because of large student numbers there is little time for proper diagnosis, analysis and post-teaching discussion and immediate follow-up.

◆ Non-specialist supervisory lecturers.

In Chapter 1 (see section 1.3.4 [c]) the problem of practice teaching supervision by lecturers who are not experts in particular subjects was raised. The possibility of this state of affairs cannot be discounted in a situation where college lecturers have to contend with large numbers of students to be evaluated. In some institutions the education lecturers are required to supervise students on teaching practice even though they do not have the necessary expertise in particular subjects. The danger here is that the students may not get the expert guidance of the specialist and also may get away by presenting wrong subject matter in a dynamic way (Govender 1988: 27).

For practice teaching to be effective it should be done by lecturers who are familiar with both the content and subject didactics of the subject in question. If lecturers evaluate subjects in which they have no expertise, it stands to reason that student teachers will benefit less from the evaluation than if

lecturers are fully *au fait* with the theoretical and practical aspects of that specific study field.

3.6.2.2 CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Whether practice teaching is done by co-operating teachers or supervisory lectures, clinical supervision should be an important part of student development. This form of supervision assumes various forms and stages according to different authorities (Oliva, 1993: 483). What is important regarding clinical supervision is that

- there is some kind of contract or communication with the supervisor prior to lesson observation;
- there is some kind of classroom observation; and
- there is some kind of follow-up of the observation. For purposes of this investigation the stages in clinical observation can be depicted as indicated in Figure 7.

Figure. 7: Clinical supervision



3.6.2.3 STUDENT SELF-EVALUATION

Student teachers should be afforded the opportunity to develop their own practical evaluation skills. In this regard the six questions listed by Ashton *et al.* (1983: 41) can be used as perceptual jumping boards to assist students in acquiring sound self-evaluation habits. At the end of each lesson a student should ask himself the following questions:

- What did the pupils actually do?
- What were they learning?
- How worthwhile was it?
- What did I do?
- What did I learn?
- What do I intend to do now? (Ashton *et al.*, 1983: 41).

Self-evaluation can also be useful in discovering how realistic student perceptions are of their own teaching and how much their appraisals differ from the appraisals of the co-operating teachers or college lecturers. Both co-operating teachers and college lecturers should guide student teachers in evaluating their own lessons.

The importance of self-evaluation during practice teaching has the following long term advantages:

✓ Student empowerment

Self evaluation leads to student empowerment because students have a say in their evaluation. Student empowerment goes hand in hand with democratic values. Teachers have the responsibility to help children to grow up to be empowered citizens who are able and willing to participate fully and intelligently in a democracy. In South Africa it seems urgent that children should grow up dedicated to the worth and dignity of each individual, to recognise the need to balance the rights of the individual against the rights of the rest of the society, and to value and work towards the democratic ideal of equity (Ross *et al.*, 1993: 5). Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 159) seem to support this view when they contend that the spirit of the age and moral order of society form the background against which the child's education must be projected. The same holds true for student teachers. Self-evaluation

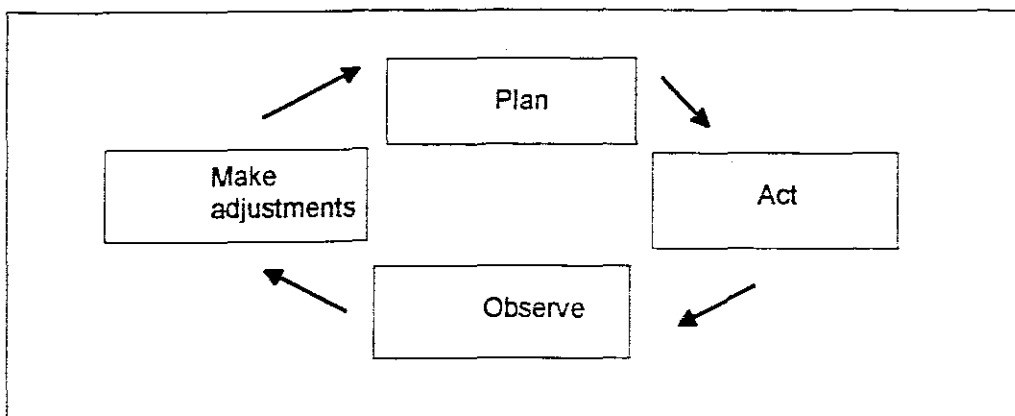
of student teachers is thus recommended since it means student empowerment.

✓ Reflective teaching

Reflective teaching is a technique of analysing one's teaching skills (Cruickshank, 1985: 704). Self-evaluation during practice teaching will enable students to develop an attitude of analysing their own teaching, i.e. reflective teaching. This will in turn help them to sharpen their perceptions of everyday realities of their teaching when they become teachers. Reflective teaching has the advantage of making teachers critical of their own teaching. Advocates of this position argue that the responsibilities of teachers have been too narrowly defined and that only by helping teachers to see themselves as bearers of critical knowledge, rules and values, through which they can problematise the fundamental relationships of teaching and learning, can we hope to change the disabling image of teachers as primarily technicians or public servants whose role is to implement rather than to conceptualise pedagogic practice (Giroux and McLaren, 1987: 279).

Ross *et al.* (1993: 19) present the following cycle of reflective teaching as shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8 : Cycle of reflective teaching



Adapted from Ross *et al.* (1993)

During the planning process (plan) the teacher makes a decision regarding a problem solution strategy. The next step is the implementation of a plan (act), observe what happens (observe) and make judgements about the relative success or failure of the plan in terms of goals and ethical commitments (make adjustments).

3.7 CRITERION SIX: Time-on-task

This refers to the quality use of time by student teachers during school-based practice teaching. The opposite of quality use of time is **stagnant** time. This is when student teachers are physically and mentally uninvolved or inactive or when they do things in a robot-like fashion without finding meaning or fulfilment out of it all. Combs *et al.* express this idea very well when they state: "The effective teacher must be somebody. He is not a passive baby sitter meekly following instructions ... Neither does he hide behind his subject matter and pour out objective facts like a robot." (1974: 80). Quality time during practice teaching is that time when the student teachers modify their own beliefs and understandings of their own pupils and themselves in such a way that personal exploration, discovery of meaning and growth occur.

In this section quality of time will be discussed in relation to approaches discussed in Chapter 2.

3.7.1 QUALITY OF TIME IN THE APPRENTICESHIP APPROACH

In this approach quality of time means the time the student teacher spends imitating the master teacher. The purpose of practice teaching in this approach is to give the student as much experience as possible with the master teacher always in attendance. This concept of quality of time is questionable because the master teacher is likely to try to place too much emphasis on imitation. The master teacher would, for instance, try to make the student into

the same kind of teacher as he or she is, not leaving enough room for the student to develop his or her own unique style. "It simply does not follow that what is good for the expert is good for the novice too" (Combs, *et al.* 1974: 4).

The advantage of this perception of the quality of time is that the student receives many demonstration lessons from the teacher - an element which may be lacking in other approaches. This benefit of the apprentice approach should not be ignored.

3.7.2 QUALITY OF TIME IN THE CBTE APPROACH

In terms of this approach the quality of time is related to the help that is given to students to master specific skills, e.g. classroom management. The purpose of practice teaching is to enable student teachers to acquire specific classroom skills.

In CBTE use of quality time is controversial because there are many variables which effect teaching and learning in the classroom. The emphasis of this approach on skills undermines the whole accountability process and invalidates many research findings, especially at a level of learning outcomes (Tait, 1988: 79). Another misconception is that a good teacher is one who spends time in class demonstrating technical skills. The creative freedom of a teacher is likely to be impeded since CBTE tends to dehumanise education.

The advantage concerning the perception of quality time in the CBTE approach is that it is possible to develop particular skills under controlled conditions. Micro-teaching is one skills-based aspect of relating theory to practice. Quality time in this case would be related to the skills which a student teacher acquires.

3.7.3 QUALITY-TIME IN THE HUMANISTIC APPROACH

In the humanistic approach quality time relates to the growth which is displayed by student teachers as a result of practice teaching. The needs of each student are thus of paramount importance according to this approach. Quality time can be realised by assigning a group of students to a tutor or co-operating teacher for a sustained period in order to foster development of a trusting relationship. This would have to be provided for in the curriculum. Emphasis in the groups is on counselling and support and developing a 'know thyself' philosophy (Combs, *et al.* 1976: 110).

Quality in terms of time could be affected by cost factors, especially in terms of school placements. This becomes serious if one considers that teachers in schools generally have little or no training in counselling skills and humanistic psychology (Du Plessis, 1985: 49). Even college lecturers sometimes lack expertise in this regard.

The advantage concerning quality time in the humanistic approach is that the affective domain of student teachers is attended to. The affective parameters of becoming a teacher are concerned with the feelings and emotions which allow a teacher to say "I teach. I am a good teacher. I am accepted as a teacher and I am proud of being a good teacher" (Davis, 1981: 69).

In support of his contention, Davis points to evidence which suggests that "at the pre-service student teaching and first year teacher stages of preparation, the affective domain may take precedence over the cognitive domain in shaping teachers' perception of their ability (1981: 76).

3.7.4 QUALITY TIME IN THE IT-INSET APPROACH

In terms of this approach quality use of time is related to the working relationship between teachers, students and college personnel on a particular aspect of the curriculum. In other words, the purpose of practice teaching is to break the isolation of being a class teacher, a student of practice teaching or a supervising lecturer. The concept of quality time is questionable at a logistic level. Is it, for instance, not possible that more time can be spent on the logistics of the exercise rather than on the implementation of the programme?

The dividends of the use of quality time however, can be realised in the renewal of the school system. This is possible because the input of the student, the teacher and college lecturer can assist in the process of curriculum development.

3.7.5 QUALITY TIME IN THE INTERNSHIP APPROACH

Quality time in this approach means more time which student teachers spend in schools practising the art of teaching under the guidance of practising teachers. The purpose of practice teaching is thus to provide the student teachers with school reality over a prolonged period.

The concept of quality time could be problematic in a situation where there is a prolongation of practice teaching when teachers in schools have not been trained in supervision of practice teaching. Prolonging the students' stay at school under such conditions could be a waste of time rather than quality time. This could lead to miseducative experiences by the students.

The advantage, though, is that prolonged practice in school could enrich the students' experiences about the finer points of a didactic situation and school reality. The assumption

here is that students will be able to test most of their theoretical assumptions over a long period of school experience.

3.7.6 QUALITY TIME IN THIS STUDY

In this study quality time implies the integration of the major elements of the approaches discussed above. This is explained below.

First, an effective school-based practice teaching programme should give a student teacher as much practice as possible with an experienced (master) teacher. The apprenticeship approach should thus have some place.

Second, it is argued that no teacher can be effective unless he possesses particular skills to handle the realities of the classroom. The CBTE approach should be catered for in the practice teaching curriculum.

Third, the centrality of student teachers and the need for them to establish a proper working relationship with tutors is acknowledged in this study. No practice teaching curriculum can be effective if this is not taken into account. This, obviously, implies elements from the Humanistic Approach.

Fourth, Greater collaborative action has the potential to change the pattern of teachers working in isolation in closed cellular classroom unity. This is catered for by the IT-INSET approach. This study realises that quality time is attainable if some IT-INSET elements are part of the practice teaching curriculum.

Fifth, prolonged exposure to the realities of the school situation is acknowledged with reference to qualitative aspects of time in this study. The Internship Approach should therefore also have a role to play if practice teaching is to be effective.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The six criteria discussed above will form the basis of the proposed didactic paradigm for practice teaching. It is hoped that the products of such a curriculum will not only unlock reality for the learners, but that learners will be taught in such a manner that the content becomes part of their lives. This is possible if the unlocking of reality takes into account the elementals as well as the fundamentals in the teaching-learning situation.

Such a curriculum should mould the character of student teachers so that they are in line with the norms and values that are expected of a qualified teacher, notwithstanding the fact that spontaneity is essential in a teaching situation.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL DIDACTIC **CONSTRUCTS OF A** **PRACTICE TEACHING** **CURRICULUM**

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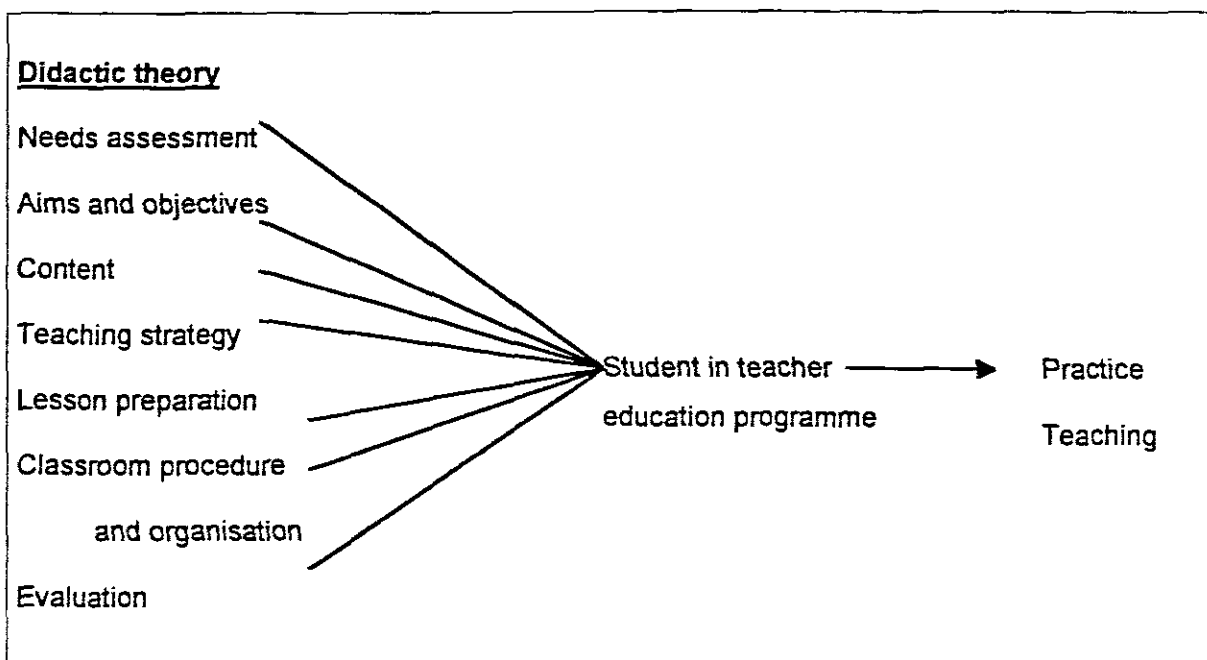
CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL DIDACTIC CONSTRUCTS OF A PRACTICE TEACHING CURRICULUM

4.1 INTRODUCTION

It was argued in Chapter 3 that college theoretical preparation should form the basis for school-based practice teaching. In this chapter some fundamental features which should form the theoretical basis for school-based practice teaching will be outlined. This is reflected in Figure 9.

Figure 9 : The relationship between didactic theory and practice teaching



The above diagram depicts didactic theory in relation to practice teaching. A student teacher in a teacher education programme should be thoroughly acquainted with didactic theory which informs classroom teaching during practice teaching. The relationship between theory and practice lies in the fact that theory forms the basis for teaching. Student teachers should be well-grounded in didactic theory before they are sent out to schools for practice teaching.

In this thesis the points listed under Didactic Theory in Figure 9 are called **didactic constructs**. The rest of this chapter will centre upon the seven didactic constructs which underpin the paradigm: needs assessment, aims and objectives, content, teaching strategy, lesson preparation, classroom procedure and evaluation (see Figure 9). Each construct will be discussed under three subheadings, namely:

- description of the construct
- significance of the construct
- Themes to be included in the curriculum

4.2 NEEDS ASSESSMENT

4.2.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Different authors describe needs assessment in different ways. In order to gain clarity regarding needs assessment the following authors' views will be revisited.

- a) Krüger and Müller (1988: 24-25, 28-33)

These authors use terms such as "situation analysis", "determining the needs" and "the entry situation" to refer to needs assessment. Krüger and Müller maintain that

each teaching-learning situation is aimed at a certain need. There are the needs of the pupils as well as societal needs. This demands a thorough analysis of the teaching-learning situation, hence the situation analysis. The pupils' entry situation is the term used when the entry level, as well as the pupils' ability to give meaning to the didactic demands of the classroom, are determined (Krüger and Müller, 1988: 25).

b. Davis (1981: 128-133)

Davis (1981: 128) views needs assessment as the basis from which all instruction and learning spring. It is regarded as an essential step in the planning process which involves identifying needs, setting priorities, and selecting strategies. The emphasis here is on the needs of learners and learning.

c] Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 212-213)

These authors refer to level of readiness and disposition of the learner. They feel that learners should be intellectually and affectively ready for the content to be effectively presented. For these authors needs assessment means assessing the level of readiness and disposition of the learner (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 212 - 213).

d.] Fraser et al. (1990: 84)

Fraser *et al.* are of the view that situation analysis should include the following five important variables:

- the learner
- the tutor
- the learning content

- society
- the didactic environment (Fraser *et al.*, 1990: 84).

e] Yule (1991: 34)

Yule (1991: 34) uses the term analysis of the present situation to refer to needs assessment. He suggests that the teacher should ask the following questions:

- What is the background of the pupils?
- What are their present skills?
- What is the number of pupils in the class?
- What is their motivation towards learning the subject?
- How available are various teaching aids and media?
- Is the teacher skilled to use them?
- How much time is available to complete the task?
- What effect will the completion of the task have on the teacher himself, the pupils, his colleagues, the principal or parents?
- What support (pupils, colleagues, services) is necessary and available to attempt the task?
- What means can be identified to achieve the set goals and/or objectives?

f] Conclusion

Even though the above authors describe needs assessment from different angles, what is apparent is that needs assessment refers to the totality of the factors which are likely to affect the teaching-learning situation. These factors can be summarised as follows:

- the pupil's background

- ♦ the pupil's prior knowledge
- ♦ the nature of pupil
- ♦ cultural and environmental factors
- ♦ the teacher and his/ her personality
- ♦ the anticipated and real entry situation of the pupil

In as far as this study is concerned all these factors should comprise needs assessment. Needs assessment is the most important didactic construct because it forms the basis for other constructs. If something, for instance, goes wrong with the lesson at this level it is likely that the whole lesson will not go well. That is why it concerns a reflection on all the factors and variables which impose conditions and limitations on, and provide guidelines for, the meaningful implementation of didactic activities in the didactic situation (Fraser *et al.*, 1990: 188).

4.2.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT

It is necessary that student teachers should be taught needs assessment in their practice teaching curriculum due to the following reasons:

a] Needs assessment affects objectives

Each lesson should have particular objectives to be achieved at the end of it. Objectives should, however, take into account the pupil's entry situation, hence the significance of needs assessment. The objectives for the teaching of English vocabulary, for example, should take into account the age of pupils, their intelligence, the teacher's teaching style, as well as cultural and environmental factors. Student teachers should also know that the objectives for the English vocabulary for Std. 2 may not be the same as those for Std. 6. Even objectives of a

lesson for English speaking pupils may differ from those for non-English speaking pupils.

b] Needs assessment affects content

The very question: "Which learning content do I intend to present?" signifies the importance of needs assessment in as far as the content is concerned. The content which is taught to the learners determines needs assessment. A mathematics lesson will have a different focus for needs assessment when compared with a history lesson.

c] Needs assessment affects methods

The challenge for any student teacher is to present the learning content so that pupils will be eager to know more about it. The method which is used should take into account the entry situation of the learners.

The method of teaching slow learners should be different from that of teaching gifted pupils. Teachers should, for instance, allow longer time for answers from slow learners, and this can be accommodated if the teacher has done needs assessment. Needs assessment can help a teacher to understand the type of pupils he or she is dealing with.

The use of inductive and deductive methods of teaching has implications for needs assessment; hence the stage of development of learners. Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 99) are of the view that the deductive method is convenient for younger children because the operation is directed by the child's spontaneous affective approach to the surrounding reality. The child's practical-active form of existence is clearly reflected in the quality of generalisation which is so characteristic of the

deductive approach. On the other hand, the inductive approach is said to be far more effective for more advanced children.

d] Needs assessment affects evaluation

Evaluation has got to do with the question: "What was the result of my teaching?" If teaching results are positive they are usually accepted and no further explanation is sought. If the result is negative it justifies a thorough investigation to determine the reason for the unexpectedly poor achievement. Such an investigation takes place during the post-interactive lesson phase (Krüger and Müller, 1988: 154).

The pupils' entry situation will influence evaluation. Evaluation will, for instance, show whether the pupils' anticipated situation was realistically anticipated. The pupils' underachievement in a lesson could, for instance, have been due to inadequate prior knowledge of the subject, thus indicating that the previous lesson had also been unsuccessful.

If student teachers have this theoretical background in their teaching course it does appear that they will be better teachers. The importance of needs assessment as a didactic construct cannot be over-emphasised.

4.2.3 NEEDS ASSESSMENT:

TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- a] Reality shock: The theoretical preparation of student teachers should be such that it prepares them for reality shock (practice shock). Students should, for instance, be taught that needs assessment is unfortunately sometimes neglected in schools where the emphasis is on finishing the syllabus. This appears to be the case particularly in black schools.

- b] Cultural and environmental factors in which teaching takes place. The following is a source which could be consulted on this topic: Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 6, 40 - 43).
- c] How do pupils' profiles analyses effect teaching e.g. how many low SES? How many middle SES? How many high SES? (Persaud, 1992: 14).
- d] How to determine the learning styles of pupils e.g. doers, feelers, observers and conceptualisers. (Persaud, 1992: 14).
- e] The importance of needs assessment. Davis (1981: 128 - 133); Yule (1991: 34); Lorber and Pierce (1983: 68 - 78).

4.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

4.3.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this study aims are seen as long term goals which a particular lesson hopes to realise. Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 99) do not distinguish between aims and objectives. Yet in this study it is accepted that aims direct objectives because they are broader in nature; they are stated in more abstract and vague terms and concern more distant expectations e.g. "to help the pupils to understand and appreciate the importance of climate in their lives".

Objectives are defined as what the learner should be able to do after learning has taken place. They give a clear indication of the subject content by way of which learning takes place e.g. "the pupils will, at the end of the period, be able to read the temperature on an ordinary Celsius thermometer".

There are behavioural and non-behavioural objectives in teaching, as described, for instance, by Cohen and Manion (1977: 47 - 52).

4.3.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

a) Aims make student teachers aware of long term teaching goals

That education can only be realised through teaching cannot be overemphasised. Van der Stoep *et al.* (1973: 7) quite rightly state that educators are, in the main, able to achieve their goal by their intensive teaching of children. This implies that student teachers should know about particular teaching aims which will be based on the educative aims. For instance, general pedagogic aims give rise to subject content aims. The aims which are found in the syllabus of a particular subject should be related to broader educative and teaching aims. Stuart (1985: 36) puts this argument in perspective when he says: "The realisation of the syllabus aims contributes to the child's gradual mastering of the life content by which adults live which allows him to move closer to proper adulthood".

b) Objectives enable student teachers to be precise in the formulation of lesson objectives

The objectives of a lesson, especially behavioural objectives, specify precisely what the pupils need to learn in the lesson. Piek (1984: 63) reports that, when writing teaching objectives, the teacher needs to specify the following:

- ✓ what pupils will be able to do at the end of the lesson
- ✓ the important conditions under which the performance will occur, and

- ✓ criteria for the performance - how it will be observed and perhaps measured.

c] Objectives serve as a guide for selection and presenting learning content

The objectives stipulate what is expected of the pupils in order to prove that they have acquired a portion of learning content. Being clear about objectives will help the student teacher decide which content, how much content (selection) and in what order (organisation) to present it (Krüger and Müller, 1988: 40).

