A STUDY OF THE PROVISION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR
THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE
QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN THE PROVINCE OF
KWAZULU-NATAL

by

DOWLAT RAMDAS BAGWANDEEN

submitted in accordance with the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in the subject

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

PROMOTER : PROFESSOR L J VAN NIEKERK
JOINT PROMOTER : PROFESSOR P HIGGS

NOVEMBER 1999
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the process of conducting this research and helping towards its completion, I received the co-operation and assistance of numerous individuals and organizations. I take this opportunity of placing on record my sincere gratitude and appreciation to such individuals and organizations. In particular, I wish to express my indebtedness to the following:

I am most grateful to Professor L J van Niekerk, Faculty of Education, University of South Africa (UNISA), as the Promoter of my thesis and to Professor P Higgs, Department of Educational Studies, UNISA, as the Joint Promoter. As experienced academicians and researchers, they offered thought-provoking and constructive criticisms which contributed immensely to the intellectual stimulation leading to the logical conclusion of this study. I value highly the experience of my academic interaction with them.

I acknowledge the support given to me by the Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture for having granted me the necessary permission to contact the various distance education (DE) colleges of education in the Province of Kwazulu-Natal (KZN). The information received from these institutions was critical to this research.

I express my thanks to Ms Cynthia Thobei, Marketing Assistant at UNISA Press, for the material that was presented to me so promptly. In addition, I am much obliged to the staff at the library of UNISA for the expeditious manner in which they responded to my request for various sources of literature. They are to be highly commended for their patience and assiduous dedication to the task of supplying me with books, monographs, journal articles and so on, which were quintessential to my research.

I also thank the Public Relations Departments of the United Kingdom Open University (UKOU), Athabasca University (AU) of Canada and the Indira Gandhi National Open
I am beholden, in an extremely special way, to my wife, Marjorie, to my children, Chauntelle, Michelle and Lynelle, and to my son-in-law, Ajith, for all their support and patience. Their positive encouragement and concern during the course of the research acted as a positive incentive towards the completion of my studies.

DOWLAT RAMDAS BAGWANDEEN

NOVEMBER 1999
DECLARATION : STUDENT NUMBER : 270-798-5

I declare that

'A Study of the Provision of Distance Education for the Upgrading and Improvement of the Qualifications of Teachers in the Province of Kwazulu-Natal'

is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

[Signature]

(PROF D R BAGWANDEEN)

1999-10-22
DEDICATION

To

Marjorie, Chauntelle, Michelle, Lynelle and Ajith

for

Your Loyalty and Support

and to

All teachers who sincerely strive for lifelong learning to remain the dedicated gatekeepers of education
# ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABET</td>
<td>Adult Basic Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADIM</td>
<td>Advanced Diploma in Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
<td>African National Congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATO</td>
<td>Area Training Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>Athabasca University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUT</td>
<td>Advisory Council for Universities and Technikons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A.Ed.</td>
<td>Baccalaureus Artium Educationis Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Com.Ed.</td>
<td>Baccalaureus Comercii Educationis Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education / Baccalaureus Educationis Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.H.Ed.Ed.</td>
<td>Baccalaureus Home Economics Educationis Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BITED</td>
<td>Bureau for In-Service Teacher Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Phil.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Prim.Ed.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc. Ed.</td>
<td>Baccalaureus Scientiae Educationis Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sec.Ed</td>
<td>Bachelor of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CADE</td>
<td>Canadian Association for Distance Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAL</td>
<td>Computer-Aided Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATE</td>
<td>Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCE</td>
<td>College of Continuing Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCERSA</td>
<td>Committee of College of Education Rectors of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCRTVU</td>
<td>China Central TV and Broadcasting University (China Central Radio and Television University)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEEC</td>
<td>Certificate in Education (Early Childhood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEFT</td>
<td>College of Education for Further Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEPD</td>
<td>Centre for Education Policy Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CESA</td>
<td>College of Education of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNAA</td>
<td>Council for National Academic Awards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNED</td>
<td>Centre National d'Enseignement à Distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNTE</td>
<td>Centre National de Télé-enseignement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COL</td>
<td>Commonwealth of Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLSA</td>
<td>College of Open Learning of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORDTEK</td>
<td>The Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education Institutions in KwaZulu-Natal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COTEP</td>
<td>Committee on Teacher Education Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTP</td>
<td>Committee for Technikon Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTP</td>
<td>Centres Télé-enseignement Universitaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUP</td>
<td>Committee of University Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCM</td>
<td>Diploma in Contextual Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Distance Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>Distance Education Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEJP</td>
<td>Diploma in Education (Junior Primary Phase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DES</td>
<td>Department of Education and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Department of Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFE</td>
<td>Department for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIA</td>
<td>Department of Indian Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIFF</td>
<td>Deutsches Institut für Fernstudien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIM</td>
<td>Diploma in Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED.D./D.ED.</td>
<td>Doctor of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e-mail</td>
<td>Electronic Mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Management Information Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPU</td>
<td>Education Policy Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIC</td>
<td>Educational Resources Information Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDECS</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Cognitive Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDEFSM</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Food Service Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDEM &amp; A</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Management and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDEME</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Mathematics Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDEPSE</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Physical Science Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDESENI</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education : Special Education Needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP</td>
<td>Gross National Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNU</td>
<td>Government of National Unity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBUs</td>
<td>Historically Black Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDE</td>
<td>Higher Diploma in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED</td>
<td>Higher Education Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEDCOM</td>
<td>Heads of Education Department Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEDH</td>
<td>Higher Education Diploma : Home Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOA</td>
<td>House of Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>House of Delegates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOR</td>
<td>House of Representatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPTC</td>
<td>Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSRC</td>
<td>Human Sciences Research Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICCE</td>
<td>International Council for Correspondence Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICDE</td>
<td>International Council for Distance Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICDL</td>
<td>International Centre for Distance Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICS</td>
<td>International Correspondence Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC</td>
<td>International Extension College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGNOU</td>
<td>Indira Gandhi National Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSET</td>
<td>In-service Education and Training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Joint Education Trust
Instructional Systems Design
Johannesburg College of Education
Joint Education Trust
Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate
Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma
Korea National Open University
KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture
Kwazulu-Natal
Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture
Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate
Matriculation
Master of Arts
Master of Business Administration
Master of Distance Education
Master of Education
Medical University of Southern Africa
Master of Philosophy
National Association of Distance Education Organizations of South Africa
Natal College of Education
National Commission of Higher Education
Natal Education Department
National Council for Teacher Education
National Education Policy Investigation
Non-Governmental Organizations
National Open Learning Agency
National Qualifications Framework
Natal Teachers' Diploma
Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate
Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma
Outcomes-Based Education and Training
Anadolu University
Open Learning Association of South Africa
Open Learning Institute
Primary Education Certificate
Primary Education Diploma
Postgraduate Certificate in Education
Doctor of Philosophy
Pre-primary Phase Certificate in Education
Primary Education Project
Pre-service Education and Training
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbr.</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTC</td>
<td>Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTD</td>
<td>Primary Teachers' Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAU</td>
<td>Rand Afrikaans University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSA</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REQV</td>
<td>Relevant Educational Qualification Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SABC</td>
<td>South African Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACOL</td>
<td>South African College of Open Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACTE</td>
<td>South African College for Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teachers' Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAIDE</td>
<td>South African Institute of Distance Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAOU</td>
<td>Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwyssersunie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAQA</td>
<td>South African Qualifications Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCE</td>
<td>Springfield College of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCITC</td>
<td>School Centred Initiative in Teacher Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDM</td>
<td>Specialization Diploma in Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECH</td>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate: Home Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SED</td>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEDH</td>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma: Home Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOL</td>
<td>Students-on-line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPTC</td>
<td>Senior Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPTD</td>
<td>Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRC</td>
<td>Students' Representative Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD</td>
<td>Senior / Secondary Teachers' Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STOU</td>
<td>Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTA</td>
<td>Teacher Training Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBTF</td>
<td>UNISA Broad Transformation Forum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCFE</td>
<td>Umlazi College for Further Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD-W</td>
<td>University of Durban-Westville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCG</td>
<td>University Grants Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UKOU</td>
<td>United Kingdom Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNED</td>
<td>Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNISA</td>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>Unit Standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Union of Soviet Socialist Republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UT</td>
<td>Universitas Terbuka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VUDEC</td>
<td>Vista University Distance Education Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINTEC</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Abbreviations used</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures</td>
<td>xxi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>xxiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>xxvi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTERS

### CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 A Conspectus of Education and Teacher  
1.1.2 Distance Education: An Effulgent and Rational Avant-Garde Educational Strategy  
1.1.3 Historical Antecedents of Distance Education  
1.1.4 Raison d'être for Distance Education  
1.1.5 Benefits and Limitations of Distance Education

1.2 CIRCUMSTANCES WHICH GAVE RISE TO THIS RESEARCH AND OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Introduction

1.4.2 Data Collection

1.4.2.1 Review of the Literature

1.4.2.2 Conferences, Workshops and Seminars

1.4.2.3 Institutional Visits

1.4.2.4 Unstructured Interviews or Informal Conversational Interviews

1.4.3 Data Analysis
CHAPTER TWO: IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING (INSET) FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

2.1 INTRODUCTION 52

2.2 DEFINITION OF INSET AND CONCEPTS RELEVANT TO INSET 54
  2.2.1 Definition of INSET 54
  2.2.2 Concepts relevant to INSET 56
    2.2.2.1 Recurrent education 56
    2.2.2.2 Continuing education 57
    2.2.2.3 Staff development 57
    2.2.2.4 Professional Growth/Development 58
    2.2.2.5 Lifelong learning 58
    2.2.2.6 On-the-job training 59
    2.2.2.7 Renewal 60

2.3 OBJECTIVES OF INSET 60

2.4 MODELS OF INSET 63
  2.4.1 The Traditional INSET Model 64
  2.4.2 The Defect INSET Model 65
  2.4.3 The Growth INSET Model 66
  2.4.4 The Lifelong Learning/Continuing Education INSET Model 66
  2.4.5 The School-focused INSET Model 67
  2.4.6 Research-based INSET Model 68

2.5 THE PROVISION OF INSET WITH REGARD TO DIFFERENT CAREER SITUATIONS 69
  2.5.1 Induction needs 70
  2.5.2 Extension needs 70
  2.5.3 Refreshment needs 71
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2</td>
<td>Charles A Wedemeyer: Theory of Independent Study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2.1</td>
<td>The Independent Learner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2.2</td>
<td>Independent Study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2.3</td>
<td>The Teaching-Learning Situation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.3</td>
<td>Michael G Moore: Theory of Transactional Distance and Learner Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.3.1</td>
<td>The Concept of Transactional Distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.3.2</td>
<td>The Concept of Learner Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4</td>
<td>Otto Peters: The Theory of the Industrialization of Distance Teaching and Learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.1</td>
<td>Didactical Considerations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2</td>
<td>Comparison of Distance Education and Industrial Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.1</td>
<td>Rationalization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.2</td>
<td>Division of Labour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.3</td>
<td>Mechanization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.4</td>
<td>Assembly Line</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.5</td>
<td>Mass Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.6</td>
<td>Planning and Preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.7</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.8</td>
<td>Scientific Control Methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.9</td>
<td>Formalization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.10</td>
<td>Standardization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.11</td>
<td>Change of Function</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.12</td>
<td>Objectification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.13</td>
<td>Concentration and Centralization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.3</td>
<td>Epilogue: Distance Education and Post-Industrial Society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.5</td>
<td>John A Bååth: Theory of Two-Way Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.6</td>
<td>Börje Holmberg: The Theory of Guided Didactic Conversation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.7</td>
<td>David Sewart: Theory of Continuity of Concern</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.8</td>
<td>Desmond Keegan: A Theory of the Reintegration of the Teaching and Learning Acts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.9</td>
<td>Theoretical Considerations for Contemporary Distance Education: The Debate around Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.10</td>
<td>A Synthesis of the Theoretical Perspectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>A TYPOLOGY OF DISTANCE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.1</td>
<td>Typology Proposed by Otto Peters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.2</td>
<td>Typology Proposed by Judy EI-Bushra</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5.3 Typology Proposed by Michael W Neil 207
3.5.4 Typology Proposed by Desmond Keegan and Greville Rumble 208
3.5.5 Typology Proposed by Desmond Keegan 211
3.5.5.1 Autonomous Distance Education Institutions 213
3.5.5.2 Distance Education Departments of Conventional Institutions 215

3.6 CONCLUSION 217

CHAPTER FOUR: HISTORICO-COMPARATIVE STUDY: DISTANCE EDUCATION IN SELECTED DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES 220

4.1 INTRODUCTION 220

4.2 THE UNITED KINGDOM OPEN UNIVERSITY (UKOU) 228
4.2.1 Origins of the UKOU 228
4.2.2 Aims of the UKOU 235
4.2.3 Access and Programmes of Study 236
4.2.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures 241
4.2.5 The Role of the UKOU in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education 246
4.2.6 Summation 254

4.3 THE ATHABASCA UNIVERSITY (AU) OF CANADA 257
4.3.1 Origins of the AU 257
4.3.2 Aims of the AU 262
4.3.3 Access and Programmes of Study 264
4.3.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures 271
4.3.5 The Role of the AU in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education 274
4.3.6 Summation 275

4.4 THE INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY (IGNOU) OF INDIA 278
4.4.1 Origins of the IGNOU 278
4.4.2 Aims of the IGNOU 285
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.4.3 Access and Programmes of Study</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4.5 The Role of the IGNOU in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4.6 Summation</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 THE ZIMBABWE INTEGRATED NATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE (ZINTEC)</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.1 Origins of ZINTEC</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.2 Aims of ZINTEC</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.3 Access and Programmes of Study</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.5 The Role of ZINTEC in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education</td>
<td>316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5.6 Summation</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 CONCLUSION</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER FIVE: DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS AT A NATIONAL LEVEL IN SOUTH AFRICA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1 INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 THE PROVISION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1 The University of South Africa (UNISA)</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.1 Origins of UNISA</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.2 Aims of UNISA</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.3 Access and Programmes of Study</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.5 The Role of UNISA in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.6 Summation</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2 Vista University</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.1 Origins of Vista University</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.2 Aims of Vista University</td>
<td>391</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.2.3 Access and Programmes of Study
5.2.2.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures
5.2.2.5 The Role of Vista University in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education
5.2.2.6 Summation
5.2.3 The South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE)
5.2.3.1 Origins of SACTE
5.2.3.2 Aims of SACTE
5.2.3.3 Access and Programmes of Study
5.2.3.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures
5.2.3.5 The Role of SACTE in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education
5.2.3.6 Summation
5.2.4 The Role of Other Organizations and Institutions Offering Teacher Education Courses through Distance Education for the Upgrading and Improvement of the Qualifications of Teachers at a National Level in South Africa.
5.2.5 CONCLUSION

CHAPTER SIX: UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION IN KWAZULU-NATAL (KZN)

6.1 INTRODUCTION

6.2 THE SPRINGFIELD COLLEGE OF EDUCATION (SCE)
6.2.1 Origins of SCE
6.2.2 Aims of SCE
6.2.3 Access and Programmes of Study
6.2.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures
6.2.5 The Role of the SCE in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education
6.2.6 Summation

6.3 THE NATAL COLLEGE OF EDUCATION (NCE)
6.3.1 Origins of NCE
### 6.3.2 Aims of NCE

Page 476

### 6.3.3 Access and Programmes of Study

Page 476

### 6.3.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures

Page 481

### 6.3.5 The Role of the NCE in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education

Page 482

### 6.3.6 Summation

Page 484

### 6.4 THE UMLAZI COLLEGE FOR FURTHER EDUCATION (UCFE)

Page 485

#### 6.4.1 Origins of UCFE

Page 485

#### 6.4.2 Aims of UCFE

Page 487

#### 6.4.3 Access and Programmes of Study

Page 490

#### 6.4.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures

Page 493

#### 6.4.5 The Role of the UCFE in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education

Page 494

#### 6.4.6 Summation

Page 497

### 6.5 AMALGAMATION AND RATIONALIZATION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION COLLEGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN KWAZULU-NATAL: THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR OPEN LEARNING (SACOL)

Page 498

#### 6.5.1 Origins of SACOL

Page 498

#### 6.5.2 Aims of SACOL

Page 501

#### 6.5.3 Access and Programmes of Study

Page 502

#### 6.5.4 Organization and Decision-Making Structures

Page 504

#### 6.5.5 The Role of SACOL in Improving and Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers through Distance Education

Page 505

#### 6.5.6 Summation

Page 507

### 6.6 CONCLUSION

Page 507

### CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Page 512

#### 7.1 CONCLUSIONS

Page 512

#### 7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Page 527

#### 7.2.1 General Recommendations

Page 527
## Specific Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.1</td>
<td>A Systems Approach to Distance Education</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.2</td>
<td>Course Design and Development</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.3</td>
<td>Assuring Quality in the Synthesis of Study Guides</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.4</td>
<td>Student Support and Counselling</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.5</td>
<td>Administration and Policy Planning</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.6</td>
<td>Appointment of Staff to the Distance Education Institutions</td>
<td>544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2.7</td>
<td>Future Research</td>
<td>549</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## EPILOGUE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>568</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>The evolution of distance education</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Career situations and teachers’ accompanying professional needs</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Relationship of correspondence study/ correspondence education to distance education</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Venn Diagram showing the relationship between distance education and open learning/open education</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Relationship of distance teaching and distance learning to distance education</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Relationship of distance education to other forms of direct and indirect education</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Institutionalized and non-institutionalized learning</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Essential elements in a teaching-learning situation</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>A teaching-learning model to accommodate physical distance</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Distant learning and teaching methods classified by the dimensions of distance</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>Types of telemathic teaching programmes</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>Types of independent study programmes by variable learner autonomy</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>Suggested typology of educational programmes</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>Conventional teaching</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>Forms of distance teaching before introduction of teleconference media</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>Forms of distance teaching after introduction of teleconference media</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>Theoretical conceptions of learning and teaching</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>Analysis of teaching models by Bāāth</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>Guided didactic conversation : Holmberg</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>Role of the intermediary : Sewart</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>Relationship of learning materials to learning in a distance education system</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>Fordist, neo-Fordist and post-Fordist paradigms</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>Modes of production and stages of conventional and distance education development</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>Key elements in a theory for distance education : Perraton</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>Typlogy of distance teaching institutions</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>United Kingdom Open University organizational structure</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>United Kingdom Open University governance structure</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Partnership between the school and United Kingdom Open University : for the Postgraduate Certificate in Education</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Athabasca University organizational structure</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Course Development : Indira Gandhi National Open University</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>Instructional System Chart : Indira Gandhi National Open University</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>Organizational structure of the Indira Gandhi National Open University</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Delivery system within ZINTEC</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Matriculation results : 1997 in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Expenditure on school education per province for 1997/98</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Learner enrolment according to province, 1997</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Learner enrolment according to school phase and gender, 1997</td>
<td>333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Learner enrolment for 1993 to 1997 and forecasts for 1998 to 2008 for South Africa</td>
<td>334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Number of educators and learner enrolment per province, 1996</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>The débâcle of the voluntary severance package for teachers</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>Teachers' squeeze</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>Ball-game between teachers and government</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>Restructured Faculty of Education, UNISA</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>The African Renaissance and the search for the Holy Grail in education</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Institutions, learners and educators : 1996</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture : Regional Demographics</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Learner enrolment according to province and school phase, 1996</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Learner enrolment for 1993 to 1997 and forecasts for 1998 to 2008 for Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>The Agent-General, The Rt. Hon. V.S. Srinivasa Satiri, P.C.</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>A systems model for distance education</td>
<td>532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Inputs and outputs of distance education system</td>
<td>533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Model of the Instructional Systems Design (ISD) Process</td>
<td>539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Training model : functions, skills and training needs for distance education</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Media and technology in distance education for the Province of Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>561</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Professionally trained teacher shortage in Zimbabwe, 1980 - 88</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Matriculation national pass rate trend in South Africa</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>The declining pass rate for the matriculation examination in the various provinces</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Standard ten examination results by province and gender, 1998</td>
<td>328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Summary of expenditure on education by province, 1995/96</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Summary of projected expenditure on education by province, 1996/97</td>
<td>338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Summary of education expenditure by province and expenditure category, 1996/97</td>
<td>339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>Provinces ranked according to proportion of un- and underqualified teachers</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>Student details: breakdown by gender and race</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>Student details: breakdown of students by province</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>Student details: student ages</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>Enrolled students according to qualifications: 1998 and 1999 Faculty of Education</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>Enrolled students according to qualifications and provinces: 1999 Faculty of Education, Monday, 1999 August, 23</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>Student enrolments: Vista University distance education (1995 - 2001)</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>Student enrolments: Vista University distance education: 1999</td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>Student enrolments: Vista University distance education (1995 - 2001)</td>
<td>402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE): Student details for different courses</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE): Breakdown of students by province</td>
<td>422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE): Programme entry levels and student ages</td>
<td>423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE): Enrolment for 1999</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Learner enrolment in 1998 in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>State schools in 1998 in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Educators in 1998 in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Ratios in 1998 in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>1997 Educator qualifications in Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Student statistics for 1997: distance education courses: Natal College of Education</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>Student statistics for 1997: distance education courses: Umlazi College for Further Education</td>
<td>496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Statistical Analysis: student registration: SACOL. 1999-06-17</td>
<td>506</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUMMARY

This research is predicated in the firm conviction that the quality of education is dependent upon the quality of teachers. Teachers as the bedrock of education must participate actively and conscientiously in their intellectual growth through various forms of INSET discussed in the research.

From an international comparative perspective DE as a strategy of INSET is deemed as the most functional, if not prudent and efficacious educational experience for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. In this research the origin of DE in terms of its antecedents and evolution, the raison d'être and the advantages and limitations of DE are adumbrated in order to focus on the complexity and diversity of DE.

As part of the conceptual and theoretical framework various terms used synonymously with DE are considered. A syntagma of principles providing a utilitarian and pragmatic connotation for DE is then postulated. Selected theories relevant to DE provide the synthesis for theoretical perspectives. The typology of DE institutions comprising autonomous, dedicated providers of DE and those that are mixed or hybrid or dual mode systems is analyzed.

In keeping with the theme of educational borrowing fundamental to comparative education studies provision of DE by the UKOU and AU for developed countries, IGNOU and the ZINTEC model for developing countries is discussed. National examples are UNISA, Vista University and SACTE. The provincial institutions discussed are the former SCE, NCE, UCFE and the newly formed SACOL.

General and specific recommendations for the provision of DE programmes for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal are adumbrated. By way of conclusion, it is iterated that the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers is irrefragably
the quintessential factor in the new generation of teacher education and a pivotal element for INSET.

KEY TERMS

DISTANCE EDUCATION, DISTANCE LEARNING, OPEN EDUCATION, OPEN LEARNING, IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING (INSET), TEACHER EDUCATION, INDEPENDENT STUDY, NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION, TELEMATHIC TEACHING, CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION, LIFELONG LEARNING.
CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION
1.1.1 A CONSPECTUS OF EDUCATION AND TEACHER

This research is predicated in the firm conviction that for progress in education to be of any value, teachers, as professionals, must participate actively and conscientiously in their intellectual growth enabling them to improve both their academic and professional expertise (Bagwandeem and Louw, 1993:2). This can be achieved, inter alia, by the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications through the strategy of distance education. With respect to education, per se, much has been written in terms of the scientific theory as well as the practical process and application of this concept.

Expositions on education range from the obviously simplistic, pantagruelian and ribald to that which is ineluctably thought-provoking, scholarly and philosophically profound. For instance, Rabindranath Tagore, the internationally famous poet, writer and Nobel Laureate for literature suggests:

'True goodness lies not in the negation of badness, but in the mastery of it. It is the miracle that turns the tumult of chaos into the dance of beauty. True education is that power of miracle, that ideal of creation.'

(Murphy, 1980:234)
From another perspective, Van Schalkwyk (1993:280) explicates the concept of education as pedagogics which is a distinct discipline and subject field for scientific study. It is characterized by its specific methods or approaches, perspectives and focus. Education as a discipline propounds, *sui generis*, theories, postulates, ideologies and beliefs.

Further, Higgs and Smith (1997) provide thought-provoking theoretical frameworks for education in terms of selected philosophies of education. These include, *inter alia*, logical empiricism, critical rationalism, critical theory, phenomenology, hermeneutics and systems theory and the impact of these philosophies in education generally.

Irrespective of the point of departure, there is general consensus worldwide that education represents a major agent for the control of social change and the advancement of economic development (Fägerlind and Saha, 1983:57). In short, the salubrious upliftment and evolution of a nation is synchronous with the melioristic progress in education.

Education is universally construed as the strategy for the wholesome development of the greatest abilities of individuals with unique and private hopes and dreams. When these are fulfilled they can be translated for the edification of the individual and the enhancement of the nation. Education is the dynamic driving force for broader social and economic change and may be conceived as being simultaneously a cause, a consequence and a facilitator of change within society (Evans and Nation, 1996(2):3).

Certainly education, whether it is formal, informal or non-formal, as referred to by La Belle and Sylvester (1993:141), constitutes the lifeblood of any community in the developed world or of a society merely existing and struggling to eke out a living in the developing world. Education, thus, is the unequivocal cornerstone of social,
political, cultural, economic, technological and individual development. Van Schalkwyk (1993:256) argues in this regard that:

'Education is one of the most important and most dynamic civilizing powers in the community because it forms people, equipping and enabling them to exploit, organize, form and change reality according to particular norms, guidelines and goals.'

With respect to the formal sector of education, irrefragably, teachers represent the quintessential element. As Perraton (1993(a)(2):1) pithily comments:

'Good education demands good teachers.'

Their role is pivotal to the whole vast spectrum of education from the pre-primary school level right through to the tertiary sector. Indeed, there can be no question about the fact that teachers are ineffably the bedrock of education. Philosophically, the dedicated and professional teacher is the reification of the immanent conceptualization of the revered mentor and guru as expatiated in the epic sagas of innumerable ancient and pristine civilizations. Thus, for example, the Prophet of Kahlil Gibran (1979:67-68) in response to a question concerning the sagacity of a teacher solemnly declared:

'If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind.

... For the vision of one man lends not its wings to another man.'
Without doubt teachers occupy a vital position in the education system owing to the influence they exercise and the role they play. The future of a nation inexorably lies in the hands and the quality of its teachers. In this connection, Henry Brooks Adams (1838-1918), American historian and author, quite rightly declared, *a fortiori*:

'A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops.'

(Fitzhenry, 1986:284)

It, therefore, becomes imperative that for teachers to be effective not only must they be appropriately qualified but, as the dominant influence in the classroom, they cannot afford to lag behind in their continuing professional development (Bagwandeen, 1991(b):1). The current era, as we approach the beginning of the twenty-first century, is characterized by a rapid metamorphosis and transition in all spheres of life accompanied by an unprecedented explosion of knowledge. Today, the population at large, having become emancipated from innumerable trammels, evinces greater independence, creativity, originality, freedom, enterprise, dynamism and imagination than its antecedents (Van Schalkwyk, 1993:196).

There is no upper limit to a teacher's preparation. Many members of the general public and some educators labour under a grave misconception that the formal education of teachers is concluded when they graduate from the initial pre-service education and training (PRESET) programmes (Thomas, 1993(2):183). The dominant conviction internationally accepted is that PRESET merely launches the neophyte teacher into the teaching profession with sufficient skills to perform at a minimally acceptable level.

Upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers as part of their in-service education and training (INSET) should not be regarded as or restricted to the crisis of the moment. It must be grounded on an extended base of professional
Improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers can be dichotomized into official qualifications and operational qualifications.

An officially qualified teacher is a person who has fulfilled and satisfied the requisite conditions for receiving the relevant professional credential and permanent tenure as a teacher in terms of applicable legislation in any particular country. Typically, this means the completion of the appropriate PRESET programmes. For example, in the South African context, the minimum requirements for an educator to be deemed as a professionally qualified teacher is matriculation plus a three-year teacher education and training programme at a college of education or tertiary institution. The course must be structured in terms of the norms and standards determined by the Committee of Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) of the national Department of Education (DOE) and approved by the Heads of Education Departments Committee (HEDCOM). Further, these qualifications are to be assessed in terms of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the requirements of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). This provides such candidates with the Relevant Education Qualification Value (REQV)13 or M+3 or 'C' category grading.

In contradistinction, an operationally qualified teacher is one who performs duties as an educator satisfactorily. Such a person may not possess the minimum academic or professional qualifications.

Obviously, teachers who possess official qualifications are assumed to be operationally qualified. It must be conceded that there may be some educators who possess the requisite qualifications or even more but whose performance as teachers in the classroom leaves much to be desired. However, we must guard against throwing the baby out with the bathwater in condemning the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers because an insignificant number of such individuals perform below par as effective educators. Many factors in their aggregate
contribute to making a good teacher. Few can abnegate the contention that upgrading and improving the academic and professional qualifications of teachers constitute the sine qua non to maintain the optimal professional status of educators and at the same time to promote quality assurance in education.

Innumerable strategies can be utilized for both formal, award bearing and non-formal, non-award bearing INSET courses (Bagwandeen, 1991(b):152-248). However, from an international comparative perspective, distance education (DE) extant in both developed and developing countries as an INSET strategy for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of educators, ranks as the most functional, if not prudent and efficacious, educational expedience.

1.1.2 DISTANCE EDUCATION: AN EFFULGENT AND RATIONAL AVANT-GARDE EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY

Indeed, distance education (DE) has earned for itself the reputation of being a veritable thaumaturgical educational phenomenon worldwide. This is especially true for those who for various reasons were not able to obtain their educational objectives in the traditional face-to-face way. As learning becomes more important for the survival of individuals and society, the quality and form of education a person obtains becomes crucial. If traditional, face-to-face methods of learning fail to satisfy urgent needs timeously or equitably enough alternative methods are sought. These other methods of learning are described as non-traditional (Wedemeyer, 1981:xix). DE is an acknowledged leading non-traditional and non-conventional strategy with the potential to effect profound changes in education generally.

Among the innovations in the field of education then the esteem in which DE is held ranks very highly (Reddy, 1993:236). The most striking manifestation of the innovatory evolution of DE has been the proliferation of DE institutions and the parturition of mega-open universities. These mega-universities with a staggering
total of over 2 500 000 enrolled students is a pellucid indicium of how we can provide education and training for educators and others worthy of the twenty-first century. No doubt these 'new temples of learning' ensure that the 'ivory towers [are] thrown open' by providing innovative, flexible and high quality DE (Reddy, 1988(1):vii; 1993:236).