The way in which content is presented is related to the objectives which have been set. If pupils are largely expected to reproduce the content at the end of the lesson, the lecture method would probably be used. If the objective requires application, methods of teaching which encourages insight would be used.

d] Aims and objective encourage purposeful teaching

If aims and objectives are not properly taught in the practice teaching curriculum, it is possible that student teachers can teach lessons which are without any purpose. Student teachers should not only be taught about lesson aims and objectives, but they should also practice writing them. Enough time should be set aside for practice. Purpose in teaching should also mean that student teachers are sensitised by the rationale behind some of the aims. For instance, what could be the reason for studying the Magna Carta and not the Freedom Charter in South Africa?

e] Objectives serve as motivators to learners

When the teacher tells the pupils what the objectives of the lesson are, pupils are more likely to be motivated. This could be the case if the pupils are told about the

objectives of a lesson at the beginning. Fraser *et al.* (1990: 56) take this argument further when they say: "Clear objectives alone contribute little to motivating learners, but the design and announcement of interesting and striking learning outcomes in the future should motivate learners". Objectives should thus be such that they offer challenges and possibilities, as well as being relevant to the future.

f] Objectives promote rational and scientific teaching

Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 58, 64) refer to rationality as a didactic criterion and to the scientific character as a didactic principle. When student teachers practice the application of objectives in their didactic designs their teaching will not be based on intuition. Without clear objectives student teachers are likely to be haphazard in their teaching. In this case there may be lack of harmony between form and content.

4.3.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES: TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- ◆ Educative teaching and learning aims as advocated by the following authors: Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 127 - 8), Stuart (1985: 36), McFarland (1973: 51 - 52).
- ◆ Classification of learning objectives, Lorber and Pierce (1983: 40 - 64); Stuart (1985: 39 - 45)
- ◆ Behavioural and non-behavioural objectives, Cohen and Manion (1977: 41-52)
- ◆ Criteria for evaluating objectives, Krüger and Müller (1988: 42 - 43).

4.4 CONTENT

4.4.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: CONTENT

Content refers to that which is presented at school in the form of the curriculum (Stuart, 1985: 23). In this way the curriculum is viewed as a document wherein the content is included. This is, of course, a limited view of the curriculum because it does not include the hidden aspects of the curriculum.

Every education department has a list of subjects to be taught, as well as its approved syllabi (which are often accompanied by detailed manuals). Content occupies a central place in the teaching learning situation because all suggested experiences are realised through content. The following authors seem to be in line with this description of content: Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 99), Krüger and Müller (1988: 56), Arends (1988: 107 - 109).

Whilst the researcher accepts the above description of content as given, it is felt that there are hidden aspects of the curriculum which find expression in the content, as explained in the first paragraph. Although the hidden curriculum usually has limited outcomes, it does affect the way in which it is received by the learner as well as its impact on the learner. The holistic view of the curriculum which takes into account the overt and covert aspects of it is adopted for purposes of this study.

4.4.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CONTENT

a] It acts as a vehicle to accomplish objectives

Lorber and Pierce (1983: 87) support this view when they contend that content consists of the basic information the student will need to achieve the objective. If the aim of education is to reach adulthood, content offers the child the opportunity to understand the values and norms which are valid in the living world of adults.

b] To fill the gaps in the mind of the learner

If the content is properly selected it will help in filling the gaps in the minds of the learner. Proper selection of content should also link up with the entry situation as well as the anticipated situation of the learner. If student teachers do not have this theoretical understanding it is likely that their selection and sequencing of content would be didactically unsound.

c] Content influences method and evaluation

The method of teaching mathematics is different from that of teaching English due to the difference in content of these subjects. In this way the method which is used is influenced by content. The challenge for the teacher is to combine learning content with method in a meaningful way so as to optimally realise the objective (Krüger and Müller, 1988: 59).

When lesson evaluation takes place the teacher should ask the following question: "Was the learning content selected and organised judiciously?" In this way evaluation will be influenced by content. This also implies that there is a relationship between the lesson objective, content and evaluation. Evaluation basically means establishing whether the lesson objective is being realised.

d] Content enables teachers to implement the syllabus

The relationship between the syllabus and content has already been suggested (see a] above). What is taught (content) appears in the syllabus. The syllabus therefore cannot exist without content. The syllabus serves as a guideline for compiling a scheme of work which is a systematic arrangement of the syllabus into specific units of work. It is necessary to mention that a teacher can use the content to implement

the syllabus if he knows the content. "When this pillar of content is weak, it must certainly affect the whole building of efficient teaching..." (Duminy *et al.*, 1990: 96).

e] Teachers must learn the sequencing of content in order to teach logically

Content is normally presented in different phases. These phases are: the introductory phase, the middle phase and the closing phase (Stuart, 1985: 57). The significance of content lies in the fact that the sequencing of content must be logical. A teacher may not start the lesson with a closing phase without attending to the introductory phase of a lesson. These phases are also complementary to each other, which is why these phases do not have to be concluded in one period. Whilst they should form part of a lesson during each period they form a link with other lessons.

The actualisation of the prior knowledge, for example, implies that a pupil is already in possession of some pre-knowledge which can link up with the new lesson theme. In this case the teacher will have to make use of knowledge already gained from previous lessons.

Student teachers should not only learn the content but it is important that they learn how to organise it in order that they teach logically.

f] Deductive and inductive ordering of content helps student teachers to become flexible and therefore able to adjust according to the needs of the situation.

The teacher chooses to use the deductive or inductive approach to teaching in accordance with the dictates of the situation. The nature of the learning content, the readiness of the child, the teaching conditions, the available teaching and learning

aids, the time available etc., are all factors which influence the choice of methodological principles (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 100).

Certain subjects such as mathematics or science can be understood effectively by means of the inductive approach. This approach is relevant for younger children because the exploration is carried out or directed by the child's spontaneous approach to the surrounding reality. The deductive ordering of content is usually considered to be more effective for more advanced children. Flexibility arises in a didactic situation when the teacher knows the right conditions for the application of either approach.

4.4.3 CONTENT: TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- How to draw schemes of work: Cohen and Manion (1977: 56 - 61); Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 105); Piek (1984: 59 - 60).
- Content of teaching subjects: Van der Stoep and Van der Stoep (1973: 30 - 35); Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 10); Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 41-42).
- Reduction of learning content Stuart (1985: 17 - 20), Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 129 - 130).
- Deductive and inductive ordering of materials: Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 99 - 100).

4.5 TEACHING STRATEGIES

4.5.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT:

TEACHING STRATEGY

In this study teaching strategy refers to the overall plan the teacher wishes to carry out in order to transmit learning content (Krüger and Müller, 1988: 78). This overall plan of action suggests a particular teaching approach called a strategy. The strategy which a teacher selects will be in accordance with the approach adopted in the lesson.

Didactic ground forms are viewed as part of the teaching strategies as Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 171) suggest. They are employed in the act of teaching with the direct aim of making content available to the child.

Teaching methods are part of the teaching strategy according to Eliot (1984: 31). When one discusses a teaching method, the idea of a teaching strategy is inescapable. Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 56) view a teaching method as a variety of classroom activities planned by the teacher for a particular lesson.

The view taken in this study is that the teaching strategy has both the method of teaching and didactic ground forms as part of it. Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 89) have identified didactic ground forms with certain teaching methods as reflected below:

- play: drill or exercise, demonstration, experimentation, question and answer

- conversation: question and answer, narrative, demonstration, free activity

- example: experimenting, handbook (textbook), demonstration, drill or exercise, question and answer
- instruction: textbook, drill or exercise, experimentation, narrative, demonstration, question and answer

A teaching strategy which a teacher adopts will thus take into account both the method of teaching and didactic ground forms.

4.5.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF TEACHING STRATEGIES

a) To give direction to the lesson

A well-thought-out teaching strategy enables a teacher to know the direction which the lesson should take. If a teacher wants to adopt a strategy which will bring about pupil participation, such participation will not be haphazard if it is part of the overall plan and direction which the lesson should take. If the lesson has a clear direction pupils are likely to learn optimally.

b) It enables a teacher to adopt a holistic approach to lesson preparation

When a teacher prepares a lesson he/she should look at it holistically. It is the teaching strategy which enables him to do this. Since the teaching strategy is part of the overall plan which the teacher carries out in transmitting content, it enables him/her to look at all the facets of a lesson.

When one wants to adopt a teaching strategy for a lesson on "Expansion of metal due to heat", one has to bear the following ingredients of the lesson in mind:

- What is the entry level of learners?
- Which teaching aids should be used?
- In which activities should pupils be engaged during a lesson?
- Is my method in accordance with objectives as well as the outcome of a lesson?

These are the questions which enable a teacher to adopt a holistic view about a lesson. It is thus important that student teachers should learn about different strategies and their application in the classroom.

c] It creates opportunities for individualisation

"Learning is an individual matter. Each individual is a unique product of his heredity and environment, and therefore teaching methods must be devised which will allow for these individual differences" (Eliot, 1984: 31). This quotation implies that a teaching strategy should take into account pupil's characteristics. Individuals in the classroom are motivated by certain needs which determine their interests. Teachers must try to appeal to these interests and help students to want to learn. Behr (1971: 138) also expresses the firm view that it is possible to provide for pupils of different intellectual ability in the ordinary classroom situation.

4.5.3 TEACHING STRATEGIES: **TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM**

Didactic ground forms should be included so as to form the basis of teaching strategies.

It is not possible to give an exhaustive list of teaching strategies here. For purposes of this thesis, it is suggested that student teachers should be exposed to the following teaching strategies in their training programme: lecturing, questioning, demonstration, groupwork, games, role play and guided discussion.

The topics below are suggested for purposes of this study.

- ♦ Lecturing - as treated by authors such as Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 51 - 63); Arends (1988: 388 - 389); Behr (1971: 39 - 41).
- ♦ Questioning - as treated by authors such as Van der Stoep and Van der Stoep (1973: 130 - 135); Perrot (1975: 41 - 91); Eliot (1984: 40).
- ♦ Demonstration - Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 92); Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 109 - 110); Davis (1981: 40 - 41).
- ♦ Groupwork - Davis (1981: 116 - 120); Eliot (1984: 50); Van der Stoep (1984: 232).
- ♦ Games - Davis (1981: 45 - 46); Mbokazi (1991: 91); Fraser *et al.* (1990: 144 - 145).
- ♦ Guided discussion - Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 63); Piek (1984: 38).

4.6 LESSON PREPARATION

4.6.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: LESSON PREPARATION

In this study lesson preparation refers to lesson activities in which a teacher engages before the actual teaching of the lesson. Although the scheme of work is part of the lesson preparation, lesson preparation is far more intensive than the scheme of work (Van der Stoep and Van der Stoep, 1973: 177). Thorough preparation for every lesson situation is a prerequisite for successful teaching. Stuart (1985: 51) warns that lesson preparation does not mean that there would be a static lesson which proceeds according to a fixed pattern.

According to Eliot (1984: 44) teachers should ask themselves the following questions during lesson preparation:

- What am I going to teach?
- How am I going to teach it?
- How is the learning to be tested?

The following points thus seem to be important aspects of lesson preparation:

- choice of topic
- objectives of the lesson
- pupils' knowledge
- learning activities
- logical sequence
- method of assessment (Ibid.)

4.6.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF LESSON PREPARATION

a] It is at the centre of all teaching activities

The success of a lesson depends upon how thoroughly it was prepared by the teacher. Even the constructs which are discussed in this chapter are linked to lesson preparation in one way or another. If the lesson has not been thoroughly prepared it stands to reason that the application stage will not yield positive results. Farrant (1980: 175 - 176) characterises unprepared lessons as follows:

- * incomplete subject matter
- * lack of detail and illustrative material
- * disorderly presentation of information.

b] It reduces problems of discipline in the class

The view adopted here is that teachers who do not prepare lessons thoroughly are those who have the most discipline problems. Mjadu (1991: 131) confirms this view when she argues that poor lesson preparation may result in deviant behaviour, thus creating discipline problems for the teacher. This view is supported by Eliot (1984: 44).

Student teachers need to know that there is a relationship between or poor preparation and poor discipline in the classroom. This view is confirmed by Persaud (1992: 26) when he argues that teachers' non-preparation or poor preparation can compound discipline problems in the classroom. When a lesson is poorly prepared the teacher may have greater difficulty in distinguishing between matters which are crucial and those which are

irrelevant to that lesson and may thus permit pupils to deviate from the desired course of a lesson. Once this happens classroom control may be difficult to maintain and this may lead to serious disciplinary problems.

- c] It enables the teacher to acquaint himself with the syllabus and schemes of work

If a teacher does not prepare his lessons, it stands to reason that he will lose sight of some of the dictates of the syllabus and scheme of work. For this reason lesson preparation is important for all lessons.

Within the scheme of work, "... there are many themes. These themes have a certain order which means that the child must first of all understand the previous theme before moving to the next"; (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 131). This is only possible when the teacher prepares a lesson. That is why it is necessary for student teachers to learn about lesson preparation as a didactic construct.

- d] It serves as a preview of what is to happen in a particular lesson

During lesson preparation the teacher needs to look into all the aspects of a lesson. In this way he/she adopts a holistic view of the lesson. According to Stuart (1985: 51) the teacher should give consideration to the presentation, guidance, control and evaluation of the lesson situation. Otherwise a lesson which is either ill prepared or not prepared at all, is likely not to succeed because the teacher shall have not have linked the different segments of the lesson.

As has already been argued above (see 4.6.1), this does not mean that each lesson is static or that it proceeds according to a fixed pattern. Each lesson

situation needs to be designed and created. A teacher may have to improvise if the lesson does not progress as planned. Successful instruction is only possible where there is thorough preparation by the teacher. The importance of lesson preparation should be understood and accepted by student teachers because it is a condition for successful teaching.

4.6.3 LESSON PREPARATION: TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- Training in lesson preparation - Stuart (1985: 51); Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 101 - 104); Piek (1984: 62 - 70); Davis (1981: 77 - 105).
- Drawing schemes of work and record keeping - Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 105); Piek (1984: 58 - 60)
- Gathering resource material - Krüger *et al.* (1980: 138 - 140); McFarlane (1982: 6 - 7); Stuart (1985: 78 - 86).

4.7 CLASSROOM PROCEDURE AND ORGANISATION

4.7.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: CLASSROOM PROCEDURE AND ORGANISATION

Like other constructs, this construct means different things to different people. Mjadu's (1991: 122) perception of classroom procedure and organisation, for instance, suggests rules, procedures and discipline. The emphasis here is on pupil discipline and control.

Good and Brophy (1984: 11) are of the view that classroom procedure and organisation implies classroom management. Classroom management means creating a learning

environment and maintaining student involvement. According to Arends (1988: 211), classroom management and discipline go hand in hand.

For purposes of this study classroom procedure and organisation will be viewed as follows: Classroom procedure and organisation is the input which determines discipline as an output. This means that the nature and pattern of classroom procedure and organisation influences the nature and pattern of discipline. This has implications for three sets of teacher-directed activities. Firstly, the planning of teaching. Secondly, the performance of teaching acts, monitoring and evaluation of learning. Thirdly, the organising, communicating, co-ordinating, monitoring and evaluation of learners' behaviour. Although these classroom activities are discussed separately, it should be noted that they take place simultaneously in the classroom. The teacher should orchestrate the process so as to achieve integration and harmony. Order and discipline in the classroom results from harmony brought about by the harmonious integration of the factors described above.

4.7.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CLASSROOM PROCEDURE AND ORGANISATION

a) It encourages careful planning

A teacher should have classroom activities planned so that the lesson runs smoothly. Things should not appear to lurch from crisis to crisis. The way in which lessons are planned and organised has considerable bearing upon class control (Fontana, 1985: 133). Work which is ill prepared leaves the teacher floundering for material before the lesson is half over and this invites classroom management problems. The same applies to a lesson which contains too much material, where the teacher struggles to complete the work while the class is confused and frustrated by the hurried attempts to explain difficult areas, and work is regularly left half-finished when the bell goes.

- b) Order and discipline are created by proper classroom procedure and organisation

The most important determinant of order and discipline is the teacher's method of classroom procedure and organisation. This is especially true of the teacher's techniques of keeping the class actively attentive to lessons and involved in productive work. It is far more effective to focus on desirable behaviour, using management techniques which prevent problems from emerging, than to try to deal with problems after they emerge. As has already been implied, the key to success lies in what the teacher does to create a good learning environment and a low potential for trouble.

- c) It creates a climate for effective teaching

No teaching can be effective in a chaotic classroom. A chaotic classroom is usually characterised by the following:

- a teacher who is not sure what exactly to do
- pupils who are not sure of the rules of the classroom.

The activities of the classroom sometimes occur simultaneously. The teacher should be able to orchestrate the process so as to achieve integration and harmony. Obviously, the teacher's understanding of the discipline problems in relation to the learning problems, preparation of lessons related to the problems and the creation of related organisational strategies, can enhance the teacher's capacity to juggle with the simultaneous variables in the classroom. Teachers who do not understand the problems and who do not prepare or prepare poorly can compound

discipline problems in the classroom. That is why the way in which the classroom is organised will determine the effectiveness of teaching.

4.7.3 CLASSROOM PROCEDURE AND ORGANISATION: TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- ♦ The role of the teacher in classroom management - Fontana (1985: 138 - 162), Cawood and Gibbon (1985: 301 - 305).
- ♦ Causes of disciplinary problems in the classroom - Fontana (1985: 25 - 49).
- ♦ How to deal with disciplinary problems - Cawood and Gibbon (1985: 293 - 301).
- ♦ Preventing management problems in the classroom - Good and Brophy (1984: 175 - 196).

4.8 EVALUATION

4.8.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCT: EVALUATION

Evaluation, in the case of teaching, implies establishing how successful teaching has been.

This view is cherished by the following authors, amongst others:

- Duminy and Söhnge (1986: 113); Fraser *et al.* (1990: 166) and Krüger and Müller (1988: 154).

Evaluation is either of an introductory, a continuous or a conclusive (final) nature. An introductory form of evaluation aims at establishing the pupils' preparedness for the

instruction which is to follow. During instruction the evaluation (continuous evaluation) is directed at indicating progress and the determination of possible problems which can be corrected there and then. Evaluation is also a controlling activity directed at the objectives which should be realised at the end of the lesson. In this case there is a direct relationship between objectives and evaluation. Krüger and Müller refer to objectives and evaluation as two sides of the coin (1988: 157).

Generally speaking, evaluation is a broad term which covers measuring, testing and evaluation.

4.8.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EVALUATION

a] It provides feedback to learners

Pupils need feedback about their learning so that they may know whether or not they are benefiting from the teaching-learning situation. Without constant evaluation, pupils may not know their strengths and weaknesses in a subject. In this way evaluation provides feedback to pupils in such a manner that pupils can evaluate themselves.

b] It also provides feedback to teachers about their own teaching

Evaluation thus enables a teacher to know how effective his/her teaching has been. It also gives a clue to the teacher as to how his/her teaching can be even more effective. In this way evaluation is directed at the intended learning gain which has already been described as the objective during lesson preparation.

c] It provides feedback to parents

Parents need to know about the progress being made by their child at school. Evaluation will therefore enable parents to gain some insight as to how the child progresses at school.

Parents have a role to play in the education of their children. If a parent finds that a child is weak in a particular area e.g. mathematics, he or she may find ways of helping the child master mathematical skills.

d] It enables teachers to categorise pupils

It is accepted that both homogenous and heterogeneous grouping have their merits and demerits. The categorisation of pupils is only possible after they have been evaluated.

It sometimes becomes necessary to allocate pupils to classes in accordance with their performance. A class of slow learners should be handled differently from a class of gifted children. A homogenous group of pupils can sometimes learn more effectively than that of a heterogeneous classroom. Evaluating pupils for purposes of grouping them has advantages; notwithstanding the disadvantages as already suggested above.

e] Evaluation is diagnostic

Although this form of evaluation is usually conducted by school guidance officers and school psychologists, it is necessary that teachers should know about it.

Diagnostic evaluation relates to the causes of learning problems and ways in which these can be corrected. Learners could, for instance, have spelling, calculation or reading problems, which may have a considerable effect on their academic achievement. A teacher who has some understanding of diagnostic evaluation could identify these problems very early. Early identification of such problems may enable the teacher to correct them as the later they are identified, the more difficult it is to correct them.

Stuart (1985: 93) is of the view that diagnostic evaluation should be concerned with causes of serious learning problems and the means by which these problems can be rectified. The following steps are usually followed when diagnostic tests are carried out: First, the people who compile these tests should be subject specialists. Second, they must have knowledge of the intellectual skills necessary to be able to perform, for example, mathematical functions such as multiplication, subtraction and division in the case of mastering mathematics (Fraser *et al.*, 1990: 182).

f] Evaluation has a formative function

It has already been suggested that evaluation can take place whilst the lesson is in progress. In this way it fulfils the functions of teaching and of corrective teaching as such. Feedback and alteration are possible during any phase of the lesson and the effect of both instruction and learning can optimally be improved (Stuart, 1985: 91).

Short questions which are asked during the course of the lesson are part of formative evaluation and can give an indication of the progress made.

It should also be noted that formative evaluation aims at improving practice; evaluation results are not used to grade pupils or to compare them with one another.

The advantages of formative evaluation can be summarised as follows:

- pupils who succeed in meeting the demands of learning objectives receive reinforcement and encouragement, which in turn results in improved learning, greater insight and more confidence;
- those pupils who are unable to meet the required standard are supplied with feedback to enable them to make the necessary changes in order to make progress possible;
- it determines the desired pace. Through formative evaluation, after every unit or task in the learning situation, pupils can be motivated to exert themselves;
- it supplies the teacher with the necessary feedback after completion of specific units in the curriculum. If the teacher discovers that pupils have not shown the desired progress towards achieving the learning objectives, it could mean that certain alterations have to be made to the teaching strategy. This would result in the improvement of his lesson design, as problem areas would be identified and timeously corrected.

g) Evaluation has a summative function

At the end of the learning process pupils should be judged individually. This form of evaluation is usually done at the end of the lesson sequence or at the end of a school term. In this way teaching is evaluated on the basis of learning results. The results and information acquired during summative evaluation may also be used to enhance the efficacy and quality of teaching (Stuart, 1985: 93).

4.8.3 EVALUATION:
TOPICS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM

- ✓ Definition and methods of evaluation - Stuart (1985: 95 - 98); Krüger and Müller (1988: 160 - 168); Cawood and Gibbon (1985: 306 - 313).
- ✓ Criteria for evaluation - Krüger and Müller (1988: 157 - 160); Fraser *et al.* (1990: 173 - 175).
- ✓ The interpretation of tests and examinations - Krüger and Müller (1988: 168 - 170); Stuart (1985: 93 - 94).
- ✓ Planning and setting tests and examinations - Krüger and Müller (1988: 165 - 167); Fraser *et al.* (1990: 175 - 180).
- ✓ Steps in constructing tests - Van der Stoep and Louw (1984: 243 -244).

4.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter an attempt has been made to put theoretical didactic constructs in perspective. The arguments which have been raised have suggested that no practical training of teachers can be successful unless student teachers have gone through the didactics theory curriculum as discussed in this chapter. It should be borne in mind, however, that student teachers would have to understand that the didactic theory discussed here will have to be informed by the situational demands of a particular school or classroom. This requires that student teachers should receive training in the why, how and what of instruction (Stuart *et al.*, 1985: 50).

It also needs to be mentioned that the didactic constructs discussed in this chapter should not be seen in isolation from each other. They should rather be seen as a coherent theory concerning instruction. If, for instance, one does not do needs assessment, the lesson is not likely to be a success. The same is true of all the constructs when there is no proper classroom procedure and organisation. In other words, each construct is a precondition for the other. By using didactic criteria, the teacher can assess the quality of the effect of the learning by the children in his/her class which, in turn, provides him/her with important insights for future planning (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984: 45).

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

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CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

It will be recalled that the main purpose of the study was to establish the extent to which the current school-based practice teaching for colleges of education in KwaZulu was effective (see Section 1.5 a)).

This chapter consists of two major sections:

- (a) The instrument which was used to gather quantitative data, viz. the questionnaire, will be discussed. (Vide infra subsection 5.2 - 5.5 below).
- (b) The quantitative results of the survey will be presented (Vide infra subsection 5.6). The sequence in which these results are presented coincide with the sequence of criteria expounded in Chapter 3.

5.2 METHODOLOGY

5.2.1 The Questionnaire Format

A copy of the questionnaire which was used appears in Appendix A.

The questionnaire was divided into three broad areas, i.e.

- i. location of colleges (vide supra 1.7.2 a));
- ii. biographical data (presented in Chapter 1 - Table 5 ,
- iii. questions concerning practice teaching

5.2.1.1 The Likert Scale

For questions 2 - 5 the Likert scale formula (Likert:1932) was used. Respondents were presented with a five-point scale and requested to indicate which category reflected their opinion regarding the problem under investigation.

Advantages of Likert Scale

The Likert scale formula was used mainly because it has been deemed to be the most suitable when compared with other types of attitude scales (Borg and Gall, 1989: 312). Quantification and analysis of results can be done effectively because the data yielded are more complex than data collected using summated rating (Bailey, 1987: 346).

Disadvantages of Likert Scale

The Likert scale technique naturally has certain drawbacks. "Attitude scales are direct self-report measures and so have the usual disadvantages of this type of instrument. The disadvantage is that we can never be sure of the degree to which the subjects' responses reflect his or her true attitude" (Borg and Gall, 1989: 312). This explains why the findings of this project may be slightly distorted (see section 5.6).

5.2.1.2 Purposes Of Questions

There were seven principal questions, each one directed at the achievement of a subsidiary purpose. Four of these questions were further divided into five sub-questions (Questions 2 -

5), while Question 6 was an open-ended question aimed at obtaining qualitative data (see Chapter 6).

Question 1: Biographical data

Purpose

Questions under this category were aimed at obtaining general characteristics of the respondents.

Question 2: College-learned teaching methods

Purpose

To establish the student teachers' opinions about college-learned teaching methods.

Question 3: Preparation for school-based practice teaching

Purpose

To establish the extent to which student teachers believed they were prepared for practice teaching.

Question 4: Actual school-based practice teaching

Purpose

To discover what happens once student teachers are in schools during school-based practice teaching, i.e. whether conditions in school classrooms are such that effective practice teaching is possible.

Question 5: Practice teaching evaluation

Purpose

To find out the current situation regarding supervision and evaluation practices.

Question 6: Major problems experienced by student teachers during practice teaching

Purpose

To determine general problems students experience during practice teaching. Responses to this question are presented under qualitative results in Chapter 6.

Question 7: Length of time for practice teaching

Purpose

To establish perceptions of student teachers regarding the length of practice teaching, i.e. whether practice teaching should be extended or reduced.

5.2.2 Administration Of Questionnaire

The questionnaire had to be completed by selected final year students. These students were randomly selected by the Head of Department of Professional Subjects or a designated lecturer in each college.

Although the selection was random, the following were taken into account during selection:

- both junior and senior primary groups had to be represented. This was done so that all the levels of training could be represented in the sample;
- performance of the respondents. Respondents had to represent best, average and poor performers in teaching practice. Best performers comprised more or less 30%, the average performers 40% and poor performers 30%. This was done so that all cognitive levels of students could be representative in the sample.

Each respondent was given a questionnaire. Every question was explained. All questions were answered. The questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher, with the assistance of some lecturers. The lecturers who provided assistance were thoroughly briefed beforehand regarding the purpose of the study.

5.2.3 Limitations Of The Survey

5.2.3.1 Hierarchical Rank Of Researcher

When the empirical study was conducted, the researcher was attached to a college of education as rector. This was obviously known by the respondents in the college where the researcher was in charge. Even in other colleges most respondents knew the status of the researcher. This could have distorted responses in the sense that students may have given answers which they thought would please the researcher rather than answers reflecting personal opinions. It is even possible that some respondents might have felt their future employment prospects might be affected by their answers. To combat this, the researcher stressed the importance of truthful responses and the deeper purposes of the study, but some students might still have felt fearful.

5.2.3.2 Superficial Nature Of Quantitative Data

Even though the atmosphere was generally relaxed during the administration of the questionnaire, it is possible that the respondents could have given exaggerated answers in support of what happens in their colleges. This became evident when the interview responses were analysed. Although interview responses are only discussed in Chapter 6, it suffices here to say that, because of the conversational nature of the interview technique, it was possible to ask probing questions with regard to answers which were given by the respondents. This was obviously not possible with the questionnaire. This problem could have been compounded by the possibility of respondents being unreflective when answering some of the questions. Lack of reflectivity is caused by the very nature of the questionnaire.

5.2.3.3 Confidentiality Of Data

Respondents remained anonymous. In this way the researcher was not in a position to know the names of the respondents. This ensured the confidentiality of data which was obtained for this investigation.

5.2.4 Advantages Of Survey

Despite the above disadvantages of the questionnaire, the survey had the following advantages:

- The questionnaire could be completed in a relatively short time. It took, for instance, about 1 hour for the respondents to complete the questionnaire.

- The questionnaire showed a hundred percent response rate. This is due to the fact that the questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher during a lecturing period in a lecture hall.
- Students who acted as respondents did not take the questionnaire to their homes, but they were handed to the researcher immediately after filling them in.
- Students were given a briefing beforehand by giving them a talk about the nature and usefulness of the study.
- It provides evidence of actual student views as opposed to mere speculation.
- It covered all the criteria formulated in Chapter 3.
- Three geographic areas were included providing a basis for comparison between the areas.
- It revealed the degree to which student views differ.
- The Likert scale lent itself to fairly accurate information about student attitudes regarding practice teaching.
- It has never been done before.
- Both male and female views were obtained.

5.3 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.3.1 Effective partnership

Table 6 below depicts the findings in this category.

TABLE 6 Whether college-learned teaching methods help student teachers to teach effectively

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	25	14	0	0	0	39
Peri-urban	10	12	0	3	0	25
Urban	16	11	4	3	2	36
TOTAL	51	37	4	6	2	100

It is evident from the table above that the large majority of students in the sample (88%) agree that college-learned teaching methods help them to teach effectively, while only a small portion (8%) disagree. What is interesting is that there is a noticeably wider variety in opinions expressed by urban students than by rural students. All rural students (100%) purport to believe that college-learned methods are helpful, but amongst urban students only 75% do (27 out of 36). In similar fashion, none of the rural students were undecided or disagreed, whilst 25% (9 out of 36) of the urban students were undecided or disagreed that college-learned teaching methods were helpful. Table 6, therefore, provides definite evidence that urban students were more critical in their approach to the questionnaire and towards practice teaching. It may also be that some rural students were not entirely truthful in their answers due to suspicion and/ or anxiety . Whatever the case may be, a trend of greater variability amongst urban respondents and less variability amongst rural respondents is visible. Looking at overall responses, however, Table 6 shows that the overwhelming majority

majority of students in the sample believed that college-learned teaching methods were exceedingly helpful.

TABLE 7 Whether college-learned teaching methods are easy to apply during practice teaching

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	10	19	3	6	1	39
Peri-urban	9	10	3	3	0	25
Urban	10	15	0	10	1	36
TOTAL	29	44	6	19	2	100

The above table reveals that 73% of the respondents agree and 21% disagree. This means that a great number (73%) of the respondents reported that college-learned teaching methods were easy to apply during practice teaching. It is interesting to note that a substantial number (21%) of respondents believe that college-learned teaching methods are not easy to apply during practice teaching.

The gap between rural (74% agree) and peri-urban respondents (76% agree) does not appear to be too wide in that they agree that college-learned teaching methods are easy to apply during practice teaching. The fact that 69% of the urban respondents agree and 31% disagree is of interest. It seems as if this high percentage (31% disagree) can be attributed to the fact that urban students are more critical of their training than are either peri-urban or rural students. Otherwise respondents in all areas feel more or less the same.

It is interesting to note that no urban student is undecided whether college-learned teaching methods are easy to apply during practice teaching. This shows the unwavering nature of students about this category.

TABLE 8 Whether college-learned teaching methods are related to methods used in schools

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	2	21	0	14	2	39
Peri-urban	8	9	3	2	3	25
Urban	7	19	1	40	5	36
TOTAL	17	49	4	20	10	100

The table shows that more rural students (44% agree) feel that methods taught at college are not relevant to school. The possible reason for this is that rural colleges are unable to attract very competent lecturers because most teachers may prefer to teach in urban areas.

Overall, only 66% agree that college-learned teaching methods are related to methods used in schools, whereas 30% disagree.

Responses in this table contradict the data in the first table (Table 6) in this chapter. The possible reason for this discrepancy is that the question related to this table is more focused in terms of its comparative nature. The respondents were thus likely to be sensitive to the gap which exists between college and school teaching methods. The question regarding Table 6 is rather general and does not appear to have given students any comparison.

5.3.2 College theoretical preparation

TABLE 9 Whether colleges prepare student teachers to handle classroom management problems

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	18	19	1	1	0	39
Peri-urban	8	10	4	1	2	25
Urban	11	16	1	4	4	36
TOTAL	37	45	6	6	6	100

The general pattern in the table above is that more students (82%) feel that colleges prepare them to handle classroom management problems, whereas only 12% disagree.

The above table depicts that far more (44%) rural students agree that college prepares student teachers to handle classroom management problems. This could be attributed to the generally peaceful nature of schools in rural areas in which case it may be easier to deal with pupils who are disciplined.

There does not appear to be a wide gap between the responses of peri-urban students (72%) and urban students (75%) in as far as they agree that colleges prepare student teachers to handle classroom management problems.

The 22% of urban students who disagree that colleges prepare student teachers to handle classroom management problems is of interest. This seems to confirm that urban students are highly critical of their practice teaching programme, as has already been mentioned.

The 12% from the peri-urban college who disagree could suggest that peri-urban students come second to urban students in terms of their critical inclination towards the programme. The possible reason for this is that both urban and peri-urban colleges are subjected to the same influence because of their proximity to urban areas.

TABLE 10 Whether student teachers experience problems with regard to lesson planning.

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	2	20	1	11	5	39
Peri-urban	1	11	1	7	5	25
Urban	4	9	2	14	7	36
TOTAL	7	40	4	32	17	100

In the above table almost half the students (47%), experience problems with lesson planning. Possible reasons for this are as follows:

- ♦ students are not thoroughly grounded during didactic theory lessons about lesson planning
- ♦ the way in which schools plan lessons could be in conflict with the way students are taught at college.

The problem of lesson planning seems to be acute with rural students (56%). This could be related to the quality of lectures in rural colleges if one considers that rural colleges are generally unable to attract high quality lecturers. Another possible reason is that the communication between rural colleges and school is not easy compared to the urban colleges and local schools. Such a lack of communication could lead to conflict of expectations as far as lesson planning is concerned.

5.3.3 Efficient organisation of practice teaching

TABLE 11 Whether student teachers are taught about the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	23	15	0	1	0	39
Peri-urban	6	13	2	1	3	25
Urban	16	11	0	6	3	36
TOTAL	45	39	2	8	6	100

The table above reveals the following pattern: Whilst 84% agree that they are taught about the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools, 14% disagree. Generally, students from all areas believe that they are taught about the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools as reflected in the following findings: rural (97% agree), peri-urban (76% agree), urban 75% agree). It is interesting to note that, on the whole, more rural students agree (97%) if one compares them with students from other areas. It could be that in this particular college lecturers are concerned that students should know about the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools.

It does appear that there are students (25%) in the urban college who feel that they are not taught about the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools. It may well be that students in this college are taught by different lecturers and some lecturers put less emphasis on the aims of practice teaching.

There is also evidence to suggest that some peri-urban students (16% disagree) experience problems regarding aims for practice teaching. Although the same reason advanced in the case of urban students above could be advanced here, the fact that 8% of students are

undecided is cause for concern. This seems to suggest that not all lecturers give the necessary attention to this aspect of practice teaching.

TABLE 12 Whether students are given sufficient time to communicate with schools prior to practice teaching

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	5	15	0	17	2	39
Peri-urban	1	7	0	11	6	25
Urban	5	11	10	7	3	36
TOTAL	11	33	10	35	11	100

On the whole many students (44%) feel they are given sufficient time to communicate with schools prior to practice teaching, although 46% disagree. The controversial nature of the question has apparently led to a large percentage of students (10%) who were undecided. It is possible that the reason behind this is that some students did not want to commit themselves to this apparently sensitive question.

This is one of the most interesting tables emerging from the survey if one considers that about half (49%) of the rural students disagreed. This appears to be an emotional issue with rural students as they seem to sharply disagree.

The peri-urban students (68% disagree) feel more frustrated than those from other areas about this issue. This suggests that the problem of communication between college and school appears to be very acute as far as the peri-urban students are concerned. Lack of communication channels, such as telephones and transport, in semi-urban and rural areas could be responsible for this state of affairs.

TABLE 13 Whether student teachers are made aware of school expectations before they go to schools

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	10	23	1	5	0	39
Peri-urban	6	6	3	9	1	25
Urban	8	14	6	2	6	36
TOTAL	24	43	10	16	7	100

The general pattern of this table is that students are, on the whole (67%) made aware of school expectations (overall 67% agree) before they go to schools, whereas 23% disagree. The 23% who disagree suggests that a large number of students do not know what schools expect from them before they reach these schools. This is possible in a situation where there is no prior meeting between students, lecturers and the school personnel before students go to schools. This could further suggest that there is somewhat a weak working relationship between schools and colleges of education. Lack of collaboration between schools and institutions which train teachers leads to conflict of expectations. Conflict of expectations does not auger well for the professional and didactic training of student teachers during practice teaching.

A fair number of students in both peri-urban (40% disagree) and urban (22% disagree) reveal that they are not made aware of school expectations before they go to schools. The disturbingly high percentage of peri-urban and urban students who disagree is interesting. The possible reason could be that urban and peri-urban schools have experienced more disciplinary problems than rural schools. Reality shock may be rather too acute in urban and peri-urban schools because the general lack of discipline may be incongruent with what students would have expected to see in these schools.

In both peri-urban (12%) and urban (17%) areas, a greater percentage of students were undecided. It may as well be that these students were unable to decipher what was really required of them through the question or perhaps they just chose to be neutral.

5.3.4 Ability To Transfer Theory To Practice

TABLE 14 Whether college-learned teaching methods help student teachers to relate theory to practice .

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	11	28	0	0	0	39
Peri-urban	12	11	2	0	0	25
Urban	12	16	2	5	1	36
TOTAL	35	55	4	5	1	100

In terms of the table above the overwhelming majority (90% agree) of rural students believe that college-learned teaching methods help them to relate theory to practice. In both peri-urban (92%) and urban (78%) areas students stated that college-learned teaching methods help them to relate theory to practice. There seems to be a similar pattern here because in all three areas (rural, peri-urban and urban) students feel that college-learned teaching methods help them to relate theory to practice. The possible reason for this is that, when students reach schools during school-based practice teaching, they can see the relationship between what they see happening in these schools and some of the things that they cover in their theory course.

There is, however, a disturbing feature regarding the responses of urban students. A high percentage (14% disagree) are, for instance, undecided. Large classes and the nature of disciplinary problems in schools could have made these students wonder whether they should agree or disagree. Some (17%) urban students do not believe that college-learned

teaching methods help student teachers to relate theory to practice. The possible reason for this perception is that there is generally chaos in some urban schools. This leads to difficulty when it comes to discipline. As a result student teachers may not see the value of college-learned theory if such theory does not provide answers regarding the realities of the classroom situation.

TABLE 15 Whether college-learned teaching methods are pupil-centered

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	2	25	7	4	1	39
Peri-urban	7	8	1	3	6	25
Urban	12	9	3	10	2	36
TOTAL	21	42	11	17	9	100

The general pattern on this table is that, whilst the majority of students (63%) feel that college learned teaching methods are pupil-centered, 26% disagree. This implies that, whilst there are colleges using pupil-centered teaching methods, some do not. This has to do with different approaches used by different lecturers.

The table above further reveals that students, to a large extent, in all areas (rural 69%, peri-urban 60% and urban 58%) believe that college learned teaching methods are pupil centred. It is also interesting to note that in all areas (rural 13%, peri-urban 36% and urban 33%) a reasonable percentage of students feel that college-learned teaching methods are teacher-centred. It does seem as if there are students in all areas who feel very strongly about lack of pupil-centredness of college-learned teaching methods. The higher percentages in both peri-urban and urban areas, 36% and 33% respectively, suggest that students are quite strong in their disagreement. As has already been suggested, it does appear that students in these areas are really critical of their programme. This, in most

cases, becomes clear if one compares the responses of rural students with those of peri-urban and urban students.

The fact that 18% of rural students are undecided could be related to the way in which these students are taught. It does appear as if they cannot distinguish between pupil-centred methods and teacher-centred methods.

TABLE 16 Whether it is easy to manage classes during practice teaching

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	2	12	0	21	4	39
Peri-urban	0	8	1	6	10	25
Urban	5	5	5	13	8	36
TOTAL	7	25	6	40	22	100

The general pattern in the above table is that the majority of students (62%) feel that it is not easy to manage classes during practice teaching, whereas 32% feel it is. The following are possible reasons for this:

- what is taught at college may not be what students encounter at schools;
- it may also be that student teachers become overly concerned about their success or lack of it in managing classes. They thus possibly spend more time on classroom management than on doing the job of teaching;
- it may also be that large classes which are typical of black schools compound the problem of classroom management;

- the general lack of discipline in schools could contribute to this problem. The 32% (rather small) who feel that it is easy to manage classes during practice teaching lends evidence to the fact that classroom management is generally a problem in schools.

Some students (14%) were undecided about their ability to manage classes during practice teaching. It is interesting that this is the case with urban students. It is possible that these students really do not know whether they are coming or going regarding classroom management because of the nature and magnitude of disciplinary problems in some urban schools.

5.3.5 Effective supervision

5.3.5.1 Supervision by co-operating teachers

TABLE 17 Whether teachers in schools are familiar with methods and techniques being taught at college .

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	1	11	3	15	9	39
Peri-urban	1	8	6	4	6	25
Urban	2	11	6	15	2	36
TOTAL	4	30	15	34	17	100

The above table suggests that teachers are generally not familiar with methods and techniques being taught at college. In all, 51% of students reported this, while 34% felt that teachers were familiar with college methods.

The 15% who are undecided is a cause for concern. It seems as if these students are unable to figure out if teachers in schools are at all familiar with methods and techniques being taught at college. This is possible if teachers in schools have an apathetic attitude towards students. It is also noted that undecided cases are more serious in peri-urban (24%) followed by urban students (17%). One wonders if this does not suggest that peri-urban and urban students are more confused due to there being no link between what colleges teach and what students experience in schools.

There is evidence (62% disagree) which suggests that rural teachers are, on the whole, not familiar with methods and techniques being taught at college. It would be interesting to know if this does not have to do with the following:

- lack of inservice training for rural teachers so that they can be in line with current teaching methodology;
- lack of a working relationship between schools and colleges. In this case it could be that colleges are working in isolation from schools and schools are isolated by their very distance and lack of formal working relationship with the college.

TABLE 18 Whether subject teachers help student teachers with lesson planning

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	7	9	3	12	8	39
Peri-urban	3	7	2	8	5	25
Urban	3	12	4	11	6	36
TOTAL	13	28	9	31	19	100

The majority (50%) of the students feel that subject teachers do not help student teachers with lesson planning. Only 41% of the student teachers agree that subject teachers help them with lesson planning.

Possible reasons for the inability of teachers to help student teachers with lesson planning could be as follows:

- teachers may not see themselves as part of teacher training;
- lack of collaboration between colleges and schools in the professional training of teachers

The case of teachers not helping students with lesson planning appears to be more acute in both the rural (52%) and peri-urban areas (48%). The following are possible reasons for this:

- a) If the general assumption is that both rural and peri-urban colleges make use of rural schools for practice teaching, there could be problems of communication between the college and local schools. This could render interaction between colleges and schools very minimal in as far as practice teaching is concerned. The major obstacle to communication could be lack of transport facilities in the rural areas as well as the fact that schools are too far apart from one another.
- b) Another reason could be that of antagonism between college students and serving teachers. If the majority of teachers in rural areas have not reached an M+3 qualification, for which student teachers are trained, it may well be that such antagonism is more serious in rural areas. Teachers may therefore not be keen to help people who are assumed to have superior training to theirs.

TABLE 19 Whether subject teachers are present in class when student teachers teach

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	12	16	1	4	6	39
Peri-urban	1	8	4	8	4	25
Urban	8	13	2	5	8	36
TOTAL	21	37	7	17	18	100

Most respondents (58%) stated that teachers are usually present in class when student teachers teach. However, there are 35% of respondents who disagree that teachers are present in class when the student teachers teach.

The percentage of teachers who are present in class when student teachers teach is high (72%) in rural areas. The possible reason for this could be that teachers in rural schools do not have staff rooms. They would therefore not leave the class because there would be nowhere to go.

Peri-urban students (48%) generally feel that teachers are not in class when student teachers teach. The possible reason for this could be that the majority of teachers in these schools believe that time for practice teaching is "a holiday" for them. The disturbingly high percentage (16%) of peri-urban students who are undecided is also a cause for concern. A possible cause for this could be that these teachers are neither present or absent in class in a sense that even if they are present, their presence has nothing to do with helping student teachers when they teach.

TABLE 20 Whether teachers provide enough feedback about student teachers' teaching

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	8	14	1	10	6	39
Peri-urban	5	3	6	5	6	25
Urban	2	13	3	8	10	36
TOTAL	15	30	10	23	22	100

It is evident that the large majority of students both agree (45%) and disagree (45%) as to whether they receive enough feedback about their teaching from teachers. It seems as if the students are sharply divided on this issue. This could result from a great number of teachers who give feedback to students about their teaching. On the other level there is also a great number of teachers who do not do this.

It does appear from the table that lack of feedback about students' teaching is problematic for peri-urban students since 44% disagree and 24% are undecided. It seems as if this undecided 24% did not know whether there was feedback or not. This could be suggestive of the magnitude of the problem.