In this regard, Sir John Daniel, Vice-Chancellor of the United Kingdom Open University (UKOU), asseverates:

'The development of the techniques of open and distance learning, and their application all over the world, has been the great success story of education and training in the second half of the twentieth century.'

(Daniel, 1995(a) : Foreword)

DE as a significant educational phenomenon transcends national boundaries. This consideration underscores the extent of its impact as a truly international event and, as such, is undoubtedly remarkable for the contribution it makes to education across the spectrum (Shale and Garrison, 1990(1):1; see also, Bates, 1988(b):3). Further, the explosive growth of DE in the last two decades is a recognition of the essential role of DE in the total provision of education now and for the future (Sewart, 1990:7).

Institutionalized education is rapidly also encapsulating DE. This can be attributed to the global failure of the 'traditional elitist concept of education' (Khan, 1991:Preface). It is becoming patently obvious at an international level that the conventional system of education is inadequate to accommodate the growing needs of society. At the same time DE is being recognized as the best means of the democratization of the educational system (Sahoo, 1993:ix).
Further, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1987b:3-4) applauds DE as constituting a particularly interesting field of endeavour characterized by prolific challenges and rich in wide-ranging opportunities. It also eulogizes the capacity of DE in serving many nations with greatly differing needs and, pari passu, offering new programmes, catering for new clientele, employing state-of-the-art technologies and achieving laudable results through its impact upon the teaching and learning processes.

Evans and Nation (1989b(2):7) describe DE as a mutating virus within the bodies of education systems rising to meet new challenges, reshaping to confront social metamorphoses and transform itself for adoption to emerging contexts. It is virtually an incontrovertible assertion that DE is indeed a major revolution in the unfolding of educational thought and practice (Reddy, 1990:303). The growth and evolution of DE, however, is characterized by a marvellously diverse fashion around the world reflecting the vast differences between countries (Daniel, 1988:21).

Certainly, more people than ever before are obtaining qualifications, upgrading or improving their qualifications or undertaking professional development and training in the DE mode (Dekkers, 1991:132). This is understandable. The world is shrinking in terms of interactive communication and becoming more competitive in respect of global demands for trained personnel (EI-Bushra, 1973:5; see also, Sewart, 1982:27). DE has emerged as one of the most useful tools in response to the challenges for continuing, lifelong education (Rumble, 1990:31; see also, Garrison, 1989:38; Wedemeyer, 1981:3). For teachers particularly this is absolutely vital.

1.1.3 HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Some notable publications on the history of DE have appeared over the years. In this section, however, it is intended merely to present a compendious overview into the antecedents of DE. The travail of DE is deemed by many to have occurred in the
form of a correspondence characterized as an instructive letter. This presupposes that the genesis of DE is to be found in correspondence instruction and is strongly connected with the history of writing, the development of the alphabet and the art of reading. This was dependent primarily on the presence of a sender and a recipient both mastering the same stock of signs (Graff, 1982:386; see also, Rashid, 1992:17; Erdos, 1970:123; Gough, 1980:6).

Consequently, if one considers correspondence for instructional purposes between a tutor and a pupil to be formal education then the incunabula of DE are to be found in ancient civilization (Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:15). This would include the epistolography of the Greeks, the Romans, the Chinese, Indians and all other civilizations of such times. During the Biblical era some would attribute the nascent stages of DE to the act of Moses when he carried the tablets down from Mt. Sinai and later to the epistles of St. Paul and others for the instruction of early Christian congregations (Young, 1984:1; see also, Sewart, 1981:8; Holmberg, 1986(b):6; Chander, 1991(a):5; Bates, 1995(a):23).

However, the incipience of organized DE is not undisputedly clear. Notwithstanding, numerous milestones mark the progress of DE as we know it today throughout its history. Rumble (1989(c):83) avers that DE originated in the private sector. Enterprising individuals were enabled by the inauguration of a cheap and efficient postal service to provide a variety of lessons to home-based students through what was termed since 1856 as correspondence study and marked the first stage of DE (Wedemeyer, 1989:268; see also, Bååth, 1980:14). Holmberg (1988(b):13) maintains that organized DE has been known since the eighteenth century. For example, Caleb Philipps of Boston was endeavouring to teach shorthand by correspondence in 1728 (Gerrity, 1976:20). The following advertisement by Philipps inserted in the Boston Gazette of 20 March 1728 explicitly alludes to self-instructional material being sent to students and connotes the possibility of tutoring by correspondence.
Facsimile

THE BOSTON GAZETTE

March 20, 1728

Celeb Philipps, Teacher of the New Method of Short Hand, is removed opposite to the north door of the Town House in King street. As this way of Joining 3. 4. 5 &c. words in one in every Sentence by the Moods. Tenses. Persons, and Verb. do's not in the least spoil the Long Hand, so it is not anything like the Marks for Sentences in the Printed Character Books being all wrote according to the Letter, and a few Plain and Easy Rules. N.B. Any Persons in the Country desirous to learn this Art, may by having the several Lessons sent Weekly to them, be as perfectly instructed as those that live in Boston.


A century later in 1833, an advertisement in English appeared in the Lunds Weckoblad No. 30, 1833 offering an opportunity to study composition through the medium of the post (Holmberg, 1986(b):7; see also, Chander, 1991(a):5). The advertisement below is obviously patently lucid in its reference to correspondence teaching:

A Card
The undersigned respectfully intimates to those Ladies and Gentlemen, in the adjacent Towns, who study Composition through the medium of the Post that the Address for the month of August, will be Little Grey Friars Street, Lund.

A. J. Mauller

Another inchoative and rudimentary attempt to organize teaching by correspondence was made in England by Isaac Pitman recognized to be the first modern distance educator (Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:15; see also, Keegan, 1993(a):62; Dinsdale, 1953:573; Gerrity, 1976:19; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:21; Holmberg, 1982(a):8; Glatter et al., 1971:4). In 1840 he reduced the main principles of his shorthand system to fit into postcards (Holmberg, 1988(b):14; 1986(b):7). He sent these to students who were required to transcribe into shorthand short passages of the Bible. The transcriptions were sent to him for correction.

It is interesting to note that this teaching of shorthand combined with a study of the Bible commenced in 1840 when the reliable and speedy postal service characterized by a uniform penny postage was inaugurated on 10 January 1840 in the United Kingdom (UK) (Dinsdale, 1953:573). In 1843 the Phonographic Correspondence Society was formed to control these corrections of shorthand exercises. This was the commencement of what was later to become the Sir Isaac Pitman Correspondence Colleges (Holmberg, 1986(b):7).

An institute for Teaching by Correspondence was established in Russia as early as 1850. Thereafter, several correspondence teaching polytechnical institutes came into existence at the turn of the century (Kaye and Rumble, 1991:214).

In 1856 DE was apparently introduced into Germany. The Frenchman, Charles Toussaint, teaching French in Berlin, and the German, Gustav Langenscheidt, a member of the Society of Modern Languages in Berlin, co-founded a school in Berlin for language teaching by correspondence (Holmberg, 1986(b):7; see also, Erdos, 1967:2; Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:15; Ruggles et al., 1982:2; Rumble, 1986(a):43; Watkins, 1991:2; Van Niekerk, 1968:14).

As Curran (1992:55) points out DE at university level was provided initially by private tutors and correspondence schools in the UK. They prepared students for the external degree examinations of the University of London, which under its first
charter was limited to conducting examinations and conferring degrees. Teaching was a responsibility of its constituent colleges. Students who wanted to write the university examinations had to follow a course of study at one of these. In 1858 this restriction was removed allowing anyone to read for a degree provided matriculation requirements were met and fees paid (Rumble, 1986(a):44). This paved the way for students to study for the matriculation examinations externally and also through private tutors and correspondence colleges.

In the United States of America (USA) Anna Eliot Ticknor, daughter of a Harvard University professor, founded and controlled the Boston-based Society to Encourage Study at Home from 1873 until her death in 1897. She initiated the idea of exchanging correspondence between educator and learner. Monthly correspondence with guided readings and frequent tests constituted the nub of the organization's personalized instruction. As such she is regarded as the pioneer of DE in the USA (Holmberg, 1986(b):8; see also, Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:16; Gerrity, 1976:27-39; Watkins, 1991:3; Sherow and Wedemeyer, 1990:9; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:22).

Another significant early DE programme in the USA was initiated in the summer of 1873. The school of the Methodist Church met at Lake Chautauqua, New York. This humble innovation expanded into an elaborate programme of learning activities which included a correspondence school of theology (Young, 1984:1; see also, Gerrity, 1976:53-56).

A further distance teaching activity in Europe commenced with the development and distribution of self-instructional material. This was described as the 'Methode Rustin'. It was started in 1899 in Germany. It was consistently based on a plan developed as a general guideline for correspondence courses (Holmberg, 1986(b):8).

Again, according to Holmberg (1986(b):8), among British pioneering organizations were Skerry's College in Edinburgh which was established in 1878. Its primary
objective was the preparation of candidates for the Civil Service Examinations. Another initiative was the Foulks Lynch Correspondence Tuition Service in London which was launched in 1884. It specialized in the teaching of accountancy.

In 1885 the Sanitary Training College was founded in the City of London. It continued under that name until 1935 when it became known as the Chambers College. Its principal objective was the training of sanitary inspectors.

In 1886 G Benson Clough provided courses for pupil teachers who wished to pass scholarship and certificate examinations. These provided teachers who could not afford to go to a training college in England with the necessary qualifications to become qualified teachers (Dinsdale, 1953:574).

In 1887 Dr William Briggs founded the University Correspondence College in Cambridge. This was the forerunner in providing education of university standard by means of postal tuition. Students wrote the University of London examinations for the external degrees. The Diploma Correspondence College with the subsequent nomenclature of Wolsey Hall, Oxford, was established in 1894. This institution also prepared students for university qualifications. It also offered a plethora of courses in other subjects. A number of other institutions preparing candidates for specific vocations was also established around this time. In the latter half of the nineteenth century DE assumed the form, *inter alia*, of university extension courses in the UK and the USA. Amongst the American forerunners in this context was the Illinois Wesleyan University. In 1874 the university provided courses for graduate and undergraduate degrees which could be pursued *in absentia*. (Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:16; see also, Gerrity, 1976:39-45; Rumble, 1986(a):45; Watkins, 1991:4).

In 1883 the Correspondence University was founded in Ithaca, New York. The university, though its life was shortlived, commenced its provision of DE with much éclat having engaged the services of a litany of professors from Cornell, Harvard, Swarthmore, Cambridge (England), Trinity (Dublin), Johns Hopkins and other leading
universities (Gerrity, 1976:46; see also, Rumble, 1986(a):46; Sherow and Wedemeyer, 1990:12).

Another noteworthy development in the USA was the establishment of the University and School Extension Society in 1888. It commenced courses in Brooklyn. They directed their energies to providing education and training for teachers. They also arranged for numerous home study courses.

By far the most profound and influential contribution to American DE was made by William Rainey Harper. He was regarded as the futurist and father of correspondence instruction in the USA (Gerrity, 1976:23; see also, Verduin Jr. and Clark, 1991:16; Holmberg, 1986(b):18; Garrison, 1989:51; Mackenzie and Christensen, 1971:7). He initiated the Correspondence School of Hebrew in 1881 (Rumble, 1986(a):46).

In 1882 Harper persuaded Chautauqua educators to allow him to start a correspondence study programme for his residential summer school students. In 1883 Chautauqua received a charter from the New York State Legislature and became an accredited university offering a number of degrees of bachelor of divinity and bachelor of arts through its correspondence programme (Rumble, 1986(a):46). Harper was made the head of the College of Liberal Arts. This department emphasized the distance study techniques.

In 1892 Harper was appointed as the first President of the University of Chicago. He successfully founded the first university-level correspondence study division in the USA largely employing principles and ideas he had acquired through his work at Chautauqua. In fact, he virtually cloned Chautauqua and the result was a much more systematized, efficient and businesslike entity (Gerrity, 1976:52; 56-82; see also, Watkins, 1991:6-9; Sherow and Wedemeyer, 1990:11). According to Moore and Kearsley (1996:22) this was the world's first university distance education programme.
A less academic origin of DE in the USA is attributed to Thomas J. Foster, a Pennsylvanian newspaper editor. In 1891 he introduced a course to teach mining and methods of preventing mine accidents (Holmberg, 1986(b):9; see also, Rumble, 1986(a):44; Van Niekerk, 1968:15). This was the sequel to a systematized continuation of an instructional activity begun earlier in a question column in the *Mining Herald*, a daily newspaper, published in the coal mining district of eastern Pennsylvania. This enterprise met with great enthusiasm. The success of the initiative resulted firstly in the production of an extended course and subsequently to the postulation of a number of correspondence courses in various fields. As a matter of fact, this was the precursor to the International Correspondence Schools (ICS) in Scranton, Pennsylvania, and their various subsidiaries and offshoots (Holmberg, 1986(b):9).

Also in 1891 the University of Wisconsin approved the development of university extension correspondence study courses (Young, 1984:1; see also, Watkins, 1991:12; Sherow and Wedemeyer, 1990:13). Under the guidance of William H. Lighty the DE programmes at the University of Wisconsin took firm root (Gerrity, 1976:83-91).

At the turn of the century and into the early 1900s DE programmes in the USA proliferated. By 1915 the pullulation of a gallimaufry of DE institutions involved with a multiplicity of courses led to the logical establishment of a confederation with the appellation of the National University Extension Association. The formation of the Association marked the inception of greater interaction among the manifold types of university extension through DE. At the same time it provided a forum where outside agencies such as proprietary correspondence schools could develop worthwhile, albeit informal, relationships with colleges and universities over time (Gerrity, 1976:104).

Later developments indicated that the provision of both academic and practical vocational study opportunities was to typify DE in the twentieth century. For
example, Hermods was founded in 1898 in Sweden. It later became one of the world's largest and most influential distance teaching organizations (Holmberg, 1986(b):10; see also, Rawson-Jones, 1982:21; Young et al., 1980:15). The organization was started by H S Hermod in an effort to assist an individual student who had to leave Malmö. Hermod had been in charge of a language school in Malmö since 1886. He taught English by means of self-instructional lessons. The student who had to leave Malmö was anxious to continue his studies in English. The course was taught to him by correspondence and lessons were sent to him through the mail (Perraton, 1984(a)(2):8).

The student received long letters in English and he responded in English to the best of his ability. This proved effective. Hermod consequently developed assignments based on the self-instructional courses. In 1898 and 1899 he expanded this strategy of correspondence courses to other subjects (Holmberg, 1986(b):10).

In the period following upon the First World War DE evolved progressively throughout the world. DE was perceived by educators as the conduit to extend learning opportunities at various levels to people who were deprived of access to traditional modes for a multitude of reasons (Peñalver, 1990:21).

Steady expansion of DE continued until 1970 without any general radical metamorphosis in organizational structure. However, there was a gradual shift in the use of methods and media. It is generally felt that although there were DE institutions providing a most dedicated service to education, such as the University of South Africa (UNISA), and which Holmberg (1986(b):29) describes as an outstanding pioneer, the founding of the UKOU in 1971 marked the beginning of a more prestigious era in the history of DE.

In 1938 educators involved with DE had formed the International Council for Correspondence Education (ICCE). The term 'distance education' was introduced to the ICCE at its quadri-annual meeting in Warrenton, Virginia, in 1972 on the
initiative in part of Professor Börje Holmberg and also partly by Professor Michael G
Moore who presented distance in the concept of education for the first time (Moore,
1987(c):14; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 197-198). The ICCE then changed
its name to the International Council for Distance Education (ICDE) in 1982. The
event is often described as a watershed (Harry et al., 1993:51). This was to signify,
inter alia, the growth and ascendancy of electronic media (Moore and Thompson,
1997:4; see also, Garrison, 1989:1). The acceptance of the term and the concept
of DE has been the result of the influence of the ICDE, various DE journals and
perhaps the impact of the ideas and practices of the UKOU (Moore, 1987(c):14).
DE now assumed the reputation of a revered educational phenomenon. DE had long
been the cinderella of the educational spectrum (Sewart et al., 1983:ix; see also,
Peters, 1992:28). For more than a century this special form of tuition had been
relegated to a pariah status and as a step child of education and described in the
terms neologized by Wedemeyer (1981:xxii) as 'learning at the back door'.

DE emerged in the post 1970s as a valued component of many national educational
systems in both developed and developing countries. DE became not only attractive
but indeed so popular that, as Keegan (1993(a):62) maintains, today a listing of DE
institutions would embrace most countries of the world and all levels of education.
This is truly a unique phenomenon. Thus, following Moore and Kearsley (1996:19-
20; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(2): 59), the growth of DE could be described in
terms of a number of stages or generations:

• The first generation was correspondence study dominated by print-media.
• The second generation was characterized by the establishment of Open
Universities in the early 1970s which used both correspondence instruction and
broadcast and recorded-media.
• The third generation which emerged in the 1990s is based primarily on computer-
conferencing networks and computer-based multi-media workstations.

The evolution of DE could be illustrated as follows:
There is presently a new public recognition of DE. Scepticism of DE has been inexorably replaced by a parity of esteem with conventional education. Numerous open universities, developments in communications technology and increased sophistication of delivery strategies and student support systems geared towards quality DE have all in their aggregate contributed to the new status of DE. As Holmberg (1986(b):30) concludes:

'The image changed in several countries from one of possible estimable but often little respected endeavour to one of a publicly acknowledged type of education far from seldom acclaimed as an innovative promise for the future.'

1.1.4 RAISON D'ETRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

Victor Hugo declared aphoristically:
'No army can withstand the strength of an idea whose time has come.'

(Fitzhenry, 1986:152)

This sententious comment applies most cogently to the concept of DE for the provision generally of education but more particularly for formal, award bearing INSET orientated towards the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of educators. As we approach the twenty-first century the massification and egalitarianism of education is being propounded as an intrinsic and crucial international apophthegm. In this context, Black (1992:6) advances the argument that there can be no abnegation of the view that DE is indeed perceived overwhelmingly as a manifestation of the overall expansion, democratization and diversification of education in all communities in practically every country throughout the world. Thus, it is no exaggeration to suggest that while DE does not claim to be the panacea for all the ills of education, nonetheless, it is definitely being apotheosized as the most invaluable and compelling strategy for achieving the fundamental objective of providing education to all people at all levels.

Singh (1982:61) in this regard contends:

'... with the passage of time and awakening among the masses, the elitist concept had to be discarded in the face of the modern social objective to democratize education by extending educational opportunity to all sections of society.'

Formal education could not achieve this objective unless it was greatly extended with concomitant spiralling costs. DE has been resorted to as the most sensible solution in both developed and developing countries.
The ratiocination for DE as the key strategy for the delivery of education is now virtually incontrovertible. The former Pyrrhonism towards DE has dissipated. As Perraton (1984(a)(2):27) remarks, DE can now help toward the Copernican revolution in education for which many have been asking. Certainly, DE has come of age (Cahill, 1985:37).

DE is being called upon to meet some of the felt needs which varies from country to country depending upon its stage of development (Reddy, 1993:239; see also, Cahill, 1985:27). At present educational demands have increased exponentially all over the world. Rapid technological developments require continuous upgrading of knowledge and speedy diversification of educational systems (Giacomantonio, 1991:207; see also, Xingfu, 1994:158). In the opinion of Perraton (1991:1) DE can be used for many different audiences and purposes and in like vein Keegan (1983(b)(3):123) declares that there are innumerable justifications for DE extant throughout the world. A synopsis of some of these as the raison d' etre for DE can be adumbrated as follows:

In developing countries particularly DE provides the answer to the previously almost insurmountable problem of taking education to the large number of their population who are isolated geographically for a myriad of reasons (Taylor and White, 1985:2; see also, Kelly, 1990:77; Rumble, 1986(a):49). As DE does not require face-to-face attendance at a campus it empowers students to gain access to education even those residing far away from teaching institutions.

Reddy (1993:239; 1988(2):6) emphasizes the view that in all countries equality of opportunity for education should be provided. Some students have been deprived of opportunities for education through no fault of their own and for a variety of socio-economic and even political reasons (Kaye, 1981(2):32). The acute shortage of accommodation endemic at most conventional educational institutions in many countries means that DE becomes the only available route for education (Perraton,
1991:2). DE has the potential to overcome and reduce the apparent differences the educationally advantaged possess over those who are deprived.

DE is also instrumental in extirpating the handicap of time for those such as housewives, people at work and others who cannot attend educational institutions full time. This includes those who may be physically handicapped, in hospitals or in prisons and so on (Reddy, 1988(2):6; 1993:240; see also, Ramsey, 1987:12; Bååth and Flinck, 1973:3; Kelly, 1990:77; Bates, 1995(b):43; Rumble, 1986(a):49). Some educationists refer to this as the provision of 'second chance' education bringing education to them at a most convenient time with respect to their particular circumstances and devolving a high degree of responsibility for the effective direction of their own studies (Curran, 1986:11; see also, Holmberg, 1986(b):142; Rumble, 1986(a):50). Thus, the ability of DE to reach deprived groups is such that the concept of democratic education could not be fully attained without including the provision of DE. It becomes patently clear that DE is obviously crucial to the realization of the goals of egalitarianism in both developed and developing countries (Rumble, 1986(a):50).

DE can be successfully implemented for INSET for various vocations bearing in mind that the education systems, ipso facto, will be influenced by local needs and local environments (Gachuhi and Matiru, 1989:10). For example, in the 1920s and 1930s DE was used in the then Soviet Union to train engineers for its programme of industrialization (Perraton, 1991:2). Kaye (1981(2):33) provides further examples of INSET courses through DE offered by open universities in the UK, Sri Lanka, Israel, Costa Rica and numerous other countries.

Similarly, in many developing countries, a powerful raison d'etre for DE is that it is used to eradicate the acute desideratum of suitably qualified teachers (Coldevin, 1990:32; see also, Erdos, 1967:7; Kaye, 1981(2):32). Formal and award bearing INSET for the improvement and upgrading of academic and professional qualifications of educators without disrupting their personal and professional lives
can be implemented through DE (Lunt, 1991:48). Thus, for instance, in Pakistan where the situation was decidedly chronic more than 80,000 primary school teachers were reached (Perraton, 1991:2; 1984(a)(2):11-14; see also, Peters, 1992:28). Rumble (1986(a):50-51) provides other examples of INSET for teachers in Palestine, Botswana, Nigeria, Kenya and elsewhere. Thousands of teachers have improved and upgraded their qualifications through DE which may well constitute the only hope for significant expansion of educational facilities at this level.

DE provides the necessary stratagem to update and sublimate the skills of the workforce in terms of flexibility and specific requirements (Oliveira, 1988:2). They can improve their status while remaining on duty without interrupting their earnings (Coldevin, 1990:113). According to Rumble (1986(a):57) this argument can be extended further. He opines that DE, because it is, *inter alia*, flexible and modular in approach, not confined to metropolitan and urban areas, convenient for those who have mobility problems and cannot attend classroom-based instruction, can more than adequately meet the needs for continuing education and INSET across the board.

Another raison d'etre for DE is with respect to the school curriculum. The school curriculum is never static. DE has often acted as the catalyst for curriculum change and at the same time can be used by enterprising departments of education to make educators *au fait* with the changes. In addition, as Coldevin (1990:113) contends, DE course materials often serve as supplementary school resources and learning from either academic or pedagogical upgrading can be immediately applied at the chalkface in a valuable mix of theory and practice. At the same time DE allows for wide-ranging flexibility without too long a delay between changes in educational policy and the translation from policy into immediate implementation (Harris and Williams, 1977:11).

Oliveira (1988:1) observes that DE offers a welcome solution to one of the most pressing problems in education, namely, the scarcity of resources. Educational
systems of low-income countries throughout the world have common problems affecting finance. Fiscal demands are escalating and such constraints impact negatively on budget growth. In any system of education the consideration of keeping within the inflation rate is fast assuming primary importance but is proving to be a Sisyphean task. Research has indicated that there is an almost unanimous belief that one of the most positive aspects of the raison d'etre for DE is that it is cost effective (Oliveira, 1988:2; see also, Coldevin, 1990:113; Taylor and White, 1985:5; Bates, 1995(b):43; Rumble, 1986(a):60).

Under certain circumstances DE offers educational opportunities at a lower cost per student. It also produces graduates at a lower cost per graduate as shown by studies conducted by the UKOU in comparison with conventional British universities (Perraton, 1984(a)(2):22). While there may be some capital investment as well as recurrent expenditure, economies of scale can be reaped to ensure cheaper delivery of DE than traditional education (Perraton, 1991:5; see also, Curran, 1986:10; Harris and Williams, 1977:11).

Academic and staffing requirements for DE differ somewhat from those of conventional education. Academic staff will be required to prepare a variety of different course materials rather than to lecture in a conventional manner. It is not unusual, according to Taylor and White (1985:7), for the inherent aspects of DE to promote a multi-disciplinary team approach to distance teaching rather than the singular activity which is the basis in conventional settings. The simple logic supporting this approach is that a single lecturer may not be endowed with the range of expertise essential for effective and efficient DE. Further, it is true that there is a vital connection between instruction and learning. Consequently, it is safe to assume that the likely higher quality of self-instructional material produced by a multi-disciplinary team of experts for use in DE would inevitably enhance the learning experience of DE students. This is without doubt a valuable consideration of the raison d'etre for DE.
Another important factor in the raison d'etre for DE is that DE institutions could make extensive use of part time course writers, tutors and others for the DE courses. This policy will also enable planners to reduce costs (Perraton, 1984(a)(2):20).

In DE effective communication is pivotal between students and tutors and others. Consequently, a variety of media have to be used. There is consentaneous agreement worldwide that DE lends itself admirably to the efficacious and appropriate instrumentality of such media (Perraton, 1991:6; 1984(a)(2):23-24).

Rumble (1986(a):54) provides another cogent argument for the raison d'etre of DE. In particularly less developed countries the raison d'etre for DE includes strategies for rural development and community education. To some extent foreign economic penetration is perceived as the exploitation of the underdeveloped communities and does not contribute to the growth of the indigenous community. It is strongly argued that DE should be utilized to serve the needs of the rural population in order to raise their collective consciousness so that they become agents for social and economic transformation.

1.1.5 BENEFITS AND LIMITATIONS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Ljosa (1992:26) argues that modern society is characterized by two fundamental characteristics: complexity and change. These characteristics in their totality place increasing demands on education as the engine of national development needed for citizens at large to cope with their life in the society in which they live. Inter alia, there are increasing demands on the general level and quality of education, updating and retraining for purposes of growth and adaptability and promotion of multiple competences and careers.

As a result of these developments in countries around the world innovative patterns of education and training will have to emerge. In this regard, DE becomes a lynchpin
in the modern education system. Indeed, there are numerous benefits and advantages as well as limitations to DE.

In dealing with the advantages it will be noted that there is some degree of overlapping with the raison d'etre. However, it must be borne in mind that the former exemplifies the benefits that accrue while the latter underscores the cogent arguments for the predilection of the system of DE. Some of the key advantages of DE can be outlined as follows:

The traditional classroom is not necessarily a prerequisite for the teaching-learning situation (Rashid, 1992:11). In DE while institutions have applied schedules of some sort for assignment submission dates, examinations and periodic face-to-face tuition, the regular attendance time-table has been abrogated. In this way a major benefit of DE is that the stumbling block for a host of students seeking education has been eliminated in that they do not have to stick to a rigid schedule of attendance at lectures (Evans and Nation, 1996(2):4).

As indicated in the raison d'etre for DE an important advantage of DE is that distance dissipates as a barrier to education (Rashid, 1992:11; see also, Kaye and Rumble, 1991:217). DE liberates the student/teacher interface from the strait-jacket of the lecture hall or tutorial room (Sewart, 1983(1):47; 1981:9). The beneficial element of DE consequently is the provision of access to education for many people particularly for whom campus-based education is difficult or impossible (Taylor and White, 1985:2; see also, Jevons, 1987:15; 1990:139).

DE then affords much flexibility in time, rate and place (Wakatama, 1983:234; see also, Misra, 1990:3; Garrison, 1989:55; Jevons, 1987:15; 1990:139; Curran, 1992:56). DE is usually arranged so that study can commence at any time. Vacation time and weekends can be used to good advantage. It can also take place anywhere even in remote areas (Misra, 1990:4; see also, Moore, 1990(b):360; Löwbeer,
1970:15; Morrison, 1989:10). This flexibility allows education to be extended to many more people than can be reached by classroom instruction.

Wijeyesekera (1990(1):37) attests to the significant advantage of DE especially in developing countries in that it is able to extend educational opportunities to all sections of the society. Thus, DE has provided an invaluable outlet for the educational ambitions of those who for whatever reason were left out of the conventional system of education.

As indicated for the raison d'etre, another important benefit and virtue of DE is that it enables working people such as teachers to study without disrupting their family lives, working schedule or lose income while studying (Evans and Nation, 1996(2):1). This is particularly critical in developing countries where inadequately qualified persons can earn and serve their communities. They can be kept in full time employment while improving and upgrading their qualifications.

We have noted that with proper planning DE instruction can drastically cut educational costs. Particularly in developing countries there is a vital concern to maintain economies of scale which would encourage the democratization, equalizing and massification of education (Ansari, 1992:19; see also, Angula, 1992:6; Neil, 1981:42). Another benefit of DE in terms of economic considerations is that it could be used in a positive sense as a method of correcting social injustice and extending education to the underprivileged.

DE leads to self-directed learning. This is deemed to be education in the real sense (Misra, 1990:4). DE students approach more closely the ideal of the autonomous learner (Jevons, 1987:16; 1990:139). New ideas can be spread quickly and widely (Angula, 1992:7; see also, Holmberg, 1982(a):7; Ljøså, 1992:28). DE enjoys a decided advantage in that courses have proved to be an efficient tool in initial training and retraining people to a higher level of achievement. As such, according to Löwbeer (1970:14) and Curran (1992:57), DE has been and still constitutes a
powerful agent in the service of social mobility and as an instrument for recurrent and lifelong learning.