5.3.5.2 Supervision by college lecturers

The following table reveal findings in this category

TABLE 21 Whether practice teaching evaluation is done by college lecturers only

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	31	6	0	1	1	39
Peri-urban	19	3	0	2	1	25
Urban	7	9	0	11	9	36
TOTAL	57	18	0	14	11	100

There is evidence on the table above which suggests that the overwhelming majority (75%) of respondents believe that practice teaching evaluation is done by college lecturers only.

Possible reasons for this are as follows:

- ◆ the role of subject/class teachers during practice teaching is ill defined;
- ◆ when teachers feel that they have no input in the summative evaluation of students it may well be that they do not understand their role in formative education.

Rural students (95%) seem to feel very strongly about the fact that practice teaching evaluation is done by college lecturers only. It is possible that teachers in rural areas generally do not believe they should evaluate students for reasons which have already been given (see discussion under Table 18).

TABLE 22 Whether evaluation is done by lecturers who do not teach subject didactics or content

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	16	15	2	1	5	39
Peri-urban	23	0	0	1	1	25
Urban	18	9	1	3	5	36
TOTAL	57	24	3	5	11	100

Evident from the table above is that the great majority (81%) of students maintain that evaluation is done by lecturers who do not teach either subject didactics or content of a particular subject. This is possible if one considers that students may be too many in a particular subject, e.g. Zulu, to be evaluated only by those lecturers who teach Zulu as a subject. In this case it is possible that other lecturers who are not experts either in content or subject didactics of a subject may evaluate it.

Although this appears to be a general problem in all areas (rural 80%, peri-urban 92%, urban 75%), there is evidence to suggest that the problem is most serious in the peri-urban area (92%). It is also interesting to note that 23% strongly agree.

TABLE 23 Whether there is a pre-conference with lecturers before evaluation

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	5	23	5	2	4	39
Peri-urban	5	2	9	2	7	25
Urban	5	4	11	9	7	36
TOTAL	15	29	25	13	18	100

The table above reveals that 44% of the students agree that there is a pre-conference with lecturers before evaluation takes place, whilst 31% disagree. This suggests that pre-conferences prior to evaluation are not widely used in colleges of education. The 18% who strongly disagree is quite substantial to justify the seriousness of the problem.

The majority of rural students (72%) agree that there is a pre-conference with lecturers before evaluation. The possible reason for this is that the majority of the lecturers in this college regard evaluation as part of both formative and summative evaluation of students. The 15% who disagree seem to suggest that there are lecturers who do not have pre-conferences. It could be that lecturers themselves are divided on the issue. The 13% of rural respondents who are undecided suggest that there are possibly lecturers who may not have pre-conferences in a formal way, hence students may not realise when it is done.

Whilst 28% of peri-urban students agree, 36% are undecided and 36% disagree. The 36% who are undecided and disagree respectively suggest that there is a problem regarding pre-conferences during practice teaching.

A high percentage of urban students (44%) feel that there is no pre-conference prior to evaluation. The possible reason for this could be either students or lecturers themselves generally do not attach any importance to evaluation. Only 25% of rural students agree and 31% are undecided. The possible reason could be that if there is any pre-conference at all, such pre-conference is not of the formal procedure which is followed in this college, but it may therefore be done on an *ad hoc* basis.

TABLE 24 Whether there is a follow-up discussion with lecturers after evaluation

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	14	22	5	2	1	39
Peri-urban	3	6	8	7	1	25
Urban	3	18	41	8	3	36
TOTAL	20	46	12	17	5	100

The majority of students (66%) agree that there is a follow-up discussion with lecturers after evaluation, whereas 22% disagree. Only 12% are undecided.

The fact that 66% agree that there is a follow-up discussion could suggest that subject didactics lecturers overall do make use of their subject didactic periods in order to attend to problems which students could have experienced during practice teaching.

The overwhelming majority (92%) of rural students agree that there is a follow-up discussion with lecturers after evaluation. The reason for this could be that rural college lecturers are highly supportive of their students regarding practice teaching evaluation. It could also be that these lecturers do not regard evaluation as an end in itself, but rather consider the formative influence of evaluation.

Peri-urban students seem to be sharply divided on this issue, as 36% agree, 32% are undecided and 32% disagree. The impression created here is that, while some lecturers do make a follow-up discussion, some do not. The fact that 32% are undecided could mean that students do not know whether there is a follow-up discussion. This is feasible in a situation where the follow-up discussion is not properly structured.

TABLE 25 Whether evaluation of student teachers improves performance

N = 100						
Location	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	TOTAL
Rural	26	12	1	0	0	39
Peri-urban	13	10	0	0	2	25
Urban	11	12	6	5	2	36
TOTAL	50	34	7	5	4	100

The table above testifies that 84% of the students agree that evaluation of student teachers improves teaching performance. This could suggest the importance that student teachers attach to evaluation. The 9% who disagree are statistically not very significant. It does suggest though that there are students who do not attach importance to evaluation. The 7% who are undecided suggest that there are students who are generally apathetic towards evaluation. These students did possibly not want to commit themselves.

Students in all areas (rural 97%, peri-urban 92%, urban 64%) agree that evaluation of student teachers improves performance. However, some urban students do not believe this. The 19% who disagree suggest that these students attach little importance to evaluation. This could be related to the attitude that some lecturers adopt towards students during evaluation. If lecturers are too authoritarian there could be problems. The fact that 17% of the students are undecided could mean that students do not attach much meaning to evaluation. That could be the case if there is a problem of power relations between lecturers and students during evaluation.

5.3.6 Time-on-task

TABLE 26 The amount of time for practice teaching

N = 100						
Location	Far too little	Slightly too little	Enough	Slightly too much	Far too much	TOTAL
Rural	3	12	24	0	0	39
Peri-urban	5	7	11	0	2	25
Urban	10	12	12	2	0	36
TOTAL	18	31	47	2	2	100

The evidence on the table above reveals that 49% of the students feel that the time for practice teaching is too little, whereas 47% feel that it is sufficient. Only 4% feel that it is too much.

Those students (49%) who believe that the time for practice teaching is insufficient could have the following consideration in mind: The time allocated for practice teaching is not enough to familiarise them with what it is to be a teacher.

This could have implications for the way in which practice teaching is structured. Two weeks of block practice teaching per year (six weeks in three years) may be rather short to enable students to establish the necessary rapport with pupils and other teachers in schools. Perhaps a longer period of continuous practice teaching could be the answer.

Urban students (61% opted for "too little") seem to regret the fact that the time for practice teaching is not enough. A possible explanation could be that these students spend more time on classroom disciplinary problems. When the time for practice teaching comes to an end they would not have had enough time to apply all their didactic insights.

5.4 SUMMARY OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

TABLE 27 The total picture of quantitative results

Table No.	Theme	Agree and Strongly Agree	Undecided	Disagree and Strongly Disagree
6	College-learned teaching methods helpful	88	4	8
7	College-learned methods easy to apply	73	6	21
8	College and school methods related	66	4	30
9	Preparation for classroom management	82	6	12
10	Lesson preparation problems	47	4	49
11	Awareness of practice teaching aims	84	2	14
12	Time to communicate with schools	44	10	46
13	Prior awareness of school expectations	67	10	23
14	Transfer of theory to practice	90	4	6
15	Pupil-centeredness of college methods	63	11	26
16	Classroom management easy	32	6	62
17	School teachers' knowledge of college methods	34	15	51
18	Help by teachers in lesson planning	41	9	50
19	Subject teachers' presence in class	58	7	36
20	Feedback regarding teaching	45	10	45
21	Evaluation by college lecturers only	75	0	25
22	Evaluation by non-subject lecturers	81	3	16
23	Pre-conference before evaluation	44	25	31
24	Follow-up discussion with lecturers	66	12	22
25	Performance improvement through evaluation	84	7	9
AVERAGE- PERCENTAGE		63	8	29

This section summarises and discusses the most prominent patterns or trends in the table above (i.e. on issues where there was much agreement or disagreement, and on which students were most undecided).

5.4.1 Trends On Which There Was Much Agreement

For purposes of this study the cut off point for issues where there was much agreement is 84%, i.e. from 84% - 100%.

Table 25: Performance improvement through evaluation

In this table the respondents (84%) generally agree that evaluation improves their teaching performance. This is possibly due to the fact that when students are to be evaluated they give the necessary seriousness to the way in which they prepare their lessons. Even when they teach they try to demonstrate the required didactic insights. This may not be the case in an ordinary lesson where the student teacher is not being evaluated. Even the remarks which students may receive, if they do, after evaluation may be educative enough for student teachers to believe that their performance improves as a result of evaluation.

Table 11: Awareness of practicee teaching aims

There is evidence (84%) to suggest that the majority of the respondents agree that they are made aware of the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools for practice teaching. There are two possible reasons for this:

- lecturers who teach Practice Teaching as a subject stress the aims of practice teaching in their lessons

Table 19: Subject teachers' presence in class

This table reveals that 35% of the respondents disagree that subject teachers are present in class when they teach. This figure is quite high enough a percentage to warrant concern. An explanation for this is that quite a number of teachers do not regard themselves as part and parcel of the teachers' professional preparation. Another reason could be that there is lack of communication and the absence of a working relationship between colleges and schools. As a result some teachers may not even be aware of their major role when student teachers teach in their classes.

Table 20: Feedback regarding teaching

In this table 45% of the respondents maintain that they do not get feedback about their teaching from teachers. The same reason could be advanced for this as for Table 19 above. It might also be that some teachers are not even present in class when student teachers teach. It is therefore impossible for them to give feedback if they were not present in class.

Table 12: Time to communicate with schools

This table shows that the majority of the respondents maintain that they are not given enough time to communicate with schools before practice teaching. This could be because students are simply sent to schools to fetch schemes of work only two days before the commencement of practice teaching.

Table 10: Lesson preparation problems

This table also shows that the majority (49%) of the respondents disagree that they experience problems with lesson preparation. This might be that there are colleges

which prepare students in lesson preparation whereas others do not put much emphasis on it.

Table 18: Help by teachers in lesson planning

In this table the evidence suggests that 50% of the respondents maintain that teachers do not help them with lesson planning. Possible reasons given under Tables 19 and 20 would apply here.

Table 17: School teachers' knowledge of college methods

More than half (51%) of the respondents feel that school teachers have no knowledge of methods and techniques used in colleges. Explanation for this include the following:

- there is no collaboration between schools and colleges

- if the assumption is that colleges are more exposed to latest trends in teaching methods, it may as well be that schools are less exposed to inservice training regarding current teaching methods.

Table 16: Classroom management easy

The great majority (62%) of the respondents reveal that it is not easy to manage classes during practice teaching. This could be due to the following:

- Because of the general disruption of schooling for over 10 years, it has become difficult to maintain discipline in class. This could be worse for students who should maintain discipline and at the same time try to find their "pedagogical feet" in the classroom.

- There is generally overcrowding in black primary schools. This could lead to problems regarding discipline and could be worse if students have not been trained in teaching large classes.

5.4.3 Trends In Which Students Were Most Undecided

There is just one outstanding case which is worth commenting on in as far as this study is concerned.

Table 23: Pre-conference before evaluation

Evidence in this table suggests that 25% of the respondents are undecided as to whether there was any pre-conference prior to evaluation. The following are possible explanations for this:

- ◆ This may happen in a situation where pre-conference before evaluation is not the official college policy. In this case those lecturers who do it may be doing it on an *ad hoc* basis.
- ◆ Another reason could be that some students were confused as to what pre-conference means, especially if it has never been used in their college.

5.5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the most important findings regarding rural students, peri-urban students and urban students are discussed. These findings are elaborated upon below according to the number of questions in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The presentation of marked differences follows the top down approach, i.e. from the most to the least prominent ones.

Table 24: Follow-up discussion with lecturers

There appears to be a wide discrepancy (56%) between rural and peri-urban students in as far as a follow-up discussion with lecturers after evaluation is concerned. Peri-urban students (36%) state that there is no follow-up by lecturers. It is possible that at this college they regard school-based practice teaching as isolated from the theoretical part of practice teaching or subject didactics.

The 92% from the rural college who agree could be suggestive of the fact that lecturers are more supportive of their students. They could also be viewing practice teaching evaluation as part of formative evaluation of students. In this case they are likely to view practice teaching as interwoven with both practice teaching theory and subject didactics.

Table 21: Evaluation by college lecturers only

In this question there is a discrepancy of 51% between rural and urban students. When 95% of rural students report that practice teaching evaluation is done by college lecturers only, the following could be the reasons:

- Because of the apparent low teacher quality in rural areas, rural teachers may not be sufficiently competent to evaluate student teachers who are being trained for a higher professional qualification, i.e. M+3.

- Teachers may feel that they have nothing to do with practice teaching evaluation if they believe that this is the domain of college lecturers.

On the other hand, when only 44% of urban students report that practice teaching evaluation is done by lecturers only, the reason could be that there is a better working relationship between this college and local schools.

Table 23: Pre-conference before evaluation

There is a discrepancy of 47% between rural and urban students' responses. Whilst 72% of rural students agree that there is a pre-conference with lecturers before evaluation, only 25% of urban students agree. The possible reason for this could be that there is a formal policy regarding pre-conferencing in the rural college, whereas the urban college does not have an official policy in this regard. It could thus be that the urban college has a voluntary arrangement with students.

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CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the qualitative results are presented. These are results which emanated from

- a] the informal interviews which were conducted and
- b] responses to the open-ended question (Question 6) on the questionnaire. (Although these results have some quantitative elements, they have been presented here because of the apparent qualitative importance which the respondents have attached to specific items).
- c] personal observation. The researcher has been involved in teacher education for thirteen years and is involved daily in teacher education in KwaZulu.

6.2 THE INTERVIEWS

6.2.1 Advantages of interviews

Interviews, in general, have the following advantages:

- a] They are adaptable. The researcher is able to make full use of the responses of the subject to alter the interview situation. A relaxed atmosphere is possible during interviews, depending upon the skill of the interviewer.

- b] Interviews permit the interviewer to follow up leads and thus obtain more data and greater clarity. Greater depth is thus possible during the interviews which is often not the case with other methods of collecting data. "In contrast, the skilled interviewer, through the careful motivation of the subject and maintenance of rapport, can obtain information that the subject would probably not reveal under any other circumstances" (Borg and Gall, 1989: 447).

6.2.2 Disadvantages of interviews

The flexibility, adaptability and human interaction which are unique strengths of the interview technique, also allow for subjectivity and possible bias which can be its greatest weakness in some research situations. The interaction between interviewer and the respondent is subject to bias from many sources. Eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer, a vague antagonism which sometimes arises between the interviewer and respondent, or the tendency of interviewers to seek answers which support their preconceived notions are but a few of the factors which may contribute to biasing of data obtained from the interview (*Ibid.*: 448).

6.2.3 Interview format and rationale

An informal and semi-structured interview was used for purposes of this study, along the lines suggested by Borg and Gall 1989: 452). In terms of this form of interview "the researcher (interviewer) asks a series of structured questions and probes more deeply, using open-ended questions in order to obtain more complete data" (*Ibid.*: 452)

The following questions were used as a guide during the interviews.

Question 1

Explain how the college prepares you for practice teaching.

The purpose of this question was to find out how student teachers are prepared by colleges for school-based practice teaching. The use of open-ended questions to further probe given responses enabled the researcher to gain a more complete picture of how student teachers are prepared.

Question 2

What problems do you experience during practice teaching?

The purpose of this question was to find out more about problems which student teachers experience during practice teaching. It was taken into account that Question 6 of the questionnaire may have elicited similar responses. However, realising the limitations of the questionnaire as discussed in Chapter 5, it was felt that the interview situation would provide deep-seated insights regarding particular problems, rather than religiously accepting unreflected responses.

This purpose was effectively achieved in this study because the researcher gleaned further information from the interview.

Question 3

What do you dislike about practice teaching?

The purpose of this question was to find out what the respondents regard as their unpleasant moments during school-based practice teaching. It was thought that

some of the ideas emanating from this question would be incorporated in the recommendations resulting from the study. This would be possible because the nature of this question was such that it could highlight some deficiencies of school-based practice teaching. This hunch paid off because some of the findings in this category supplemented other findings in the study in an illuminating way.

Question 4

What aspect of practice teaching was most useful for you?

Realising that it was not possible that everything to do with school-based practice teaching was unpleasant, this question was included in the interviews. The idea behind it was to enable the interviewees to give the positive side of their experience in schools during practice teaching. This was achieved because findings do reveal that there were indeed many positive aspects of school-based practice teaching as far as the respondents in this study were concerned.

Question 5

Suggest how practice teaching can be improved

The purpose of this question was to find out from the interviewees how they considered practice teaching could be improved. It was felt that final year students would be able to influence curriculum development in this area for two reasons:

- a] as beneficiaries of the curriculum they should be able to make an input in curriculum development for practice teaching;

- b] their history and experience as teacher trainees (i.e. by being finalists) would enable them to make better informed judgements concerning what ought to happen regarding school-based practice teaching. This would not be the case with other student teachers, i.e. those in Course I and Course II, because of their limited experience of school-based practice teaching.

Some suggestions emanating from such a question would thus be incorporated in the recommendations.

6.2.4 Interview procedure

During the interview the interviewees were divided according to whether they were doing junior or senior primary school training. Each section, i.e. whether senior or junior primary, was further divided as follows:

- a] In the rural college there were 39 interviewees. For easy interaction they were divided into groups of ten each and one group of nine participants. Small and manageable groups enabled the researcher to elicit responses from all the interviewees. The interviewer would ask a question and allow each and every interviewee to respond to it. This took place in the afternoons.
- b] In the peri-urban college there were 25 participants. The same procedure as discussed above was followed, except that the interviewees were eight in two groups and one group had nine participants. This took the greater part of an afternoon.

- c] In the urban college there were 36 interviewees. They were divided into three groups of ten each. Only one group had six interviewees. The interviews were conducted over two days, during the afternoons.

In all, 100 interviewees participated in this research project. The interviews were conducted in the afternoons over a four day period, as has already been mentioned.

The interviews were personally conducted by the researcher. Note-taking was also done by the researcher as the interview was in progress. Although Borg and Gall (1989: 455) argue that note-taking make respondents uncomfortable, its use can be justified in this study as follows:

- i] It facilitated data analysis because the information was readily accessible as much of it had already been classified according to appropriate response categories by the interviewer.
- ii] "When questions deal with simple factual information, respondents expect their answers to be written down and may become annoyed or offended if they are not" (Borg and Gall, 1989: 455). It is thus because of this knowledge that the researcher resorted to note-taking. This appears to have yielded good results within a relatively short period of time.

6.2.5 Strengths of the interview

The above limitations notwithstanding, the strengths of the interviews in this study are as follows:

- a) It was possible to obtain more truths and detail. This was, for instance, not possible with the questionnaire.
- b) While the discussions were allowed to flow freely, the danger of involvement in long drawn-out discussions and going off on a tangent had to be guarded against. Whilst the interviews were directed, the expression of any relevant view was encouraged. This yielded great dividends because it indicated the thought dynamics of the interviewees. This is, of course, a strong point in favour of the interview technique in this study. It deviated from the procedure employed with the questionnaire whereby the researcher received responses to specific statements, sometimes without the necessary reflection.

6.3 SELECTION OF STUDENTS

Selection was randomly done. The group which was selected had to meet the following criteria:

- selected students had to be in both the Junior and Senior classes of the Primary Teachers Diploma (vide supra 6.2.4). Junior Primary students comprised approximately 55% of the sample, whereas Senior Primary students (vide Table 5) comprised 45%.
- selected students had to include both males and females (vide Table 5)
- the performance of the respondents had to range from best to average to poor, so that all cognitive levels could be represented in a sample (See 5.3 under Administration of questionnaire).

6.4 PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE RESULTS

The qualitative results which are presented below will follow the pattern of criteria for effective school-based practice teaching discussed in Chapter 3.

6.4.1 Effective partnership

- a] Students indicated that there is a disturbing lack of communication between colleges and schools. As a result, teachers in schools do not know when student teachers are going to come to their schools. This also has to do with organisation of practice teaching. Effective partnership goes hand in hand with efficient organisation of practice teaching as discussed under 6.8.3. Some respondents reported that they do practice teaching when there are examinations in schools and that there is little time to interact with pupils. Communication between schools and colleges seems to be a serious problem in KwaZulu colleges of education.

When colleges and schools do not effectively communicate with each other, the practical training of teachers is likely to be adversely affected. This implies that it is not possible that these institutions arrive at some consensus concerning what ought to be done with student teachers.

As has already been suggested, students are unlikely to experience professional fulfilment in a situation where colleges and schools do not communicate. That is why students become frustrated when they arrive at schools and find that schools are pursuing a programme different from what they expected. For instance, when student teachers arrive at schools and find that schools are conducting examinations, it stands to reason that they

may not have the contact with pupils in a didactic situation. In this way student teachers can only experience being at school, but cannot learn the art of teaching.

- b] It was also found that student teachers became disturbed by the apparent lack of seriousness on the part of pupils when they teach them. Pupils apparently do not regard them as teachers and this contributes to disciplinary problems in class, the respondents believe.

Disciplinary problems which are reported in this study would be reduced if there is effective partnership. This is possible because teachers in schools would make the message clear to the pupils that the role of student teachers is to assist them to learn. On the other hand, the influence which the college would have on schools implies that teachers in schools would see themselves as teacher educators and thereby influence pupils' attitudes towards student teachers.

- c] Senior Primary Teacher Diploma (SPTD) student teachers highlighted a lack of command of English by pupils as a problem. This problem was more pronounced in schools where teachers use the mother tongue instead of English. It should be remembered that the current arrangement is that African children should be taught through the medium of English as from Standard 3. The findings of this study reveal that this ruling is apparently not being adhered to by teachers in schools. What is apparent here is that colleges are teaching one thing whereas schools teach another. This would obviously be very frustrating to student teachers. Whilst it is possible that Black children experience problems regarding the use of English as medium of instruction since English is not their mother tongue, this would be alleviated if teachers and college lecturers had some working relationship regarding this matter.

6.4.2 College theoretical preparation

- a] Findings in this category reveal that student teachers are disturbed by the apparent lack of congruence amongst the college lecturers as to what constitutes effective teaching. Whilst this appears to be a general problem with all colleges, the respondents reported that it becomes acute where criticism lessons were evaluated by lecturers other than those who teach the content as well as subject didactics.

The fact that college lecturers do not agree on what constitutes effective teaching implies that the student teachers' theoretical preparation is problematic. The problematic nature of their theoretical preparation arises because student teachers seem to be torn apart by different epistemological positions which are apparently taken by different lecturers in didactic theory.

The question which arises is: How is it possible for schools and colleges to come to some consensus regarding what constitutes effective teaching, if college lecturers do not agree amongst themselves? It does seem as if even college lecturers may not agree as to what constitutes effective teaching, e.g. the need for lesson preparation; the need for all levels of questions, (i.e. higher order, middle order and lower order) the need for a thought provoking introduction, etc. Practice Teaching evaluation is bound to be problematic in a case where lecturers have different theoretical positions regarding what constitutes effective teaching.

- b] Junior Primary Teachers Diploma (JPTD) students complained about the disruptive behaviour of pupils in junior primary schools. This problem can be approached from four perspectives:

i] Lack of pre-primary facilities in colleges of education

It is unthinkable that a college can train student teachers to teach in junior primary schools without any theory or insight into pre-primary work. The implication here is that student teachers do not appreciate the nature of pupils in junior primary schools. What they regard as disruptive behaviour is, in actual fact, the typical behaviour of pupils at this level of schooling. In a situation where there is no thorough grounding in pre-primary work, a teacher in a junior primary school is likely to regard normal behaviour for pupils, at this stage of development, as disruptive behaviour. It is, for instance, part of normal behaviour for junior primary pupils to have so much energy that they may appear disruptive.

ii] Lack of understanding of child psychology

The impression created in this study is that student teachers lack the necessary grounding in child psychology. Junior primary school pupils, (as has been suggested in i above), behave in a particular manner. They are thus different from senior primary school pupils. The implication here is that student teachers with the necessary grounding in child psychology would not regard the nature of learners in junior primary schools as typified by disruptive behaviour.

iii] Problem of classroom procedure and organisation

The other problem relates to classroom procedure and organisation. Student teachers seem to fear that they might lose classroom control if pupils are too active in class. This becomes important if one considers that pupils are generally regarded to be disruptive when

they are in actual fact too active (see i] above). It seems as if colleges should give particular attention to classroom procedure and organisation as a didactic construct.

It should also be remembered that student teachers generally come from a system of education which encourages conformity. When pupils do not conform to the norms of the classroom they are easily labelled disruptive, whereas their behaviour is an expression of their situatedness at a particular point in time in their history. That is why teachers sometimes resort to unpedagogical ways of handling pupils.

iv] The relationship between the youth and the elders

The other problem relates to the relationship between elders and the young ones in society. The young ones are expected to respect the elders as authority figures. This respect implies that the young ones may not question what adults say. Neither should they talk whilst adults are still talking. When pupils in junior primary schools demonstrate their energy levels they are said to be disruptive. Is it not possible that this attitude by student teachers could be located within the cultural baggage which they bring to schools from home?

6.4.3 Efficient organisation of practice teaching

Lack of efficient organisation of practice teaching is evident because there is no effective communication between colleges and schools. This has been discussed in 6.4.1. What is also problematic about the organisation of practice teaching is that schools are not involved in the whole process. Schools have no input regarding, for instance, the timing of practice

teaching. As a result student teachers sometimes find themselves in schools when these schools are following a programme which does not accommodate student teachers. For instance, when student teachers arrive in schools during the week when there are sports activities or examinations being conducted, it stands to reason that they may not find enough time to teach (see 6.4.1.a).

What is being emphasised in these criteria is that no school-based practice teaching can be effective unless schools are partners in its organisation. What is apparent in this study is that schools are in no way in partnership with colleges during the process of practice teaching organisation.

6.4.4 Ability to transfer theory to practice

6.4.4.1 Microteaching

Respondents cited microteaching as one of the ways in which they were prepared for practice teaching. Microteaching is scaled down teaching. Briefly, the main value of microteaching is that it bridges the gap between theory and practice. Teaching theories come from psychological theories of learning and management, and from analysis of the teaching situation. They give principles for good teaching, but do not show the student teacher how to apply them. Microteaching teaches both the principles and practice of good teaching (Duminy *et al.*, 1983: 4).

6.4.4.2 Demonstration

Demonstration lessons were also cited as a way of linking theory to practice. Demonstration lessons have some aspects of microteaching in that they entail teaching in a controlled classroom environment. The rationale behind

demonstration lessons is that they provide models for the learner to observe and take note of. They are usually given by an experienced teacher or lecturer, and observed by the student teacher.

a] Actual role of lecturers during demonstration lessons

In this study it was found that lecturers do not give model demonstration lessons. This was in fact a constant complaint by respondents. This should not be surprising if one considers the following:

- Some college lecturers have not had enough school experience (see Table 2 in Chapter 1).
- Most college lecturers train teachers to teach in primary schools when they have not had primary school teaching experience. Even the professional qualifications of most lecturers is geared for secondary school teaching.

b] Peer group teaching during demonstration lessons

In one rural college respondents reported that peer group teaching is used to prepare students for school-based practice teaching. This means that demonstration lessons are conducted by other students. It seems as if in this college, student teachers sometimes conduct lessons, the aim of which is to relate theory to practice.

If demonstration lessons are conducted by students it appears as if these are not ordinary student teachers. Respondents referred to these students as "upgraders". "Upgraders" are student teachers who

have teaching qualifications lower than a Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD). These students enrolled for PTD for purposes of upgrading their professional qualification. They only do two years in a college of education and qualify for PTD (M+3).

The use of "upgraders" in demonstration lessons appears to be a positive step at this college. This is because these "upgraders" would have taught in primary schools. They therefore have the necessary classroom experience in primary schools.

In the said college lecturers are not conducting demonstration lessons. The respondents did not know why this was the case. Even if there are "upgraders" at a particular college, the lecturers should still conduct demonstration lessons, according to the opinion of the researcher. Lecturers should not be appointed to teach in a college of education merely because they have high qualifications which go along with a better salary package. It is their ability to train teachers which should be taken into account. If a lecturer in a college of education cannot conduct demonstration lessons, the question arises as to how he/she prepares student teachers for the realities of the primary school classroom. Otherwise the transfer of theory to practice becomes an idle dream if demonstration lessons cannot be conducted by the same people who are supposed to teach didactic theory.

6.4.4.3 Classroom overcrowding

Overcrowded classrooms were cited by the respondents as the most serious problem. Respondents were particularly concerned about overcrowding because they maintained that they could not teach

effectively under such conditions. Discipline was cited as an offshoot problem of overcrowded classes.

Overemphasis on overcrowded classrooms, which goes along with problems of discipline, seems to suggest that students are concerned about maintaining order in class, instead of teaching. It would be interesting to know the extent to which these respondents are influenced by an overemphasis on order and discipline as espoused by Fundamental Pedagogics. This philosophy of education (Fundamental Pedagogics) still permeates the current discourse in black teacher education.

6.4.4.4 Demonstration lessons versus overcrowding in schools

Overcrowding in class seems to be taken so seriously by respondents that they suggest that even demonstration lessons should be conducted in overcrowded classrooms. This shows the extent of the problem of the theory-practice dichotomy in KwaZulu colleges of education. Respondents seem to suggest that there is a problem regarding what takes place in the real classroom situation as opposed to the theory which they learn at the college.

There is also a suggestion that the number of demonstration lessons are not enough. Respondents suggest, for instance, that "teaching practice can be improved if there are more demonstration lessons". The implication here is that the ability to transfer theory to practice is hampered when there is a scarcity of demonstration lessons.

6.4.4.5 Teaching aids

Respondents further maintain that there is a scarcity of teaching aids in schools. This seems to be in conflict with the theory that media should be used. "In view of the scarcity of teaching aids in schools, there should be a teaching aids centre in each college", one respondent suggested.

Respondents seem to believe that there is a relationship between the abundance of teaching aids and effective teaching. They apparently do not realise that a good teacher (under a tree without even a blackboard) can teach better than an incompetent teacher with the best equipment and facilities in the world. This does not aim at undermining the importance of teaching aids. As Brown and Nacino-Brown (1990: 102) report this is the problem with both developing and developed countries. Student teachers should thus not blame their poor performance on the lack of teaching aids. They must be self-reliant, innovative and able to improvise much of the time to make the best of the difficult situation (*Ibid.*: 102).

6.4.4.6 Practice teaching and professional satisfaction

Respondents regard school-based practice teaching as an occasion during which the application of theory to practice leads to professional satisfaction. They regard the very idea of being at school as being important for their professional preparation. When they apply theory, which they have learned at the college, they begin to appreciate the chasm which exists between the reality of the school situation and the theory espoused at college.

From the above discussion it seems as if students attach great importance to practice teaching despite the already mentioned problems. The fact that practice teaching in schools enables student teachers to experiment with college-learned theory seems to be rewarding to them.

6.4.5 Effective supervision

6.4.5.1 Supervision by co-operating teachers

Respondents seem to be very uncomfortable when they are in schools during practice teaching, as they reported that teachers in schools were very hostile towards them. Hostility was demonstrated by the following:

- sarcasm by teachers;
- teachers being absent from class whilst students teach;
- remarks that student teachers are arrogant because they are studying for a diploma.

The abovementioned instances indicate that student teachers are not properly supervised in schools during practice teaching. Whilst this apparent hostility is related to the teachers' lack of training in supervision, it seems as if there are deep-seated reasons for this state of affairs. The majority of teachers in schools have a teacher's certificate which was obtained during the training college era. With the introduction of the college of education system from 1982 the teachers (those with certificates) were declared underqualified because they did not have diplomas, i.e. M+3.

What flows from the above point is that many teachers in schools are effectively in an inferior position when compared with the student teachers when they are expected to supervise. On the other hand, it is also possible that student teachers somehow resist supervision by teachers who may be their juniors in qualifications.

As has already been implied above, lack of training in supervision of co-operating teachers is another problem. This further confirms that teachers in schools are not equal to their tasks during practice teaching supervision. It also suggests that much work needs to be done in order to put the practical training of student teachers on its proper footing.

Evidence available in this study seems to suggest, however, that student teachers need the support of co-operating teachers when they teach in schools. Where there is no guidance by teachers, they generally do not know when they are on the right track or not.

Even in cases where some supervision does take place, this is not done in a manner which is didactically and professionally helpful to student teachers. The remark that "teachers stop you whilst you teach and tell the class that you are wrong", suggests that the supervision of student teachers during practice teaching needs general overhauling. This kind of behaviour implies that teachers in schools do not understand the extent to which student teachers suffer from reality shock in these schools. A remark such as the one above is bound to affect the self-esteem of a student teacher. This is besides the fact that there is no didactic justification for humiliating a student teacher when his pedagogical wings are still very fragile.

Student teachers, however, seem to realise the importance of co-operating teachers during practice teaching. "Subject teachers should have a major say in the evaluation of student teachers because they spend most of their time with students", some respondents suggested. This means that there is a conflict of expectations during practice teaching. Student teachers expect help from teachers, whereas teachers are neither able nor willing to give them the necessary professional support. The ineffectiveness of practice teaching supervision is apparent in this case.

6.4.5.2 Supervision by college lecturers

"Crit lessons should be evaluated by a person who teaches the subject", most respondents suggested. This means that student teachers do not favour a system whereby they are evaluated by any lecturer, irrespective of his/her insight into that particular subject. Whilst it is possible that such a state of affairs results from the ever-increasing number of student teachers in colleges these days, it can, nevertheless, not be justified. It seems as if colleges will have to design ways of circumventing this problem.

If a lecturer does not have the necessary academic and professional grounding in a particular subject, it stands to reason that he/she cannot be qualified to evaluate such a subject during practice teaching. Evaluation of teaching is a specialised skill which is acquired. It becomes even more problematic when a person without the necessary insight into the subject is allowed to evaluate lessons in the subject.

A physical education crit lesson was cited as a practical example of the problem when a lecturer was to evaluate a lesson on physical education. This being a practical subject, pupils had to go out to the open air for physical exercises. The student teacher was penalised for this because the lecturer expected to see a lesson conducted in the classroom. Even the lesson preparation format seemed to have been a source of conflict between the student and the lecturer.

It also seems as if college lecturers have a tendency to leave the class before the lesson comes to an end. Student teachers appear to be greatly disturbed by this. Lecturers could be doing this for two reasons:

- a] Lecturers work under pressure to complete their day's load during practice teaching. This could be related to large numbers of students whose lessons they need to evaluate.

- b) College lecturers seem not to realise the didactic value of observing the whole lesson. If a lecturer leaves the classroom before the evaluation stage of the lesson, he/she cannot know whether evaluation has been in accordance with the objective of the lesson.

Criticism lessons which are evaluated by college lecturers are apparently valued by student teachers who reported that such lessons enabled them to gain confidence. What is revealing is that they are more thorough in their preparation when they are to be evaluated by college lecturers. This seems to suggest that student teachers attach some degree of seriousness only to criticism lessons. If these student teachers are not properly supervised by teachers when there are no criticism lessons, it stands to reason that current school-based practice teaching arrangements have little didactic value.

6.4.6 Time-on-task

Respondents are concerned regarding the way in which practice teaching is structured. They suggest a month of continuous practice teaching rather than blocks of two weeks. The views on the time spent on practice teaching are twofold:

- a) The current two-week block period for practice teaching is not what student teachers would prefer. The rationale behind this is that two weeks of block practice does not afford them sufficient time to get to know pupils in their classes.
- b) Another concern is that two weeks of block practice teaching does not provide them with adequate opportunity to apply their didactic insights in the classroom.

6.5 RESULTS OF THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

It was suggested in the introduction of this chapter that the results from Question 6 of the questionnaire (open-ended) would be presented here (see 6.1 b)). These results are presented separately from other qualitative results due to their uniqueness. Although they are qualitative, they appear to have some quantitative elements. These results are presented according to didactic criteria outlined earlier on.

Responses to this question are discussed under six headings, viz. effective partnership, college theoretical preparation, efficient organisation of practice teaching, ability to transfer theory to practice, effective supervision and time-on-task.

6.5.1 Effective Partnership

Effective partnership has to do with the nature of the relationship between the college and local schools in the professional preparation of teachers. Where the relationship is weak it is assumed that partnership between the college and the schools is not effective. This suggests a discrepancy in the professional preparation of teachers. The following subsections will be covered here: college teaching methods, language problems, pupil attitudes and subjects not taught in schools.

a) College teaching methods

The thrust on college teaching methods was with reference to lack of congruence between such methods and those used by teachers in schools. This appears to be a matter of serious concern to student teachers. Fourteen percent (14%) of the respondents feel strongly about the lack of congruence

between college teaching methods and those used by teachers in schools. (See Table 28 at the end of this chapter).

It is true that college teaching is didactically different from that of school teaching. It is thus accepted that, because of age differences among learners in these institutions, teaching methods may not be always the same. Yet in a situation where there is effective partnership between the two institutions it is possible that some congruence can be found between college and school teaching methods. In this way there will be a link between how student teachers are taught and how they are expected to teach in schools. College lecturers' teaching methods should be such that student teachers would wish to emulate them.

b) Language problems

This problem was raised by a number of respondents and it was given prominence by senior primary diploma students who are trained to teach from standard 3 to standard 5. The ruling is that English should be the medium of instruction from standard 3 onwards. However, despite this ruling, it appears there are teachers who still teach through the medium of Zulu (see section 6.4.1 c]).

When the student teachers are trained at the college they are made aware of regulations concerning the use of English as a medium of instruction from standard 3. This is, however, not adhered to in most of the schools. Student teachers thus find a problem in their didactic encounter with pupils. Pupils seem not to be conversant with the way in which they are taught by student teachers which creates a problem for both student teachers and pupils.

What is apparent here is that as long as there is no partnership between colleges and schools in teacher preparation, problems such as the one reflected above are bound to occur.

c) Pupil attitudes towards students (see section 6.4.1 b))

This is related to the following issues:

- i) that student teachers are not permanent in schools;
- ii) the uniform which the student teachers wear does not differentiate them from pupils who also wear uniform, thus reinforcing their temporary status in the schools.

Because of the two issues raised above pupils do not give student teachers the degree of seriousness which they deserve. Such an attitude is likely to affect the self-esteem of student teachers, which further means that classroom discipline is affected. If classroom discipline is affected it stands to reason that effective teaching becomes an idle dream.

Equal and therefore effective partnership between colleges and schools would create conditions for effective school-based practice teaching. Pupils, for instance, would not have the apparent disdainful attitude they have towards student teachers. Effective partnership would create conditions in which pupils appreciate the role of student teachers in schools. It is, for instance, envisaged that in effective partnership student teachers would have more constant contact with schools. Pupils would thus also have to develop a positive relationship with student teachers to the point where the eroding attitude is done away with.

d] Some subjects not taught in schools

Absence of partnership between colleges and schools leads to the teaching of subjects which are taught at college but which are not offered in schools. such as music, art and physical education. This means that colleges are training student teachers for a situation which does not exist.

In a situation where there is partnership such a state of affairs would not exist. It seems as if even student teachers are affected by the problem described above and they tend to regard subjects like music, art and physical education as being unimportant in their professional training. The college curriculum is adversely affected because student teachers may not give the necessary seriousness to such subjects.

6.5.2 College theoretical preparation

College theoretical preparation should form the basis for school-based practice teaching, otherwise practice teaching without theory is not useful at all. Harmony between college theoretical preparation and practice teaching renders a trained teacher distinguishable from an untrained teacher. The following concern, raised by the respondents, suggests something about their college theoretical preparation.

Class of slow learners

Student teachers seem to experience problems with what they regard as a class of slow learners. As has been stated above, this suggests something about the didactic theory which these students have been taught at college.

The researcher is of the opinion that even if the class comprises of slow learners this should not be a problem with a student teacher who has sound didactic theory. The view which is taken here is that those who teach pupils should always take into account the learning style of the pupils they teach. Learning styles are classified as follows:

- i] doers
- ii] feelers
- iii] observers
- iv] conceptualises (Persaud, 1992: 15).

Teaching strategies should cater for all these learning styles. In this way all pupils in the class will be accommodated. Student teachers should not simply label pupils slow learners, but they should ensure that learning styles which accommodate all learners are used.

The above views thus presuppose that the student teacher would have done needs assessment in order to determine the entry situation of pupils.

Respondents' concern regarding slow learners seems to suggest that they lack proper grounding in didactic theory. In conclusion, the researcher is further of the opinion that no pupil should be labelled a slow learner. It is the teacher who ought to adapt his teaching strategy to the level of the learners' (pupils') learning styles.

6.5.3 Efficient organisation of practice teaching

Efficient organisation of practice teaching has to do with how well practice teaching is organised. This, of course, will depend upon the context in which practice teaching takes place, as well as how a particular college organises it. The following subheadings are dealt

with: violence, high expectations by schools from student teachers, transport (distance) to schools, poor communication between college and school

a] Violence

The effective organisation of practice teaching is hampered in the following ways:

i] Student teachers are sent to schools for practice teaching. Those who organise practice teaching do not anticipate that there is going to be political violence in the area where the school is situated. When student teachers have to be withdrawn from violence-ridden schools, this affects the efficient organisation of practice teaching.

ii] As a result of violence, colleges are usually compelled to place student teachers in areas where they will be away from transport. This became problematic in one particular day college. At this college no money is collected for teaching practice purposes and student teachers have to use their pocket money in order to travel to schools during practice teaching. In this way the proper organisation of practice teaching is affected.

b] High expectations by schools from students

This has to do with the organisation of practice teaching. Where practice teaching is effectively organised there will be positive communication between colleges and schools through which schools know exactly what and what not to expect from student teachers. Otherwise there is an apparent exaggeration of expectations by schools as explained below, and this is bound to create tension and conflict.

School principals were cited as expecting too much from student teachers. This is understandable, though, if one considers the fact that 15% of teachers in KwaZulu

are unqualified and 52% underqualified (Edusource, 1993: 3). Those who are unqualified are those who have not been formally trained as teachers i.e. those who teach without a teacher's certificate. The 52% who are said to be underqualified are those who do not have diplomas, but have only teacher certificates. When principals therefore expect too much from the students who are studying for diplomas, it may as well be that this is caused by the assumed superiority of their training when compared to that of practising teachers.

The conflicting expectations inherent in a situation such as that described above became apparent because student teachers believe that they are supposed to get guidance from schools, whereas teachers in these schools have neither the ability nor the inclination to provide this.

c) Transport (distance) to schools

This problem was raised by some respondents in the urban college which is a day college. As has already been stated above, this college does not collect money for practice teaching from student teachers and students themselves have to pay their travelling expenses to schools.

Besides the problem of violence that has already been mentioned, it is sometimes not possible to place student teachers in schools that are in close proximity to the college because of large student numbers.

d) Poor communication between college and school

This appears to be a serious problem in KwaZulu colleges of education. Respondents are of the view that lack of support which they experience from schools could be attributed to poor communication.

Poor communication also seems to suggest that both institutions have not begun to regard themselves as equal partners in the professional preparation of teachers. This is important if one takes into account that good communication between colleges and schools presupposes efficient organisation of practice teaching. Efficient organisation is likely to go together with effective partnership between the two institutions.

Where there has been proper communication between colleges and schools, practice teaching is likely to be a rewarding experience for student teachers. In this way practice teaching will be more effective.

6.5.4 Ability to transfer theory to practice

This has to do with the application of theoretical knowledge which students gain during college-based training. The students' ability to relate theory to practice is hampered by classroom overcrowding and lack of teaching aids, as discussed below.

- a) Classroom overcrowding (see Section 6.4.4.3)

Student teachers seem to be very concerned about classroom overcrowding. Whilst this problem has already been given attention, it needs to be pointed out that colleges of education should design some teaching theory which will enable student teachers to deal with the problem of overcrowding. According to Edusource (1993: 3) the pupil-teacher ratio in primary schools is 53:1. These statistics need to be read with caution as the situation on the ground may be completely different. In practice, however, pupil-teacher ratios can, and do, exceed 100:1 in some rural areas (*ibid.*). Obviously, such class sizes make effective teaching extremely difficult and can lend themselves to a teaching methodology which is teacher-centered and authoritarian.

The problem of overcrowding seems to suggest that colleges should train student teachers in methods which will enable student teachers to teach in overcrowded classrooms. One wonders if these student teachers are aware of co-operative learning. In this type of learning pupils are divided into small groups according to their responsibilities. This means that each group is given an objective to obtain. Co-operative learning is usually useful when teaching a new concept. One of the characteristics of co-operative learning is brain storming. In this situation quiet voices are not lost or shouted down. The "culture of silence", which is seen to characterise most black schools, can thus be avoided.

b] Lack of teaching aids (see Section 6.4.4.5)

This appears to be of serious concern to the student teachers and is rather disturbing. One gets the impression that student teachers do not see themselves as creators and innovators of teaching-learning situations. It appears that they come to school with fixed ways of teaching. This is typical of student teachers during the normal college era.

Notwithstanding the above arguments and those in Section 6.4.4.3, teaching normally facilitates the application of theory to practice. In a teaching situation where there is a paucity of teaching aids, it is apparent that the application of theory to practice is hampered. Teaching aids contribute greatly to ensuring that what pupils have learned at school can be applied meaningfully in life's endless variety of problem situations. It is also true that what the pupil learns is retained for a longer period if learned through actual concrete representations.

Didactic theory concerning the use of teaching aids is not useful unless students are in a position to apply such theory in a practical situation. In as

far as this study is concerned it would seem as if colleges ought to have a better understanding concerning the context in which college-based didactic theory is applied, otherwise student teachers are likely to suffer severely from reality shock when they arrive in schools and find that college-learned theory is not easy to apply.

It is also important to take note of the fact that whilst lack of resources in schools is acknowledged as a major drawback, it is a fact that human interaction between teacher and learner is invaluable for maturation in learning. The human element in a didactic situation remains of paramount importance.

6.5.5 Effective supervision

Effective supervision has to do with the ability of lecturers and teachers to supervise practice teaching. If practice teaching is not properly supervised it stands to reason that student teachers will not learn much from it. The following areas are dealt with here: teacher indifference, teacher absence during classes and evaluation by lecturers not familiar with didactics or content.