Löwbeer (1970: 15) propounds another advantage of DE as the source of a richer variety of courses than conventional education. The provision of multifarious subjects and courses is highly motivational in itself.

In addition, DE contributes positively to quality control. Jevons (1987: 16; 1990: 139) stresses the view that:

'Everybody knows that, even in the best institutions, not everything in campus-based education is excellent. There is an extraordinary tendency to forget this as soon as the comparison with distance education is raised.

... Even in the relatively public forum of the lecture, quality control is not all it might be. The lecturer's words vanish into thin air within an instant, and are not normally available for later scrutiny and criticism.'

In contradistinction, in DE every academic who is responsible for the preparation of study materials for DE students is fully aware that such materials have an enduring existence. Further, as the materials will be in the public domain they are subject to criticism and open to improvement through such criticism. In the final analysis, there is cumulative improvement in pedagogic and andragogic quality to the benefit of students. This is without doubt an added advantage of DE.

A further plus factor with regard to quality control is that the discipline of preparing and presenting lectures for DE courses is far more stringent than that for
conventional lectures. When lecturers realize that what they state will be appearing in a variety of media they are obviously more conscientious in their preparation. As already indicated, as the raison d'etre for DE, working in course teams provides a positive salutary staff development effect. This is a benefit of DE. Subject experts and colleagues help to develop new ideas and to expand the repertoire of techniques for preparation, presentation and assessment.

Another critical advantage of DE is that it is in no way an exclusive method. It is strikingly facile to employ the strategy in combination with other pedagogical and andragogical methods (Löwbeer, 1970:16). The methodologies have been further enhanced by the use of current learning psychology and multi-media technologies for more effective interaction (Evans and Nation, 1996(2):4; see also, Holmberg, 1982(a):7; Kaye and Rumble, 1991:210). DE particularly with the help of mass-media can deal with information and education for large audiences. At the same time, through these technologies DE enjoys the advantage over conventional education in providing for the needs of neglected target groups, overcoming bottlenecks and developing multiple competencies and offering trans-national programmes (Ljosà, 1992:28-29).


- Training in situ empowers them to attain certification without interrupting earnings.

- Replacements, often with lower qualifications, are not required.

- Teachers in rural areas do not have to leave their surroundings. Those coming to urban areas to study full time become reluctant to return to the rural regions.

- Large numbers of teachers can be accommodated in DE programmes at the same time.
• DE materials frequently become valuable resources for references in locations where library facilities are minimal.

• Training costs are typically reduced and programmes are cost-effective.

• Certification has positive effects on teaching.

The raison d'etre and advantages of DE delineated are obviously quite pertinent in promoting DE throughout the developed and developing worlds. However, this does not mean that DE is not fraught with inherent difficulties and limitations. Some of the problems identified by Mackenzie et al. (1968:64-187) and Childs (1971(1):109-119) are relevant even today in some developed countries and in most of the developing countries. The limitations, problems and disadvantages of DE can be summarized as follows:

* Financing. In some cases adequate resources for DE are not allocated resulting in poorly prepared course materials. It is fairly axiomatic that the quality of a DE programme is underpinned by good course developers, carefully prepared materials and competent professional and administrative staff. In addition to the pivotal human resources basic material resources and infrastructure extend the budget for DE and require adequate financial support. In terms of these fixed and variable costs required for DE, funding is critical. In the South African context, with the stringent budget for education the problem of finance for DE assumes an even more crucial proportion.

* Education for profit. Where DE is provided by private colleges or institutions the concern for profit may lead to greater promotional costs, shortcuts to teaching and evaluation and subsequently to shabbier instruction and depreciation of standards and quality. Fraudulent operations and the
proliferation of 'fly-by-night' institutions are a veritable bane to the whole issue of DE and brings the legitimate strategy of DE into disrepute.

* Maintaining quality teaching and efficient administrative organization. DE by its very nature requires highly specialized skills both for academic and administrative requirements. The administrator needs special qualities of foresight while the course developer must show initiative and be particularly sensitive to student needs as the actual teaching function rests squarely on the course materials. A major problem then is obtaining such suitably qualified and experienced personnel for DE.

* Defining the DE student. The identification of the characteristics of the student body is a complex problem. Notwithstanding, it is pivotal to the success of DE that providers ensure that the DE programmes offered are relevant and appropriate to handle the specific problems of students successfully.

* Student motivation. Motivating students to finish the DE courses for which they have enrolled constitutes a grave and difficult task in DE. Frustration from whatever cause leads to high drop-out rates which are a cause for concern. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that DE is perceived as being too impersonal (Van Niekerk, 1968:227). Moreover, while group seminars may be fairly frequent, exchanges are construed differently by students ranging from marked interest to absolute apathy and insouciance.

* Counselling. The distance between the institution and student poses a serious obstacle to adequate student guidance. Daniel and Marquis (1979:36; 1983:248) explain that students are in constant need of advice, help and support to facilitate their progress in the DE learning system.
Feedback. The only contact the students have with their tutors is through feedback from the course materials. The difficulties associated with adequate feedback is a critical problem in DE. Henri and Kaye (1993:29) observe in this connection that the absence of direct intervention from the teacher and dispensation of education through mediated material deeply modify the nature of the educational relationship apropos feedback in DE. Teacher intervention is deemed to be situated above the learning processes of the student. Once a course has been inaugurated and the DE institution has presented it to the learner direct communication between the student and course developer rarely occurs. Consequently, in contrast to the face-to-face situation students in DE are unable to question predilection of the choices, values and options of the course developer.

Working at a distance. The problem of student loneliness and its psychological impact remains one of the principal drawbacks of DE (Garrison, 1989:56). There is a lack of interchange of student views and ideas that stimulate and accelerate student development. The absence of the warm, personal contact between student and teacher imposed by geographical and temporal distance is a negative factor for DE. The spatial chasm prevents the teacher from sensing immediately when misunderstanding occurs. The students on the other hand, are not in a position to raise questions and secure immediate responses when they do not comprehend something obscure or complex. Further, Henri and Kaye (1993:29) make the pertinent observation that the DE students are unable to discuss timeously their personal synthesis of their newly acquired knowledge.

Pacing. Closely allied to the issue of loneliness among DE students is the problem of pacing (Daniel and Marquis, 1979:33; 1983:345). This phenomenon is aggravated by ideological issues and pregnant with administrative problems. Ideologically, while the students should be allowed to pace their study without external constraints, this in itself has its
concomitant problem of providing suitable incentives for the students to continue their study without becoming disillusioned and thus terminating their course of studies.

* Delay in revising courses. Changes in materials or in the instructional approach in DE cannot be readjusted as expeditiously as in face-to-face tuition. The DE programmes, therefore, are characterized to some extent by a high degree of rigidity.

* Dependence on the written word. Despite the use of multi-media in DE, especially in developing countries there is still a great deal of emphasis on correspondence and the written word. Not all learners react equally well to written or printed materials. Thus, the ability to read and write would be essential prerequisites in DE (Moore, 1990(b):361; see also, Wakatama, 1983:271-272).

* Learning environment. The DE student develops in a personal environment. In this natural setting the learning environment is created which is nurtured by family, social, professional, economic and geographic factors. In conventional institutions the educational process generally takes place in a specially developed environment such as the classroom, lecture theatre, laboratory, library and so on. DE institutions do not offer this classic environment. Consequently, as Henri and Kaye (1993:31) explain, the educational process takes place in a decompartmentalized and deschooled environment. For most students this environment is the home. It is not easy to concentrate on study if there are distractions at home or the DE student cannot find a quiet place to study. Wakatama (1983:271), referring to developing countries, provides a broad-brush stroke view of the conditions that exist in such an environment: crowded conditions, noise by neighbours, lack of lighting, furniture and other elementary home study facilities which place such private study in jeopardy. In discussions with teachers enrolled
*for DE courses in KwaZulu-Natal these problems exist in addition to others such as household chores, lack of transport and telephones, distance from study centres or libraries and fear of the escalating crime rate.

Issues of responsibility. Henri and Kaye (1993:26) refer to the complex problem of course creation which is shared among several people. Confrontations may arise and a power struggle for ownership of ideas ensues. Collaboration and partnership in creating collective work in terms of compromise and collegiality become amorphous and soon dissipate. Authority replaces autonomy eventually in the choice of content for the DE programme to the detriment of the status of DE (Daniel and Marquis, 1979:31; 1983:341).

1.2 CIRCUMSTANCES WHICH GAVE RISE TO THIS RESEARCH AND OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The writer's involvement with DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of educators dates back to 1978. As the Head : Department of Humanities at the Springfield College of Education (SCE) the task of controlling the INSET courses offered to underqualified teachers employed by the then Department of Indian Affairs to allow them to upgrade to the M+3 (REQV 13) level was delegated to the writer (Bagwandeen, 1991(b):2). In 1986 the SCE became a fully dual mode institution providing full time PRESET as well as INSET. The INSET courses were provided through DE and ranged from non-formal, non-award bearing courses to formal, award bearing courses leading to the improvement and upgrading of teachers employed by the House of Delegates (HOD). In the case of the latter courses, these ranged from the Education Diploma (REQV 13 or M+3) to the Higher Education Diploma (HED) (REQV 14 or M+4) and the Further Diploma in Education (FDE) (REQV 14, REQV 15 or M+4, M+5, etc.) specializing in various subjects and learning areas for the pre-primary and junior primary, senior primary and secondary
school phases.

The writer was mandated by the College, now as its Vice-Rector, to control and develop all the INSET courses offered at SCE. In 1989 the writer was instrumental in extending the provision of INSET courses to teachers employed by the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (KZDEC) (Bagwande, 1991(b):323-325).

In the research conducted by the writer for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Didactical Pedagogics at the University of Pretoria on In-service Education and Training (INSET) for Indian Education in the Republic of South Africa (Bagwande, 1991(b)) DE education was discussed briefly as a significant strategy for INSET. However, from this research it became patently clear that a more detailed and extensive research on DE **per se** for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of educators was compellingly fundamental for the Province of KwaZulu-Natal(KZN).

Further, the writer was convinced that as a result of his experience gained at the College and the demands being made by the large number of qualified, un- and underqualified teachers for enrolment at SCE, engaging in research on DE in terms of an international comparative study, would equip him in a more scientific and practical manner to provide the educators enrolled for INSET courses with the best service possible. This is one of the impelling objectives of this research and a primary motive for undertaking this research. Moreover, in 1994 the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) at the request of the African National Congress (ANC) Education Department, engaged the services of a team of seven experienced and recognized distance educationists from across the world to organize an international commission to review the current provision of DE in South Africa (SAIDE, 1995(a):iv). **Inter alia**, the Commission concluded that generally the DE provided in South Africa 'is for the most part of poor quality' (SAIDE 1995(a):204).
Furthermore, the national DOE in the 1995 White Paper on Education and Training (DOE, 1995(c)) refers to the need for a teacher education audit to provide for a comprehensive overview and evaluation of the state of teacher education extant in South Africa (Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:1). The DOE initiated such a National Audit of Teacher Education. The research into teacher education offered at a distance in South Africa has underscored the fact that the DE sector is enormous and expanding rapidly (SAIDE, 1995(b):23). However, the conclusion reached was:

'Qualifications are pursued with little regard for quality or relevance to the classroom. Furthermore, the growing use of distance education based on a poor correspondence model with no student support is another cause for concern.'

(Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:62)

While it may be argued that the conclusions of the National Teacher Education Audit are polemical and debatable in some respects, the desiderata with regard to DE identified in the report need to be addressed. This research in terms of its comparative education perspective and recommendations crystallized from the international experience will hopefully contribute towards the elimination of such shortcomings. This constitutes another integral objective of this study.

Moreover, this research, in terms of the current situation pertaining to education, teacher education and INSET for teachers in KZN particularly, is based on the following objectives:

• to engage in an in-depth review of the existing body of literature on DE to facilitate and inform the comparative analysis of the phenomenal growth of DE in developed and developing countries;
to contextualize the recent problems pandemic in South Africa in education and teacher education specifically;

to examine the role of DE in ameliorating the quality of teaching at the chalkface;

to provide a concise exegesis of DE in order to distinguish and explicate the systematic structures, definitions and theoretical and conceptual framework related to DE;

to investigate the raison d' être and benefits and limitations of DE generally;

to synthesize conclusions related to DE derived from the international scenario and adapt them for the KZN context with special reference to improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers;

to analyze and consider the models and typologies of DE which would inform the strategic planning of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of educators in KZN and thereby maintain a permanent Hawthorne effect for teachers in service by design rather than by serendipity;

to provide an overview of the DE institutions providing teacher education mainly in KZN on a selected basis and the nature and scope of courses provided by them for improving and upgrading the qualifications of educators for possible adaptation in KZN;

+ to make recommendations for the sustainability and appropriateness of DE for teacher education especially with regard to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers as well as the extirpation of desiderata as identified in the audit of teacher education offered at a distance.
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

From the experience gained as the Vice-Rector for INSET courses at SCE, it became obvious that a great deal of emphasis was being placed merely on the institutionalized correspondence mode. However, the research completed on INSET suggested that DE provided a vast synergy of innovative and alternative structures and techniques which could be employed profitably for teacher education. The unique geographical characteristics of KZN in terms of first world and third world situations and dire problems of financial, human and material resources plaguing education in the province suggested the urgent need for a scientific analysis of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers. The National Teacher Education Audit to some extent corroborates this contention.

Thus, the problem revolved around the strategy of DE as a means to an end. The research problem can be formulated as an investigation postulated on a comparative study of significant trends or systematicities in DE in developed and developing countries. Further, the problem involves an evaluation of DE and its applicability to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of educators in KZN as an integral component. Furthermore, the problem encapsulates the study of international experience of DE and the resulting modalities for adaptation, *mutatis mutandis*, to the specific exigencies of teacher education in KZN.

Commentary on education and teacher education both in the print and electronic mass-media in South Africa generally and in KZN particularly present a most dismal and funereal picture. Consequently, the problem as stated, is irrefragably relevant and crucial in promoting professionalism among educators, and, *ipso facto*, reinvigorate the culture of learning. The writer is sanguine that the investigation of the problem of the provision of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of educators in KZN will contribute immensely towards providing syncretic conclusions and recommendations for the well being of education across the spectrum for the current and future generations in South Africa.
As McMillan and Schumacher (1993:100) and Best and Kahn (1993:39) postulate, the problem statement and aims of any study contribute, *inter alia*, to developing knowledge or practice. In the case of this particular study the knowledge and practice are concerned primarily with the consideration of the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers with special reference to KZN.

The problem statement for this research can be formulated in terms of primary questions as follows:

- What is the role of DE in the provision of opportunities for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers internationally and in the Republic of South Africa (RSA) with special reference to the Province of KZN?

- What theories of DE would best inform the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KZN?

These two primary questions lead to the following sub-questions:

- What can be learnt from the existing literature on DE in developed and developing countries about appropriate DE strategies to ensure adequate upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN?

- What are the current international trends as represented by selected institutions in developed and developing countries with respect to DE strategies for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers?

- How do the key national DE providers in the RSA accommodate the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers?
What are the developments and principal shortcomings in KZN apropos the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers?

What recommendations can be made to overcome the shortcomings and improve the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN?

The aims of the study can be outlined as follows:

- To engage in an in-depth review of the existing body of literature on DE to facilitate and inform the comparative analysis of the growth of DE in selected developed and developing countries and to consider such experience for KZN.

- To consider briefly the historical development of DE, the benefits and limitations of DE and the raison d'etre for DE.

- To provide an exegesis of the definitions and theoretical underpinnings of DE as propounded by certain theorists in the field of DE and to analyze the models and typologies of DE which would inform the strategic planning of DE programmes for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

- To consider the role of selected DE institutions and DE programmes in developed and developing countries at an international level and national institutions in the RSA and local institutions in KZN which can provide insights with respect to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

- To synthesize conclusions related to DE provision derived from the comparison of international, national and local settings and to examine the role of DE in providing opportunities for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications
of teachers in KZN.

+ • To make recommendations for sustainable and appropriate provision of DE programmes leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers and ultimately the quality of education in KZN.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research design and methodology followed generally the principles of qualitative research as outlined by Neuman (1997), McMillan and Schumacher (1993) and Best and Kahn (1993). As such the research is in some respects descriptive using non-experimental, non-quantitative methods to describe the current status of DE and its impact on the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. In addition, following the suggestion of Patton (1990) as referred to by Best and Kahn (1993: 185; see also, McMillan and Schumacher, 1993: 372; 480-484; Neuman, 1997: 327-342) the research methodology and design are undergirded by the concept of naturalistic inquiry and inductive analysis. In the case of the former the real world situation related to DE is considered. The research thus is non-manipulative, unobtrusive and non-controlling without predetermined constraints on outcomes related to DE. With respect to the latter, the research design and methodology were concerned with details and specifics apropos DE in order to discover important categories, dimensions and interrelationships following open questions rather than testing theoretically derived hypotheses.

The researcher, in terms of his experience and previous research in the provision of teacher education and INSET for teachers, found that little research had been conducted in the field of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. Consequently, in conceptualizing this study, the researcher
concluded that initially a comprehensive international, national and local overview of the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers was necessary. Understandably then, the research has also been to some extent exploratory. As will be seen later in the section on recommendations, further research will be necessary in specific aspects of DE at a subsequent period. This study then has been deemed to be the precursor to further research in this field.

In the light of the foregoing, this research has been based mainly on a detailed literature study of primary and secondary sources which provided the essential point of departure for this research. Such literature study also made available the vast body of knowledge and expertise on DE from which relevant details could be gleaned for the local scenario. It provided useful insights in terms of a comparative perspective of DE. The literature study and analysis of DE institutions and programmes as examples made it possible for the researcher to identify shortcomings in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

The informal conversations held with leading, internationally acclaimed experts in the field of DE and institutional visits, referred to below, as well as the personal experiences of the researcher in the field enhanced the analysis of the literature. Further, they provided the researcher with deepened critical appreciation and a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem.

1.4.2 **DATA COLLECTION**

1.4.2.1 **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

McMillan and Schumacher (1993:112) as well as Best and Kahn (1993:40-41) and Bell (1995:35-38) emphasise the fact that the literature review in a study of this nature constitutes the nub to the understanding of the problem being investigated
and researched. Neuman (1997:89) adds that the literature review is based on the premise that knowledge accumulates and that we learn from and build on what others have done. Thus, as already mentioned above, the literature review contributes quintessentially to the development of the research.

For the purpose of this research the literature that was reviewed comprised primary sources and secondary sources. The primary sources included circulars from the departments of education, both national and the Province of KZN, personal correspondence, notices and other related documentation from official and unofficial sources. The researcher's personal files on DE were also used.

The researcher contacted institutions involved with DE in South Africa for information related to the study (Appendix 1). The correspondence in this regard was considered as part of the primary sources while the handbooks and prospectuses as well as other printed matter from the institutions were considered as secondary sources. Permission to contact colleges of education involved with DE courses in KZN to obtain relevant information and to use such information in this thesis was granted to the researcher by the Director: Teacher Education, Department of Education and Culture, Province of KZN (Appendix 2).

With respect to secondary sources a detailed and comprehensive literature search of local, national and international sources was undertaken. This provided an extensive panoply of materials comprising monographs, books, periodical and journal articles, research dissertations and theses, prospectuses and handbooks of institutions offering DE courses, newsletters, newspapers, publications of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), reports, papers and addresses presented at conferences, workshops and seminars and other relevant material on DE and teacher education.

Specific reviews and bibliographies of the literature on DE also provided significant information and references. These included the in-depth survey of DE up to the end

The literature survey by the researcher revealed that a considerable proportion of documents, relating to DE in the way of position papers, reports and surveys remain unpublished or semi-published. These are produced primarily by international agencies, national, state or provincial government departments of education, institutions and by individuals within these institutions. The literature which was reviewed, however, covers a wide range of considerations for DE.

1.4.2.2 CONFERENCES, WORKSHOPS AND SEMINARS

Data was also collected through the attendance and participation in local, national and international conferences, workshops and seminars organized for DE. The documents included addresses, papers, poster presentations, minutes and reports.

In 1994, for example, the Committee of College of Education Rectors of South Africa (CCERSA) organized a conference on the theme 'Teacher Education Through Distance Education: Principles, Options and Strategies' at the College of Education for Further Training, Roggebaai. The National Association of Distance Education Organisations in South Africa (NADEOSA) held its launching conference in 1996 and other conferences on DE in 1997 and 1999. Numerous workshops and seminars were organized by the national DOE following upon the National Teacher Education Audit in 1996. The DOE also organized workshops and seminars in 1996 and 1997 for the purpose of developing norms and standards for DE. Various other workshops and seminars on DE were organized by the provincial institutions offering DE from time to time.
The researcher was also able to collect valuable data as a participant in the 17th World Conference for Distance Education of the ICDE in Birmingham, UK from 26 June to 30 June 1995. Again, the researcher was a participant in the 18th World Conference of the ICDE held at the Pennsylvania State University, USA from 2 to 6 June 1997. This conference also provided useful data on the international situation regarding DE.

1.4.2.3  INSTITUTIONAL VISITS

The researcher commenced with this study in 1993. He was enabled to visit a number of DE institutions in France that year by a sponsorship of the French Embassy. In 1993 and again in 1995 the researcher visited the UKOU at Walton Hall, Milton Keynes, in the UK. Valuable insights were gleaned for the purpose of this research and a wide range of materials was collected on DE from the visits to these institutions which supplemented the literature study.

In 1994 and 1995 the researcher was able to spend some time in the USA. A number of institutions offering DE programmes was visited. These visits also provided useful information and valuable data for this research.

1.4.2.4  UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEWS OR INFORMAL CONVERSATIONAL INTERVIEWS

The researcher was able to gather useful and relevant supplementary information on DE from what Babbie (1992:293) and McMillan and Schumacher (1993:252) describe as unstructured interviews and Best and Kahn (1993:200; see also, Neuman, 1997:256) call informal conversational interviews. An unstructured interview or informal conversational interview constitutes an interaction between researchers and respondents in which the researchers have a general plan of enquiry but not a
specific set of questions that must be asked in particular words and in a particular order.

In other words, the questions emerge from immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things. There is no predetermination of questions, topics or wording.

The strengths of such unstructured interviews or informal conversational interviews lay in the fact that they increase the salience and relevance of the questions being asked. The unstructured interview or informal conversational interview can be based on and emerge from the observations of both the interviewee and the researcher. Further, such interviews can be matched to individuals and circumstances as was necessary in this research.

Particularly at national and international conferences the researcher grasped the opportunity of engaging in unstructured interviews or informal conversational interviews with some leading experts in the field of DE from various parts of the world. Many of them have written widely in the field of DE and reference has been made to their publications in the bibliography. The comments made by such experts helped to clarify issues of theoretical constructs and other information related to DE. These interviews helped to supplement the analysis of the literature and assisted towards deepened insights and a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem as indicated earlier.

1.4.3 DATA ANALYSIS

The process of data analysis of this research followed the conceptualization of qualitative, descriptive data analysis as advocated by Neuman (1997:418-441), McMillan and Schumacher (1993:479-515), Best and Kahn (1993:203-204) and Mouton and Marais (1990:105-106). The general consensus is that data analysis in
the research of this nature is an on-going, cyclical process integrated into all aspects of the research. As such the categories and patterns emerge from the data rather than being imposed on the data prior to data collection.

The data analysis in this research followed a systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing and interpreting the information to provide the explanations related to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. However, cognizance should be taken of the advice of Neuman (1997:418-421) and McMillan and Schumacher (1993:480), namely, that data analysis for qualitative, descriptive research varies widely because of different research foci, purposes and data collection strategies. Again, McMillan and Schumacher (1993:482) as well as Neuman (1997:420) emphasize the fact that in this form of research there is no set of standard procedures for data analysis and that it is not possible at all times to make explicit all of the data analysis strategies.

Thus, for the purpose of this research, the researcher employed a coding process whereby the data were divided into parts by a classification system determined by the researcher. This was achieved by segmenting the data into units of meaning or categories. The categories were then structured according to an organizing system of topics and subsections.

Understandably, to process the vast array of data, the researcher meticulously collated all material that could be subsumed under one category. The notes made from the numerous sources of data clearly indicated the origin of the data and source for purposes of reference. All the material so collected and clearly marked were assembled and filed with file appellations corresponding with the structure of each chapter of this study.

Ideas for the classification system used for this research were derived from initial ideas for the organizing of the data in terms of preplanning of the study, from the data themselves and the experience the researcher had gained as a result of his previous
doctoral research in the field of the Humanities and subsequent doctoral research in the field of Education. Moreover, the researcher's experience and current involvement in the field of research methodology in education as well as in the supervision of Master's dissertations and the promotion of Doctoral theses also helped the researcher in the systematic analysis of data.

It must be noted that in the process of data analysis the researcher was fully cognizant at all times of the fact that the categories determined for the research were preliminary and tentative at the beginning of the research. These were deemed to remain as flexible working tools and not rigid schemes.

The main intellectual tool and lenses as already indicated for the analysis of data in this research was comparison. The technique of comparing and contrasting developments in DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in developed and developing countries constitutes the mainstay of the data analysis for this study. However, it must be clearly understood that data analysis in qualitative, descriptive research of this nature is an eclectic activity. As McMillan and Schumacher (1993:484) maintain:

'There is no fixed formula; data can be analyzed in more than one way; each analyst must find his or her own style of intellectual craftsmanship.'

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

As with all research, there are some limitations in this study as well:

In the first instance, it was not possible because of financial constraints to have visited more institutions abroad for the purpose of acquiring further information on
DE strategies. Certainly, spending more time at numerous DE institutions in developed and developing countries would have enhanced this research.

Secondly, the unstructured interviews or informal conversational interviews with experts in the field of DE were conducted at short notice during conferences. Understandably, these did not all focus on the same issues. This strategy was less systematic than the interview guide approach, standardized open-ended interview and closed, fixed response interview as suggested, for example, by Best and Kahn (1993:201).

As already indicated, little or no research on the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers is available in South Africa and KZN. The National Teacher Education Audit in 1995 emphasized the shortcomings in teacher education. This source provided some useful considerations as a point of departure for this research. In KZN, as stated below, the Department of Education has not been able to provide current statistics for the province in numerous areas. The researcher referred to statistics provided by Badcock-Walters (1998) who had conducted an overview of education in KZN, the Education Management Information Service (EMIS) and the Education Foundation. In the case of the Natal College of Education (NCE) and the Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) enrolment figures for 1997 only were available. The SCE was able to supply statistics concerning student enrolment for its DE courses for 1998.

Notwithstanding the limitations, this study is deemed, as already indicated, to be the precursor for further research in designated aspects of DE relevant to KZN. As such, this research is expository rather than conclusive, persuasive rather than dogmatic, indicative rather than absolute, suggestive rather than judgmental and the conclusion and recommendations are partial and open.
1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

In Chapter One, an orientation is provided for the reader. In the section on introduction a synopsis of the primacy of education in any community and the teacher as the bedrock of the educational system is provided. A brief general discussion of DE in terms of its current status is considered followed by the historical development of DE. The raison d'etre for DE is outlined. The benefits and limitations of DE constitute an integral part of this chapter. The circumstances which gave rise to this study and the objectives of the research are clearly alluded to. This logically leads to the statement of the problem and the aims of the study. The research design and methodology are then indicated. The data analysis and limitations of the study are described.

Chapter Two provides a synopsis of INSET for teachers as the fundamental context for the study of the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. This chapter considers, inter alia, the definition of INSET and concepts relevant to INSET, objectives of INSET and some models of INSET. Further, the provision of INSET apropos different career situations is briefly considered. A conspectus of providers of INSET and a typology of INSET programmes for teachers are also discussed. Reference is made to the policy development of INSET for South Africa generally and KZN particularly.

Chapter Three comprises an epistemological perspective comprising the theoretical and conceptual framework of the thesis. This chapter deals with, inter alia:

- the introduction to the theoretical debate on DE
- definition of DE and related terms
- selected theories of DE
- typologies of DE institutions

This chapter is critical to the research in setting the parameters of theory which can
be applied in practice. The application of the theoretical and conceptual framework for KZN will be considered as part of the recommendations in the last chapter.

In Chapter Four the historico-comparative study of DE in developed and developing countries is outlined. After a general introduction specific institutions and programmes typifying DE provision in developed and developing countries are considered.

In the case of the developed countries the UKOU and Athabasca University (AU) of Canada are briefly visited. In the case of developing countries, the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) and the Indira Gandhi National Open University of India (IGNOU) serve as examples of study. The emphasis in each of these case studies is on the role of DE with respect to the provision of teacher education although other aspects are considered as well.

In Chapter Five, the provision of DE in South Africa is adumbrated. The study is contextualized in terms of the crises besetting education and the outcomes of the National Teacher Education Audit. Reference is made to selected institutions providing DE in South Africa generally.

Chapter Six focuses on teacher education provision in the province of KZN. While various institutions in KZN are involved in DE programmes emphasis in this research is placed on the SCE, the UCFE, the NCE and the newly-established South African College of Open Learning (SACOL) which was established on 1 February 1999 as a result of the amalgamation of the SCE, UCFE and the NCE. Reference is made to the multifarious teacher education courses through DE.

Chapter Seven constitutes the conclusions and recommendations. In this chapter the international perspectives are brought to bear on the provision of teacher education through DE and the use of the strategy for the improvement and the upgrading of the qualifications of educators in KZN. The conclusions have been
meticulously and assiduously developed and synthesized as a result of the intensive literature survey and other inputs derived from visits *in loco* to DE institutions, attendance at conferences, workshops and seminars and discussions with experts in the field. Recommendations in terms of the international experience are crystallized and epitomized. These recommendations also include local experience. The recommendations are proposed for the purpose of promoting the best possible delivery of DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in KZN. *Pari passu,* the recommendations are designed to help eradicate the serious lacunae unearthed by the teacher education audit. In the final analysis, the recommendations have been conceived of in the spirit of an attempt to ensure that the teaching profession in KZN is elevated to the coruscating level where teachers are respected as educators in every sense of the word and who are dedicated to the objective of promoting the best education possible.
CHAPTER TWO

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING (INSET) FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the concept of INSET for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. This research, as clearly indicated in Chapter One, is concerned primarily with the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. DE was referred to by the researcher in the previous research on INSET for teachers as one of the strategies that could be used for such INSET (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 234-247; see also, Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 36-40; 120-127). Thus, only a brief overview of INSET for teachers is being included in this thesis to provide, inter alia, a focal point for the discussion of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Further, this chapter on INSET serves to contextualize this research.