6.5.5.1 Supervision by co-operating teachers

a) Teacher indifference

This refers to the negative attitude which teachers demonstrate towards students in that they are neither able nor willing to assist student teachers when they teach in schools.

These findings suggest lack of awareness by teachers of the complexities of supervisor/student teacher relationships. The importance attached to interpersonal communication during supervision is neglected in a situation where co-operating teachers are indifferent towards the student teachers. This means that the need to establish clear communication, understanding and mutual trust is absent.

Another problem relates to the training of co-operative teachers as supervisors. The current trend suggests that supervision is inherited because there is no training through which supervisors go. This shows that the supervision of student teachers is still very much neglected, despite its centrality in the whole process of teacher education.

It has already been suggested that teachers have a negative attitude towards student teachers. This shows the extent to which current school-based practice teaching supervision is ineffective in KwaZulu colleges. It is not possible that the supervision of practice teaching can be effective when teachers are indifferent towards their supervisory roles.

b) Teacher absence during classes

The general tendency is that teachers are usually not present in class in order to supervise student teachers during practice teaching. This means that student teachers are, for most of the time, left unsupervised during practice teaching.

It has been indicated that there is lack of partnership between colleges and schools when it comes to the preparation of teachers. This means that teachers in schools do not regard themselves as having anything to do with

student teachers in their classes. It is partly in this light that their absence should be viewed.

Even if some teachers know that they need to help student teachers during practice teaching, they do this as a ritual because they were assisted when they were student teachers. In this case there is no commitment to the proper supervision of student teachers. It thus appears that student teachers do not receive the necessary support from teachers during practice teaching.

The centrality of teachers has been recognised by Dow (1979: 197) when she said: "If teaching practice is the linchpin in a course of teacher education, it follows that teachers in the practice schools have a central place".

6.5.5.2 Supervision by college lecturers

a] Evaluation by lecturers not familiar with subject didactic and content

This also appears to be an issue of serious concern to student teachers because it gained clear focus in response to Question 6 on the questionnaire. When student teachers are supervised by lecturers who are not familiar with content or subject didactics there is usually a conflict of expectations regarding lesson preparation and methodology. This is often the case when, for instance, a lecturer who specialises in Zulu has to evaluate a music lesson. Besides the fact that the philosophical assumptions of Zulu and music are different, the teaching methodology is totally different.

When a lesson is evaluated by a lecturer who has no knowledge of the content and subject didactics of the particular subject, it stands to reason that

the student teacher does not benefit. There is also the possibility that a student teacher may not teach the lesson properly and this may escape the notice of the supervising lecturer if he/she is not familiar with the content and subject didactics in a particular subject.

The situation such as that described above is understandable, if one considers the increasing number of student teachers in colleges without the commensurate increase of the lecturing staff. The onus, however, lies with the colleges to design innovative ways of organising practice teaching in such a manner that it is only those lecturers who know the subject who will evaluate it (see section 6.4.5.2).

6.5.6 Time-on-task

This refers to the quality time during which student teachers are effectively engaged with practice teaching in schools.

The actual amount of time

The time which is allocated to practice teaching (i.e. 50 days in three years) is not enough. Student teachers appear to be in need of more experience in the practical situation of the classroom.

The way in which practice teaching is organised. Practice teaching is organised according to blocks i.e.

first year	=	10 days
second year	=	20 days
third year	=	20 days.

Student teachers would appreciate it if practice teaching became continuous rather than in block form. It seems as if the concern of the student teachers relate to the following:

- ▶ Block practice teaching does not give them time to familiarise themselves with pupils in schools. They therefore find it rather difficult to come to grips with the overall entry situation of the pupils. Even the general institutional culture is not understood by student teachers if they stay for shorter periods in a school.

- ▶ Practice teaching does not give student teachers a full day's experience in the school. It only prepares student teachers for criticism lessons.

- ▶ The foregoing arguments suggest that the time students spend on practice teaching is not effective in terms of what student teachers learn during school-based practice teaching.

6.5.7 Summary of responses to open-ended question

The qualitative results which are quantitative in nature can be depicted as follows in terms of this study.

TABLE: 28 Qualitative results for Question 6 of the questionnaire

N = 100		
CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSES IN THE CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE
6.5.1 Effective partnership		
a) College teaching methods	14	6,8
b) Language problems	13	6,3
c) Pupil attitudes towards students	10	4,9
d) Some subjects not taught in schools	4	1,9
6.5.2 College theoretical preparation		
a) Class of slow learners	2	1,0
6.5.3 Efficient organisation of practice teaching		
a) Violence	8	3,9
b) High expectations by schools	4	1,9
c) Transport (distance) to schools	2	1,0
d) Poor communication - college and school	2	1,0
6.5.4 Ability to transfer theory to practice		
a) Classroom overcrowding	37	18,0
b) Lack of teaching aids	28	13,6
6.5.5 Effective supervision		
6.9.5.1 Supervision by co-operating teachers		
a) Teacher indifference	42	20,4
b) Teacher absence during classes	19	9,2
6.9.5.2 Supervision by college lecturers		
a) Evaluation by lecturers not familiar with didactics/content	15	7,3
6.5.6 Time-on-task		
a) Limited time	9	2,9
TOTAL	206	100

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter attention was given to qualitative perceptions regarding school-based practice teaching as expressed by respondents. Criteria for effective practice teaching were used to categorise the results.

The findings reveal that school-based practice teaching is not effective. This suggests that KwaZulu colleges of education have fundamental problems regarding the practical training of teachers. It appears natural that there should be a radical review of current practices regarding school-based practice teaching.

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CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The analysis of results is based on criteria formulated in Chapter 3, namely:

- Effective partnership between colleges and schools
- College theoretical preparation
- Efficient organisation
- Ability to transfer theory to practice
- Effective supervision
- Time-on-task.

However, the results regarding the criterion *college theoretical preparation*, are analysed according to didactic constructs outlined in Chapter 4.

7.2 CRITERION ONE: EFFECTIVE PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

It was stated in Chapter 3 (see section 3.2) that a variety of teaching specialists emphasised the need for a structured relationship between colleges and schools. In the empirical study five main trends regarding this criterion can be identified viz.

- student views on college-learned teaching methods
- lack of communication between colleges and schools
- pupil attitudes
- language problems
- problematic subjects

In the discussion which follows these trends will be elucidated.

7.2.1 Student views on college-learned teaching methods

At first glance the results of the empirical study appear to be positive about existing relationships between colleges and schools. It has been noted, for example, that 88% of students in the sample agreed that college-learned teaching methods were helpful (see Table 6) and that 73% regard the methods as easy to apply (see Table 7). This suggests that there is an effective partnership between colleges and schools. However, if one looks at the qualitative results presented in Chapter 6, this interpretation appears to be superficial.

In the open-ended question of the questionnaire (Question 6) most of the respondents repeatedly complained about the lack of congruence between teaching methods taught at colleges and those used in schools (see Chapter 6, subsection 6.5.1). This contradicts the quantitative findings as stated above. It would appear that the students felt more free to express their honest opinions in response to the open-ended question than what they do to the closed-ended question in the questionnaire. In the closed-ended question respondents were asked whether they found methods were "helpful" and "easy to apply". Most of the respondents replied in the affirmative. However, they were not asked whether the methods learned at the college were relevant to the actual school situation. The fact that they thought methods were irrelevant only came to light when the open-ended question was posed, when students felt free to express their own opinions.

In the final analysis the study showed that students found that college-learned methods were interesting but not useful as they could not apply these methods in the schools during practice teaching. This leads to the question: In which way are college-learned methods not relevant to the actual school situation? One possible answer seems to be that lecturers have lost touch with schools. The following are some of the realities with which lecturers seem to be out of touch:

a] Overcrowding

Most lecturers are apparently not aware of the high degree of overcrowding in schools. They may, for instance, teach students how to do groupwork in classes and students may be able and enthusiastic to apply this method in schools. Yet, when they arrive at schools they are confronted with classes of 80 to 90 pupils crammed into classrooms designed for 30 pupils. Consequently, they find small group methods irrelevant.

b] Resources and facilities

Similarly many college lecturers evidently teach students to use a variety of text books, pictures, tape recorders, etc., yet most KwaZulu schools have no teaching aids other than chalkboards (often without chalk), no electricity and no running water.

As far as facilities are concerned many schools have structural deficiencies, broken windows and no desks or insufficient desks. It therefore comes as no surprise that students cannot apply "helpful teaching methods" which they were taught at college.

7.2.2 Lack of communication between colleges and schools

The importance of communication between colleges and schools was highlighted during the examination of effective partnership (see Chapter 3, section 3.2). This study, however, reveals that the quality of colleges and schools in KwaZulu is problematic. Here, too, there is a discrepancy between student responses to closed-ended and open-ended questions.

The results of the interview reveal that there is a disturbing lack of communication between colleges and schools as reported by students (see Section 6.4.1). The following are communication problems which were highlighted by respondents during interviews:

- ♦ Most teachers in schools were not informed beforehand that student teachers were expected to arrive for practice teaching, or when they were expected.
- ♦ Students were sent to schools when it was time for examinations; as a result students became frustrated because they did not find time to interact with pupils in the classroom.
- ♦ Various other communication problems cropped up between colleges and schools which negatively affected the training of student teachers.

The apparent lack of communication between colleges and schools obviously renders the partnership between the two institutions ineffective. This seems to manifest itself in the following ways:

- a] Colleges simply send students to schools without joint planning

When this happens students arrive at schools whilst the schools are following a programme which prevents students from gaining classroom experience.

Students may arrive at schools when it is time for tests, examinations, athletics, excursions, etc.

b] Distance between colleges and schools

The absence of transport and telephones in schools limits contact between colleges and schools. This is probably more serious in rural areas. The problem is further compounded by increased enrolments in colleges of education with no corresponding increase in the number of schools in the vicinity of the college. Colleges may thus be forced to send students to schools which are distant from the colleges, thus intensifying the communication problem.

7.2.3 Pupil attitudes

The empirical findings suggest that most pupils attach little importance to the presence of students in their classes during practice teaching (see section 6.5.1 c). This could be related to the duration and motive of practice teaching. The following factors can be seen to contribute to this state of affairs:

a] The temporary nature of block practice teaching

As soon as the students arrive in schools for practice teaching pupils learn that the students are going to be with them for a short while only (usually 10 days). When pupils hear that the presence of student teachers is of a temporary nature they do not take them seriously. This is obviously more acute in a situation where there is ineffective partnership between colleges and schools. Where effective communication does exist between the two

institutions the pupils would have a clear understanding regarding the importance of the students in as far as the pupils' own learning is concerned. They would be made aware that students are not only there to qualify as teachers, but also to help pupils to learn more effectively.

b) Uniform

In the colleges which were involved in this study students still wear a uniform when they go to schools for practice teaching. When students are to be in school for only ten days and wear a uniform they stand out as remarkably different from the permanent teachers. This causes another problem. Students are likely to be rated by pupils as occupying the lowest rank in the hierarchy of the school. This, coupled with the students' temporary status in the schools, leads to pupils not taking them seriously, even when they teach.

7.2.4 Language problems

Evidence emanating from the qualitative results showed that senior primary student teachers experience problems when they use English as a medium of instruction in higher primary schools .(see section 6.4.1 c] and 6.5.1 b]). They experience this problem despite the regulation that English shall be the medium of instruction from standard 3 upwards. This means that there are many teachers who do not comply with this regulation, but who revert to teaching in Zulu. Such a situation has a self-repeating tendency in the sense that students themselves usually fall back and use Zulu because they are constantly surrounded by teachers who speak only Zulu. This is despite the fact that students may be critical of what teachers do in this regard when these students are still in training.

Whilst it is accepted that such a state of affairs in schools could be related to teacher quality as well as to the home background of the pupils, what becomes apparent is that teachers in schools become isolated from teacher education institutions as soon as they qualify as teachers. Even the in-service courses organised for these teachers are usually so idealistic and remote from the actual needs of teachers that they may not be useful at all. As a result the behaviour and professional conduct of teachers have the following manifestations:

a] Teacher behaviour and conduct is in accordance with prevailing norms in school

No matter how progressive the ideas which a teacher might have obtained from the college are, as soon as he/she reaches the schools he/she lapses into practices propagated by older teachers. These older teachers create the impression that they have survived over the years using the same norms. In this manner the new teacher becomes convinced that he/she may do away with innovative or progressive techniques which they mastered at college. The situation described here perpetuates the status quo because there is no room for innovation in schools. The end result is that most teachers end up teaching as they themselves were taught.

b] Absence of self-development

Regardless of how well qualified teachers are, they are bound to stop growing if they do not use the profound theories of teaching which they learned at college. It is thus possible for a teacher to teach for ten years without evidence of professional growth. If teachers stop developing because they are contaminated by unhealthy school environments, it stands to reason that the whole education system may become stagnant.

The following story is a case in point: A teacher who taught standard 2 for many years, without professional growth taking place ended up thinking and

behaving like the standard 2 child. This situation can become reality if colleges are isolated from schools - new teachers are unable to harmonise their college training with school experience.

7.2.5 Problematic subjects

Responses to the open-ended question revealed that there are subjects which are taught at college but ignored or given scant attention in schools (see section 6.5.1 d)). Subjects cited by respondents were Music, Art and Physical Education.

In some schools these subjects are not offered. Even where they are offered they are usually not given the necessary prominence in the school curriculum. There are, for instance, no examinations written in these subjects as there is a general scarcity of specialists in these subjects. Yet, when such specialists are available in a school, they are used to teach other "important" subjects. The apparent reason for this is the compartmentalisation of colleges and schools. Both these institutions are involved in the education of teachers; yet they do not cooperate. This finds expression in the following practices:

a) College courses are not based on the actual needs of schools

Colleges seem to educate teachers for a world which does not exist as the college programme is frequently irrelevant. What is the use, for instance, of training teachers in technical subjects if the school curriculum has no room for these subjects? What would be the use of teaching students computer literacy if they are going to teach in rural areas where there is no electricity?

b) School staff are unaware of college curricula

The current situation regarding the training of teachers in KwaZulu is such that school personnel are extremely ignorant of course content taught in colleges. The only time when administrators and teachers get a glimpse of what is happening at colleges is when students reach these schools for practice teaching or after they have qualified. The result is a conflict of expectations. A teacher may, for instance, be trained in the modern ways of teaching physical education and therefore require equipment to teach the course. The principal, on the other hand, may believe that physical education can be taught without any equipment as he has seen it done over the years. The problem is compounded if the principal taught the same subject some years ago.

7.3 CRITERION TWO: COLLEGE THEORETICAL PREPARATION

It was argued in Chapter 4 (see Chapter 4) that college theoretical preparation forms the basis for school-based practice teaching. Findings related to this criterion will be analysed using the following headings:

- Students' views on college theoretical preparation
- Lack of congruence among lecturers concerning effective teaching
- The case of junior primary pupils
- The problem of slow learners
- Lesson planning

7.3.1 Students' views on college theoretical preparation

The quantitative results revealed that 81% of the respondents agreed that colleges prepare them to cope with classroom management problems. This suggests that the majority of the respondents in the sample are, on the whole, positive regarding this aspect of their college theoretical preparation (see Table 9). The implication here is that students generally have a clear understanding of classroom procedure and organisation as discussed in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.7).

The qualitative results, however, once again reveal a different picture (see section 6.4.2 b)) regarding the practical realities of classroom procedure and organisation. This could be attributed to the following reasons:

a) Inappropriate didactic theory for the realities of the classroom

This is possible in a situation where college lecturers have lost touch with the realities of the classroom situation as was argued in section 7.2.1. Didactic theories which students learn at colleges should be applicable when students are faced with the realities of teaching during practice teaching (see section 3.3), but this aim cannot be realised when lecturers themselves do not maintain constant contact with current classroom dynamics and situations.

Students must obviously be taught how to maintain order in the classroom, yet the theory should be built on pragmatic grounds. Students may, for instance, be taught that conduct of pupils which is not in accordance with school rules is punishable. In this way college lecturers may teach empty abstractions which are administrative and not counselling in design. Should this happen teachers could lose sight of the fact that what is taught may not be desirable in the real school environment. If they then use administrative

procedures such as punishment it may be extremely harmful to pupils, thus creating more problems than solutions. Pupils who have been traumatised and hardened by violence in society may need a different approach to classroom procedure and organisation. College lecturers ought to understand this and develop didactic theories which will enable student teachers to deal with such abnormal situations. College-learned didactic theory will be inappropriate if lecturers themselves remain aloof from schools.

b] Brevity of block sessions

Block practice of ten school days is often an event which takes place merely because it is a requirement for certification. There is presently no arrangement whereby college theoretical training can be reinforced on a more continuous basis. That is one reason why college theoretical training often becomes derailed. Classroom control, for example, is usually a problem for student teachers. Such problems could be reduced if students have constant or prolonged contact with schools so as to test college-learned didactic assumptions.

7.3.2 Lack of congruence among lecturers on what constitutes effective teaching

Lack of agreement amongst lecturers was reported by respondents during the interviews (see section 6.4.2 a)). Conflicting theoretical persuasions become apparent to students when lecturers evaluate their lessons during practice teaching. The problem is exacerbated if a student is evaluated by a lecturer who does not teach him didactic theory. The crux of the matter is that if lecturers do not agree among themselves as to what constitutes effective teaching, it stands to reason that students will be all the more confused about the matter. It is accepted that effective teaching can mean different things depending upon the person's

epistemological grounding. However, it is expected that lecturers in a particular college of education should have a more or less uniform view of effective teaching practices. The following appears to be the reason for lack of congruence amongst lecturers as to what constitutes effective teaching:

- o Lecturers work in isolation from one another

If lecturers do not periodically come together and define their understanding of effective teaching lack of congruence concerning effective teaching amongst them will be more pronounced. This happens if the head of department in charge of practice teaching does not regularly bring all the lecturers together so that they can develop a common understanding of what constitutes effective teaching.

7.3.3 The case of junior primary pupils

The findings of this study further reveal that respondents were concerned about the disruptive behaviour of junior primary school pupils (see section 6.4.2 b)). Whilst the concern of students is understood in view of the fact that no teaching can be effective where pupils demonstrate disruptive behaviour, this has more to do with needs assessment (see 4.2.1) as a didactic construct. This gives a very gloomy picture concerning the training of teachers for junior primary school classes. The following reasons could be advanced for this:

- a] Junior primary work is not given adequate attention in colleges of education

At the time of this investigation all KwaZulu colleges which train primary school teachers did not have departments of junior primary work and there were generally no lecturers who are specialised in junior primary work. This makes one wonder if these colleges were at all doing justice to junior primary

work. It should be remembered that junior primary work is a highly specialised area which requires special attention. Since junior primary work is not treated as a speciality in KwaZulu colleges, it stands to reason that student teachers will experience problems in dealing with junior primary pupils.

b] Lack of pre-primary facilities in colleges which train junior primary teachers

The fact that the respondents have cited this as a source of frustration regarding their practical training signifies that it is a problem (see section 6.4.2 b] i]). There is a thin dividing line between the SSA (class I) and a pre-schooler. For that matter, some pupils attend their first year classes when they are pre-schoolers in all respects. Student teachers need to understand and experience this. If there are no facilities for pre-primary education only an assumption can be made regarding the behaviour and ways of learning of junior primary school pupils.

7.3.4 The problem of slow learners

The results of the open-ended questionnaire (see Chapter 6 section 6.5.2) reveal that students are concerned about the fact that there are classes in schools which comprise of slow learners. It was argued in Chapter 6 (*Ibid...*) that this is suggestive of the didactic theory which students are being taught at the college. This therefore has implications for the didactic theoretical constructs discussed in Chapter 4. Questions to be asked would, for instance, be: Does the student teacher understand how needs assessment can be applied? Does he know that any teaching strategy should suit the learning styles of children (see section 4.2.4). In actual fact, no didactic construct discussed in Chapter 4 can be put into

practice if a student teacher simply labels pupils as "slow learners", without even attempting to adapt his teaching to their learning styles.

7.3.5 The problem of lesson planning

About half the students (47%) reported that they experience problems with regard to lesson planning (see Table 10). Reasons for this seem to be the same as those that have been discussed under Criterion One (Section 7.2).

a] Inappropriate didactic theory for the realities of the classroom

See 7.2.1.

b] Isolation of college theoretical training

This could be another reason why students experience problems with regard to lesson planning.

If colleges teach theory regarding lesson preparation and then allow students to practice the skill of lesson preparation under the controlled conditions of college-based teaching practice and then expose students to the school realities, students would have less problems regarding lesson preparation.

Colleges may be emphasising behavioural objectives in lesson preparation whilst teachers in schools still make reference to the old fashioned idea of general and specific aim. These two ideas are obviously in conflict. This could be worse where college theoretical preparation is isolated from what happens in schools.

7.4 CRITERION THREE: EFFICIENT ORGANISATION

It was suggested in Chapter 3 (see section 3.4) that efficient organisation of practice teaching is an important prerequisite for school-based practice teaching. The empirical study has led to the following trends being identified using this criterion:

- students' views on efficient organisation
- the problem of violence
- student awareness of school expectations

7.4.1 Students' views on efficient organisation

Evidence from quantitative results suggests that there is efficient organisation regarding practice teaching. The fact that 84% of the respondents agree that they are made aware of the aims of practice teaching before they go to schools is testimony to this (see Table 11). However, the apparent lack of communication between colleges and schools, prior to practice teaching, shows that practice teaching organisation may not be as efficient as is seen on the surface (see Table 12). In this table 44% of the students have reported that they are given sufficient time to communicate with schools prior to practice teaching, whereas 46% disagree. The following factors seem to be responsible for this:

- a) Lack of collaboration between colleges and schools regarding the training of teachers

Colleges and schools do not appear to have a collaborative relationship regarding the training of teachers. Colleges simply send students to schools because it is a requirement that they must have school exposure before they qualify as teachers. Schools, on the other hand, regard students as a necessary evil which they endure out of a professional duty.

Lack of collaboration between the two institutions also leads to false expectations. Due to lack of communication prior to practice teaching schools are not in a position to know and appreciate the knowledge level of students. This could be compounded by the fact that students are currently being trained for three years, whereas most serving teachers were trained for two years. Teachers may thus be tempted to expect too much from students because of the assumed superior level of training.

The fact that students are sometimes sent to schools when schools are conducting examinations is suggestive of a lack of collaboration between colleges and schools (see section 6.4.3).

b) Unequal partnership between colleges and schools

Even if colleges and schools attempt to work together there would still be the problem of the inferior status of schools. As long as schools are regarded by colleges as junior partners in the training of teachers, the question of effective communication prior to practice teaching will not be a priority in as far as colleges are concerned.

Unequal partnership between colleges and schools in the professional preparation of teachers hampers the efficient organisation of practice teaching. The following questions could be asked in this regard:

- Are schools involved in the preliminary planning stages for practice teaching?

- Are their concerns solicited and attended to before students are sent to schools for practice teaching?

7.4.2 Problem of violence

Violence has been cited (see 6.5.3 a]) as being responsible for inefficient organisation of teaching practice. Reasons for violence are mainly politically motivated. It is hoped that violence is short-lived in the sense that with the normalisation of the political process in the whole country, violence would subside. Even if it continues it will be at a reduced level. Otherwise it is acknowledged in this study that violence has a serious bearing on the efficient organisation of practice teaching.