It is to be emphasized that it is not intended to discuss INSET in great depth. The reader may refer to the aforementioned sources for a more detailed and scientific expatiation of the subject of INSET. The approach in this chapter is generalized but, nonetheless, provides a variety of insights. The rubrics chosen for this chapter were given very careful thought so as to be inclusive enough for the objectives and aims of this research.

Certainly, others may construe the conceptualization of INSET in different ways. However, as mentioned already, our focus is on DE as a strategy of INSET for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. The broad-brush stroke perspective is fundamentally to discuss INSET of teachers as part of the holistic approach to this study.
INSET can be formal and award bearing which ultimately leads to some form of certification of the teacher and upgrading of qualifications or it can be non-formal, non-award bearing. Both, however, are directed towards the goal of enhancing the competency of teachers in the classroom. In a manner of speaking then, these categories of INSET for teachers ultimately leads to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Consequently, for the purpose of this study the term INSET will be used in a generic sense to include all the activities that lead to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

As early as the 1960s, according to Megarry (1980:9), George Bereday and Joseph Lauwerys in their introduction to the World Year Book of Education wrote that ‘The strength of an education system must largely depend upon the quality of its teachers.’ This comment is as relevant today as it was at the time it was stated.

The need for the teacher then to adjust effectively to rapid and pervasive change as well as to the demands of the time to ensure the process of improving the quality of children’s learning in the classroom becomes a key element in education (Bagwandeenn and Louw, 1993:1; see also, Bagwandeenn, 1996(d): 1; 1991(b):1). In both developing and developed countries the explosion of knowledge and developing technologies also focus on the need for substantial periods of INSET.

In this regard it is important to note, moreover, that the moment teachers leave the institution of teacher education they are ‘en route to a state of obsolescence’ (Rubin, 1971: 257; see also, Bagwandeenn, 1997(d): 1). Van Niekerk (1995:2) argues further that the fundamental aim of INSET is to concretize lifelong learning. This concept of lifelong learning underpins the belief that teachers once qualified cannot afford to become obsolete. They need to remain at the cutting edge of educational development and to hone their pedagogical skills and didactic potential. This view also underscores the fact that INSET as a strategy to empower teachers to improve education is of sufficient merit.
The concept of INSET has to be brought into harmony with the current competence of teachers. Opportunity must be provided for teachers to acquire personal insights which result in the metamorphosis of classroom behaviour. Without such a commitment to continuous professional development poor teaching will be perpetuated. Teachers will continue to use stale procedures despite the contribution of research and development (Bagwandeen, 1996(d): 2; see also, Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993:3; Tattoo, 1997: 216).

2.2 **DEFINITION OF INSET AND CONCEPTS RELEVANT TO INSET**

2.2.1 **DEFINITION OF INSET**

Bolam and Porter (1976:3) noted that 'no agreed definition' exists for INSET. Murphy (1985: 6; see also, Pather, 1995:20) also observed that there are as many definitions as there are INSET programmes. Hofmeyr (1991: 57) states further that INSET suffers from a lack of agreed definitions and nomenclature resulting in INSET meaning different things to different people. These observations are endorsed by Tattoo (1997: 216) who adds that INSET has different meanings across countries.

Thus, for example, in industrialized countries INSET is oriented towards regularly updating the knowledge of teachers and fine-tuning methodologies to improve the quality of education in the classroom. In the majority of cases teachers in such countries have already become qualified teachers by virtue of PRESET initial training. In developing countries, on the other hand, INSET constitutes in many instances the first experience of formal teacher education.

Understandably, therefore, one assumes that the definition of INSET will depend to a large extent on the emphasis that is placed on INSET in terms of its plan or design (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993:19; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 42; 1996(c): 2). Generally speaking, INSET would include such aspects as updating teacher skills and
knowledge without a change in role; preparation for new roles and positions; upgrading and improvement of professional and academic qualifications; external or internal school provision; focus on pedagogical issues and needs; and, programmes available throughout the careers of teachers.

In a detailed analysis of the literature on INSET undertaken from an international perspective, the researcher concluded that the definition of INSET suggested by Henderson (1977: 163; 1978: 11; 1979: 17) was generally applicable to most of the objectives of INSET:

‘...in-service education and training, may, in the most general sense, be taken to include everything that happens to the [teachers] from the day [they take] up [their] first appointment to the day [they retire] which contributes, directly or indirectly, to the way in which [they execute their] professional duties.’

This definition has been predicated on the commonly accepted view that INSET embraces the many professional experiences of educators. In their aggregate such experiences promote the ultimate upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

In the South African context the suggestion by Hartshorne (1985: 9; see also, Pather, 1995: 30) with regard to INSET also has wide acceptability. He states that INSET is:

‘The whole range of activities by which serving teachers and other categories of educationalists (within formal school systems) may extend and develop their personal education, professional competence, and general understanding of the
role which they and the schools are expected to play in their changing societies. INSET further includes the means whereby a teacher's personal needs and aspirations may be met, as well as those of the system in which he or she serves.

It must be conceded that a single definition of INSET that would satisfy every need and facet or contingency in the realm of education is both a formidable and complex task (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 20; see also, Pather, 1995: 31; Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 49). However we may wish to define INSET in the final analysis the focus should be to help to improve the quality of education in schools, to enable teachers to be more effective in their posts and enjoy job satisfaction; to prepare teachers for promotion; and, to provide opportunities for all educators to upgrade and improve their qualifications in order to become more knowledgeable and competent (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 20). Collen (1994: 14; 64) adds that while definitions of INSET may vary, INSET itself remains a pivotal element of the development of educators.

2.2.2 CONCEPTS RELEVANT TO INSET

Pather (1995: 27) makes the point that some researchers in the field of INSET tend to use various concepts related to INSET. In some instances these concepts are used loosely as being synonymous to INSET. Amongst the terms used are the following:

2.2.2.1 RECURRENT EDUCATION

This concept is sometimes used to convey the significance of the incompleteness of PRESET initial training. Cropley and Dave (1978: 41) at an early stage of the research into INSET described recurrent education as that aspect of INSET which alternates
periods of further training with teaching service. Recurrent education then is seen as a means of extending the knowledge of teachers and providing refreshment and the opportunity of keeping abreast of developments in education. As such recurrent education is conceived as an integral component of INSET (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 21).

2.2.2.2 CONTINUING EDUCATION

Continuing education is perceived as a useful term referring to a great diversity of educational endeavours beyond the usual sequences of schools and colleges (Harris, 1980: 23). For teachers particularly continuing education encapsulates the provision of opportunities for qualified teachers to update their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to remain competent educators (Kapp, 1987: 54-55). Further, continuing education is seen as a purposeful interlacing of induction, renewal and redirection accentuating career-long teacher education (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 24).

2.2.2.3 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The use of the term staff development has become quite common in recent times. Gough (1985: 35) regards staff development as being central to the continuing education needs for teachers. However, others perceive staff development as the need to develop a professional, growth-orientated ecology in all schools (Joyce, 1981: 118; see also, Pather, 1995: 28; Bradley, 1987: 191; Hofmeyr, 1991: 69-70). In the ultimate analysis staff development comprises a whole basket of activities which suggests more than INSET per se. According to Bradley (1987: 192) staff development incorporates the teachers' improved performance in their particular role function thus ensuring continued job satisfaction; the enhancement of the prospects for
career development; strengthening school performance; and, equipping the schools to meet the challenges of the future.

2.2.2.4 PROFESSIONAL GROWTH/DEVELOPMENT

The concept of professional growth or professional development is also used interchangeably with INSET and staff development (Howey, 1985: 59; see also, Pather, 1995: 24; Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 27). While there are degrees of overlapping between INSET and professional growth and development, the latter is aligned to competence and meaningful experience which includes the reactions of teachers to differing stimuli in their professional lives. In this regard, Rudduck (1987: 129) maintains that professional growth/development of teachers signifies, inter alia, the capacity of a teacher to remain curious about the classroom; to identify significant concerns in the process of teaching and learning; to value and seek dialogue with experienced colleagues as support in the analysis of data; and, to adjust patterns of classroom action in the light of new understanding. This presupposes, that as part of the INSET programme, professional growth/development becomes the cornerstone of pedagogy and underpins the argument that teachers should be exposed to learn rather than to exist through the familiarity of daily events.

2.2.2.5 LIFELONG LEARNING

Lifelong learning or education is yet another concept that is used for INSET by many educational commentators. However, lifelong learning as a concept implies that all human beings are learners throughout their lifetime. This implies further, that teachers need to continually upgrade and improve their qualifications in a world of changing circumstances and values. This personal updating and renewal as part of INSET is the nub of lifelong learning. Thus, as indicated earlier, lifelong learning for teachers is
postulated as the tool whereby the traditionally conceptualized role of teachers as authoritative sources of knowledge, gatekeepers of order and the evaluators of results is dramatically transformed to becoming the very vanguard of change in society and preventing themselves from becoming obsolete (Bagwande en and Louw, 1993: 31; see also, Van Niekerk, 1995: 2).

2.2.2.6 ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

As the name suggests, on-the-job training, sometimes used as a synonym for INSET, in fact, refers to the choice of activities that enables the teacher to gain competency and knowledge experientially. The description of on-the-job training in the 1970s still holds true today, namely, that on-the-job training constitutes supervision and other supplemental instruction furnished to a learner while such learner is employed as a beginner or trainee in the regular duties of a position or a job (Good, 1973: 617). This is in many respects the handmaiden to INSET not only for the beginner teacher but also in the execution of innovative concepts for the older teacher as such teacher engages in upgrading and improving academic and professional qualifications. On-the-job training, in other words, as part of INSET, is learning by doing and is characterized by a recurring cycle of input, experience, analysis, generalization and application (Bagwande en and Louw, 1993: 34; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991: 99; Bagwande en, 1991(b): 75; Whitehead, 1983: 175). Moreover on-the-job training empowers teachers to learn to observe their own classroom activities as well as those of others, to reflect on such practices, recognize problem areas, discuss and effect solutions, evaluate the results and modify responses in the light of such evaluations. These are, incontrovertibly, key elements of INSET.
2.2.2.7 RENEWAL

Renewal in education is a personal phenomenon. In focusing on the issue of the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers the initiative must come from educators themselves. In the school milieu renewal can be encouraged by trust, caring, respect, pride and a high morale. Burke (1987 : ix) explains that renewal can be a reinstatement of a former activity but it is more progressive in nature when interpreted as an extension or a reinvigoration of both purpose and process. In any renewal programme in education teachers are the dominant factor in a plethora of anticipated changes. Renewal as part of the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers is then seen as an extension of the teaching role which contributes to relieving the constraints of being limited to earlier strategies and approaches. For example, this concept currently assumes poignant significance in the South African context with the implementation of outcomes-based educational considerations. The logical development of new designs throws the door wide open for the evolution of new patterns of process while earlier patterns remain as points of reference. In the final analysis, renewal leads to creative planning and action (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 35; see also, Burke, 1987 : ix). Professional renewal as a consideration of INSET is concerned primarily with a genuine learning experience that results in more effective and efficient pedagogy.

2.3 OBJECTIVES OF INSET

From the study of the definition of INSET and the numerous related concepts of INSET it becomes clear that INSET can be directed towards the attainment of certain specific objectives. These can be listed as follows:

- Extension of knowledge.
• Consolidation and reaffirmation of knowledge.

• Continual acquisition of new knowledge and repertory of skills.

• Familiarization with curricular development and new methods.

• Acquaintance with the psychological development of children and the youth.

• Acquaintance with the sociological basis of education.

• Acquaintance with the principles of organization and administration.

• Positive retraining of teachers returning to school after a period of absence.

• Conversion and re-tooling of teachers especially for scarce subjects.

• Mastering of new aids and technology of education.

• Familiarity with changes in local and national policy.

• Comprehending the new relationship between teacher and pupil.

• Understanding the cultural revolution.
- Development of measuring and testing techniques.

- Acquaintance with and participation in educational research.

- Legal requirements.

- Combating 'burn out' among teachers.

(Bagwandeep and Louw, 1993: 42-56; see also, Pather, 1995: 42-63; Bagwandeep, 1991(b): 89-114; 1997(d): 2-3; Sebolai, 1995: 55)

These objectives of INSET may differ with regard to approach, strategy and implementation. However, the common thread is that all are concerned with the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of educators so that they become more competent in the classroom. These objectives of INSET also underpin the incorporation of the multifarious aspects of personal growth, professional growth, school growth and societal growth.

It goes without saying that different countries will use different forms of INSET to resolve specific issues. For example, in developing countries, as Hofmeyr (1988: 46) indicates, the sheer size of the teaching force, qualified, unqualified and underqualified, in need of INSET poses a huge challenge particularly in the endeavour to upgrade and improve academic and professional qualifications. In developed countries, on the other hand, the emphasis on the improvement of professional skills for effective teachers and career needs is deemed to be of paramount significance in dealing with the objectives of INSET (Bagwandeep and Louw, 1993: 56).

Thus, the fundamental assumption that involves INSET globally is that by improving the quality of teaching the quality of the education that pupils and students receive is
improved (Hofmeyr and Pavlich, 1987: 75). This assumption underscores the key objective of improving classroom practice and quality of teaching and learning through the professional development of teachers as an integral part of INSET (Ural and Sekete, 1997: 91).

2.4 MODELS OF INSET

Several models and typologies of INSET exist in both developing and developed countries (Bagwandeen, 1996(d): 3; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991: 58-61). Understandably, the construction of models for INSET is made complex by virtue of several problems. Amongst these are absence of concurrence among educators when referring to terminology relating to INSET and lack of funds to promote research for INSET (Pather, 1995: 66). Other problems are related to the following:

- Lack of PRESET-INSET continuum in teacher education policy.
- Neglect of shared decision-making for INSET needs of educators.
- The absence of a theoretical framework incorporating research and practice in INSET.
- Lack of co-ordination and planning and resorting to ad hocism in INSET.
- Problems of implementing knowledge gained through INSET in the school situation.
- Financial constraints for the provision of relevant INSET programmes.
- Limited experience and knowledge of facilitators of INSET.
• Constraints of time and data scheduling.

• Problems related to release time for teachers.

• Little or no information on the legal implications for INSET as a condition of service for educators.

(Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 60-68)

Some of the models of INSET from the international comparative study that have relevance to this research can be summarized as follows:

2.4.1 **THE TRADITIONAL INSET MODEL**

This model refers to curriculum-related courses in which officials of the Department of Education explain changes. These could apply to syllabus revision, teaching methods and organizational developments in school. Educators meet on a regional basis in a lecture or workshop situation in schools or teachers’ centres (Bagwandeen, 1996(d): 4).

This model is also based on the premise that teachers and learners have their own knowledge to contribute to the process of learning in terms of a Cult of Efficiency as propounded by Campbell (1981: 150; see also, Pather, 1995: 72). This model tends to generate detached courses (Hartshorne, 1985: 14-15). Superintendents of education often attempt to offer solutions without taking cognizance of the fact that the problems and prevailing conditions may not all be the same in all schools.

Nonetheless, this INSET model provides opportunities for teachers from different backgrounds to meet. There is greater awareness of problems that are general and educators are enabled to evaluate the status of various subjects. This model also
engenders a spirit of professional co-operation and reduces teacher isolation (Bagwandeen, 1996(d) : 5; see also, Pather, 1995 : 77).

2.4.2 THE DEFECT INSET MODEL

Jackson (1971 : 21) almost two decades ago referred to this model as characterizing the concept that something is wrong with the way practising teachers now operate and the purpose of INSET is to repair the perceived defects. This model is thus underpinned by the view that teachers need INSET because they lack the skill to teach successfully (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978 : 89; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991 : 66-67; Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 133-134; 1996(d) : 5; Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 69; Pather, 1995 : 78).

This model is also predicated on the following assumptions:

- teachers are obsolescent and inefficient
- educators conclude that everyone is critical of them
- dogmatic perception by some as to what constitutes good teaching
- educators deemed to be professionally lazy
- diminished motivation both by pupils and teachers
- education is a rapidly developing field and old ways of doing things must be replaced by new
- approach is prescriptive
• conclusion that others know more about how teachers should behave in their classrooms than they do.

(Bagwandeon, 1996(d) : 5; see also, Jackson, 1971 : 21; Pather, 1995 : 78-79; Hofmeyr, 1991 : 66-67)

2.4.3 THE GROWTH INSET MODEL

In contradistinction to the defect model the growth model is based on the assumption that teaching is a complex and multi-faceted activity about which there is more to know than can ever be known by any one person. Consequently, INSET should be oriented towards seeking greater fulfilment as a practitioner of the art of teaching rather than repairing a personal inadequacy (Hofmeyr, 1991 : 67; see also, Bagwandeon and Louw, 1993 : 71; Jackson, 1971 : 26; Bagwandeon, 1991(b) : 134-136; 1996(d) : 6). The primary focus of this model is to enable the educator to become familiar with current developments and progressively more sensitive to what is happening in the classroom as well as to adopt a positive attitude towards problem resolution.

2.4.4 THE LIFELONG LEARNING/CONTINUING EDUCATION INSET MODEL

This model undergirds the contention that teachers are learners throughout their career (Bagwandeon, 1996(d) : 6). Pather (1995 : 79) adds that through lifelong learning and continuing education teachers can elevate themselves to being true professionals. This model then is characterized by:

• adoption of an attitude of critical questioning

• a keenness to keep abreast of developments in education
• voluntary participation in professional activities

Further, Cropley (1981: 58) and Van Niekerk (1995: 2) argue that the success of this model of INSET is dependent upon individuals who respond to their own perceived needs at their own speed. As such it reinforces the fundamental requirement for INSET.

2.4.5 THE SCHOOL-FOCUSED INSET MODEL

In the current reappraisal of INSET the role of the school is perhaps the most neglected factor. Joyce et al. (1983: 149) express the view that:

'If the education profession is to flourish and if schools are to be a vital force in society, it is necessary to rebuild the school into a lifelong learning laboratory not only for children but for teachers as well.'

School-focused INSET works best if the needs of educators both individually and in groups are satisfied through co-operative planning and undertaking. Preferably the activities for school-focused INSET should be located in the school itself although other venues could also be used (Pather, 1995: 84).

Consequently, the critical considerations for school-focused INSET include:

• co-operative planning at school level

• consultation with other schools in planning INSET

• use of outside consultants
• continuous development of professional knowledge, skills and commitment of staff

• teachers' discussion of collective INSET needs

• teachers have ownership of INSET programmes which are job-related as well as job-embedded

• evaluation of INSET to be done by members of staff

• school-focused INSET must avoid excessive introversion

• there must be a balance between school, group and individual needs in the attainment of INSET goals

(Bagwandeen, 1996(d) : 7; 1991(b) : 209-218; see also, Pather, 1995 : 82-88; Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 107-110)

2.4.6 RESEARCH-BASED INSET MODEL

This model of INSET is related to instructional methodology that has been researched and found to be effective (Richards, 1980 : 120). Research into classroom practice is either commissioned or superintendents of education study relevant research findings for implementation in schools (Pather, 1995: 7).

The value of this model rests in the fact that:

• projects are determined by educators for personal or school usefulness

• the INSET programme is not purely an academic exercise
• teachers recognize the worth of researching their own problems

• data and information on problems are generated

• constraints to the solution of problems are identified

(Bagwandeen, 1996(d) : 8; see also, Pather, 1995 : 89-91)

2.5 THE PROVISION OF INSET WITH REGARD TO DIFFERENT CAREER SITUATIONS

Throughout the developed and developing world there is the constant need to know where teachers are in their career development in order to plan appropriate INSET. Research has also established the fact that needs differ in relation to career situations (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 80). The development of career profiles and increased opportunities for changing roles in consonance with the changing aspirations and life goals of educators could be deemed as outstanding content for INSET.

In this regard the comment made by Morant (1981 : 6) that 'Ideally, teachers should retain responsibility for their own in-service education and through this, for their personal career development' has much merit. Following the arguments propounded by Morant (1981 : 6-11; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 152-160; 1997(a) : 2-3; 1997(d) : 4; Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 80-85) INSET related to the career situations of educators could be summarized as follows:
2.5.1 **INDUCTION NEEDS**

Andrews (1987: 143) refers to induction as the time it takes for a beginning teacher to make the transition from student of teaching to teacher. Thus, induction as a component of INSET should provide, *inter alia*, an orderly, personalized transition from initial training to the realities of teaching in the classroom (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 82; see also, Pather, 1995: 107-110).

Induction activities within and outside the school empower the beginner teachers to enter an area of competing pressures with confidence. The provision of INSET at this stage becomes critical for the young teachers also to enable them to become positively integrated into the professional and social milieu of the school and the community in which the school is involved.

2.5.2 **EXTENSION NEEDS**

Morant (1981: 8) points out that teachers who have occupied positions in a school for a number of years would probably have overcome most of the difficulties encountered in the earlier period of teaching. Thus, if teachers are at an early stage of their careers their needs may be the reinforcement of academic knowledge and subject didactics. Should they be in the middle of their careers their INSET propensity might be directed towards a better grasp of curriculum theory or a better understanding of the principles of school management. If such educators are already in a management position INSET activities might be associated with the upgrading and improvement of qualifications related to management, evaluation or the knowledge of administration.

The provision of such INSET needs can broadly be described as extension needs. The INSET activities designed to meet these needs would contribute largely in ensuring that teachers are attaining an advanced level of professional expertise in their role function (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 84; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 158).
2.5.3 **REFRESHMENT NEEDS**

Refreshment needs are widely varied. Amongst the considerations relevant to this category of INSET the following are pertinent to this study:

- returning to the classroom after a period of absence from teaching
- teaching a subject or at a level to avoid redundancy or redeployment
- academic or professional renewal after a prolonged period of time in a particular situation.

Morant (1981: 9) considers meeting this area of need as presenting the providers of INSET with one of their greatest challenges. In the current crisis confronting teachers in South Africa, which will be discussed later, the effect of redeployment of teachers emphasizes profoundly the INSET for refreshment needs.

2.5.4 **CONVERSION NEEDS**

Jones (1985: 130) emphasizes the fact that 'a focus on career development based on an expectation of sharing experience and leading teams of teachers could do much to enhance the working environment for all teachers.' This suggests that teachers due to transfer entirely to different jobs in schools may experience conversion needs if they have received no previous preparation for the new work (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 84).

Morant (1981: 10) describes as lateral conversion needs when INSET is required to allow for adjustments involving 'external redeployment' within the education service, such as when a teacher initially educated for the primary school is transferred to a secondary school; or 'internal redeployment', for example, when a teacher who has
specialized in a particular subject, say History, is required to teach a scarce subject, say, Mathematics or Science, in the same secondary school.

Morant (1981: 10) describes as vertical conversion needs the INSET programmes for teachers who may be promoted in the school hierarchy to posts such as head of department, deputy-principal or principal. Such duties are primarily different from those that were performed previously. These career situations and accompanying professional needs of teachers can be summarized as in figure 2.1 below:
### Figure 2.1 CAREER SITUATIONS AND TEACHERS' ACCOMPANYING PROFESSIONAL NEEDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Period of probation at the start of a career</td>
<td>INDUCTION NEEDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adjustment period immediately following the appointment to a new post.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Early career period; serving as a subject of class teacher</td>
<td>EXTENSION NEEDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Middle career period; serving as the head of a department, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Later career period; serving as a deputy-head or head</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Period towards the end of a gap in a career</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Period prior to having to teach a subject or age-range not taught for a long time (e.g. since teaching practice)</td>
<td>REFRESHMENT NEEDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Period of excessively repetitive professional experience (e.g. the same post, the same school, similar type of children)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Period prior to internal redeployment</td>
<td>CONVERSION NEEDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Period prior to external redeployment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Period of anticipated promotion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Period of ante-retirement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE**: Bagwandeen and Louw (1993: 81; see also, Morant, 1981: 7)
2.6 PROVIDERS OF INSET

Again, following the theoretical constructs of Morant (1981: 15-18; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991: 340-341) three groups of providers of INSET can be identified:

- Providing authorities, referring principally to the government and education departments.

- Tertiary institutions, colleges of education and teachers' centres which are mainly described as providing institutions.

- Providing agencies, referring to the vast array of disparate bodies and NGOs with some interest or involvement in INSET.

These providers of INSET may concentrate on numerous non-formal, non-award bearing short courses emphasizing some specific aspect of INSET or formal, award bearing courses in collaboration with an accredited educational institution. This would obviously include the various DE courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Each of the various providers of INSET could very well constitute a subject for a detailed study. However, because of space constraints and the fact that the focus of this research is on DE, it is not possible to consider the contribution of each of these providers of INSET. Nonetheless, it is important to note that in their aggregate the providers of INSET play a pivotal role in the total fabric of upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

2.7 A TYPOLOGY OF INSET PROGRAMMES

Harris (1980: 45) maintains that INSET courses for teachers may take the form of a training session which may involve one or more individuals in many activities. These activities, as referred to by Hofmeyr (1991: 59; see also, Bagwandeen and Louw,
1993: 106) may be job-embedded, job-related, school-based or career-oriented or even directed towards the acquisition of specific formal qualifications. Further, INSET courses may be arranged from low experience impact to those with high experience impact on the educator. In this regard, Tattoo (1997: 217) believes that the INSET programmes which allow for high levels of local participation in design and implementation are deemed the most effective and relevant for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

There is a wide spectrum of INSET for teachers at all levels (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 106). The following represents a compendium selected diligently from the vast panoply of INSET strategies. Careful analysis of the INSET will make it obvious as to which strategies can be classified as non-formal and non-award bearing and those which are formal, award bearing. It is reiterated that all INSET generally speaking ultimately leads to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

2.7.1 **SCHOOL-FOCUSED INSET**

Reference has already been made to this form of INSET in paragraph 2.4.5. School-focused together with its related neologisms, school-based and school-centred, INSET has become one of the key concepts in recent INSET research. The general idea of school-focused INSET enjoys wide acceptability among teachers (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 109). This is because of its connotations of relevance and professionalism as well as its promise of effectiveness in bringing about changes in schools (Keast, 1982: 22).

Some examples of school-focused activities could be a staff conference to outline general policy and relate it to every section of the school, weekly sessions based upon a large theme, mini-courses dealing with the needs of the staff, simulation, role-playing activities and case studies. School-focused INSET must be characterized by sensitivity
and an open climate in this period of rapid social and technological change. This is especially and vitally important in the emerging new South Africa and KZN.

2.7.2 **SHORT COURSES**

Generally speaking, short courses are and always have been the most widely used form of INSET (Rudduck, 1981: 10). The title 'short courses' is used to refer to a wide-ranging set of activities which may not have a great deal in common except the duration of time. In the main these are non-award bearing courses and generically constitute one of a rich array of INSET possibilities (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 110). In this regard, Simmons (1980: 12) declares:

‘Short courses can be valuable for up-dating purposes and for meeting other colleagues. They have the benefits of immediate feedback and can be more closely monitored for their effect.’

The purposes and structures of short courses can be outlined as:

- dissemination of information through the medium of lectures
- small scale experiment by presentation, discussion and outlining future talks
- production workshop in terms of some predetermined task
- clinic to define problems within the context of a framework
- seminar session to discuss issues of concern
experiential learning situation similar to content and style of pupils in the classroom.

(Rudduck, 1981: 32-34)

The different forms of short courses are, inter alia:

- single lectures
- informal activities
- conferences
- workshops
- weekend courses
- evening courses
- courses in school time

In the South African context with the promulgation of the NQF and the SAQA interesting developments for INSET programmes under the rubric of short courses are proposed. The Technical Committee on the Revision of Norms and Standards for Educators (DOE, 1998: 132-133; see also, Parker, 1998: 16-17; Musker, 1998: 8) has proposed within this category of short courses, programmes that enable the on-going professional development of educators. The governing principle encapsulates the development of systems of educational provision that open access to and encourage continuing professional development of teachers. In particular the proposal underscores the development of courses within a continuum understanding of educational provision. This is tantamount to the designing of courses which are
deemed appropriate to the learning needs of teachers in service as well as for PRESET.

Consequently, with respect to short courses the Committee proposes those that are not qualification earning and those that do earn some form of qualification. In the case of the former there will be a wide variety of courses shorter than the 120 notional hours (12 SAQA) credit building block. The fundamental objective of such courses would be the upgrading and updating of teachers. The focus will be primarily on addressing immediate needs and problems. The Committee deems such courses to be directed towards being ‘informational’ rather than ‘educational’ (DOE, 1998: 132). Such courses, understandably, will be school-based. The providers would include schools, provincial education departments, NGOs, consultants and others rather than the tertiary educational institutions.

In the case of the latter, i.e. short courses that are qualification earning, professional development courses are designed to satisfy the unit standards in terms of SAQA credits. In all cases, the Committee emphasizes that they must be offered by duly accredited providers or consortia of providers, including departmental officials and/or using departmentally produced learning materials (DOE, 1998: 133).

2.7.3 COURSES OF INTERMEDIATE LENGTH

These courses are intermediate between short courses and long, one-year, full time courses. These courses may last about one school term or so. Such courses allow for sustained study and reading over an extended period of time with shorter bursts of intensive stimulation (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 114-115).

Some examples of intermediate courses are:
• one term evening courses
• one term full time courses
• day release or part time study
• blocks for a number of weeks followed by day release or part time study
• day release for a period of time with residential commitment during vacations
• full time term followed by part time for several terms
• sandwich course
• fellowship studies

2.7.4 VACATION COURSES

As the demand for upgrading and the improvement of the qualifications of teachers has increased there has been a concomitant increase of INSET provision during vacations. Detailed arrangements for such courses vary from country to country (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 116).

Vacation courses include a variety of activities such as:

• lectures
• group activities
• brainstorming
The Technical Committee on the Revision of Norms and Standards for Educators suggests that such courses could very well be projected towards building whole qualifications (DOE, 1998: 133). The wide range of activities that may be construed as legitimate professional development could be accredited towards either a teacher’s record of INSET or even towards specific qualifications.

2.7.5 **LONG COURSES**

Emphasis in these courses is primarily for the purpose of conveying knowledge about theory, research and subject disciplines. Teaching methods are generally in the form of lectures, tutorials and discussion groups. These courses normally result in an academic award or accreditation (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993: 118).

Examples of such courses are:

- one-year (or longer) full time courses
- longer sustained part time or DE courses

A further strategy of INSET is that of DE courses. However, this will be discussed in the subsequent chapters.
2.8 POLICY DEVELOPMENT OF INSET FOR SOUTH AFRICA GENERALLY AND KWAZULU-NATAL PARTICULARLY

Analysis of the international literature on INSET reveals that the field has been greatly enriched by a number of comparative international studies. These have led to the establishment of a core of effective INSET practices across developed and developing countries in urban and rural areas (Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995: 18; see also, Collen, 1994:65; Hartshorne, 1987:13; Modiba, 1997: 729). Without doubt these studies and experiences hold valuable lessons for South Africa generally and KZN particularly.

† A summary of the international findings relevant to effective policy development for INSET is as follows:

- Effective INSET requires a clear conceptual base involving clarification of key concepts such as stakeholder collaboration, interaction, negotiation, teacher participation and professional development with respect to INSET policy and planning.

- Effective INSET depends on clear goals and purposes.

- Effective INSET must be content-sensitive and focused on the site in which teaching/learning occurs.

- There must be interaction, commitment and co-ordination amongst stakeholders to ensure success in the facilitation of INSET.

- Since teachers are the key elements of change their ownership and empowerment of INSET programmes should be facilitated.

- A sustained provision of a plethora of inputs such as authority, leadership, competent co-ordinators, presenters, advisers, learning
materials, facilities, information, time and finance are required for effective INSET.

- An implementation strategy appropriate for the particular clientele in developed and developing countries should be determined.

- INSET provision for teachers requires an effective physical base for organizing INSET activities.

- Incentives should be built into INSET policies.

- Adequate human support is critical for effective INSET.

- Effective INSET programmes should enable teachers to engage in active, on-going, social learning processes so that they can learn new concepts, knowledge, attitudes and skills which are relevant to their particular situation.

(Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995: 18-20; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991: 218-225; Bagwande, 1996(d): 9)

South Africa and KZN can benefit positively from the adoption, *mutatis mutandis*, of the general thrust of these international findings. A shrinking world suggests that the global perspectives and latest advances in international knowledge with regard to INSET are also critical for South Africa and KZN. It is for this reason that the Technical Committee on the Revision of Norms and Standards for Educators advocates a reconceptualization of INSET (DOE, 1998: 128-132; see also, Van der Wolk, 1996: 18; Van Niekerk, 1995: 6; RSA, 1998: 26). In keeping with the global scenario, there are demands for a system of education in South Africa which will be able to meet the needs of societies and workplaces that are characterized by rapid and perpetual metamorphosis. This suggests that providers of INSET must be able to assist teachers
to keep pace with changes in knowledge through flexible systems that provide opportunities for continuing education while teachers are at work.

Consequently, the Committee commends the integration of INSET provision into formal teacher education. Inter alia, the Committee propounds the view that DE as a strategy of INSET, together with contact education, be considered positively for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Further, the Committee concludes that the provision of formal, award bearing INSET should become a national responsibility in South Africa (DOE, 1998: 130).

2.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the role of INSET was considered. It is apparent from the discussion on definitions of INSET that there is no unanimity about the definition, underlying assumptions and focus of INSET. Indeed, INSET may connote many things to many people (Bagwande, 1997(d): 4). However, what is generally agreed upon is that while the conceptual base may differ in terms of specific needs in developed and developing countries, INSET is involved with on-going learning and change processes within a particular institutional culture and organizational context. In the final analysis INSET leads to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

Numerous terms are also used at times synonymously with INSET. While each of these has a particular focus in terms of their nuance, they are all concerned with ensuring the development of educators in order to improve competencies in the classroom and understanding of new knowledge.

It is clear from the discussion that INSET may serve to achieve a variety of objectives. In their aggregate, these objectives underpin the upgrading and improvement of the
qualifications of teachers both in terms of non-formal, non-award bearing INSET and formal, award bearing INSET.

There are numerous models and typologies of INSET. Each of these tend to emphasize particular facets of INSET strategies. These become more relevant when the provision of INSET for different career situations, namely, induction, extension, refreshment and conversion needs, is considered.

The providers of INSET have been subsumed under three main categories: providing authorities, providing institutions and providing agencies. It has been noted that each of these categories of providers has a meaningful role to play in the provision of INSET.

The typology of courses provides useful indicators to numerous strategies that are utilized in developed and developing countries. Some are non-formal and non-award bearing INSET while others lead to a formal, award bearing qualification.

There needs to be a national policy framework for INSET in South Africa (Hofmeyr, 1991 : 419; see also, Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995 : 20; DOE, 1998 : 131-132). However, this consideration constitutes the subject for further research. Suffice it to say that the policy development of INSET in South Africa and KZN can derive tremendous benefit from the international findings.

Finally, INSET should not be merely a reaction to an educational predicament. The provision of INSET should be effected in a systematic and structured manner. It can advance the academic and professional education of teachers more than any other single measure. There appears to be complete agreement worldwide on the overall importance of INSET and the need to give it high priority within the determination of education policies nationally and internationally (Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993 : 128; see also, Hofmeyr, 1991 : 218).
After all is said and done, INSET is most certainly a teacher power issue. The missing link that creates effective change in the classroom is the teacher. The teacher is the custodian and gatekeeper of learning and INSET remains the pivotal key to enhanced education (Bagwandeen, 1996(d): 15; 1997(a): 3). INSET is provided to ensure that the personal needs and aspirations of teachers may be met as well as those of the system in which they serve.

In the next chapter the theoretical and conceptual framework of DE will be discussed. This chapter is critical in determining the basis on which the practical application of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN could be formulated.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter One the development of DE as a strategy as well as the advantages and disadvantages of DE were outlined. The rationale for DE and the wider acceptance of the concepts of massification, democratization and egalitarianism in education through the promulgation of DE were fully discussed. The assumptions and premises on which this research is predicated clearly point to the burgeoning parity of esteem that DE enjoys vis-a-vis traditional education.

In this chapter the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE is presented. The researcher, as indicated below, selected several key theories concerning DE which, in his considered opinion, could form the theoretical basis for the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

These selected theories are described in this chapter at some length rather than in a condensed form as considered, for example, by Lyall (1998) or by Moore and Kearsley (1996) or Mackintosh et al (1997). Consequently, an holistic overview of the selected theories is provided. This approach has been especially adopted by the researcher because it was deemed critical to highlight the particular theories for the purpose of their potential contribution to the practice of DE for teacher education. The relevance of the theories discussed with respect to their application to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN will be considered in the chapter on conclusions and recommendations.
Further, it is to be emphasized, that the rationale for such an approach has been emphasized by Moore and Kearsley above and the goal, therefore, is pragmatic. It is not intended to analyze the theories for the purpose of initiating further debate or to introduce polemical issues surrounding these theories. These have been more than adequately covered in the literature on the theoretical considerations of DE.

Thus, this chapter, in presenting a broad perspective of the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE, will be primarily concerned with the following:

- The theoretical debate in DE.
- Definition of DE and some related terms.
- Selected theories of DE.
- Typology of DE institutions.
- Conclusions apropos the theoretical and conceptual framework.

In many respects, DE has expanded at unprecedented rates since the 1960s in both the developed and developing worlds (Guy, 1991:152). Indeed, the academic encomium heaped on DE is rapidly pushing the strategy towards assuming the role of a sempervirent afflatus to the advancement of education at all levels in practically every country in the world. In developed countries, but certainly in most developing countries, DE is being increasingly considered by educational planners as a mainstream educational practice.

The issues concerning DE have always been bedevilled by the tacit assumption that we know what it is. Most of the effort in the study of DE has been concentrated towards a practical, utilitarian or mechanical comprehension of DE. Thus, as Keegan (1983(a):3) claims the wide ranging studies on DE have concentrated on the logistics of the enterprise. Moore (1985(b): 42; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(1):45) adds that much of the research in DE revolves around speculations, opinions and anecdotal reports of personal experiences. These are also characterized by a lack of theory,
wanting in experimentation, focused locally and confined to the population under scrutiny. Moreover, there is a conspicuous absence of reference to older literature. As a consequence, we have a plenitude of information relating to students, their backgrounds, their propensity and desire for DE and their relative progress. There has also been an abundance of discussion on the production of materials, of the choice of media and technology, of the distribution of course materials and the means of evaluating the performance of students.

In the early 1970s Moore (1973:662) urged that a theoretical framework to embrace the whole area of DE should be built. At that stage DE was hampered by a lack of progress towards the achievement of such an objective. Almost a decade later, he reviewed the situation and concluded that the evolution of a theoretical and conceptual framework for DE had not kept pace with the growth of literature in the other aspects of the study of DE (Moore, 1985(b):36). This view is supported by Mackintosh (1997(a)(1):43) who avers that despite the fact that 'DE is hardly a new phenomenon, the theory of its practice is relatively young.'

Thus, we can hardly confute the affirmation by Keegan (1983(a):3; 1988:4) that:

'... the theoretical underpinnings of distance education are fragile.'

Garrison (1989:111) drives home the point that theory is important to any field of study to establish its identity, recognition, conceptualization and development. In this regard, Moore and Kearsley (1996:197) contend that:

'Theory is very, very valuable. A theory is a representation of everything that we know about something. Theory gives us a common framework, a common perspective, and a common vocabulary that help us ask questions in a sensible way and make sense of problems.'
This leads Wedemeyer (1981:6), referring to Schillace, to asseverate that:

'If necessity is the mother of invention, then theory is the mid-wife.'

DE is beginning to establish itself as a field of study but will surely be limited without a theoretical and conceptual framework. Developing such a framework involves, inter alia, examining a phenomenon, considering it and contemplating about it. Further, such action leads to a logology of beliefs, policy, process or principles of action. Furthermore, nomothetic judgments, conceptions, propositions or formulae that may be pragmatic, abstract or hypothetical could be formulated. These processes underscore the ontology and epistemology of the phenomenon under scrutiny and as such are critical to DE as it may be to the study of any other subject or discipline. Evans and King (1991:3) proclaim that such theoretical understanding of DE can then take on a paradigmatic quality which shapes our thinking quite strongly.

In like manner, Hoyle (1988:22) stresses the observation that millions of learners participate in DE which, ipso facto, emphasizes the need for theoretical constructs for DE. He urges that the development of a theory for DE would enhance the field of DE and simultaneously promote the abilities of researchers in DE to conduct better and more comprehensive research.

In this chapter, then, as already indicated, the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE is developed. It is not intended to provide further neologisms for the theoretical considerations in the field of DE. Experts referred to in Chapter One and others in this chapter have concentrated on the development of a theory for DE. As Holmberg (1986(b):103; 1987:17) trenchantly advises, the search for a theory that can guide practical work is a complicated endeavour. Epistemological concerns must be considered, descriptive elements must be identified and explanatory and predictive potentials evaluated.
Consequently, an analysis of the corpus of theory developed to date and the concepts related to the dialectics of DE and its practice from an international comparative perspective is deemed sufficient for adaption to the KZN context. Further, we need to examine how these theories would impinge on our problem of considering the role of DE in improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

Some of the studies forming the basis of the theoretical foundations for DE are *a priori* judgments. Others, in terms of the cogency of arguments presented could be construed as *a posteriori* inferences. Further, some of the theories are extremely profound and to a large extent have formed the bedrock of the theoretical study of DE.

At the same time it is possible, that some theories and conceptualization of DE may be interpreted as being merely academically eristic. Others still, may be dismissed as being the specious and captious confabulation of sophists or casuists in the field of DE.

However, we should abstain from denigrating the latter accounts. On the contrary, it is suggested that a more positive attitude would be that the postulation of DE theory and related concepts of each and every proponent should be appreciated in terms of their maieutic contribution to the further expansion of the general body of knowledge concerning DE and their eventual translation into practice. We should seek to establish the conceptual integrity of these diverse propositions concerning the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE. As Harry *et al.* (1993:7) indicate:

‘Distance education theory, like the theory of any other field of educational study, has as its focus what is characteristic of the field.’

For the purpose of this research then, a catholic consideration of the theory and concepts generic to DE and appertaining to both developed and developing countries will be surveyed.
3.2 PROLEGOMENON TO THEORETICAL DEBATE IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

Perraton (1981:13; 1982:373; 1983(a):34) claims that:

'Distance education has managed very well without any theory.'

However, this highly polemical contention is qualified by the rationalization that Perraton was concerned as a practitioner at the British National Extension College and at the International Extension College only with the praxis of DE and, therefore, shunned theory. He argues that such an asseveration was part of policy in the desire to help out in the wide open spaces of educational innovation rather than to creep into the house of theory which is perceived as an adjunct to the ivory tower of academe. Nonetheless, he concedes the fact that questions concerning the theory of DE will not merely dissipate into thin air. Further, to build a house of theory for DE he advocates an architecture that will be dependent on existing philosophies of education and theories of communication or diffusion and not from brand new components.

As a point of departure in contextualizing the theoretical debate in DE we may turn to Keegan (1993(b)(2):1; 1983(a):3; see also, Holmberg, 1991(a)(1):148; 1989(e):19; 1993:338; Rumble, 1992(c):109) who submits the view that:

'A theory of distance education is something which can eventually be reduced to a phrase, a sentence or a paragraph, and which can provide the touchstone against which decisions about distance education can be taken with confidence. It subsumes all the practical research and provides the underpinnings for decision-making.'

The need for strengthening and justifying the theoretical and conceptual framework for
DE can be explained in the following manner:

Practice and theory are interminably intertwined. As Keegan (1993(b)(2):1) aphoristically declares there is nothing as practical as good theory. The interaction of praxiology and theory provides the quintessential experience and develops the repertoire of information so that one does not have to reinvent the wheel at all times. Further, such a relation promotes a proactive attitude of mind and transcends being restricted by or limited to the realm of reaction to crisis situations without any appropriate frame of reference.

Theoretical underpinnings of DE will replace the ad hocism that characterizes the provision of this strategy with scientific and meticulous planning. The theoretical justification for DE thus becomes necessary as a system of education which is deemed to be parallel to and equal in quality and status to conventional education.

Currently, in many countries, including South Africa, DE is being offered as a course in terms of being a discipline in education. Thus, when DE developed in the 1990s as a field of teaching for university credit it was generally accepted that the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE were far from solid. This means that if degrees and diplomas at undergraduate and postgraduate levels are to be offered in DE as a subject then theoretical underpinnings for such a discipline become urgent because the prospects of students studying for such qualifications where the theory is flawed can be unsettling. Many believe that DE theorists have been somewhat tardy in providing grounded theoretical positions in this regard and, therefore, the need for a theoretical and conceptual framework is crucial (Harry et al., 1993:2; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(1):45; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:211).

Further, Minnis (1985:190) endorses the view that the quality and quantity of conceptualization, theoretical development and methodological rigour in DE must be increased. This is essential to ensure that the theoretical and conceptual basis of DE advances beyond the merely descriptive and speculative stage. Moreover, currently
what little theory exists in DE is concerned principally with praxis. This is derived more from experience in the sanctioned practical affairs of running DE courses than from systematic reflective critique.

Otto Peters (1994(1):1) contends that until 1965 DE had very seldom been an object of scientific research or scholarly work. Theoretical explanations of the extraordinary methods and approaches with relevant theoretical underpinnings and empirical data were seriously lacking. Further, Keegan (1983(a):3-4) informs us that Rudolf Manfred Delling was among the first to recommend a strengthening of the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE. As early as 1966, like Peters, Delling maintained that there was no systematic and structured theory of DE. In 1973 Michael G Moore repeated the call by his proposal for the building of an all-embracing theoretical framework for DE. In 1974 Charles A Wedemeyer also argued for the development of a theory related to the study of DE. Holmberg (1989(a):x) similarly believed that DE was ripe for the presentation of a theory.

Another perspective with regard to the need for a theoretical and conceptual framework is provided by Garrison and Shale (1990(a)(1):ix). They reinforce the perception that DE is highly fragmented both in concept and application. Understandably, this is problematic for those involved in DE. Inter alia, they reason that the impediment for an adequate theoretical and conceptual framework for DE appears to be a mishmash of ideas and practice. Therefore, any attempt to attain unity to support a concerted and coherent advancement for the system of DE becomes abstruse and highly complex. Thus, they conclude that in order for DE to entrench itself unequivocally in terms of a parity of esteem with the traditional academic community a strong, independent theoretical and conceptual basis becomes the sine qua non for DE.

3.3 DEFINITION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION AND RELATED TERMS

In the development of a theoretical and conceptual framework for DE quite obviously
the logical gambit would be to consider the definition and theoretical characteristics of DE and several related terms which practitioners in DE tend to use synonymously with the concept of DE. We cannot but agree with Keegan (1990(a):28) who urges that the need to clarify terminology is immediate. Certainly, little or no progress can be achieved in formulating the theoretical underpinnings of an area of educational endeavour or in developing guides to good praxis if there is no consensus on the definition of DE and related terminology.

In this connection, Garrison and Shale (1987:7) sententiously comment that:

'A definition of distance education has long been something of a Jason's Fleece to those working at the enterprise - tantalising, much sought after, but ever-elusive.'

Harris and Williams (1977:8) remarked in the late 1970s that DE was admittedly a focus for debate and prejudice. They recommended strongly at that stage that a working definition for DE was essential. Similarly, Giltrow (1989:2) maintains that defining an educational strategy which is characterized by a seemingly endless number of variations is quite complex.

Wedemeyer (1981:48) also acclaimed that:

'How is education at a distance defined? The names applied to things are important, for they not only acknowledge the existence of something, but either implicitly or explicitly they denote the attributes of the things named. Here there are problems, for the terms used to describe "education at a distance" are ambiguous and imprecise.'
Indeed, Keegan (1983(b)(1):6; 1980(b):13) asserts that the growing literature on DE contains numerous complaints about the lack of unanimity on the terminology used in the field. Further, the National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin (1983:4) asseverates that DE is generally recognized but not fully understood. Confusion is increased by the apparent interchangeability of other phrases. Sauvé (1993:102) highlights the fact that there is a wide sphere of definitions of DE. However, each is formulated according to specific contexts and the perceptions of the authors concerned.

Faibisoff and Willis (1987:224) are of the opinion that the phrase distance education is so seemingly straightforward and understandable that one may question the need for a definition. But this simplistic assertion becomes complicated when one considers that a review of the literature indicates that there is no one meaning of the term (Reddy, 1987:11; 1988(2):1; 1993:236; see also, Wedemeyer, 1981:47). DE is in fact interpreted differently by many people. Moreover, the term has often been used in a cavalier fashion and interchangeably with a bewildering array of other terms and nomenclature which leads to further complications. Peters (1994(7):212; 1993(b):11) proposes that we have to accept the premise that different designations mean different ways of perceiving DE and of highlighting different elements of this form of education. Wedemeyer (1981:xx) describes these as non-traditional and the operational denotata of various ways of 'learning at the back door'.

It is also important to note that the various terms used to describe this strategy of education share one important aspect; namely, that in each case there is a spatial and temporal distance between educator and learner and the educational process is mediated through various teaching methods. The different terms, to a large extent, reflect different historical traditions and emphases rather than radical differences (National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin, 1983:4).

We need, then, at this stage to consider as a prelude to the definition of DE some of the related designations and terms used by various people. Peters (1994(7):212-217; 1993(b):10-16; 1991:48-57) provides a broad-brush stroke perspective for us.
3.3.1 FERNUNTERRICHT (INSTRUCTION AT A DISTANCE)

The etymology of 'Fernunterricht' is German and characterizes the phenomenon of DE by manifesting a conspicuous difference from face-to-face education, namely, the apartness of teacher and learner (Peters, 1994(7):212; 1993(b):11; 1991:50). It trenchantly accentuates the physical distance between them which does not permit direct interaction.

A number of associations are still related to this concept. Most of them have their antecedents in the nineteenth century or the first half of the twentieth century. These associations incorporate the use and misuse of the terminology in connection with organizations motivated by profit and the opportunity it provides for ambitious and gifted but disadvantaged communities. The latter are affected negatively in their attempt to acquire education via the conventional route.

3.3.2 FERNSTUDIUM (LEARNING AT A DISTANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION)

The singular term 'fern' (meaning distance) proved to be distinctively successful. It was applied across the board to incorporate higher education when it became possible to study at tertiary institutions without having to attend lectures. It is currently internationally acclaimed as a useful description (Peters, 1994(7):212; 1993(b):12; 1991:50).

The connotations of this term are in some respects similar to 'Fernunterricht'. It presupposes that individuals who are not content with their socio-economic status can attempt to change it in the face of many difficulties. Such resourcefulness to elevate one's social stratum earns the veneration of society at large.
3.3.3 **CORRESPONDENCE STUDY / CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION**

Flinck (1978:11) maintains that the correspondence study or correspondence education is the most frequent as well as the oldest form of DE. Those who used these neologisms were without doubt impressed by the new communication medium spawned in the middle of the last century, viz., the letter or postcard in connection with the railway system which provided quick and reliable delivery.

Underlying this concept was the fact that the teacher and learner were corresponding rather than talking with each other. This reference to non-traditional education was so successful that it dominated the new form of tuition for almost a century. The vital element attached to this designation is that the educator instructs by writing and the learner acquires his knowledge by reading thus popularizing a new teaching and learning behaviour (Peters, 1994(7):213; 1993(b):12; 1991:51; see also, Holmberg, 1989(a):1; Hoyle, 1988:12; Moore, 1990(b):346; Ruggles et al., 1982:2).

However, Keegan (1983 (b)(1):27; 1980(b):20; 1990(a):29; see also, Holmberg, 1982(a):6) opines that correspondence study or correspondence education has not taken into account the advancement of multi-media technology within its ambit such as radio, television and computer-based programmes. He further contends that communications theory experts hold that words get tired. As such correspondence study and correspondence education are now tired and have become anachronistic concepts.

Notwithstanding, it must be borne in mind that technological advancement in DE is a key element in developed countries. In most developing countries and in parts of South Africa too, for a variety of reasons but mainly due to a lack of modern technology, infrastructure and budgetary constraints, correspondence study or correspondence education with the emphasis on print-based areas of DE still predominates. For example, in KZN upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers using the DE strategy is primarily still print-based.
The relationship between correspondence study or correspondence education to DE is illustrated in figure 3.1 below:

3.3.4 OPEN LEARNING/OPEN EDUCATION

Scriven (1991(b):299; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(b)(1) : 23) attests to the fact that the use of the term open learning or open education has become quite common in educational literature over recent years. Its importance and historical antecedents were recognized in 1986 when the journal Teaching at a Distance changed its name to Open Learning.
There is apparently an extensive overlap between the use of the term open learning or open education and DE. The decision of the UK Government in the mid-1960s to use the nomenclature Open University rather than University of the Air popularized the concept open (Keegan, 1990(a): 23; see also, Evans and Nation, 1993(b)(2):8; Ruggles et al., 1982:3).

The vision of the UKOU with regard to the concept of open learning was eloquently expressed by its first Chancellor, Lord Crowther, in his inaugural address on 23 July 1969:

`... This is the Open University.
We are open, first, as to people.
...
We are open as to places.
...
We are open as to methods.
...
We are open, finally, as to ideas.'

(Daniel, 1995(b):400; 1990:106; see also, MacKenzie et al., 1975:16; Ferguson, 1975:19-20)

The concept open is now an integral part of the titles of various DE institutions in many parts of the world such as Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Venezuela, Israel, Indonesia and so on (Keegan, 1990(a):23; see also, Holmberg, 1989(a):2-3; 21-22; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(4) :161). In addition, the concept of 'open' features also in the titles of multi-level DE colleges and NGOs such as the Open Learning Institute of British Columbia, the Open College of Further Education of South Australia and the National Open Learning Association (NOLA) and the Open Learning Association of South Africa (OLASA).
The terms open learning or open education, however, in the opinion of many involved in DE, are not synonymous with DE (Keegan, 1990(a):23; see also, Fraser, 1993:33; Daniel, 1990:106; Jeffries et al., 1990: vii; Chander, 1991(b):29). By way of elucidation we may turn to the distinction of these two concepts by Escotet (1980:144):

'Open education is particularly characterised by the removal of restrictions, exclusions and privileges; by the accreditation of students' previous experiences; by the flexibility of the management of the time variable; and by substantial changes in the traditional relationship between professors and students. On the other hand, distance education is a modality which permits the delivery of a group of didactic media without the necessity of regular class participation, where the individual is responsible for his own learning.'

(As quoted by Keegan, 1990(a):23)

Thus, the term was introduced to designate that DE emphasizes the openness of the teaching-learning process in contradistinction to the closeness of learning in conventional educational institutions (Peters, 1994(7):213; 1993(b):12; 1991:51). It stresses the access to learning and the fact that students are allowed to operate with a degree of autonomy and self-direction. This concept is all-encompassing. It refers to decisions related to place, time, duration and circumstances of learning as well as to the curriculum. Students enjoy the freedom to choose from pre-planned curricula or at times to develop their own curricula. Similar explanations for open learning and open education are provided by a number of other theorists: Cunningham (1987:40-58), Boot and Hodgson (1987:5-15), Snell et al. (1987:161-170), Evans and Nation (1993(b)(2):9), Chander (1991(a):1-5), Jeffries et al. (1990:iii), Hodgson (1993:13-14), Bates (1988(b):8) and Mackintosh (1997(a)(4):161-164; 1997(a)(5):165-190;
However, the National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin (1983:4) and Rowntree (1992:13) proclaim that the term open learning or open education is very imprecise. MacKenzie et al. (1975:15) and Rumble (1989(a):29) declare that this imprecision suggests that a range of meanings can be attached to the concept which enables it to accommodate many different aims and ideas. This is compellingly illustrated by Rowntree (1992:14) and Hodgson (1993:11-12) where they refer to a number of definitions of open learning by several authors such as Coffey (1977), Manpower Services Commission, Sheffield (1984), Lewis and Spencer (1986), Dixon (1987), Jack (1988), Holt and Bonnici (1988) and Paine (1989). These underscore the philosophy and method of open learning or open education.

Kember and Murphy (1992:3-5; 1990:3; see also, Ruggles et al., 1982:3; Holmberg, 1989(a):2-3; Northcott, 1986:39; Pantzar, 1995:447; Peñaiver, 1990:27; Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 209-210) maintain that there seems to be no justification for treating the terms distance education and open learning as synonymous. Similarly, Bates (1995(a):27) holds the view that open learning or open education and DE are often used to mean the same thing. He, however, qualifies the difference between them stating:

- **Open Learning** is primarily a goal, or an educational policy: the provision of learning in a flexible manner, built around the geographical, social and time constraints of individual learners, rather than those of an educational institution.

- **Distance education** is one means to that end: it is one way by which learners can study in a flexible manner, by studying at a distance from the originator of the
teaching material; students can study at their own time, at the place of their choice (home, work or learning centre), and without face-to-face contact with the teacher.'

In view of this, the relationship between open learning or open education and DE could be represented as in the Venn diagram below:

Figure 3.2 VENN DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTANCE EDUCATION AND OPEN LEARNING/OPEN EDUCATION

SOURCE: Kember and Murphy (1992:5; 1990:3)

Interestingly enough Holmberg (1989(a):2; 1989(d):19) presents the views of Foks (1987) who states emphatically that DE is not a subset of open learning or open education. Rather the distinction proffered is that open learning or open education is a state of mind while DE is a mode of learning with certain characteristics which distinguish it from the campus-based mode of learning.

Rumble (1989(a):28) reinforces the argument that greater clarity in the use of the concept open learning or open education vis-a-vis DE is necessary to avoid misleading
ourselves and others. Wedemeyer (1981:62-63), Hodgson (1993:13) and Pantzar (1995:448) also emphasize the need to distinguish between open learning or open education and DE as issues of benefits to learners in terms of goals, programmes, access and so on and processes which are seen as methodical solutions to educational organization.

Consequently, we may conclude with Northcott (1986:36) that we must avoid using open learning or open education as dogma. It is quite apparent from the foregoing discussion that the distinction between open learning or open education and DE is blurred. Holmberg (1989(a):3; 1989(d):19; 1993:331) is of the opinion that the vagueness of open learning or open education makes it acceptable to common usage. Educators who find DE a forbidding term may be inclined to replace it by open learning or open education. However, we may be safe to assume, until absolute clarity is attained, that the concept of open in open learning or open education in the widest and most commonly used sense of the word probably encapsulates the idea of creating opportunities for study for those debarred from it for whatever reasons such as lack of formal educational attainments, penury, remoteness from educational institutions, employment, domestic necessities and so forth. Further, as Guri-Rosenblit (1993:291-304) suggests, parameters to distinguish between DE and open learning or open education can be determined in terms of: target population, dimensions of openness, organizational structure, design and development of learning materials, use of advanced technology, teaching/tutoring system, student support system and inter-institutional collaboration. Finally, it must be borne in mind that open learning and open education are relative terms, and, as Scriven (1991(b):299) advises, in practice, there will always be restrictions of open learning or open education programmes.

In the South African context OLASA (1995:1-2) crystallized the concept of open learning or open education as propounded by Holmberg, Wedemeyer and Lewis. OLASA conceives of open learning or open education as learning which, inter alia:

- is not reserved for special groups
is not a thin educational experience in lieu of conventional methodologies

enables adults to take responsibility for their own learning needs

implies that participants are aware of competence objectives and criteria for attainment of such objectives

allows for flexible roll-on, roll-off facilities in terms of the academic calendar

is a state of mind with respect to the approach regarding planning, selection, use of strategies and so on

is free from restrictions and rigid entrance requirements

provides participants with the opportunity to learn when they want (timing, frequency, duration), how they want (lecture, seminar, project, mediation or reading), what they want (by being helped to define what constitutes learning to them)

However, it must be noted that the discourse of the role and the position of the learner in terms of open and distance education is on-going. In Chapter Seven, for example, issues surrounding the needs for student support and counselling as well as other recommendations highlight the situation apropos the DE learner.