7.4.3 Students' awareness of school expectations

Students generally agree (67%) that they are made aware of school expectations before they go to schools, whilst 23% disagree (see Table 13). These are again quantitative results which are closed-ended. On the surface one becomes convinced that there is efficient organisation of practice teaching as far as this category is concerned.

The results emanating from the open-ended questionnaire suggest that there is a conflict of expectations between teachers and students during practice teaching (see 6.5.3 b]). What becomes apparent is that students are not made aware of school expectations if students believe that the expectations of schools are too high. Reasons for this seem to be related to lack of collaboration between colleges and schools regarding the training of teachers as well as unequal partnership between colleges and schools.

7.5 CRITERION FOUR: ABILITY TO TRANSFER THEORY TO PRACTICE

It was stated in Chapter 3 (see section 3.5) that the chief purpose of practice teaching is to lead each student to develop a didactically sound theory of teaching. A didactically-justifiable

paradigm for practice teaching should thus be one which would allow all students to achieve a meaningful didactic transfer from theory to practice. The following trends have been identified regarding this criterion:

- ▶ students' views on transfer of theory to practice
- ▶ pupil centeredness of college learned methods
- ▶ classroom management
- ▶ college-based practical training
- ▶ teaching aids

7.5.1 Students' views of transfer of theory to practice

According to the quantitative findings, the overwhelming majority (90%) of students believe that college-learned teaching methods help them relate theory to practice (see Table 14). This appears to be a very positive aspect of the theory-practice dichotomy when one looks at it superficially.

However, both the interview and open-ended question of the questionnaire results reveal a different picture (see Sections 6.4.4 and 6.5.4). The implication here could be that college-learned teaching methods enable students to teach, yet when they are actually confronted with the realities of being in class, the application of theory to practice may be problematic. Findings from the interview and open-ended question of the questionnaire reveal deeper-seated problems regarding the actual transfer of theory to practice during school-based practice teaching. The closed-ended nature of the question could thus not delve as deeply as was the case with the interview. The problem of transfer of theory to practice could be related to the following instances:

a] Lack of connectedness between theory and practice

Lack of bridging between theory and practice becomes evident when theory, campus-based practice teaching and school-based practice teaching are treated in isolation from one another (see Chapter 3, Figure 2). The same applies when only theory and campus-based practice teaching overlap whilst school-based practice teaching is detached from the two components (see Chapter 3, Figure 3). There will also be problems regarding transfer of theory to practice if theory is divorced from campus-based practice teaching which overlaps with school-based practice teaching (see Chapter 3, Figure 4). Bridging between theory and practice can only be realised through meaningful didactic transfer (see Figure 5).

7.5.2 Pupil-centeredness of college-learned teaching methods.

Findings regarding this category suggest that college-learned teaching methods are pupil-centered (63%) (see Table 15). This gives a positive impression of college-learned teaching methods. When one analyses the results according to geographical location of colleges a different picture emerges. The 13% of rural students who disagree plus the 18% who are undecided show that this area is problematic. The percentage of students in both peri-urban and urban colleges who disagree are 36% and 33% respectively. The implication here is that college-learned teaching methods are not as pupil-centered as can superficially be assumed. The reason for this state of affairs could be inked to the fact that some college lecturers have no school experience or do not have enough school experience. Even those who do have the necessary school experience may adopt the "ivory tower" methods of teaching. Students would therefore not be exposed to pupil-centered methods and techniques. Reasons for this could be as follows:

a] Lecturers do not have primary school experience

When colleges changed from being teacher training colleges and assumed the status of colleges of education the requirement for teaching at a college had to be a degree. Most lecturers who were trained to teach in primary school did not have degrees. As a result these lecturers were not allowed to teach in colleges because of their low academic qualifications, and they had to leave.

As has already been indicated in Chapter 1 (see Table 2) there are currently practising lecturers who do not have any school teaching experience. This raises a further question regarding demonstration lessons, i.e. How can a lecturer conduct a demonstration lesson as part of training of primary school student teachers when he/she has not taught at a primary school? The crux of the matter is that it is doubtful whether a lecturer without primary school experience or primary school qualification can effectively demonstrate pupil-centered teaching methods.

b] Isolation of colleges from schools

Lack of collaboration between colleges and schools has already been highlighted. This problem is compounded by the fact that students who are being trained to become teachers are going to teach in schools, yet schools do not have any input regarding the training of teachers. The "ivory tower mentality" of colleges is not conducive to the proper training of teachers if there is no ongoing contact between colleges and schools.

bound to experience severe reality shock once they are confronted with classes during the short period of practice teaching.

Classroom management could be more problematic in overcrowded classrooms which typify black schools. If students had constant contact with schools they would soon discover a "big lie" regarding their college theoretical preparation and thereafter develop survival skills as a result of trial and error method over a period of time.

7.5.4 College-based practical training

The qualitative results of this study have shown that college-based practical training is not effective (see section 6.4.4). If there is no link between theory, campus-based and school-based practice teaching students are unlikely to develop a profound personal theory of teaching. Meaningful didactic transfer from theory to practice can only occur if there is congruence, compatibility and continuity between all three curriculum components (see Figure 5 in Chapter 3).

Demonstration lessons were cited as particularly problematic (see section 6.4.4.2). Reasons for this have already been cited (see 7.5.2).

A positive aspect of the college practical training of students appears to be microteaching. Students were not critical of it. Of course they were not asked to be critical of it. One wonders what answers they would have given had they been asked probing questions about the actual organisation and implementation of their microteaching programme.

7.5.5 Teaching aids

During the interview (see section 6.4.4.5) as well as in the open-ended questionnaire (see section 6.5.4 b)) it became apparent that students were concerned about the fact that in colleges they are trained regarding the use of teaching aids, yet schools do not have teaching aids. Whilst it is accepted that there is not necessarily a relationship between abundant teaching aids and effective teaching, the crux of the matter is that students do not see the link between college practical training and practical experience in schools.

7.6 CRITERION FIVE: EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

It was outlined in Chapter 3 (see section 3.6) that effective supervision of practice teaching is a vital element in the process of pre-service teacher preparation. The empirical study has revealed the following main trends:

- views of students regarding supervision
- lesson planning
- absence of teachers when students teach
- feedback about teaching of student teachers
- practice teaching evaluation
- pre-conference before evaluation
- follow-up discussion after evaluation
- practice teaching and improvement of performance

7.6.1 Views of students regarding supervision

It appears as if student teachers are not properly supervised by teachers during practice teaching. If 51% (see Table 17) of students report that teachers in schools are not familiar

with methods and techniques taught at college it stands to reason that these teachers are not equal to the task of supervising students during practice teaching.

The qualitative results give a more vivid picture regarding what actually happens when students are in schools for practice teaching, viz. teachers' hostility towards students, teachers' indifference and absence during classes (see sections 6.5.5).

What is apparent in this study is that teachers do not know how students are trained at the college. As a result they do not know what to do with students once they reach their classrooms. The following appear to be reasons for this state of affairs:

- a] There is no orientation and training of teachers in practice teaching supervision

Student teachers qualify to become teachers by going through a diploma or a degree course. They are therefore qualified to teach but not to supervise student teachers. When they reach schools they are expected to supervise students without the necessary orientation or inclination to do so. There is also no training that supervising teachers go through in order to acquire particular skills in practice teaching supervision.

- b] Schools do not perceive themselves as part of teacher training

Lack of collaboration between colleges and schools has already been mentioned. This has led to a situation in which schools do not regard themselves as having anything to do with the training of teachers. At best it appears that teachers in these schools simply tolerate students because they were also tolerated by other teachers when they themselves were students. Such a situation is obviously not conducive to the proper training of student teachers. As a result there is a hidden uneasy relationship between colleges and schools when it comes to practice teaching supervision.

7.6.2 Lesson planning

The importance of lesson planning was highlighted in Chapter 4 (see section 4.6.2). The quantitative results of this study show that 50% of the students do not get help from teachers regarding lesson planning (see Table 18). This appears to be a serious problem if one considers that 47% of the students have already reported that they experience problems regarding lesson planning (see section 7.3.5). The inability of teachers to help students with lesson planning seem to be related to general problems regarding student-teacher relationships as depicted in the previous subsection (7.6.1).

7.6.3 Absence of teachers when students teach

Table 19 paints a fairly positive picture regarding this category. Evidence from this table suggests, for instance, that 58% of the students state that teachers are present in class when they teach. The limitation of this finding is that the nature of the question was not such that it would enable the researcher to know what it is that these teachers, which were present in class, were actually doing. This is as a result of the closed-ended nature of the question.

Qualitative evidence suggests that teachers are not only absent from class, but they are actually either hostile or indifferent towards students. This appears to be a general experience of student teachers during practice teaching.

7.6.4 Feedback about teaching of student teachers

Students appear sharply divided on this issue because 45% of the students believe that they are given feedback by teachers about their teaching whereas 45% disagree. The percentage of undecided students (rural 3, peri-urban 24, urban 8) does give one the impression that the majority of students may not be receiving feedback about their teaching (see Table 20).

7.6.5 Practice teaching evaluation

We have seen that both the quantitative and qualitative results showed that practice teaching evaluation is done almost entirely by college lecturers only (see Table 21 plus sections 6.4.5.2 and 6.5.5.2). Moreover, the vast majority of student teachers reported that they were evaluated by lecturers who were non-specialists in that particular subject (see Table 22 and section 6.4.5.2).

Viewed from the theoretical perspectives expounded in the first half of this thesis, these findings are most disturbing. The detrimental effects are fourfold: Firstly, the most significant evaluator is absent, namely the class teacher. This is contrary to the well-grounded idea that the teacher should be afforded a central place in practice teaching evaluation, as outlined in section 3.6.1. Secondly, it gives rise to a dichotomy between teachers' views of effective teaching and those of lecturers. Instead of improving teacher education, we actually regress. In "out-dated" approaches like the pupil-teacher system (section 2.2.1) and the apprentice approach (section 2.4.1) the tutor and the teacher were the same person, which presented the student teacher with a congruent, credible approach to teaching, while in current practices in KwaZulu colleges there seems to be such severe dichotomies and contradictions between teachers and lecturers that practice teaching evaluation is almost meaningless. Thirdly, the absence of teachers and subject specialists in the evaluation of students can make a laughing-stock of at least two didactic constructs: Needs Assessment (How can needs accurately be assessed without the class teacher who knows his/her class and the school best?) and Content (How can a non-specialist assess whether the correct content is being taught to the class?). It certainly seems as if the significance of Needs Assessment (see section 4.2.2) and of Content (see section 4.4.2) cannot manifest itself in current student evaluation practices prevailing in the Colleges of Education included in this sample. Fourthly, self-evaluation and peer evaluation appear to be non-existent (75% of the respondents stated that evaluation was done by lecturers only). This cancels out major

benefits of self- and peer evaluation such as student empowerment and reflective teaching (see section 3.6.2.3).

The above findings throw light on the importance of theoretical issues and their relation to practice. Using our knowledge of practice teaching theories in conjunction with our empirical evidence about the current situation with practice teaching evaluation it is clear that these evaluation practices require drastic reform.

7.6.6 Pre-conference before evaluation

Evidence from the empirical study suggests that 44% of the students agree that there is pre-conference before evaluation, whilst 31% disagree (see Table 23). If one takes into account the percentage of undecided respondents (rural 13%, peri-urban 36%, urban 31%) it is reasonable to assume that there is generally no pre-conference before students are evaluated. This is feasible if one considers that college lecturers are themselves not trained teacher educators or instruction supervisors. Lack of training of lecturers for new roles as supervisors leads to the following problem:

X Lack of understanding of the clinical supervision process

A description of clinical supervision is given in Chapter 3, subsection 3.6.2.2. What needs to be mentioned here is that lecturers would value pre-conferencing if they were trained in supervision and evaluation of instruction. The current trend is that, by virtue of being appointed a lecturer at a college, one automatically assumes the role of practice teaching evaluation without any orientation or training to do it. This is contrary to the

importance attached to pre-conference evaluation as part of clinical supervision. The process of practice teaching evaluation therefore leaves much to be desired.

7.6.7 Follow-up discussion after evaluation

The quantitative results have revealed that the majority of the students (66%) believe that there is a follow up discussion after evaluation (see Table 24). This appears to be a positive aspect of school-based practice teaching when one looks at the data from the periphery. However, if one further scrutinises the findings with special reference to the peri-urban students where 32% are undecided and 32% disagreed, one begins to see that the results in this category are not necessarily generalisable.

When one considers the principles of clinical supervision discussed in Chapter 3 (see 3.6.2.3) one develops the impression that the principles of clinical supervision are not always taken heed of during practice teaching supervision. It seems possible that even those lecturers who have follow up discussions after evaluation do not do so because they have an understanding of the use of clinical supervision as a supervisory tool during practice teaching.

The above findings stress the need for practice teaching supervision and evaluation to be informed by principles of clinical supervision.

7.6.8 Practice teaching and the improvement of performance

This appears to be the most positive aspect of practice teaching (see Table 25). It is possible that this has nothing to do with the quality of the school-based practice teaching programme.

It may have more to do with the seriousness which students generally attach to practice teaching evaluation since it usually has to do with their promotion.

7.7 CRITERION SIX: TIME-ON-TASK

It was mentioned in Chapter 3 (see section 3.6) that time-on-task refers to quality use of time by students during teaching practice. The following main trends have been revealed by the empirical study :

- views of students of time-on-task
- form of practice teaching preferred by students.

7.7.1 Views of students of time-on-task

The quantitative findings suggest that 49% of students believe that the time for practice teaching is not sufficient (see Table 26). Qualitative results (see section 6.4.6) also reveal that the students are not satisfied with the amount of time they spend in schools.

The above findings seem to support the view that practice teaching is not given enough time in the teacher training curriculum (see section 1.3.4). These findings therefore suggest that the time which is made available to students to practice the art of teaching is inadequate in KwaZulu Colleges of Education.

Viewed from a theoretical position in terms of the approaches discussed in Chapter 3, time-on-task appears to be basic in as far as this study is concerned (see section 3.7.6). These findings appear to be contrary to this fundamental theoretical standpoint. It should be noted that these findings do not reveal anything regarding the quality use of time but only go as far as revealing the amount of time. There is a suggestion that time is not qualitatively

used if one considers that teachers in schools are generally not familiar with teaching methods and techniques used in colleges (see section 7.6.1). The implication here is that practice teaching has not been put on a proper footing if one remembers that it is not only the time which is not enough but the quality of time which in itself is problematic. For practice teaching to be effective more time should be allotted to it and time should be qualitatively used. There is a need for radical transformation regarding this facet of practice teaching.

7.7.2 Form of practice teaching preferred by students

Block practice teaching, as it is presently organised in KwaZulu colleges, is not favoured by respondents in this study, as clearly depicted by the qualitative results (see section 6.4.4 and 6.5.6). Students seem to prefer continuous practice teaching apparently because block practice teaching does not afford them sufficient time to familiarise themselves with pupils in schools. Even the discredited pupil-teacher system (see section 2.2.1) as well as the apprentice approach (see section 2.4.1) and the internship approach (see section 2.4.5) would provide continuous practice teaching.

The form of practice teaching in KwaZulu Colleges of Education is not only below expectation, but it is counter-productive to the proper professional preparation of teachers. How is it possible that a student teacher could be in a position to apply the didactic constructs discussed in Chapter 4 within 10 days of block practice teaching and at the same time attend to problems of classroom management and discipline?

Block practice teaching as it is currently organised in KwaZulu Colleges of Education has the following disadvantages: Firstly, student teachers do not get time to familiarise themselves with the realities of the didactic situation. This means that there is not enough time to put to the test the pedagogical skills which would have been acquired during college theoretical training. Secondly, current block practice teaching deprives students of the opportunity to

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understand the nature of power relations within the school. This means that students are not able to obtain a holistic view of what happens within a particular school.

Bearing in mind the arguments which have been advanced regarding the problematic nature of block practice teaching in KwaZulu Colleges of Education, it does seem as if there is an urgent need for a dramatic overhaul of current practices regarding the form of practice teaching.

7.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has attempted to demonstrate the problematic nature of school-based practice teaching in KwaZulu Colleges of Education. It has thus been proved that the current school-based practice teaching is not didactically justifiable.

It should be remembered that the end product of a teacher preparation programme is a teacher who should be well versed with the teaching activity as it is found in the educational situation. While didactic theory includes everything within the teaching situation, teaching itself is a practical matter, the competence of which is acquired through practice.

Lack of congruence between theory and practice as revealed by findings of this study has formed the basis for the recommendations which follow in Chapter 8. In other words, this study shows that KwaZulu Colleges of Education do not meet the criteria for effective practice teaching as discussed in Chapters 3 and 4.

CHAPTER 8: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

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CHAPTER 8

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The following research problems were outlined in Chapter 1:

- a] How effective is the present form of school-based practice teaching for student teachers in colleges of education which train primary school teachers in KwaZulu?
- b] How can this component of teacher education be improved?
(see section 1.4 a] and b]).

Chapter 7 attempted to demonstrate that current arrangements regarding school-based practice teaching are such that practice teaching is not effective. The first research problem was therefore answered in Chapter 7.

This section attempts to answer the second section of the problem, i.e. the extent to which current school-based practice teaching can be improved, hence the recommendations which follow.

The recommendations outlined below emanate from the findings of this study, based on the wealth of data produced by this investigation. For purposes of coherence and systematisation recommendations will follow the pattern of criteria discussed in Chapter 3 which are:

- effective partnership between colleges and schools
- college theoretical preparation
- efficient organisation
- transfer of theory to practice
- effective supervision
- time-on-task

8.2 RECOMMENDATIONS ON EFFECTIVE PARTNERSHIP

In Chapter 7 it was revealed that partnership between schools and colleges is not effective regarding the practical training of teachers. The following recommendations are suggested for purposes of this study.

8.2.1 Lecturer-teacher exchange

This study recognises that there is lack of congruence between teaching methods taught at colleges and those taught in schools. It is further recognised that college lecturers lose touch with the school environment as soon as they are promoted to the college. It was also noted in Chapter 1 (see Table 2) that 14.2% of college lecturers do not have school teaching experience.

On the other hand, teachers in schools are removed from what happens in the college regarding the training of teachers who will teach in their schools. Lack of partnership between

colleges and schools cause both lecturers and teachers to be out of touch with what happens in each institution.

Lecturer-teacher exchange is therefore recommended. Lecturers should be assigned to schools during a specified time, an arrangement which will give lecturers a chance to be in touch with what happens in school classrooms. Lecturers would have to teach and observe teaching by school teachers. Those lecturers who have neither been trained for nor have taught in primary schools would have a chance to be in touch with the realities of the primary school didactic situation. When these lecturers teach pedagogical and didactic theory at the college they would have had hands on experience and exposure to the situation in schools.

Likewise, school teachers should periodically be attached to colleges for a specified period of time. Whilst these teachers would be useful resources for demonstration lessons, they should, where appropriate, teach certain subjects.

The exchange programme outlined above would serve a useful purpose regarding the practical training of students. At the same time such an arrangement would be beneficial to the professional development of both lecturers and teachers. It would also be possible to counteract problems which emanate from lack of partnership as discussed under 7.1 because the teacher education curriculum would be contextualised.

It is further hoped that both lecturers and teachers would develop a positive attitude towards each other. This would hopefully not only enhance their teaching in respective institutions, but the attitudes of both students and pupils would be positive regarding school-based practice teaching.

Lecturer-teacher exchange presupposes that each college would have a permanent working relationship with all primary schools in its vicinity. Restructuring of both colleges and schools would have to take place so that a professional environment could be created for colleges

and schools to decide how best to meet state and local goals of pupils while holding them accountable for student progress regarding practice teaching.

8.2.2 Effective communication between colleges and schools

This study has revealed that communication between colleges and schools is not effective. That is why there is, for instance, no joint planning between the two institutions when it comes to practice teaching (see 7.2.2).

It is therefore recommended that communication between colleges and schools should be made more effective. This can be possible in a manner that is suggested under 8.2.3.

8.2.3 Colleges should have an in-service section

It is recommended that each college of education should have an in-service wing attached to it. The isolation of schools from teacher education has been discussed (see 7.1.4). Such an arrangement would not only give more structure and meaning to in-service courses, but the interaction between college lecturers and teachers would lead to professional growth of both parties. This will have broader implications for the reform of the whole school system. This would be possible if one considers that college lecturers would have a way of checking and nurturing some of the progressive teaching methods which students would have learnt at the college. Teachers would also help lecturers to formulate and reconstruct teaching approaches which are informed by practice.

It is further recommended that such in-service training should be based on the teachers' identified needs. When students go to these schools for practice teaching they are likely to see lecturers and teachers pulling in the same direction and delivering, if not identical messages, then at least reconcilable ones.

8.2.4 Involvement of teachers in college course design

Some problematic subjects have been identified in this study (see 7.2.5). Current college syllabi are designed by people who are removed from the school situation. Lack of partnership between colleges and schools tends to compound the problem. The involvement of teachers in college course design would enable them to have an influence on the scale and character of work in colleges of education. The following are some of the benefits of this arrangement:

- lecturers and teachers would respect each others role in the training process;
- there would be a professional climate in both the training institution and school, which would provide a reasonable model of professional attitudes and relationships for the student.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS ON COLLEGE THEORETICAL PREPARATION

The ineffective nature of college theoretical preparation (see 7.2) has led to the following recommendations.

8.3.1 Consensus by college lecturers regarding effective teaching strategies

A college should have a staff development team or Practice Teaching Committee which would create conditions for lecturers to come to some consensus as to what constitutes effective teaching. This means that college lecturers should work as a team rather than working in isolation or in competition. When lecturers evaluate students during practice teaching there would be common understanding between lecturers and students as to what constitutes effective teaching.

The didactic theoretical constructs discussed in Chapter 4 should, for instance, be understood and agreed upon by all lecturers in a college. Whilst it is true that there are factors which affect effective teaching beyond the constructs discussed in Chapter 4, the view taken in this study is teaching cannot be effective unless it follows the direction of the constructs as discussed. A teacher ought to do needs assessment before actual teaching. Needs assessment would determine the aims and objectives of a lesson. Content would be based upon needs assessment as well as aims and objectives. Teaching strategies which a teacher adopts would be determined by needs assessment, aims and objectives as well as content. Lesson preparation would take into account the constructs outlined above. Classroom procedure and organisation should be linked to other constructs. There can, for instance, be no discipline in the classroom if the teacher is not prepared. This will inevitably affect all that happens in the classroom, including evaluation. If college lecturers do not understand or agree with each other problems are bound to emerge when students are being evaluated.

Competency-Based Teacher Education discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4.2) could have some relevance here because college lecturers would have to agree upon the competencies which a student teacher should demonstrate during practice teaching. Before students go to school for practice teaching the following issues regarding competencies should have been clarified:

- ♦ How are the competencies to be built into a teacher education programme?
- ♦ What criteria can be formulated to assess these competencies?
- ♦ To what extent have these competencies been negotiated by interested parties, e.g. college staff, students and teachers?
- ♦ Has the relative importance of individual competencies been discussed?

8.3.2 Junior primary work should be strengthened

Junior primary teacher training appears to be weak in KwaZulu colleges of education which train primary school teachers. In fact, there is no clearly defined section which deals with junior primary work in these colleges.