With respect to the concept of open and distance learning there is, as already indicated, no unanimity amongst theorists in the use of these terms. In the literature, nonetheless, as we approach the beginnings of the 21st century, many still refer to DE only while others use the combination of open and distance learning. Amongst the latter are: Evans and Nation (1996), Lockwood (1995), Moon (1998), Bosworth (1991), Jenkins (1988), Daniel (1992(a)), Edwards (1995), Fraser (1993), Guri-Rosenblit
In all likelihood no end is in sight in the near future for this discourse with respect to breaking with the concept of DE, per se. Many will continue referring to both open and distance learning. Perhaps, as occurred in 1982, when the ICCE changed its title to the ICDE, giving emphasis to DE rather than correspondence education, a change in the nomenclature of the international organization incorporating open and distance learning may provide a strong foundation for the required perspectives and orientation to this particular discourse.

3.3.5 **HOME STUDY**

This term suggests that the home rather than the class or lecture room is the physical focus of teaching and learning (Peters, 1994(7):213; 1993(b):13; 1991:51). It obviously generates the euphoria connected to the congenial atmosphere of one's home: privacy, familiarity and the virtual palpability of cosiness. This is in direct contrast to the supposed unpleasant experiences associated with classrooms, lecture halls, libraries, laboratories and infrastructure in conventional education. Keegan (1990(a):30; 1983(b)(1):27; 1980(b):21) submits that this concept is used mainly in the USA. It is generally felt that the concept of home study is unsuitable as a generic term for the wide range of teaching-learning activities which are encompassed by DE.

3.3.6 **ANGELEITETES SELBSTSTUDIUM (GUIDED SELF-STUDY)**

In this context the word 'self-study' is qualified by 'guided' (Peters, 1994(7):213; 1993(b):13; 1991:51). This term is designed to minimize the difference between DE and teaching and learning at a university by referring to a highly valued element of
advanced higher education. At any rate, study at a tertiary institution takes for granted that students work independently and mainly individually. Thus, self-study at this level is *ipse dixit*. Most postgraduate study is completed in this way with only occasional guidance by the lecturer or professor. Perceived in this manner the term is hardly alien or frighteningly different from academic tradition.

3.3.7 **ZAOCHNY**

This is the Russian word for distance in DE (Peters, 1994(7):214; 1993(b):13; 1991:52). The etymology is unique in that it literally translates to 'without eye contact'. This implies that the fundamental criterion differentiating DE from traditional teaching and learning is the lack of eye contact or, as described by Wedemeyer (1981:32; 34) no eyeball-to-eyeball teaching and learning. It is important to note that the eye is regarded as the organ of man's innermost feelings. This aspect of apartness then assumes particular significance because a whole emotional dimension in the interaction between educator and learner is nullified in DE.

3.3.8 **STUDY WITHOUT LEAVING PRODUCTION**

This designation is ineluctably hegemonical. Obviously it was forged by bureaucrats of a state planning institution (Peters, 1994(7):214; 1993(b):14; 1991:52). For them the outstanding feature of DE is the possibility that students can study without leaving their workplace. It also emphasizes how much work in production is valued and to what extent the products of the workforce are required. Apart from the socialist, economic and political undertones of the concept it also incisively promotes forceful ideological overtones which are crucial with regard to the general goal of education.
3.3.9 INDEPENDENT STUDY

Moore (1991:288) asseverates that the term independent study as used in the USA delineates two fundamental concepts. The first is that the learner is independent from the instructor spatially and temporally. The second is the relative autonomy of decision-making concerning their learning that students obtain in terms of their geographic independence.

The proponent of the concept of independent study was Charles A Wedemeyer, formerly of the University of Wisconsin at Madison. Wedemeyer describes independent study as follows:

'Independent Study consists of various forms of teaching-learning arrangements in which teachers and learners carry out their essential tasks and responsibilities apart from one another, communicating in a variety of ways, for the purposes of freeing internal learners from inappropriate class pacings or patterns, of providing external learners with opportunities to continue learning in their own environments, and developing in all learners the capacity to carry on self-directed learning, the ultimate maturity required of the educated person. Independent Study programs offer learners varying degrees of freedom in the self-determination of goals and activities, and in starting, stopping and pacing individualized learning programs which are carried on to the greatest extent possible at the convenience of the learners.'

Wedemeyer explains further that the term independent study as used only in the USA is a term to describe the several kinds of DE and non-traditional learning systems. Moreover, in the USA independent study occurs both within or internal to an institution as well as without or external to an institution. Conceptually, independent study programmes in the USA are characteristically linked together. They have a great deal to contribute to each other, share to a considerable extent a common philosophical framework and employ similar media and techniques.

In this conceptualization of DE the disencumberance of the student from the trammels of the institution is stressed. Thus, the responsibility devolves upon the learner to determine the time, place and *modus operandi* of his or her learning. This description of DE suggests that the student is also liberated from the fetters of the teacher or the need to conform to peer pressure in the learning process. The success of this term can be attributed to the cogent educational and political reform movements. As such, according to Peters (1994(7):216; 1993(b):15; 1991:54; see also, Nation, 1991:102; Holmberg, 1989(a):1), it has an ideological bias.

Keegan (1983(b)(1):28-29) concedes that there are elements of a philosophy of educational maturity in the concept of independent study as postulated by Wedemeyer. However, he believes that as a generic term independent study is flawed on the grounds that the normal comprehension of independent study presupposes a different relationship to an educational institution. Further, the acme of DE is not necessarily independence but as advocated by Daniel and Marquis (1983:339-359; 1979:29-44) 'interaction and independence: getting the mixture right'. Furthermore, in the context of independent study in the USA an independent student is one who arranges for an individual study programme on a contract basis during an interview with a Faculty member. The contract may incorporate, *inter alia*, periods of normal face-to-face lectures in traditional or radical courses, unguided study or DE programmes including correspondence courses (National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin, 1983:4; see also, Holmberg, 1982(a):6; Hoyle, 1988:12). Holmberg (1977:9) concludes that the concept of independent study is somewhat vague and abstruse as it does not
clarify of whom or of what the study is independent.

3.3.10  **INDUSTRIALIZED FORM OF INSTRUCTION**

The characterization of the concept of DE as an industrialized form of instruction is a most frequent occurrence. Implicitly, it undergirds the fact that DE must be meticulously pre-planned, prepared and organized. Moreover, there is the implication that DE is inherently a system typified by division of labour, expanding utilization of technical equipment and the necessity of formative and summative evaluations. It is patently clear that these and other features of DE are structurally and organizationally similar to those embedded in an industrialized production process. Explicitly, these concepts are expressed by the imagery of an educator at the chalkface working like a craftsman, as opposed to a teacher being the constituent of a complicated teaching - learning system organized in terms of an industrialized process.

Otto Peters of Germany introduced this analogy of DE with the industrial process. The underlying phrase 'industrialized form of instruction' helps to recognize the structural and organizational elements that are typical in DE (Peters, 1994(7):217; 1993(b):16; 1991:54).

3.3.11  **EXTERNAL SYSTEM/STUDIES**

This appellation for the system of DE is typically Australasian (Reddy, 1993:236; 1988(2):1). On the one hand, Reddy contends that the description is not appreciated very much simply because it is reminiscent of the old external system of the University of London. No tuition was provided but candidates were allowed to sit for the university examinations.

Unofficially some refer to this strategy as off-campus study. Keegan (1983(b)(1):29)
on the other hand submits that it describes adequately the essence of the integrated model of DE as found in the Australasian and South Pacific institutions. This form of DE is external to but not separated from the Faculty staff of the institution. However, this concept can have little claim to wide acceptance because of this limitation and also because of its apparent confusion with the external degree offered in the USA.

3.3.12 **TÉLÉ-ENSEIGNEMENT**

*Télé-enseignement* is the French for distance teaching. It is deemed to be an influential term in French because of its use in the titles of the *Centre National de Télé-enseignement* (CNTE), the *Centres de Télé-enseignement Universitaire* and the *Télé-universite Quebec* (Keegan, 1983(b)(1):26). The problem with the designation *télé-enseignement* is that many do not realize that the derivation of *télé* is the Greek word *tèle* which means 'from afar', 'from a distance'. It does not refer to television as some believe. Thus, in Francophone countries *télé-enseignement* has come to be generally accepted, for the designation of DE.

3.3.13 **DISTANCE TEACHING OR TEACHING AT A DISTANCE**

According to Keegan (1990(a):31; 1983(b)(1): 29; 1980(b):32), this concept of DE has been commonly used by the UKOU. The main criticism against this terminology is that it represents only half the process involved in DE. Distance learning as a component of DE is inextricably integrated with distance teaching. These two phenomena, *in extenso*, constitute DE and are illustrated in figure 3.3 below:
3.3.14 OTHER TERMS DEPICTING INDIRECT OR MEDIATED AND NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION

In addition to the concepts already discussed a few other terms enjoy a close nexus with DE. These are included, amongst others, by Keegan (1990(a):20-23; 1983(b)(1):22-26; 1980(b):26-29) as non-traditional and indirect or mediated education. Non-traditional education according to Wedemeyer (1981:xix) refers to forms of education which replace, extend, supplement or build upon learning acquired in the conventional face-to-face situation. Moreover, Keegan (1990(a):21) describes non-traditional learning as a generalized concept for a vague range of educational programmes that diverge from what is perceived to be the norm. Keegan also emphasizes the fact that the education may be direct or indirect in accordance with the presence or absence of conventional, face-to-face communication (Keegan, 1990(a):21; 1983(b)(1):22; 1980(b):26).

3.3.14.1 INDIRECT OR MEDIATED EDUCATION

This concept of indirect or mediated education is depicted in figure 3.4:
The numerous mediated forms of education as indicated in figure 3.4 all reflect some vestiges of DE but lack one or more of the essential components of the DE strategy. A synopsis of the various forms depicted follow.

3.3.14.1.1 **EDUCATION BY LETTER**

Throughout the history of education, letters have been utilized for instructional purposes and practice. Without doubt they continue to play as significant a role today as they did earlier on. However, it must be conceded that while tutorial letters sent out to students enrolled for DE satisfy to some extent the objective that they provide some educational input, other letters sadly lack the structuring of an educational institution that is the primary characteristic of DE.
3.3.14.1.2 PRINTED EDUCATION

In this category such heterogeneous collection of pamphlets, books, teach-yourself manuals and so on are included. The conspicuous absence of the supervision and evaluation by an educational institution is again the major consideration which distinguishes these from DE. There is also a distinct hiatus of two-way communication. Certainly, many people may learn a great deal from these methods despite the omission of didactical structuring or even an educational objective.

3.3.14.1.3 TEACHING KITS

These are characterized by a motley collection of samples, games, projects, specimens and various allied items. They are used both in conventional and non-traditional teaching where students are invited to work with such kits without supervision.

3.3.14.1.4 AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

When educators communicate with learners by means of audio-visual aids such as slides, overhead projectors, film, audio-tapes, video-tapes and other technological equipment, they are teaching indirectly. Some of these audio-visual aids have limited functions in DE.

3.3.14.1.5 RADIO AND TELEVISION

Indubitably, many people learn tremendously from radio and television. Quite often these media are used also for DE programmes. Many programmes, however, are not conceived as a component of an education programme per se. By their very nature and
scope the programme may become integrated as a constituent of both on-campus and DE programmes when offered for credit with the requisite didactically structured assignment, reading and assessment material.

3.3.14.1.6  **PROGRAMMED-LEARNING**

This concept is a form of indirect teaching. It has numerous similarities to DE. For example, both require extensive preparation of course materials, a careful seriation of appropriate items for study and a tendency towards the individualizing of learning.

3.3.14.1.7  **COMPUTER-AIDED LEARNING (CAL)**

This is yet another form of indirect education. With the proliferation of computers, this strategy is being used extensively both for DE and conventional education.

3.3.14.1.8  **INDEPENDENT STUDY**

Apart from the considerations as discussed in paragraph 3.3.9, this concept in the context of indirect or mediated education refers to the many forms of study which can be classed as study guided by a governess, a tutor or counsellor. It also includes the external degree programmes as offered in the USA as already discussed.

3.3.14.1.9  **PRIVATE STUDY**

This form of indirect education is that which is obtained outside a classroom situation and devoid of any educational institution linkages. It may, however, be based on materials developed for use within an institution either for traditional classroom students
or distance learners.

3.3.14.2 NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION

Again Keegan (1990(a):26; 1983(b)(1):24-25; 1980(b):27-29) provides a useful list of non-traditional education concepts. These also approximate closely to DE and can be summarized as follows:

3.3.14.2.1 EXTENSION PROGRAMMES

These are strategies of extending expertise of tertiary institutions to new populations. The term involves, amongst other things, offering manifold programmes as for full time, day time learners by different means, at different locations or at different times. Generally, such programmes are arranged and presented by an extra-mural department of the institution.

3.3.14.2.2 EXTENDED CAMPUS

This usually refers to the provision of courses at a satellite campus. By and large, courses are arranged away from the official campus.

3.3.14.2.3 UNIVERSITY WITHOUT WALLS

This concept implies the design of an individualized programme based on a learning contract for learners with clear learning objectives. Students enrolled for such courses are usually in a situation where they cannot achieve their educational aspirations through existing programmes. The strategy incorporates experiential learning credits,
education at a distance. He considers the difference between educational technology and DE to be significant:

'In educational technology the technology is usually a supplement to the teacher; in distance education it is usually a substitute for the teacher.'

(Keegan, 1990(a):25)

Generally speaking, technology as a supplement to the teacher increases the cost of teaching. In conventional education educational technology is part of the audio-visual aid utilized by the educator in classrooms or lecture theatres or specially constructed resource centres. In DE the technology contributes to the economies of scale and may render the provision of educational infrastructure such as buildings and classrooms redundant.

Keegan (1990(a):25) accentuates the point that a working definition of educational technology is inclusive of the use of technology 'in education' and technology 'of education'. Consequently, while educational technology may be utilized in the task of choice and deployment for a variety of strategies, systems, programmes and machinery to satisfy educational demands and aspirations it must not be confused with DE.

It is important to remember also that all uses of educational technology in classrooms, lecture theatres or laboratories of conventional institutions used to assist the educator in the presentation of his lesson or lecture is not DE. Only when the technology is used as a substitute for the educator does it become an appurtenance of DE.
3.3.15 DISTANCE EDUCATION

3.3.15.1 PROEMIAL CONSIDERATIONS

Having considered the plethora of terms associated with DE we are now in a position to consider the definition of DE with a greater degree of perspicacity. It is more tractable to devise a definition of DE than to accept one propounded by another. However, as has been indicated, the fundamental objective in the development of the theoretical and conceptual framework is not to postulate another definition. On the contrary, it is intended to consider several internationally accepted definitions of DE so that we can focus on those elements which are quintessential for any definition of DE and relevant to the problem of analyzing the role of DE as a strategy for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

This would also enable us to some extent of resolving those problems of defining DE as adumbrated by Rumble (1986(a):7-10) and to dissipate the paradox engulfing the definition of DE as indicated by Shale (1990:333). The analysis of the maze of terminology related to DE and sometimes used, rightly or wrongly, synonymously with DE enables us to appreciate the fact that DE is indeed a generic term and the mot juste for much of the non-traditional education already discussed.

Further, a survey of the labyrinthine attempts to define DE in the literature indicates that Keegan (1990(a):34-45; 1983(b)(1):6-33; 1980(b):13-21; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3):74; 1997(b)(1):12) has presented a most erudite discussion in attempting to define DE. His intellectual perspicacity in this regard has been internationally recognized and his veritable ex cathedra effort has been cited by a host of researchers on DE. This is mainly because he has systematically and creatively tried to describe the differences between the multifarious forms of DE in a most perspicuous manner (Nilsen, 1986:16; see also, Willén, 1987: 53-54; Bates, 1988(b):7; Pantzar, 1995:447; Sahoo, 1993:1; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3):73).
His plan in the determination of the definition of DE was to consider internationally authoritative or accepted definitions and then to analyze them for their common elements (Keegan, 1990(a):36). He subsequently produced a definition instrument capable of delineating all educational institutions and programmes within the category of DE. Those that fall outside the paradigm developed in this manner would then be deemed to be excluded by DE and consigned to other studies. Some of the critical definitions which led to the formulation and synthesis of the general definition of DE by Keegan are as follows:

3.3.15.2 SOME CRITICAL DEFINITIONS

3.3.15.2.1 G DOHMEN

Dohmen (1967:9) as the Director of the German Distance Education Institution (DIFF) at Tübingen in Germany proposed that:

‘Distance education (Fernstudium) is a systematically organized form of self-study in which student counselling, the presentation of learning material and the securing and supervising of students’ success is carried out by a team of teachers, each of whom has responsibilities. It is made possible at a distance by means of media which can cover long distances. The opposite of ’distance education’ is ’direct education’ or ’face-to-face education’: a type of education that takes place with direct contact between lecturers and students.’

(As quoted by Keegan, 1990(a):36)
This pioneering and nascent definition of DE at the time of its formulation was the manifestation and affirmation of what was once conceived as a purely esoteric phenomenon. The definition, moreover, illuminated the organization of self-study by an institution. It made reference to media and lucidly evinced differences from direct contact between lecturers and students.

3.3.15.2.2 **OTTO PETERS**

We may consider also the definition proposed by another doyen in the field of DE, Otto Peters (1973:206):

'Distance teaching/education (*Fernunterricht*) is a method of imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes which is rationalised by the application of division of labour and organisational principles as well as by the extensive use of technical media, especially for the purpose of reproducing high quality teaching material which makes it possible to instruct great numbers of students at the same time wherever they live. It is an industrialised form of teaching and learning.'


In this definition, Peters focuses attention on the use of technical media. He concludes that the didactical structure can best be comprehended in terms of industrial principles especially those of productivity, division of labour and mass production. This aspect of DE being a most industrialized form of education is generally applicable to any definition of education. Moreover, the massification of education is also key in this definition.
A definition which has been acclaimed as highly acceptable by many involved in DE is that postulated by Michael G Moore:

'Distance teaching may be defined as the family of instructional methods in which the teaching behaviors are executed apart from the learning behaviors, including those that in a contiguous situation would be performed in the learner’s presence, so that communication between the teacher and the learner must be facilitated by print, electronic, mechanical or other devices.'


The crux of the definition as presented by Moore relates to the separation of educator and learner, the use of technical media and the possibility of two-way communication. Moore analyzes teaching as being dichotomous. In normal, face-to-face situations the educator prepares his/her lecture or lesson apart from his/her students but he/she teaches in the presence of the learners. In DE the preparation and teaching are done apart from the learners. This definition is similar to that proposed by Flinck (1978:10) in which the separation of teacher and student and the use of a variety of media for communication are emphasized.
Another definition which has been universally accepted by practitioners of DE worldwide is that enunciated by the intellectual savant in DE, Börje Holmberg:

'The term 'distance education' . . . covers the various forms of study at all levels which are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or on the same premises, but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organization.'


Fundamental issues concerning DE are contained in Holmberg's definition. These include non-contiguous communication resulting from the separation of teacher and learner. Pre-produced courses and planning by an educational organization are also critical to DE. The separation of teacher and learner is the intrinsic fulcrum of DE whether it is print-based or whether there is technologically supported two-way communication. The concept of separation is the nub of the difference between DE and all forms of conventional, face-to-face direct teaching and learning. Indeed, Holmberg (1993:330) is emphatic that only mediated contact which connotes non-contiguous communication is the principal characteristic of DE per se.
Another key consideration for DE implicit in the definition of Holmberg is the educational syzygy attained by the conjunction and synchronization of the structuring of the course materials with the teleological purpose of effective learning by students through an educational organization. The use of media in the delivery of DE as part of the definition of DE is also crucial (Bernier, 1995:38). This differentiates DE from private study, learning from a wide variety of books and numerous television programmes.

3.3.15.3 A SYNTAGMA OF PRINCIPLES UNDERPINNING THE DEFINITION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

The definitions of DE as postulated by Dohmen, Peters, Moore and Holmberg provide a synergy for a working definition for DE. As Khan (1992:12) observes, the definitions outlined are not the only definitions of DE. These have been selected because they define DE comprehensively and categorically underscore its integral components. The syntagma of principles implicit in the definitions which constitutes the basis of the definition as propounded by Keegan (1990(a):39-43) and explicated further by Rumble (1986(a):11-15) and Verduin Jr. and Clark (1991:10-12) are:

3.3.15.3.1 THE SEPARATION OF TEACHER AND LEARNER

This factor is the nub of all the definitions considered. It is, indeed, the characterizing feature between DE and conventional, face-to-face education. The general consensus among researchers in DE and the perception of the clientele of DE are congruent in the acceptance of the separation of educator and learner as the cardinal consideration of DE. The levels of separation, understandably, vary from nil to voluntary to prescriptive. Consequently, Keegan concludes that the qualification of separation as quasi-permanent separation throughout the learning process would be the most apposite summing up of the means of practice.
3.3.15.3.2 THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATION ORGANIZATION

It is critical to delineate the strategy of DE from both the aspects of what occurs in the lecture or classrooms as well as in private study outside teaching institutions. DE is an institutionalized programme provided through public or private organizations. This can be illustrated diagrammatically as follows:

Figure 3.5 INSTITUTIONALIZED AND NON-INSTITUTIONALIZED LEARNING

Private Study
Teach yourself books

Distance education
Learning materials

Conventional education
Lectures, classes, texts

non-institutionalized

institutionalized education

SOURCE: Keegan (1990(a): 40)
3.3.15.3.3 **THE COLLOCATION OF TECHNOLOGICAL MEDIA IN DISTANCE EDUCATION**

In conventional systems of education the content of the course, particularly that which is not incorporated in prescribed or recommended textbooks, is generally communicated orally by the educator. DE severs this interaction and substitutes it with some form of mechanical or electronic communication such as print, telephone, teleconferencing, audio, video, broadcasting, computer and so on. Such communication has to occur through the use of one or more technological media.

These tools for communication convey the message in DE and is characterized by a diversity of procedures. Logically then fastidious formulation of the role of technological media is essential in any definition of DE.

3.3.15.3.4 **TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION**

Keegan (1990(a):41) contends that any definition of DE needs to distinguish DE from educational technology with which there is often a farrago of confusion. This is adequately and completely obtained if two-way communication is defined as being at the heart of DE and demonstrating the absence of its essentiality in educational technology.

Indubitably, the learner's effort in DE must be enhanced positively from interaction and dialogue with the institution that provides the course materials. The learner should be the initiator of such dialogue rather than being the silent recipient. Interactive two-way communication is not possible by means of textbooks or study guides nor do-it-yourself manuals. Television or radio programmes as well as audio-cassettes and video-cassettes also do not cater for two-way communication in a manner of speaking which is critical for DE.
3.3.15.3.5 THE SEPARATION OF LEARNER AND THE LEARNING GROUP

In the context of DE the definition needs to reflect to some extent the individualization of the DE learner and the practice of orientation and face-to-face sessions provided by the institutions offering the DE programmes. In conventional education, students in any course comprise a part of a larger group or class for that course. The presence of a learning group and scheduling of classes according to a fixed time-table so that educators and learners are present in the same locality and at the same time is basic to conventional education.

In DE the apparent antithesis of group work is the norm. Most DE systems treat the learner fundamentally as an individual. Group work in DE will to a large extent depend on the nature and scope of the course on offer and as such could then be compulsory, optional or unnecessary.

3.3.15.4 DEFINITION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION BY KEEGAN

As indicated, in the light of the syntagma of principles emanating from the widely accepted definitions as proposed by Dohmen, Peters, Moore and Holmberg, Keegan (1990(a): 44; 105; 1991:36-27) subtly inosculated these principles into what could be described as an all-encompassing, working definition of DE:

'Distance education is a form of education characterized by

- the quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learner throughout the length of the learning process (this distinguishes it from conventional face-to-face education);
• the influence of an educational organization both in the planning and preparation of learning materials and in the provision of student support services (this distinguishes it from private study and teach-yourself programmes);

• the use of technical media - print, audio, video or computer - to unite teacher and learner and carry the content of the course;

• the provision of two-way communication so that the student may benefit from or even initiate dialogue (this distinguishes it from other uses of technology in education); and

• the quasi-permanent absence of the learning group throughout the length of the learning process so that people are usually taught as individuals and not in groups, with the possibility of occasional meetings for both didactic and socialization purposes.'

Keegan (1990(a):44) avers that this definition, which is a decided revision of his earlier contribution (Keegan, 1980(b):33; 1983(b)(1):30), is developed in a spirit of modus vivendi. It takes up the middle ground between the extremes of defining DE so narrowly that it is reduced to a mere abstraction or so broadly that it degenerates into becoming a prolix and inane platitude. Bell and Tight (1993:6), in a manner of speaking, tend to vindicate this assertion by contending that the most telling criticism of the great majority of the definitions of DE certainly lies in their very pedantic idealization and rhetorical unreality.
Indeed, the earlier definition proposed by Keegan was the subject of much lively academic debate by theorists in the field (Rumble, 1989(b):8; Garrison and Shale, 1987:7-13; Hatar, 1987:19; Takwale, 1987:31; Hodgson, 1993:12; Garrison, 1989: 3-6; Moore, 1988: 53; Bååth, 1981 : 212-215; Holmberg, 1985 (a) : 67; 1982 (b) : 3; Gough, 1984 : 21-23). Nevertheless, his revised definition is now iterated as the most ubiquitous and pervasive definition of DE by such practitioners as, inter alia, Reddy (1993:239), Schlosser and Anderson (1994:2), Shale and Garrison (1990(2):23-26), Bell and Tight (1993:4-6). Moore and Kearsley (1996 : 206-207) and Mackintosh (1997(b)(1):16). All in all, it must be acknowledged that the definition of Keegan luculently identifies the discrete area of educational activity and provides a valid theoretical structure and guide to good practice in DE. As such it is a definition that satisfies the call for DE to be used as a generic term to comprise all patterns of student centred learning process in which the educator has only a limited role (Chander, 1991(a):1; 1991(b):28).

Verduin Jr. and Clark (1991:11) undergird the definition of Keegan but focus only on the four elements suggested. These are: separation of teacher and learner during at least a majority of the instructional process; the influence of the educational organization as well as the process of student evaluation; the utilization of educational media to interconnect educator and learner and consolidate course content; the provision of two-way communication between teacher, tutor or educational institution and learner.

Shale and Garrison (1990(2):24) oppugn this definition on the basis that it does not fit well the variety of educational activities that are generally recognized as DE such as teleconferencing which has been a popular method of delivery for DE for some time. The fit deteriorates as the technology and related infrastructure evolve. Moreover, the description does not take into account hybrid forms of study based on both conventional face-to-face instruction and DE. They attribute the root of the problem of definition in DE to be the result of a morphologically-oriented classificatory approach. Many practitioners of DE, in attempting to define the strategy, have colligated their study principally on the form and structure of existing patterns of DE without adequate
consideration for their functional ontology.

Consequently, they argue further that the preoccupation with how DE achieves its objectives has significant implications. For example, there is undue concern with past practices as one thinks about what DE constitutes and the projection of its future. Moreover, there is gratuitous emphasis on the distance aspect of DE. This, in turn, perpetuates an inexpedient concern for the form that DE assumes and neglects the critical issue that DE should ultimately be about education with the morphological constraints arising from distance being simply a geographical and consequently a methodological circumscription.

To circumvent the restrictive enigma of describing DE predicated upon its existing forms and structure, Garrison and Shale (1987:10-11; see also, Shale and Garrison, 1990(2):25; Garrison, 1989:5; Moore, 1989(a):154-156), propose the use of a set of criteria against which the DE process can be clarified:

- DE implies that the majority of educational communication between (among) educator and learner(s) occurs non-contiguously.

- DE must involve two-way communication between (among) educator and learner(s) for the purpose of facilitating and supporting the educational process.

- DE uses technology to mediate the requisite two-way communication.

These criteria are grounded in the assumption that an educational experience requires two-way communication between teacher and student. However, in DE since educator
and learner are generally in a non-contiguous situation then mediated communication is a prerequisite. Further, this strategy of DE does not necessarily preclude conventional face-to-face interaction. Moreover, they attest to the fact that an abiding resolution to the complex problem of conceptual ambiguity of DE is to regard it as education and to desist from the incidental consideration of the physical separation of educator and learner as a defining point of differentiation (Shale and Garrison, 1990(2):26).

In like manner, Barker et al. (1993:40) advise that a broadening of the definition of DE is now needed. This would help to clarify the inherent strengths that new technologies bring to the field of DE, to recruit new audiences to the benefits of DE and to underpin further study and research in this category of outreach and mass education.

There is much wisdom in this assertion. There is, however, a caveat. It must be remembered that technological advancement is not uniform throughout the world and there are varying degrees of sophistication. Consequently, in many respects, Keegan’s definition still holds for most countries even as we approach the beginnings of the twenty-first century. For the purpose of this research, then, the synthesis of definitions as proposed by Keegan is deemed to be the most appropriate and homologous for the theoretical underpinning of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

3.4 THEORY OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

In dealing with the theory of DE it is reiterated that the purpose here is not to develop a further theory of DE. It is intended rather to analyze some of the existing theories. Because of space constraints, it is not possible to provide a detailed exegesis of all the theories postulated in the field of DE extant nationally or internationally. Therefore, a selection of the theories formulated on DE for the purpose of the theoretical and conceptual framework of this research has been made on the basis that these theories
have been the subject of much debate in the literature surveyed and that they undergird the strategy of DE for improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

3.4.1 RUDOLF MANFRED DELLING: A PROCESS MODEL AND A HELPING ORGANIZATION

Rudolf Manfred Delling, as historian and bibliographer at the Deutches Institut Für Fernstudium (DIFF), conceived DE (Fernunterricht) as a planned and systematic activity comprising the choice, didactic preparation and presentation of teaching materials. His theory was proposed in the belief that:

'A Distance Study Course is an artificial dialogic learning opportunity in which the physical distance between the Distance Student and the Helping Organization is bridged either only or mainly by an artificial signal carrier. A Distance Study Course enables learning within a system of processes called 'Distance Study'.

Distance Study then, on the basis of a Distance Study Course, is a multi-dimensional system of learning processes in the Distance Student, in the Helping Organization and in the Society, and of communication processes among the three by means of artificial signal carriers, in particular as two-way communication between the Distance Student and the Helping Organization.'

In terms of his theory Delling adumbrates eight dimensions: a learner, society including amongst other things legislation, administration, family and so on, a helping organization such as the DE institution, a learning objective, the content to be learnt, the outcome of learning, spatial distance and the medium as a signal carrier. It is interesting to note in these dimensions Delling eschews the teacher to label DE as a teaching process.