It is recommended that junior primary work be strengthened by opening a department of junior primary work in all colleges which train primary school teachers. This would hopefully enable student teachers to develop a sound theoretical framework regarding the teaching of junior primary school pupils. In this way colleges stand a better chance of producing good junior primary teachers.

8.3.3 Didactic constructs to be given adequate attention

The impression gained in this study is that colleges do not give adequate attention to the didactic theoretical constructs discussed in Chapter 4. In Chapter 7 it became increasingly evident that there is a problem regarding the application of these constructs when students go to school for practice teaching (see 7.3).

It is therefore recommended that colleges should allocate sufficient time to the training of students regarding the rationale and application of the theoretical didactic constructs. Of importance is that lecturers should have consensus regarding these constructs, otherwise students are likely to receive conflicting messages from lecturers.

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS ON EFFICIENT ORGANISATION

This study has found that school-based practice teaching is not efficiently organised (see 7.4). The following recommendations are made in the hope that they will counteract this problem.

8.4.1 Collaboration between colleges and schools regarding practice teaching

No organisation of practice teaching can be efficient if colleges do not work collaboratively and co-operatively with schools to which they send student teachers. Collaboration regarding practice teaching could take the following forms:

8.4.1.1 College-school joint planning

It is recommended that colleges and schools should have representatives who meet regularly regarding the planning, as well as the problems, of practice teaching. The voice of the students should also be heard at such meetings. Joint planning can, amongst other things, entail the following:

- When is practice teaching to be held?
- What problems are normally experienced during practice teaching?
- What arrangements can be made to make practice teaching more effective?
- What arrangements are going to be made to prepare students prior to their embarking on practice teaching?
- What is the role of college lecturers and teachers during practice teaching?

- What mechanisms can be created to ensure that all parties, including students, are well-briefed?
- What means will be used by colleges and schools to monitor the progress of each student and to evaluate the students' achievements in the schools?

8.4.1.2 Production of a practice teaching handbook

College lecturers, teachers and students should jointly produce a practice teaching handbook. Of importance is the process which would be used to develop or produce such a handbook. All the stake-holders would have to participate in its production. This further presupposes that they would agree with and support the contents of this handbook. Such a handbook would act as a guide regarding practice teaching because it would spell out what practice teaching is about as well as what the stake-holders are expected to do during practice teaching.

What is important about collaboration between schools and colleges is that partnership should be based on the principle of equality. Schools should not be regarded as junior partners. Such an arrangement would not only strengthen the bond between the two institutions, but students would be likely to benefit during practice teaching if schools are convinced of their major role as equal partners in the professional preparation of teachers.

Efficient organisation of practice teaching implies elements from the humanistic approach discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4.3).

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS ON TRANSFER OF THEORY TO PRACTICE

It was revealed in Chapter 7 (see 7.5) that students experience some problems regarding the transfer of theory to practice. The recommendations which follow would hopefully reduce this problem.

8.5.1 Professional Development Schools (PDS)

It is recommended that each college have a few professional development schools in its proximity. The number of professional development schools should be large enough to ensure that these schools do not become overcrowded by student teachers during block sessions. There should certainly not be more student teachers per schools than there are teachers. For example, if a college places 360 students, there should be approximately 40 PDS's attached to the college. Such schools would create conditions whereby students would *put into practice theory learned at the college on a more regular basis*. Students would see immediate connection between theory and practice.

Professional Development Schools would link teachers and lecturers and provide the best possible learning environment for teacher preparation. *Participants in this partnership would have opportunities to reflect upon teaching and learning within a "clinical" school environment.*

These schools should be independently administered, although the college should have a say in what occurs in such schools. Similarly, such schools would have to influence what goes on in the college. If, for instance, colleges teach about child-centred approaches which teachers can hardly practice, it stands to reason that PDS would counteract this problem.

8.5.2 A case study approach to practice teaching

In order for students to relate theory to practice it is recommended that a case study approach be used. Suppose a lecturer handles classroom procedure and organisation. After explaining the theory behind classroom procedure, it would be necessary to analyse a case which depicts classroom procedure and organisation in a hypothetical classroom. This would give students a chance to reflect upon the practical manifestation of classroom procedure and organisation as it takes place in the classroom. When students give different perspectives to a case, the idea that teaching is a personalised matter would be developed. At the same time, there would be harmony between theory and practice.

8.5.3 Longer period of practice teaching

It is recommended that students should spend longer periods in school practising the art of teaching. This would not only give students a chance to reflect about what they are doing, but they would be in a position to experience what it is to be a teacher. This, of course, presupposes that conditions in schools would have to change so that a longer period of practice teaching would not become a miseducative experience for the students. The implication here is that time needs to be spent constructively.

8.5.4 College lecturers in primary school colleges of education must have primary school teaching experience

It was argued in Chapter 1 (see Table 2) that 14,2% of the college lecturers who train primary school teachers have no school teaching experience. No data has been presented in this study to show how many of those with experience have primary school teaching experience. Due to the reasons stated in the section referred to above, it can reasonably be assumed that the great majority of college lecturers do not have primary school experience.

Recruitment of lecturers with primary school experience by college could help in the following way: When these lecturers teach theory they could link it to practice through demonstration lessons. When these lecturers evaluate student teaching during practice teaching, they would not only be informed by theory, but previous primary school teaching would form an important background.

8.5.5 There should be congruence between campus- and school based practice teaching

It has already been suggested that campus and school-based teaching practice should be harmonised (see section 3.5). It was further pointed out that this could occur in a situation where the theoretical knowledge, campus-based practice teaching and school-based practice teaching are blended into one (see Figure 6).

The central position of subject didactics as a link between theory and practice is important in this instance. Practical teaching focuses directly on a specific school subject. On the other hand, the quality of the students' theoretical training is brought to light when the classroom is entered for the first time. In this regard the following recommendations are suggested:

- a) Subject didactic lecturers should not only have the necessary and relevant school teaching experience, but they should be able to organise micro teaching and demonstrate effective teaching practices through demonstration lessons. Demonstration lessons should not just be a ritual which is part of the fulfilment of requirements in order to pass a diploma, but they should be critically evaluated on the basis of established or experienced practices.

- b) It has already been suggested that college lecturers should reach some consensus regarding effective teaching strategies (see section 8.3.1). It is recommended here that lecturers who teach education and didactic theory,

as well as those who teach the practical aspects (micro teaching, demonstration lessons, subject didactics and educational technology) should regularly meet so as to assess the extent to which what they teach is informed by practice and vice versa. Such meetings would be useful at the beginning of the year and/or immediately after school-based practice teaching sessions. In this way there would be a way of checking whether the theory taught at college is actually practiced both on campus and in schools. It is hoped that student teachers would experience meaningful didactic transfer during practice teaching.

8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS ON EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

The study has found that neither teachers nor lecturers are equal to their tasks regarding practice teaching supervision. This is understandable if one considers that neither have been trained for these roles.

8.6.1 Training of teachers in practice teaching supervision as well as supervision of instruction

Because of collaboration between colleges and schools, which is assumed in these recommendations (see sections 8.2 and 8.5.1), it is further recommended that lecturers should present workshops or seminars at schools on how to supervise student teachers during practice teaching.

The course content ought to cover the following areas:

- the role of teachers in teacher training
- how to supervise and evaluate instruction
- how to plan lessons

- ✓ how to observe classroom interaction
- ✓ ingredients of a successful lesson i.e. effective teaching practices
- ✓ human relation in the classroom and counselling

The implication here is that teachers assume additional responsibilities during teaching practice and they need training for this. Since they have to spend considerable time with student teachers, their opinions (in assessment) as to who passes or fails should carry weight equal to that of college lecturers. This should be informed by the training which the teacher has undergone. Teachers would thus assume the position of teacher mentors and they would have to be remunerated for this.

College lecturers would still visit schools during practice teaching, but their visits would not only be devoted to watching students teach, but they would also hold joint sessions with teachers and the students in order to appraise the students' progress. In this way, not only would the apprenticeship approach be realised, but elements of the It-inset approach could be implemented. This would be possible if one considers that the teacher, the student and the lecturer would systematically be engaged in:

- analysing practice
- applying theory
- evaluating the curriculum
- developing the curriculum
- working as a team
- involving other teachers (see section 2.4.4.1).

8.6.2 Lecturer training in supervision and evaluation of interaction

It is recommended that each college should have a staff development committee. This committee should conduct needs assessment i.e. to assess in which areas the lecturers need training. The services of a consultant who would train lecturers in supervision and evaluation of instruction should be solicited. Content could cover the areas which have been suggested above (see section 8.6.1).

8.6.3 Practice teaching supervision should follow principles of clinical supervision

Planning, implementation and evaluation should be followed in three broad stages to the execution of the lesson. A prospective teacher needs systematic guidance and help in all three stages. The execution of the three stages discussed above could take the following forms:

Stage I: Planning

The student and the supervisor hold a session on the work planned for the following day. In this pre-implementation stage, discussion would cover both content of instruction, strategies, class management, etc. The student would be free to seek clarification on points about which he/she is not very sure and agreement would be reached on implementation strategies. It is necessary to point out that the student would not be asked to copy some model of teaching; rather, he would outline how he wants to go about teaching and this outline would be critically examined by the supervisor. After all, teaching behaviour and style are very personal. A person tends to use the teaching style he/she is most comfortable with. It is this personal style which the supervisor should try to explore and, if need be, refine. At this stage too, the student may, for example, try to practice some teaching skills during the implementation stage, e.g. skill of questioning, skill of explaining, etc.

Stage II: Implementation

This is the stage in which the student faces the class and tries to implement the plans which were agreed upon in Stage I. The supervisor sits in to watch the student execute the plans they have worked out together. It may be useful to bring in a recording device at this stage. Where this is not feasible the supervisor should make detailed notes. The success of the discussion in Stage III depends greatly on how much of what went on in Stage II can be recalled.

Stage III: Evaluation

This is a joint session between the supervisor and the student after the lesson. The student should preferably give "assessment" of what took place during the implementation stage, i.e. a form of self-evaluation (see section 3.6.2.3). The supervisor should also give his/her "assessment" of what has transpired. Recording of the lesson proceedings would be useful at this stage.

If the supervisor feels that Stage II was not didactically sound, new plans could be worked out. In a situation where the student teaches the same lesson more than once, specific suggestions should be given at this stage which the supervisor can watch for in a subsequent lesson. Elements of the apprenticeship approach discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4.1) is also inherent in this approach.

8.6.4 The school system should introduce a system of teacher mentors

It is recommended that every school should have a teacher mentor who would serve the following purposes:

- They would be responsible for the professional development of student teachers during practice teaching. This arrangement could contribute to the professional development of student teachers when they go to their home schools for practice teaching.

- They would mentor new teachers during the induction period.

Mentor teachers should have the following characteristics:

- they should be conversant with didactic theory;

- they should have skills in classroom observation and counselling.;

- they should be skilled in supervision of instruction.

In this way the supervision of practice teaching could be more effective. The transformation of the school system could become a reality through teacher mentors who could contribute to the change of the current scenario in which teachers are technicians who are hardly able to *conceptualise pedagogic practice*.

8.7 RECOMMENDATIONS ON TIME-ON-TASK

The quality and amount of time is important if practice teaching is to be effective, The fact that most respondents in this study are not satisfied with the amount of time they spend in schools implies that quality use of time is not possible under the present arrangement regarding practice teaching. In the light of the findings in Chapter 7 (see section 7.7.1), the following recommendations are made.

8.7.1 Internship

Internship is recommended because there is a need to provide students with the opportunity for sustained reflection on teaching and on their commitment to the task of teaching.

The Internship Approach discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4.5) has a place in this study. The period of internship would take one year. A student teacher would work under the supervision of mentors and in close collaboration with their training institutions. Such a student teacher would not be given a full teaching load and would be paid a small wage. During internship a neotype teacher would be given opportunities for consistent and systematic reflection on his/her role as a teacher. Such a system would not only improve the status of the teaching profession but quality training would take place. In this way the internship approach would be part of the initial teacher training.

8.8 CONCLUSION

It appears that the time has come for substantial policy changes in teacher education with implications for all those working in the system, particularly teachers.

A critical concern for policy makers regards the quality of the teaching corps and how policy contributes towards the creation of such a body of practitioners. One plausible argument is that the quality of the teacher corps is determined by the intellectual and social characteristics of the beginning students, by the quality of the curriculum and by the knowledge and skills of teacher educators.

If it is accepted that the state has a major responsibility for providing teachers within a national education system in the interest of the nation's development, then it follows that the

must assume the major responsibility for the quality of the teachers serving the system. As teacher education institutions have the function of educating teachers for this purpose, teacher education policy should ensure that teacher education institutions are in fact able to contribute towards the realisation of the nation's goals.

Unfortunately, for a multitude of reasons, teacher education in South Africa has come under sustained attack and there appears to be little confidence in the capacity of teacher education institutions and the current curriculum to produce autonomous, creative and reflective practitioners. Part of the problem is that teacher education programmes encourage the notion that teacher is only aimed at certification, instead of seeing it as the beginning of a journey. A rethinking of pre-service teacher education would place the pre-service education of teachers within a continuum, and regard it as only the first part of a career-long process. The focus should move away from experiences within teacher education programmes which make for the ideal teacher to experiences which will give new teachers a sound knowledge for their profession, a sufficiently detailed knowledge of the subjects that they will teach, a variety of strategies that facilitate learning by pupils, as well as a range of conceptual tools which will make teachers reflective practitioners. Teacher education policy must facilitate this shift.

Pre-service teacher education programmes assume that there is a body of knowledge and range of distinctive practices which, when mastered by an individual, result in his or her *being eligible for certification as a teacher, and in his or her being appropriately qualified to operate in that capacity within the teaching-learning context.*

In essence, a distinction needs to be drawn between the capacity of pre-service training to *bring students to the point where they can be licensed to teach rather than being qualified to teach.* Pre-service training and induction into the school and in-service education in which qualification is regarded as a recurring and lifelong professional development are useful concepts in drawing attention to the inevitable limitations of pre-service training. Such limitations arise, *inter alia*, from the complexity and fluidity of the modern world in which

rapid changes in knowledge and in political and social structures have become characteristic of our lives.

The current attempts to transform education in South Africa would be useful if teacher education were viewed as central to the whole process. It is hoped that the application of the findings of this study will contribute to the fundamental changes required in teacher education. The reconstruction and development of teacher education would thus become a reality.

Finally, the onus rests upon each and every individual student teacher, who aspires to be a successful teacher, to take seriously the professional requirements of teaching and to approach practical teaching sessions with diligence and enthusiasm.

GLOSSARY

The working definitions of key terms that serve as a basis for disclosure in this thesis are discussed hereunder.

Aims: long term goals, stated in general terms

Approach: a major way of doing or tackling something e.g. the apprentice approach to practice teaching

Apprentice Approach: an approach to practice teaching in which the teacher is a master craftsman and teaching practice is viewed as a process of initiation in which the master teacher's teaching skills, performance, personality and attitudes are acquired by the student through observation, imitation and practise (Stones and Morris, 1972: 8)

CBTE: (Competency-Based Teacher Education)
an approach to teacher education that specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing students' competencies, and holds the student accountable for meeting these criteria (Cooper *et al*; 1973: 2).

Clinical supervision: focus on ways of helping teachers to improve their performance in the classroom (Oliva, 1993: 56)

Construct:	indicates a fundamental feature which serves as a theoretical basis for practice
Co-operating teacher:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) an actual classroom teacher (b) a teacher who supervises student teachers in a particular classroom/subject during practice teaching
College of education:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) an institution where teachers are trained for a teacher's diploma. It does not offer degree courses (b) it is a pre-service teacher training institution for purposes of this thesis
Criterion:	the principle or standard that something is judged by i.e. a point of departure which can be used to determine the value and effectiveness, for instance, of didactic variables (De Corte <i>et al</i> , 1972: 10)
Didactics:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) the scientific study of teaching-learning actions, usually pertaining to formal education (b) theories dealing with the relationship between pupils' learning and the teachers' guidance of their learning. It concerns classroom and teaching practise, methods, techniques, aids etc. (Kruger <i>et al</i>; 1980:6)
Didactic theory:	a generally valid theory of teaching that forms a logical, systematic and consistant whole (De Corte, 1972: 10)

Education:

- (a) assisting a person to grow physically, emotionally, socially, intellectually etc. In other words, it is related to the total development of a person
- (b) it usually refers to the scientific study of concepts and processes related to the act of guiding people towards self-realisation. This is the case when it starts with a capital letter-E

Effectiveness: concerned with doing the right things - concerned with quality (Davis, 1981: 23)

Efficiency: concerned with doing things right (Davis, 1981: 22)

Evaluation:

- (a) refers to the professional and didactic evaluation of students on practice teaching in schools
- (b) an observation or appraisal of the content, the effects and the effectiveness of an object, action or process (Rowntree , 1981: 243)
- (b) according to Rowntree (1981: 243), evaluation refers to an observation and appraisal of the context, the effects, and the effectiveness of an object, action or process

Humanistic approach: an approach to teacher education that stresses the "self" of the teacher. It has the following characteristics:

- continuous and active involvement at schools,
- exposing students to a wide variety of ideas and resources related to teaching,
- keeping students and tutor informed as to the resources available,
- assigning a specific group of students to the tutor for the duration of their training and,
- continuous evaluation (Combs *et al*; 1974)

IT-INSET Approach:

an approach to practice teaching in which initial and in-service education are brought together in a school-focused pattern; teams consisting of one or two teachers, a tutor, and two-six students spend a term together in a classroom, teaching pupils and involving the team in "co-operative curriculum evaluation and development" (Ashton, 1983)

KwaZulu:

- (a) is used to describe part of the province of KwaZulu Natal which is the homeland for Zulu-speaking people of South Africa
- (b) during the writing of this thesis it fell under the direct administration of KwaZulu government. KwaZulu had its own department of education. This department is mainly concerned with the employment of teachers and other personnel, erection of schools, inspection of schools, pre-service and in-service teacher training

- Lecturer:** refers to a person who trains teachers at a college of education. In some cases the term "tutor" will be used to refer to the same designation
- Learning:** the acquisition of insight or knowledge through contact with external events, accompanied by changes in thought, attitude and behaviour (Hoyle, 1980).
- Model:**
- (a) in a physical sense: likeness of a real thing
 - (b) in a theoretical sense: a simplified explanation of a part of reality which makes it possible for us to come to conclusions about such reality. It is not a scientific theory, but an aid to scientific theory, which can lead to the development of a scientific theory; the more generally acceptable a model is, the more useful a scientific community considers it to be (De Corte, 1972: 11).
- Objectives:** short term goals, stated in specific terms. They could be behavioural or non-behavioural
- Paradigm:** a justifiable scientific theory which can be applied in a variety of situations to explain a particular part of reality and to solve problems related to that reality
- Practice teaching:**
- (a) that body of professional experiences during which student teachers apply, test, and construct personal teaching theories while they are evolving,

and during which they further develop their competence as teachers (Turney *et al*; 1977: 32). Stones and Morris (1972: 16) are even more embrasive in their definition when they refer to practise teaching as a generic term to describe all the learning experiences of students in schools.

- (b) practice teaching is also referred to as teaching practice, teaching experience, school experience. School-based practice teaching refers to practice teaching which takes place at school
- (c) the subject in which students are provided with experiences classified above: In black colleges of education in South Africa, KwaZulu included, it consists of three year courses. Each practise course is divided into a campus-based and a school-based component (see Table 3).

Practicum:

- (a) is more popular in the teaching-is-a-science oriented institutions
- (b) "Ideally conceived, the practicum is a purposeful series of supervised professional experiences in which student teachers apply, refine and construct learning and through which they develop their teaching competencies" (Turney *et al*; 1982: 1).

Pre-service teacher education:

training of teachers before they are certified to become teachers. It usually takes place in a recognised teacher education institution

- Programme:** In curriculum context, the major components of a course e.g. in colleges of education practice teaching consists of two programmes - one school-based and one campus-based (see Table 3)
- School:**
- (a) an institution for educating children or giving instruction
 - (b) a place where student teachers do their school-based practice teaching
- Student teacher:** refers to a teacher trainee during pre-service teacher training; student teacher is used interchangeably to refer to a student during training
- Teaching:** a definition used by Hyman (1974: 16) will be accepted for this thesis. He defines teaching as follows: an internal, deliberate series of actions aimed at inducing learning. Central to the concept of teaching are a manner on the teacher's part which implies respect for the student, reason-giving and truth
- Teaching strategy:** the methods and/or or media used to teach learners, pupils or students
- Theory:**
- (a) a plan or scheme existing in the mind, sometimes based on principles verifiable by experiment or observation (van Rensberg and Landman, 1979:

415)

- (b) subjective ideas and beliefs that are held by an individual. This is called a personal theory.
- (c) a generally valid set of ideas and beliefs about a sufficiently important part of reality that forms a logical systematic, and consistent whole (Kuhn, 1970: 168)

Teacher : for the purposes of this thesis, a teacher is a person who teaches in a school. This person should be certificated, but there are instances where teachers are not certificated.

Teacher education: education aimed at helping students to teach more effectively. The emphasis is on educating the whole student: emotionally, socially, intellectually etc. In this thesis it may be used interchangeably with teacher training defined below

- Teacher training:**
- (a) the emphasis is on the teacher acquiring practical skills
 - (b) there is no routine or drill type of activity; in fact the precise opposite is the case
 - (c) is used with the assumption that the development of the whole student is the goal of the teacher educator

**A QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCHOOL-BASED
PRACTICE TEACHING BY STUDENTS
OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION**

PURPOSE: To find out about the status of practice teaching in colleges of education.

PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE BOX.

Location of the college

- Rural
- Peri-Urban
- Urban



Biographical Data

a) **Gender**

- Male
- Female

b) **Age**

- 15 -19
- 20 - 24
- 25 - 29
- 30 - 34
- 35 - 39
- 40 and over

3.**PREPARATION FOR SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE TEACHING**

- a) We are taught about the aims of practice teaching before we go to schools.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- b) The college prepares us to handle classroom management problems (i.e. how to maintain discipline).

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- c) We are given sufficient time to communicate with schools prior to practice teaching.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- d) We experience problems regarding lesson planning during practice teaching.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- e) We are made aware about school expectations before we go to school for practice teaching.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4.**ACTUAL SCHOOL-BASED PRACTICE TEACHING**

- a) Teachers in schools are familiar with methods and teaching techniques being taught at the college.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- b) It is easy to manage classes in schools during teaching practice.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- c) Subject teachers help us with lesson planning.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- d) Subject teachers are present in class when we teach classes.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- e) Subject teachers provide enough feedback about our teaching.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5.

PRACTICE TEACHING EVALUATION

a) Practice teaching evaluation is done by college lecturers only.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

b) We are sometimes evaluated by college lecturers who do not teach us subject didactics or content in that particular subject

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

c) There is a pre-conference with lecturers before evaluation

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

d) There is a follow-up discussion with lecturers after evaluation.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

e) Evaluation during school-based practice teaching helps me to improve my teaching performance.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6.

Which are the major problems you experience during practice teaching?

7.

The amount of time lecturers allow us to do practice teaching at schools is:

Far too little	Slightly too little	Enough	Slightly too much	Far too much
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