He suggests further that DE institutions are organizations which facilitate learning. Moreover, Delling theorizes that a DE course is an artificial, dialogic opportunity for learning. The geographical space between the learner and helping organization is overcome by an artificial signal carrier.

From the outset, the concepts of feedback and two-way communication are pivotal to the theoretical position from which Delling argues. His ratiocination dichotomizes the difference between learning opportunities that are monologues based on one-way communication comprising such phenomena as books, newspapers, journals, documentary films, lectures without discussion, broadcasts, self-teaching courses and other self-instructional material and those that are dialogic characterizing two-way communication which includes normal correspondence, classroom or school-teaching, conversations, correspondence with answers and DE courses.

This process model of DE underscores the contention that in the universe of DE characteristics of teaching are minimal because in general there is no teacher in the system. The functions relating to student learning with the helping organization are executed by a mass of machines, people and course materials. The emphasis clearly devolves upon the autonomy and independence of the learner.

This viewpoint assumes significance because, in the main, learners in the DE system are adults who shun the conventional educator-student relationship. The function of the helping organization is to assume control, with the acquiescence of the learners, over
everything they cannot yet do for themselves. The ultimate outcome is that learners eventually become autonomous. When this stage is attained the only function remaining for the helping organization is to provide information documentation and library facilities.

It is clear that the theory propounded by Delling takes up an extreme position. He seems to have a penchant to place DE outside the field of educational theory (Garrison, 1989:24). He perceives the theory of DE as being set within the paradigm of communication processes and to be characterized by industrialized mechanisms which carry on its artificial dialogic and two-way communication processes. He reduces to an absolute minimum the role function of the educator and throws the whole gravity of his analysis on the autonomous and independent learning of the student at a distance. Delling's theory has general applicability for DE as a strategy to improve and upgrade the qualifications of teachers.

3.4.2 CHARLES A WEDEMEYER: THEORY OF INDEPENDENT STUDY

According to Keegan (1990(a):54; 1983(a):6; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:7) Charles A Wedemeyer was an eminent personality in the DE at university level movement from the early 1960s until the mid-1970s. Keegan (1992:77; see also, Woodbridge and le Roux, 1996:20; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 78) further declares that Wedemeyer can rightly be called the 'father of American distance education'. He neologized the concept independent study to describe DE at university level. The theory of DE in the form of independent study is underpinned by the proposition that it is learning or changed behaviour emanating from activities executed by learners in space and time, learners whose physical environment is different from that of the teaching institution, learners who may be guided by teachers but who are not dependent upon them, learners who accept degrees of freedom and responsibility in inaugurating and carrying out the activities that lead to learning.
The erudite theory put forward by Wedemeyer is contemporaneously generous and liberal and the influence of Carl Rogers is evident. The point of departure for this theory bifurcates into a democratic social ideal and a liberal educational philosophy. Wedemeyer was of the firm opinion that nobody should be denied the opportunity to learn because of penury, spatial isolation, disadvantaged social stratum and so on, which may have impacted negatively on the individual to be placed in the special environment for learning. Consequently, the theory of independent study is characterized by self-pacing, individualization and freedom in goal selection.

3.4.2.1 THE INDEPENDENT LEARNER

Wedemeyer perceives the independent learner as the original or the archetype learner. Such independence in learning is the key to survival. Individual learning precedes school learning. Group instruction which evolved in school was intended in the first instance, according to Wedemeyer (1981:30), for the elite. The long history of formal education is characterized by a pattern of the learner as a dependent learner in a group. The teachers who are constantly present are responsible for all decisions pertaining to the goals, activities, rewards and punishments of the learner.

Wedemeyer (1981:32-33; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):55; 1983(a):10; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:7) formulated six successive stages by which the pattern of the learner in the group underwent a gradual breakdown process. In these stages the spatial and temporal barriers to independent study were dissipated. The stages are:

- the invention of writing
- the invention of printing
- the invention of correspondence education
• development of democratic and egalitarian philosophies

• application of telecommunications media to teaching

• development of programmed-learning theory

This progression of developments afforded the opportunity to people cut off from regular schools to continue learning in increasing numbers. Wedemeyer referred to such programmes as 'independent study', 'open learning' and 'distance education'. In the 1960s Wedemeyer saw the re-emergence of the independent learner with a novel élan for independent programmes in areas where conventional group-based formal learning was less able to succeed in establishing itself.

3.4.2.2 INDEPENDENT STUDY

Wedemeyer devoted his energies in a determined effort to establish the term independent study as the circumjacent term for DE both in the USA and the world at large. In terms of the definition of independent study enunciated by Wedemeyer, as discussed in paragraph 3.3.9, the theory promulgated for independent study was inclusive for internal and external students in the context of the USA. For the internal students the process was reminiscent of the experimental American programmes of the mid-1970s. Internal students deemed to be exceptional were relieved of the need to attend lectures. They were allocated a series of readings and individual study programmes.

Keegan (1990(a):56; see also, Garrison, 1989:24; Rashid, 1992:36) observes that Wedemeyer's linking of internal and external programmes in a single definition detracts from his theoretical concept. Consequently, in later articles he desists from emphasizing internal independent study.

Wedemeyer's liberal educational theory and egalitarian social philosophy deprecated
the conventional educational system. His theoretical considerations of DE highlighted
the desiderata of the contemporary educational scenario across the educational
spectrum. Thus, Wedemeyer (1981:36; 1979:11; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):57;
1983(a):8; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:7; Holmberg, 1989(a):6-7), set out ten new
guidelines for instruction as a conceptual structure for an educational system
characterized by a liberal, individualizing, independent study which was
consanguineous to his thesis:

1. Instruction should be available any place where there are students - or even only
one student - whether or not there are teachers at the same place at the same
time.

2. Instruction should place greater responsibility for learning on the student.

3. The instructional plan or system should free faculty members from custodial type
duties so that more of the teacher's and learner's time can be devoted to truly
educational tasks.

4. The instructional system should offer learners wider choices (more opportunities)
in subjects, formats and methodologies.

5. The instructional system should use, as appropriate, all the teaching media and
methods that have proven to be effective.

6. The instructional system should mix and combine media and methods so that
each subject or unit within a subject is taught in the most effective manner.

7. The media and technology employed should be articulated in design and use so
that they reinforce each other as well as the structure of the subject matter and
teaching plan.
8. The system should preserve and enhance opportunities for adaptation to individual differences.

9. The instructional system should evaluate learner achievement not by raising barriers concerning the method or even the sequence in which the learner studies but instead by evaluating as directly as possible the achievement of learning goals.

10. The system should permit students to start, stop and learn at their own pace consistent with learner short and long range objectives, situations and characteristics.

Wedemeyer, thus, perceived instinctively that the only solution to break what he termed the space-time barriers of education was by separating teaching from learning. This meant that each activity had to be planned separately. From this standpoint Wedemeyer postulated six characteristics of the DE system that is capable of operation wherever there are students or even one student whether or not there are teachers at the same place at the same time.

These characteristics are outlined as follows:

- The learner and educator are separated.

- The normal processes of teaching and learning are carried on in writing or through some other medium.

- Teaching is individualized.

- Learning takes place through the student's activity.

- Learning is made convenient for the student in his own environment.
• The learners take responsibility for their progress with freedom to start and stop *ad libitum* and to pace themselves.


3.4.2.3 **THE TEACHING-LEARNING SITUATION**

Wedemeyer (1981:38; 1979:13; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):58; 1983(a):9), as part of his theory, argues that it is generally agreed that in any teaching-learning situation there are four essential elements:

• a teacher
• a learner or learners
• a communications system or mode
• something to be taught/learned

Wedemeyer further claims that a traditional classroom could be depicted as a box encompassing the four elements mentioned. This can be illustrated as follows:
ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS IN A TEACHING-LEARNING SITUATION

1. Teacher
2. Learner/s
3. Communications Mode
4. Curriculum


He elaborates even further that if the communications system is given either because it is the only system available or is a cultural artifact acting as an imperative then there are no options. In the words of Wedemeyer:

'... communication must be face-to-face, eyeball-to-eyeball, earpan-to-earpan speech'.

(Wedemeyer, 1981:38; 1979:13; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):59)

It becomes patently clear, then, in terms of Wedemeyer's premise, that a teaching-learning system that must work any place, any time, for one learner or many, directly confronts the space-time-elite barriers of the classroom model. The concept of distance, according to Wedemeyer (1981:39), involves more than merely physical distance. There are social distances, cultural distances and what has been called 'psychic' distances. All of these are present wherever teaching and learning are carried on.
However, Wedemeyer suggests that in order to achieve a teaching-learning system that can function at any place, any time, for one learner or many learners the classroom box represented in figure 3.6 must be restructured as shown in figure 3.7 below:

Figure 3.7  
A TEACHING-LEARNING MODEL TO ACCOMMODATE PHYSICAL DISTANCE

1. Teacher  
3. Communications

2. Learner

4. Teacher Content

MODE/MEDIA


While the four elements of the previous structure remain they have been reorganized to accommodate physical distance. This represents the teaching-learning process as advocated by Wedemeyer to accommodate the organization of instruction so that greater freedom in learning can be achieved at any time and any place in terms of the requirements of a single learner or many learners. In the light of the foregoing, Wedemeyer conceptualized freedom for learners in all DE programmes as:

- learning should be self-pacing in accordance with the circumstances and needs of the learner

- learning should be individualized and learners should be at liberty to follow any of the manifold courses of learning
the learner should enjoy the prerogative to select objectives and activities.

Understandably the theoretical basis of independent study as formulated by Wedemeyer emphasizing the theoretical propositions apropos freedom of the distance learner was criticized as being idealistic. His concept of 'Learning at the Back Door' (Wedemeyer, 1981) underpinned his theoretical perceptions of DE. However, the implementation of his ideas proved a Sisyphean task in many respects because of the status of DE in the USA in the 1970s and 1980s. Notwithstanding, as Keegan (1990(a):62) concludes, the personal dedication, generosity and liberal vision of Wedemeyer influenced many writers on DE and contributed immensely to the growth of a consensus amongst distance educators throughout the world. In praxiological terms this theory of independent study has profound relevance for teacher education as it has for other aspects of education.

3.4.3 Michael G Moore: Theory of Transactional Distance and Learner Autonomy

Michael G Moore, formerly of the University of Wisconsin at Madison, then of the UKOU and currently at the College of Education at Pennsylvania State University, has written widely on DE. In order to appreciate and comprehend fully as well as to relate the theory to this specific research, it is necessary to explore the theory of transactional distance and learner autonomy as propounded by Moore in some detail.

Keegan (1990(a):62) avers that Moore focuses on all forms of deliberate, planned and structured learning and teaching outside the school milieu, i.e., the classroom, lecture or seminar setting in which the teaching phenomena are both contemporaneous and coterminous with the occurrence of learning. DE, or as Moore describes it, independent learning and teaching, is an educational system in which the learner is autonomous and separated from the teacher spatially and temporally so that communication is by a non-human medium. The DE system according to Moore, has three sub-systems: a learner, a teacher and a method of communication (Keegan, 1990(a):63; 1983(a):12; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 200).

Moore (1983(a):75; 1972:77; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996 : 199) explains that in the formulation of his theoretical framework for DE there was a continuous interaction between conceptualization and data collected from more than 2000 items of literature pertaining to educational programmes in which learners were not in face-to-face relationship with teachers. It was from the concept of separation of learner and teacher that the concept distance, which was crucial in determining the selection of data for study, was established. This in turn provided the theoretical framework of transactional distance and learner autonomy.

The definition of DE by Moore, as indicated in paragraph 3.3.15.2.3, referred to communication by a variety of media. This led to the identification, *loco citato*, of two variables: individualization and dialogue. A programme was considered to be individualized to the extent to which a learner could control the pace at which he received information and of which he was compelled to respond. Dialogue in this context described the extent to which the media of a programme rendered it possible or impossible for a learner to interact with the teacher. Using the variables Moore ordered media as follows:
Moore (1983(a):76; 1973:674; see also, Keegan 1983(a):13) concluded that in a theory of DE, distance was not to be measured in physical terms, in kilometres or in minutes. Distance was conceived in terms of the extent to which a particular teaching-learning relationship was individual and dialogic.

In this regard, Keegan (1990(a):63) emphasizes the fact that the theoretical framework as propounded by Moore was also grounded in the belief that instruction can be considered as comprising two families of teaching activities: face-to-face or contiguous teaching and distance teaching. Within his concept of distance teaching Moore included, like Wedemeyer, on-campus independent study. Thus, Moore identified two clusters of educational offerings as critical components of his theory of independent study. These were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Reference</th>
<th>Distance of Learning and Teaching Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moore (1983(a)76; 1973:674; see also, Keegan 1983(a):13)</td>
<td>Highly Individualized:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly Individualized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Individualized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Most Distant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Least Distant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly Individualized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Individualized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Correspondence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Computer Assisted Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instruction Programmed In.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dial Access Tape Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Textbook</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3.8** DISTANT LEARNING AND TEACHING METHODS CLASSIFIED BY THE DIMENSIONS OF DISTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance of Learning and Teaching</th>
<th>Source: Moore (1983(a)76; 1973:674; see also, Keegan 1983(a):13)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly Individualized</td>
<td>Moore (1983(a):76; see also, Rashid, 1992:37;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• programmes designed for learners in environments apart from their instructors - distance teaching; and

• programmes designed for the encouragement of independent/self-directed learning - learner autonomy


3.4.3.1 THE CONCEPT OF TRANSACTIONAL DISTANCE

Moore identified the concept of separation of learner and teacher as the origin of the concept of distance in education. He regarded that phenomenon as being crucial for determining the selection of research data from which the theoretical frameworks in DE could be developed. Keegan (1990(a):64; 1983(a):13; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996:200) contends that basic to the theoretical stance adopted by Moore is that distance teaching programmes can be classified according to the distance between learner and teacher. Moore referred to this distance teaching also as telemathic teaching. He explains the etymology of the concept 'telemathic' meaning 'learning at a distance' as a word formed by combining the words 'tele' which means 'far off' and 'mathy' from the Greek 'mathien' connoting to learn (Moore, 1983(a):79; 1977:12-15; see also, Delling, 1976:19). Later, this concept of distance teaching was described by Moore (1993(a):22) as the theory of transactional distance. This concept came to describe the universe of teacher-learner relationships that exist when learners and instructors are separated by space and/or time.

Moore reinforces this idea by explaining that what makes a programme more distant or more telemathic than another is a function of two variables in the learner - teacher relationship which are the extent of dialogue in their communication and the extent of structure in the teaching programme (Moore, 1983(a):79-80; 1986:11; see also,

Moore asserts that dialogue is developed by teachers and learners in the course of the interactions that occur when one gives instruction and the others respond. Dialogue then is a two-way communication. Telemathic teaching or transactional distance requires the use of electronic, print or mechanical methods of communicating. These methods differ in the extent to which they permit two-way communication or dialogue between learners and teachers (Moore, 1983(a):80; 1993(a):23-25; 1990(c):10; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):64; 1983(a):13; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:8; Amundsen, 1993:63; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:201-202; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3):103; 1997(b)(1):21).

Structure is the extent to which the objectives, implementation procedures and resources and education design of a teaching programme are prepared or can be modified to satisfy specific objectives, implementation resources and procedures. This concept also incorporates the evaluation design of individual learning programmes (Moore, 1983(a):80; 1993(a):26-30; 1990(c):10-11; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):64; 1983(a):13; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:8; Amundsen, 1993:63; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:202-203; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3):103; 1997(b)(1):21).

Thus, in terms of the theory propounded by Moore, dialogue is a measure of the degree to which the communications medium in a telemathic or transactional distance programme permits learner-teacher interactions. Structure is the measure of the extent to which, whether there is dialogue or not, the programme will permit individual personal transactions between learner and educator. As Moore (1983(a):80; 1986:11; 1993(b):19-22) elucidates, it is a measure of the extent of the responsiveness of a teaching programme to the goals of an individual learner's programme.
In the light of the foregoing, Moore (1983(a):81; 1977:19) concludes that by using the variables of dialogue and structure, telemathic teaching programmes can be classified according to transactional distance between learner and teacher as illustrated in figure 3.9 below:

Figure 3.9  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Programme Types</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most</td>
<td>-D-S</td>
<td>1 Programmes with no dialogue and no structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td></td>
<td>Independent reading-study programmes of the &quot;self directed&quot; kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-D+S</td>
<td>2 Programmes with no dialogue but with structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+D+S</td>
<td>3 Programmes with dialogue and structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least</td>
<td>+D-S</td>
<td>4 Programmes with dialogue and no structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the figure 3.9 above, +D represents dialogue, +S structure, -D no dialogue, -S no structure. Consequently, the most distant programmes are the -D-S type and the least distant are +D-S type. These are the theoretical poles of transactional distance and structure and all the programmes fall between them. The variables by which transactional distance is defined are qualitative and programmes are deemed to be 'more' or 'less' distant. Thus, in terms of this theoretical construct a correspondence course, such as that for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers, is likely to be less distant than a programmed text since it is likely to be less structured and certainly more dialogic. However, wide-ranging variations in transactional distance
occur in correspondence programmes, some being more dialogic than others while some correspondence programmes are no more dialogic or unstructured than programmed instruction. Thus, the theory suggested by Moore in terms of dialogue and structure is directed towards classification of methods applied in educational programmes rather than classifying communications methods.

3.4.3.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEARNER AUTONOMY


'Autonomy is the extent to which the learner in an educational programme is able to determine the selection of objectives, resources and procedures, and the evaluation design.'


It becomes apparent from the theory expounded on the concept of learner autonomy that Moore is strongly humanistic and has been largely influenced by other theorists such as Wedemeyer, Rogers, Tough and Knowles amongst others (Keegan, 1990(a):65; see also, Moore, 1977:21-32; 1986:12-15). However, the synthesis of the theory of learner autonomy, *ad rem*, is that of Moore.

A general observation made by Moore is that learners both in schools and tertiary
institutions are very dependent on teachers for elucidation, guidance, questions and stimulation. He rationalizes that such an approach places more decision-making powers in the hands of the teacher than is acceptable to some adult education theorists who emphasize the desirability of having learners participate in the selection of objectives, planning instructional procedures and in evaluation.

In this regard, Moore refers to Maslow who claims that in the teaching process that assumes learner dependence, the teacher is the active one who teaches a passive person. The learner gets shaped and taught and may be given something which such learner then accumulates and may lose or retain. This kind of learning reflects the goals of the teacher and ignores the values and ends of the learner (Moore, 1977:21; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):66).

However, in the context of a programme the term learner autonomy, according to Moore, describes the extent to which in the learning-teaching relationship, it is the learner rather than the teacher who determines the objectives, the learning procedures and resources and the evaluation decisions of the learning programme. A fully autonomous learner, then, is a person who identifies a learning need when such a person discovers a problem to be solved, a skill to be acquired or requires information that he or she does not have. The learner is able to articulate the learning need in the form of a general goal.

This goal is differentiated in numerous more specific objectives, which are accompanied, more or less, explicitly by criteria of achievement. The autonomous learner implements the learning need by culling the requisite information according to his or her predilections, collects ideas, practices skills, works to resolve problems and ultimately achieves the goals set.

In the process of evaluation, the learners make judgments apropos the appropriateness of newly acquired skills, the adequacy of problem solutions, the quality of ideas and the knowledge acquired. The learner reaches conclusions, accepting or rejecting the
material and eventually comes to a decision as to whether the goals have been achieved or should they be abandoned (Moore, 1983(a):85; 1977:22).

Moore justifies the basis of learner autonomy as a necessary theoretical component of DE in terms of his analysis of the separation of teacher and learner in education at a distance. He argues that the autonomous learner is able to proceed without need for admonition and little need for direction. If highly autonomous the learner may have no personal relationship with the educator. On the other hand, if the learner has a personal teacher, the learner will be able to control the impact and significance of the teacher input in a realistic and unemotional way. To the highly autonomous learner the role of the teacher is perceived as that of respondent rather than director and the institution becomes a helping organization.

Obviously, there are some learners who require assistance in the formulation of their objectives, in identifying databases for information and in evaluating achievements. In other instances, there is a large number of students who are autonomous learners. They evince the abilities already mentioned with regard to abilities of self-stimulation, knowledge of strategies to attain their objectives and means of measuring achievement. As a result, it is expedient to measure the autonomy dimension of educational programmes.

Moore attempts to achieve this objective in terms of his theorizing that all teaching-learning processes have the following characteristic components:

- Establishment or preparatory activities whereby problems are identified, objectives stipulated and strategies determined.

- Executive activities in which data, information and ideas are designed, experiments and tests conducted in order to discover instructional solutions.
• Evaluatory activities which are characterized by instructional processes enabling evaluations about the appropriateness of the information and concepts for resolving problems and achieving the goals set.

(Keegan, 1990(a):67; see also, Moore, 1977:21-22)

In further explication of the concept of learner autonomy, Moore argues that in conventional education the institutional activities are totally under the purview of the teacher. In the case of teaching in terms of transactional distance the teacher merely prepares instructional materials to be utilized according to the predilection and the extent that the learner desires. The teacher is sanguine that his or her material will satisfy the cognitive and affective objectives established by learners and will be employed in their executive activities. In DE, whether or not the course material supplied is effectively used, remains outside the control of the DE teacher. The choice is dependent almost entirely on the quality and worth of the material as distant learners will accept only executive material that meets their goals.

Similarly, in evaluation, the teacher in conventional education invariably establishes both the criteria for successful learning and passes judgment on whether the criteria are satisfied. Where the goals of the teacher and learner are not congruous, the learner invariably tends to compromise through fear, apathy or courtesy and deference to the educator. Learner autonomy is heightened by distance and the learner is compelled by distance to assume a degree of autonomy that might be uncomfortable in other circumstances (Keegan, 1990(a):67).

In pursuance of his concept of learner autonomy, Moore (1983(a):87; see also, Keegan, 1992:80-81; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 105; 1997(b)(1) : 21) classified programmes according to the extent to which the learner can exercise autonomy in learning as an integral component of his theory. To arrive at this classification the following questions are asked:
- Is the selection of learning objectives in the programme that of the learner or the educator?

- Is the selection and use of resource persons, of books and other media the sequence and pacing of learning experiences the decision of the teacher or the learner?

- Are the decisions about the method for evaluation and criteria to be used made by the learner or the educator?

By applying these questions a typology of teaching programmes is generated as reflected in figure 3.10 below:

Figure 3.10

TYPES OF INDEPENDENT STUDY PROGRAMMES BY VARIABLE LEARNER AUTONOMY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective Setting</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A = Learner
| Determined
| ("Autonomous") |
| 1 | A | A | A |
| 2 | A | A | N |
| 3 | A | N | A |
| 4 | A | N | N |
| 5 | N | A | A |
| N = Teacher
| Determined
| ("Non-Autonomous") |
| 6 | N | N | A |
| 7 | N | A | N |
| 8 | N | N | N |


The programmes listed in the diagram, figure 3.10 above, are placed in a hierarchy ranging from 1 to 8 which represents the following characteristics:
1. Those giving the learner complete autonomy.

2. Those in which the learner's progress is judged by an external agent: teacher, institution or examining authority.

3. Those in which the learner identifies his/her problems and goals and evaluates his/her progress but in the course of information gathering is controlled (as is the case in programmed instruction).

4. The unusual programme type which gives the learner no control of the executive and evaluative processes once the problem and goals have been defined.

5. Also uncommon, the type in which execution and evaluation are learner controlled.

6. The most uncommon, the type in which the student evaluates without any control in preparation or execution.

7. By far the most common, those programmes in which the learner has some control over the executive process, but the goals are prescribed by the educator. The learner is evaluated by an external agency. The majority of school and tertiary institution independent study programmes fall into this category.

8. Finally, like AAA, NNN programmes, cannot exist in reality, since no learner is entirely free of the influence of others or entirely dependent on others. These are theoretical constructs which describe the bounds of reality.


Moore classified all educational programmes by his own variables of distance and
autonomy. This is in terms of the understanding that learner autonomy is the extent to which in an independent study programme the student determines the objectives, implementation strategies and evaluation and transactional distance connotes a combination of the availability of two-way communication plus the extent to which a programme is adaptable to the individuality of learners. Moore thus superimposes the figure 3.10 above on figure 3.11 below in such a manner that he can categorize all educational programmes so that they range from having the most independent to the least independent study.

Figure 3.11  
SUGGESTED TYPOLOGY OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES


In figure 3.11 as in figure 3.10 D represents dialogue and S represents structure. Programmes thus range from 1 - D - S which is a programme of high learner autonomy, very high distance to 8 + D - S, a programme where autonomy and distance are very low, so the learner is largely controlled by the educator. The former programme is a high independent study programme, the latter is low. Using this typology any educational programme can be described in terms of its learner autonomy, its transactional distance or telemathy and its nature of independent study in keeping with the theory of DE expounded by Moore (1983(a):89; 1977:32; see also, Keegan,
In the 1990s Moore (1993(a):34) extended his theory in DE to include teleconferencing technologies. He states that these technologies offer the opportunity of making an extremely significant modification of figures that were presented in the original theory of transactional distance.

In the original theory of transactional distance a series of graphical drawings depicted relationships between teachers and learners. This was based on Maccia's (1971) figure that showed a conventional classroom as one in which person A (the teacher) influences B, C, D (the students) and was represented as shown in figure 3.12 below:

Figure 3.12  **CONVENTIONAL TEACHING**

![Figure 3.12](image)

**SOURCE:** Moore (1993(a):34)

Adopting this principle a series of other figures were produced to depict distance teaching-learning relationships with some programmes having lines to show dialogue between educator and learners and others with only one-way communication from educators to learners. The sets of illustrations as shown in figures 3.13 and 3.14 represent forms of distance teaching before and after the introduction of teleconference media.
Figure 3.13  
**FORMS OF DISTANCE TEACHING BEFORE INTRODUCTION OF TELECONFERENCE MEDIA**

Telemathic teaching type + D + S (e.g. correspondence)

Telemathic teaching type - D + S (e.g. radio programme)

Telemathic teaching type + S - D (but less structured than Figure 2.1e - e.g. programmed text)

Telemathic teaching type + S + D (but less structured than Figure 2.1d - e.g. computer-assisted instruction)

Telemathic teaching type + D - S (e.g. tutorial)

Telemathic teaching type - D - S (e.g. textbook)

**SOURCE:** Moore (1993(a):35)
FORMS OF DISTANCE TEACHING AFTER INTRODUCTION OF
TELECONFERENCE MEDIA

SOURCE: Moore (1993(a):36)
These diagrams underscore the theory that in all forms of DE using such traditional media as correspondence or highly structured radio or television broadcasts or tapes, a bilateral relationship between the educator and distant learner is now transformed into a multilateral relationship that brings a vast array of dialogues between and among participants. Moore (1993(a):38) concludes with the hypothesis that in the hands of progressive educators teleconferencing provides opportunities not only to reduce the transactional distance but also to increase the autonomy of learners.

As Amundsen (1993:64) notes the theory of transactional distance and learner autonomy in terms of the varying degrees of dialogue, structure and learner autonomy has contributed to further theory development in DE by serving as the basis for other theoretical frameworks. At the same time, as is to be expected, many aspects of the arguments put forward by Moore have been subjected to much criticism. For example, Amundsen (1993:64) states that Keegan (1986) considers many aspects of Moore’s arguments on learner autonomy have not been well justified and Willén (1981, 1988) claims that the theory propounded by Moore is too general to explain the differences in learner motivation, ability and learning approaches. Notwithstanding, the theory of transactional distance and learner autonomy as propounded by Moore does make a profound contribution to the theoretical and conceptual framework of DE. The principles espoused by Moore with respect to dialogue, structure and transactional distance as well as the premise of learner autonomy have positive implications for DE as a strategy to improve and upgrade teacher qualifications in the South African context.

3.4.4 OTTO PETERS: THE THEORY OF THE INDUSTRIALIZATION OF DISTANCE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Otto Peters, as a theoretician for DE, contributed widely to early research work in DE in the early 1960s. He worked at the German Institute for Distance Education (DIFF) at Tübingen, then at the Berlin College of Education. In 1975 he assumed the position
as the founding Vice-Chancellor of the Fernuniversität in Hagen. In 1965 he published an authoritative, analytical and comparative survey of DE institutions at further educational level. However, his nitid locus classicus was his first theoretical analysis of DE published as a 45 page monograph: 'Distance education at universities and higher education institutions: didactical structure and comparative analysis - a contribution to the theory of distance teaching' (Keegan, 1994:107, see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 198; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 86). This was followed by another major contribution to the theory of DE dealing with: 'The didactical structure of distance teaching: Investigations towards an industrialized form of teaching and learning.' Upon the completion of his analytical and comparative analysis of DE systems he proceeded to develop a theoretical structure for the field of DE (Keegan, 1990(a):73; 1992:78). Peters (1994(2):107; 1983:95) claims:

'The more one attempts to grasp and explain the phenomenon of distance teaching, and especially the more one tries to identify the particular educational opportunities distinguishing this form of teaching from other forms of imparting academic knowledge, the clearer it becomes that the conventional range of educational terminology is not sufficiently comprehensive.'

In the light of this rationale he concluded that since DE could only be described and analyzed to a limited extent using traditional educational terms another basis for analysis was critical. For Peters the most fruitful model was the similarities existing between the industrial production of goods and the teaching-learning process in DE (Keegan, 1990(a):73-74; 1983(a):19; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:8; Holmberg, 1980:113; 1979:19; 1985(c):3; 24; 1982(f):319; Sewart, 1992:237; Hatar, 1987:26; Rashid, 1992:39; Raggatt, 1993:23; Lentell, 1995:121; Benson et al., 1991:45; Woodbridge and le Roux, 1996:22-23).
Peters (1994(2):108; 1983:96; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):74) postulates that industrialization is the manifestation of a new epoch in the development of man fundamentally different from all other epochs. It is without example in history, above all, because of the grassroots metamorphosis characterizing most spheres of human existence. He argues that academic teaching alone appears to have remained unscathed by industrialization with the exception of DE. He concludes that DE is remarkably consistent with the principles and tendencies of industrialization.

The main thrust of the theory of DE as propounded by Peters is that experimentally, structural elements, concepts and principles derived from the theories of industrial production are utilized to form the rationale and interpret the DE phenomenon. Peters advises, however, that this does not mean that the teaching and learning process are equated with processes in industrial production. The comparison, it is stressed, is purely heuristic (Peters, 1994(2):108; 1983:96; see also, Keegan, 1983(a):20; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:198-199). Further, Peters claims some basis for his comparative study from the fact that the production of learning materials for DE is in itself an industrialized process. In its didactic procedures and structure it differs radically from book production (Peters, 1994(2):109; 1983:97; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):74; 1983(a):20).

3.4.4.1 DIDACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The theoretical presentation of DE by Peters is predicated on a didactical analysis. In this presentation DE is analyzed as a distinct field of educational initiative and not as a teaching mode (Keegan, 1990(a):75; see also, Woodbridge and le Roux, 1996:22). The analysis by Peters in this regard is based on the structures proposed by Paul Heimann and Wolfgang Schultz, two German technologists who founded the Berlin School of Didactics referred to as the Hamburg model.
Heimann and Schultz claim that all teaching-learning processes can be analyzed in terms of six fundamental elements, namely, aims, content, methods, choice of medium, human prerequisites and socio-cultural prerequisites. Peters analyzes DE as Heimann and Schultz had analyzed education in general in terms of the six intrinsic structures of the educational process. He concluded that there were profound structural differences between DE and conventional education for all six of the essential characteristics (Keegan, 1990(a):75).

The conclusion by Peters is ineluctable. DE and conventional education have been shown to be essentially and epistemologically diverse on each of the six constituent elements of an educational process as defined by the most theoretical basis for dealing with instructional media familiar to German educational theorists (Keegan, 1990(a):76).

3.4.4.2 COMPARISON OF DISTANCE EDUCATION AND INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

In the comparison of DE with industrial production as the fundamental thesis of the theory of DE promulgated by Peters, he argues that such comparison between a form of teaching and processes from another sphere of life is legitimate and not without example in the history of educational theory. He cites antecedents in this regard as that of Amos Comenius, the founder and virtuoso of the methodology apropos parallel comparison in his Didactica Magna, of the art of teaching with the art of printing. Theodor Litt (1958) identified the nature of pedagogic thinking by comparing it with artistic creativity, technology and the process of growth. Approaches to a cybernetic pedagogy referred to by Frank (1965) in explaining teaching and learning processes using the technical model of the feedback control system was another example. The most impressive example was the achievement of Hausmann in 1959 when he attempted to condense the dramatic arts and education into a dramaturgy of teaching (Peters, 1994(2):108-109; 1983:96).
Thus, Peters presents a comparison of DE and the industrial production of goods in terms of the following considerations:

3.4.4.2.1 **RATIONALIZATION**

By rationalization Peters referred to all the methodical, rationally guided measures towards the purpose of achieving output with a comparatively lower input of power, time and money than in earlier situations (Peters, 1994(2):110; 1983:98; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:8). In education a rationalized way of thinking is nothing new. As a characteristic of DE the knowledge and skills of a teacher are transmitted to a theoretically unlimited number of students. This is achieved by the detached objectivity of a DE course of constant quality (Keegan, 1990(a):76; 1983(a):21-22).

3.4.4.2.2 **DIVISION OF LABOUR**

Peters maintains that just as the division of labour is a precondition for the mechanization of work process and for industrialization as a whole, it has made DE possible. The division of labour constitutes the prerequisite for the advantages of this new form of teaching to become effective. The principle of the division of labour is a constituent element of DE (Peters, 1994(2):113; 1983:100; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):76; 1983(a):22; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9). The complete work process is split in DE: transmission of information is usually divorced from counselling, tutoring and assessment procedures are quite often delegated to others especially when numbers of students are markedly high; registration and recording of the marks for assignments and examinations obtained by students are generally done by several people; the production of learning materials involves a whole range of persons from editors, instructional designers, layout experts, typesetters, printers, collators, binders and so on (Peters, 1994(2):113; 1983:100; see also, Keegan, 1983(a):22).
3.4.4.2.3 MECHANIZATION

Peters construes mechanization after Buckingham (1963) as the use of machines in a work process. These machines replace the work executed by the muscles of men or animals. In part it is argued that they even take over the elements of brain work. There are varying degrees of mechanization such as the pre-industrial era characterized by craftwork utilizing tools; the first level of industrialization using dependent machines; the second level of industrialization characterized by the spread of automation with automatic control or feedback. Peters, in extending this analogy to DE, asseverates that DE could be ascribed to the industrial levels as the strategy could not be implemented without the use of machines. Duplicating machines and transport systems are the *sine qua non* for DE. Subsequent forms of distance teaching employ additional facilities of modern means of communication and electronic data processing installations (Peters, 1994(2):114; 1983:101; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9). In contradistinction, when considering the framework of conventional study, the inexorable conclusion is that its forms of teaching belong to the pre-industrial level. Peters describes the educator in the face-to-face situation as being comparable to the craftsman using tools of education such as pictures, books, audio-visual aids without these effecting any metamorphosis in the structure of the teaching process to any considerable extent (Peters, 1994(2):114; 1983:101; Keegan, 1990(a):77).

3.4.4.2.4 ASSEMBLY LINE

The Fordist principle of the assembly-line in connection with the use of machines is evident in DE. The assembly-line theory suggests that the worker remains at his place of work while the workpieces travel past him. As Keegan (1990(a):77; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9; Farnes, 1993:10-20; Raggatt, 1993:21-23) attests to the fact, in DE the staff remain at their post but the teaching materials such as the manuscript, study guides and other tutorial materials pass from one area of responsibility to another. Peters (1994(2):114-115; 1983:102) adds that the study units
are printed on a large scale, stored, sent to the distant learner who completes the required work and returns it to the tutor. The tutor assesses the effort of the student and submits the mark to the administrator who maintains the requisite records.

3.4.4.2.5 **MASS PRODUCTION**

Peters (1994(2):115; 1983:102) observes that the traditional forms of academic teaching originally envisaged small groups of learners. Application of methods designed for small groups to larger groups of learners, for example, using a loudspeaker in a lecture room, may be represented as a grotesque travesty of the fundamental educational concept of face-to-face tuition. On the other hand, distance teaching copes confidently with mass production, which, *inter alia*, from the perspective of economies of scale is critical to DE (Peters, 1994(2):116; 1983:103; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):77; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9).

3.4.4.2.6 **PLANNING AND PREPARATION**

Peters (1994(2):117; 1983:103) states:

'An essential element of preparation is planning, which needs to be far more comprehensive and detailed in the industrial manufacturing process than in manual production, as it requires the coordination of many interacting factors.'

Similarly, in DE, Peters contends, particularly in the developmental phase, planning and preparation are key elements. The contents and methodology of DE courses, *ab initio*, must be integrated, systematized and structured in detail. This suggests effective and efficient planning. Intervention by advisers, tutors and others during the course of the
DE study is regarded as contingency planning which supplements effective and efficient planning.

3.4.4.2.7 ORGANIZATION

Planning largely concerned itself with the organization of the production cycle. Peters (1994(2):118; 1983:105; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9) stresses the point that as a consequence of the division of labour, the production process has to be rationally ordered in congruence with organizational principles and with specially developed organizational means. It is virtually axiomatic that the continuous interacting of numerous people oriented towards the achievement of specific objectives requires structured and meticulous organization. Further, productivity is dependent upon the type and degree of organization.

Thus, Peters (1994(2):118; 1983:105) explains, that in DE likewise, there is an immediate homology between the effectiveness of the teaching method and rational organization. Organization, moreover, becomes easier in large DE institutions as trained personnel and modern strategies of organization are available. Consequently, the organization of DE can be adequately supplemented with further improvisation and disposition.

3.4.4.2.8 SCIENTIFIC CONTROL METHODS

Currently the tenets of scientific management have made a gradual breakthrough. In terms of these principles work processes are systematically analyzed. Time studies are executed and in relation to the outcomes of the measurements and empirical data work processes are tested and controlled in their elementary details in a planned manner. The fundamental goal is to increase productivity continually with respect to working time and available staff. This strategic planning is described as the application of scientific
engineering techniques to management.

Peters (1994(2):119; 1983:105-106; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9) declares that DE exhibits a close similitude with regard to such scientific control methods. For example, some DE institutions engage the services of experts to analyze the success of their courses.

This includes a consideration, inter alia, of the reaction of DE learners to the DE course. Strategies for the improvement of the effectiveness of such courses for the whole coterie of learners involved are also considered.

3.4.4.2.9 FORMALIZATION

It is generally accepted that there is a much greater need to predetermine the various phases formally in the manufacturing process than in manual production. This is due primarily to the high degree of mechanization and the division of labour in the case of the manufacturing process. It is important to note that it is the emphasis on formality that renders the co-operation of all those involved in the production process possible since each sector has to rely on previous work being completed according to plan. In the industrialization process, then, activities and interactions are executed strictly in accordance with established rules.

In DE, similarly, all the points in the circle ranging from learners to the DE institutions, including the academics responsible for the course materials, must be determined precisely. Communication is standardized by the use of prescribed forms and explicitly stated guidelines (Peters, 1994(2):120; 1983:106; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:9-10).
3.4.4.2.10 **STANDARDIZATION**

A universally applied principle in industry is that the production situation involving the division of labour and high technology in the manufacturing process is limited to a number of types of one product. This strategy of the industrialization process is oriented to ensure that the product is more suitable for its purpose, that it can be produced more economically and could be replaced with the utmost and uncomplicated facility.

In like manner, DE necessitates the providing institution to adopt a greater degree of standardization than is required in conventional face-to-face teaching. Peters (1994(2):121; 1983:106-107; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:10; Keegan, 1990(a):77) reasons that in the conventional lecture the educator may deem it expedient to deviate, *ex tempore*, from the main theme of his/her delivery because he or she may perceive certain pedagogic advantages for such learners in his or her presence. The DE academic, on the other hand, cannot succumb to an impromptu situation - dependent improvisation because of the number and the diaspora of the learners for whom such an academic has prepared the necessary course materials. The DE academic is constrained in this regard by the predetermined parameters and objective requirements of the total course profile. The theoretical *raison d'être* for the standardization of DE is conceived in the argument that just as the production of a branded article can only remain economical if its quality is continuously adapted to the demanding needs of the clientele for whom it is manufactured, so too must the DE institution, *mutatis mutandis*, standardize the academic courses in such a manner that it is appealing to all the DE learners as equally as possible.

3.4.4.2.11 **CHANGE OF FUNCTION**

Again, Peters (1994(2):121; 1983:107-108; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:10) alludes to the fact that owing to the division of labour and the exploitation of various types of machinery, the role function of the worker in the production process has
been transformed considerably. Industrialization resulted in the transmutation of the pre-industrial era craftsman from being a general factotum into a specialist with a more marked functional differentiation and having to satisfy qualitative criteria.

In like manner, then, the functional role of the academic in DE has also changed. The original role of provider of knowledge in the form of educator is divided into that of course unit author and that of assessor. A plethora of other personnel become responsible for different aspects of the course. Thus, for example, those who become counsellors or tutors do not have to convey course matter. They can devote themselves to the task of aiding motivation, providing individual support, structuring course contents for learners, identifying problems, establishing contacts and so forth. Loss of function in one respect is compensated for by a gain in a more specialized role function for the attainment of quality in DE.

3.4.4.2.12 OBJECTIFICATION

With industrialization the production process is greatly governed by machines and organizational principles. This tends to make such a process rigid and it loses its subjective element which characterized the work of craftsmen in the pre-industrial period. The genesis of such a process was embedded in substitution of natural tools manufactured from the environment. Peters (1994(2):122; 1983:108; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:10) avers that objectification was not possible until the item to be objectified had become the subject of reflection. In the industrialization process it is patently clear that with the evolution of the degree of sophistication reaching the acme of automated production a remarkably high degree of objectification has been achieved.

Germane to education, the relationship between DE and conventional education is similar to industrial production and mechanical fabrication. The educator in a face-to-face milieu enjoys the liberty and opportunity to allow his subjectivity to influence his
teaching. He or she has *carte blanche* with respect to the intensity of preparation, determining the cognitive and affective objectives as well as the critical and specific outcomes and methodology. The educator can, if so deemed necessary, amend these during face-to-face teaching.

In DE most teaching functions by necessity are objectified. They are determined by the nature and scope of the DE course as well as the availability of technical means. The objectification of DE courses enjoys the advantage that the teaching process can then be reproduced making it available at any time. Further, such courses can be manipulated for purposes of amelioration. Without objectification DE study courses would be seriously limited with respect to location, time and continuous improvement.

### 3.4.4.2.13 CONCENTRATION AND CENTRALIZATION

The investment that is essential for the purpose of mechanized mass production involving the division of labour has inevitably led to the establishment of large industrial concerns with a concentration of capital, a frequently centralized administration and a market that is not seldom monopolized. In a similar manner it is significant that some DE institutions cater for a very large number of learners. For example, UNISA and the UKOU have more than 100 000 students each catering for the national demand for DE. It is reasonable to assume that a minimum number of students is necessary to make the technical installations and the establishment of an efficient organization economically viable. Thus, it is prudent to create a large central DE establishment rather than a number of smaller regional institutions (Peters, 1994(2):124; 1983:110; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:10; Keegan, 1990(a):77).

The parallel between DE and industrial enterprise with respect to concentration and centralization is remarkably close. Centralized DE institutions cross the traditional areas of responsibility of other teaching institutions and ultimately monopoly-like prestige positions in teaching activity are created for leading experts in various

3.4.4.3 EPILOGUE: DISTANCE EDUCATION AND POST-INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

Understandably, the theory of the industrialization of distance teaching and learning as propounded by Peters became the subject of much debate and criticism. Some, like Bååth (1980:23), Ortner (1992:4) and Ljosa (1993:184) express admiration for the analysis advanced by Peters as one of the few fundamental contributions to the theory of DE. Others, like Daniel (1993:54) dubbed the concept of DE as an industrial form of education as controversial and expressed the view that those who were unsympathetic to mass education outside the classroom would consider such a concept as an oxymoron.

However, Peters acknowledged the fact that theories are like icebergs where only one part of the visible tip becomes known whereas the submerged nine-tenths remain invisible (Peters, 1994(6):195; 1989:3). Consequently, numerous misunderstandings of the theory by Peters ensued. Mackintosh (1997(a)(3): 88) contends that Peters's work is often misinterpreted and he is criticized for reducing the complexity, dynamic and social nature of education to a factory process. In a detailed article Peters responded positively and most articulately to such misunderstandings (Peters, 1994(6):195-209; 1989:3-8). He concluded that the allusions and more extensive reactions to his theoretical and conceptual framework for DE in the literature, both affirmative and controversial, indicated that the noetic debate surrounding DE as an industrialized form of teaching and learning remains profound.

Further, Peters declares that DE in its current form is a product of the industrial society. DE as an educational option has been successful because it is compatible with the
organization, principles, values and Zeitgeist of the present industrial milieu. Peters subsequently adopted the same ratiocination in describing how DE must now transform itself to match the developments in our industrial society as we enter the post-industrial or post-modern era of the incunabulum of the twenty-first century (Amundsen, 1993:62).

Peters (1994(8):220-240; 1993(a):39-58; 1992:32) discussed the relationship of DE in a post-industrial society in terms of the characteristic features of post-industrial societal development and post-modern value changes with respect to the growing service sector, new technology, changing decision-making structure and concomitant consequences on organization and management. Peters still holds the view that having dealt with the principles and trends of both the industrial and post-industrial period DE remains basically an industrialized form of teaching and learning. Nonetheless, Peters concedes that when post-industrial models of DE are discussed and developed in the years to come, it will be helpful to have theoretical guidelines at hand and to know about the theoretical underpinnings of the anticipated metamorphosis and design of new models of DE. Peters (1994(8):239; 1993(a):57) is of the opinion that:

'This means that the shift from industrial to post-industrial distance education will be a Copernican one. Slight and superficial alterations will certainly not do.'

At any rate the application of Peters's DE model of industrialized form of teaching and learning in the context of using DE as an educational strategy for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers in South Africa is significant. As much of the courses on offer for teacher qualification improvement and upgrading rely heavily on the print medium industrial process parallels as described by Peters remain applicable.

3.4.5 **JOHN A BÅÄTH: THEORY OF TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION**

John A Bååth worked for many years for Hermods at Malmö. His work benefits
tremendously from a knowledge of the literature of DE in the Scandinavian languages, English, German and French. According to Keegan (1990(a):85; 1983(a):32), Bååth was involved in the 1970s in the postulation of a theory for DE predicated on the concept of two-way communication in correspondence education. Although Bååth did not claim to be the originator of the concept, nonetheless, he made a profound theoretical and empirical contribution towards establishing this strategy as a major defining feature of DE systems today.

As part of his theoretical and conceptual framework he relates modern education research to DE. Bååth believes that the theory of DE could be developed by applying a number of contemporary teaching models (Bååth, 1979:8; 1982(a):353; 1982(b):13; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):85; 1983(a):33; Holmberg, 1983(1):2-3). In his publication Bååth (1979) dealt with teaching models and their application to DE extensively. This *magnum opus* considered the details of the teaching models as follows:

- Skinner's behaviour control model
- Rothkopf's model for written instruction
- Ausubel's advance organizer model
- Egan's structural communication model
- Bruner's discovery learning model
- Rogers' model for facilitation of learning
- Gagné's general teaching model

Bââth commenced by explaining that the concept of the teaching model was used with reference to the various attempts not only to describe how teaching is actually implemented but also, and above all, broadly to prescribe how good teaching should be designed (Bââth, 1979:11). He explained his choice of these models in terms of their importance to teaching practice and/or educational research, their suitability for DE and the fact that they covered a broad spectrum of contemporary views on learning and on how teaching should be designed as illustrated below:

Figure 3.15  
THEORETICAL CONCEPTIONS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL</th>
<th>CONCEPTION OF LEARNING</th>
<th>CONCEPTION OF TEACHING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skinner's</td>
<td>Extreme behaviourism</td>
<td>Very strict control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rothkopf's</td>
<td>Moderate behaviourism</td>
<td>Rather strict control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ausubel's</td>
<td>Moderate cognitivism</td>
<td>Rather strict control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egan's</td>
<td>Pronounced cognitivism</td>
<td>Moderate control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruner's</td>
<td>Strict cognitivism</td>
<td>Mild control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogers'</td>
<td>Strict cognitivism,</td>
<td>&quot;Freedom to learn&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gagné's</td>
<td>Tries to integrate ideas from</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>most of the other models into</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>his own</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Bââth (1979:13; 1982(b):14)

In dealing with these models as the basis of his theory of two-way communication in DE Bââth followed the pattern of elucidating the view of teaching and learning in the case of each model and then considered the application of these models to DE in terms of two-way communication. The analysis of the teaching models with respect to two-way communication is presented in figure 3.16 below.
Figure 3.16 **ANALYSIS OF TEACHING MODELS BY BAÅTH**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL</th>
<th>TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B F Skinner's behaviour control model</td>
<td>Checking students' achievements; individualizing functions; assess students' starting level; consider special abilities; previous reinforcement patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Z Rothkopf's model for written instruction</td>
<td>Helping students get started</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D P Ausubel's advance organisers model</td>
<td>Determine each student's previous knowledge and cognitive structure; promote positive transfer to subsequent parts of course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K Egan's model for structural communication</td>
<td>Individually devised discussion comments and 'reverse' assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J Bruner's discovery learning model</td>
<td>Provide individually adapted help; stimulate students' discovery of knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Rogers' model for facilitation of learning</td>
<td>Check 'open' assignments for submission; dialogue with each individual student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R M Gagné's general teaching model</td>
<td>Activating motivation; stimulating recall; providing learner guidance; providing feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Keegan (1990(a):85)

This analysis of DE in the light of the contemporary teaching models provides the following two generalized conclusions:

- Models with stricter control of learning towards fixed goals tend to imply, in DE, a greater emphasis on the teaching material than on the two-way communication between student and tutor/institution.

- Models with less control of learning towards fixed goals tend to make simultaneous communication between student and tutor/institution more desirable, this communication taking the form of either face-to-face or telephone contacts.
Referring to the models of learning and teaching as suggested by Bååth, Holmberg (1985(c):20; 1979:19; 1989(a):148; 1991(a)(2):31-32; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):86) comments about their general applicability to DE and the implications for the development of course materials, for non-contiguous two-way communication and for supplementing of this two-way communication by face-to-face contacts as follows:

- All the models investigated are applicable to DE.
- Some of them such as those propounded by Skinner, Gagné, Rothkopf, Ausubel and Egan seem particularly adaptable to DE in its fairly strictly structured form.
- The models formulated by Bruner and Rogers would require some special adaptation. For example, with regard to simultaneous, non-contiguous communication a telephone becomes essential.
- Demands on DE systems which would act as a positive catalyst in inspiring new developments can be inferred from the learning and teaching models postulated by Bååth.

Thus, as Rashid (1992:42) asserts, Bååth placed the concept of two-way communication as being central to the process of DE. The distance tutor is also pivotal in terms of the concept as enunciated by Bååth.

Later Bååth (1980) added empirical analysis of two-way communication to the theoretical analysis of his learning and teaching models. Following the aphorism of Kant's philosophy that 'perceptions without concepts are blind', he attempted to make data collected in his research intelligible by relating the problems and results of empirical study to concepts and principles of general didactics as well as to specific theoretical approaches to correspondence education.
In his experience as a senior tutor in DE at Liber Hermods he discovered that a major problem area in DE at the time was the two-way communication by mail between learner and tutor. The two-way communication was normally induced by assignments for submission which the learner had to work out to get his solutions corrected and commented on by the correspondence tutor. Various ways to improve and/or simplify the two-way communication between the learner and educator were investigated in the research project (Bååth, 1980:11; see also, Holmberg, 1980:112).

The theoretical analysis dealt with the undermentioned problems:

- The submission density of assignments in DE to determine the impact of the frequency of assignment submission to two-way communication.

- The quantity of assignment questions per submission to consider the implications of replacing a substantial number of assignment questions intended for submission by self-check exercises within the course materials.

- The type of two-way communication by mail and to evaluate whether using multiple-choice questions, computer - processing of students' answers and computer-printed tutorial comment letters work as well as the traditional postal two-way communication.

(Bååth, 1980:11; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):86)

The synergy of personal experience and theoretical and empirical investigation led Bååth to focus on his theory of two-way communication as key to the DE process and the DE academic as the nub of his concept. He attests to the fact from his empirical analysis that due to their study situation distant learners need special help with the commencement of their studies as well as their study motivation. Therefore, the most important function of the tutor goes beyond merely correction of errors and assessment
of the progress of students. Stimulating, supporting and strengthening the study motivation of students is crucial to the function of the tutor in two-way communication in DE (Bååth, 1982(b):24; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):87).

Relating this role of the tutor to his teaching and learning models, he suggested that the probable highway to efficacious implementation of the theory of two-way communication could be achieved if the tutor attempts to:

- individualize his or her tuition with regard to the students' previous 'reinforcement patterns' as suggested by Skinner
- facilitate the students' 'mathemagenic activities' in keeping with Rothkopf's model
- anchor the material of the first study units in the students' individual previous knowledge and 'cognitive structure' as proposed by Ausubel
- get an idea of the students' comprehension of the basic concepts and principles of the course as theorized by Bruner
- establish a good relationship with the learners as conceptualized by Rogers

(Bååth, 1980:144-145; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):87)

The theory of two-way communication and adaptation of the teaching-learning models of Skinner, Rothkopf, Ausubel, Egan, Bruner, Rogers and Gagné have a unique significance as the cynosure of the strategy of DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers. As educators, the knowledge acquired by teachers must of necessity be implementable at the chalkface. The concept of two-way communication and the various teaching-learning models constitute a prime catalyst for the attainment
focuses little effort on the analysis of the structure of DE. He emphasizes, rather, the interpersonalization of the teaching process at a distance.

Holmberg considers DE to be particularly suitable for individual learning. This is because it is usually based on personal study by individual students more or less independent from the direct guidance of tutors (Keegan, 1990(a):88; see also, Amundsen, 1993:65).


Holmberg considered this systematization as the most favourable to influence the attitudes of students and their achievements. The more a student is dependent on guidance, support and encouragement, the greater will be the impact of guided didactic conversation.

In elucidating this theory, Holmberg (1983(2):115; see also, Ljosa, 1993:183; Ortner, 1992:2) contends that the character of good DE resembles that of a guided conversation
aiming at learning and that the presence of the typical traits of such a conversation facilitates learning. The DE course and the non-contiguous communication typical of DE are seen as the instruments of a conversation-like interaction between the learner on the one hand and the academic of the DE organization administering the course on the other. There is constant interaction or conversation between the supporting organization simulated through the interaction of the student with the pre-produced courses and real conversation through the written and/or telephone interaction with their tutors and counsellors.

Thus, conversation is both real and simulated (Holmberg, 1985(c):3; 1982(f):320; 1977:95; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 116). The simulated conversation is described as internalized conversation engaged in by the study of a text. It is also a relationship between the course developers and the students created by an easily readable and reasonably colloquial style of presentation and personal atmosphere of the course, superficially characterized by the author(s) referring to 'himself/herself/themselves' as 'I' or 'we' respectively and the learners being addressed as 'you'.

The concept of guided didactic conversation as postulated by Holmberg can be illustrated as follows:

1. That feeling of personal relation between the teaching and learning parties promote study pleasure and motivation.

2. That such feelings can be fostered by well-developed self-instructional material and two-way communication at a distance.

3. That intellectual pleasure and study motivation are favourable to the attainment of study goals and the use of proper study processes and methods.
4. That the atmosphere, language and conventions of friendly conversation favour feelings of personal relation according to postulate 1.

5. That messages given and received in conversational forms are comparatively easily understood and remembered.

6. That the conversation concept can be successfully translated for use by the media available to distance education.

7. That planning and guiding the work, whether provided by the teaching organization or the student, are necessary for organized study, which is characterized by explicit or implicit goal conceptions.

In this regard Holmberg (1983(2):116) states:

'A basic general assumption is that real learning is primarily an individual activity and is attained only through an internalizing process. This is, in my view, to be regarded as a background theory on which distance education is based. It leads us to a study of how this individual learning can be supported and facilitated.'

Consequently, Holmberg (1989(a):45-46; 162-165) in the light of his theory formulation for DE based on motivated deep learning as an individual activity, feelings of empathy and epitomizing theory presentation, postulated various hypotheses concerning distance learning, distance teaching and organization and administration. DE course materials developed in terms of the theory of guided didactic conversation by Holmberg would present the following characteristics:
• Easily accessible presentations of study matter: clear, somewhat colloquial language, in writing easily readable; moderate density of information.

• Explicit advice and suggestions to the student as to what to do and what to avoid, what to pay particular attention to and consider, with reasons provided.

• Invitations to an exchange of views, to questions, to judgments of what is to be accepted and what is to be rejected.

• Attempts to involve the student emotionally so that he or she takes a personal interest in the subject and its problems.

• Personal style including the use of the personal and possessive pronouns.

• Demarcation of changes of themes through explicit statements, typographical means or, in recorded, spoken communication, through a change of speakers, e.g., male followed by female, or through pauses. (This is a characteristic of the guidance rather than of the conversation).


Holmberg (1983(2):117) concludes that a DE course presentation based on the principles of his theory of guided didactic conversation in the sense described is assumed to be attractive to students, supports study motivation and facilitates learning. He explains as follows:
'I assume that if a distance-study course consistently represents a communication process felt to have the character of a conversation, then the students will be more motivated and more successful than if the course studied has an impersonal textbook character.'

(Holmberg, 1985(c):27)

Certainly, as Keegan (1990(a):91; 1992:82) suggests the contribution by Holmberg to the field of DE is extensive. The development of a coherent theory for DE in terms of a guided didactic conversation has been beneficial to practitioners in DE. Irrefragably, in the case of preparation of course materials for DE programmes for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers, this rationalization is just as critical as it would be for an array of other DE programmes. Holmberg has contributed most positively to making distance learning materials now a decidedly different genre from textbooks. Moreover, Amundsen (1993:66) declares that the theory propounded by Holmberg proved to be the springboard for a number of studies which have investigated various aspects of personal contacts and non-contiguous, two-way communication in the DE process.

3.4.7 DAVID SEWART: THEORY OF CONTINUITY OF CONCERN

David Sewart is currently the Director, Regional Academic Services at UKOU in Milton Keynes. His theory of DE is related to a continuity of concern in a system of learning at a distance. He propounds the view that while DE has proliferated in both developing and developed countries very little work has been done on planning distance teaching within the framework of student learning (Sewart, 1978:1).

The basis of his theory is concerned to a large extent with the counselling function. He believes that in DE tuition the marking and commenting on assignments is the sine qua
non of the tutorial function. In some cases it will comprise the sole element of this function. This obviously is related solely to the academic content of the course. The counselling function embraces all the other areas in which the DE institution and the student interact (Sewart, 1978:13; see also, Rashid, 1992:46; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3):121).

Sewart (1983(1):50) expresses concern over the limitations of the DE course package with respect to its intermediary role. He believes that the package of materials in a DE system can hardly perform all the functions of the educator in a face-to-face situation. In further explication he underscores the fact that should one posit the hypothetical existence of a DE package that would satisfy all aspects of advice and support the cost of production and delivery would render it impractical (Sewart, 1983(1):50; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):95; 1983(a):35).

Consequently, a parallel is drawn with other organizations where intermediaries are appointed to bridge the gap between the individual and the institution. So too in DE an intermediary is necessary between the individual learner and the DE teaching package. This is illustrated in figure 3.18 below:

**Figure 3.18  ROLE OF THE INTERMEDIARY: SEWART**

![Figure 3.18](source: Keegan (1990(a):95))
The intermediary in each case is employed by the institution but works for the benefit of the individuals in the system. The intermediary is responsible for the individualization of the problems when confronted by the bureaucracy.

Thus, the underlying theme in the theory proposed by Sewart is that continuity of concern delineates the emphasis on the needs of students learning at a distance. An interactive mode in DE is quintessential and cannot be supplied wholly by the DE course materials however well developed they may be. He contends that failure to recognize this phenomenon had resulted in the lack of a parity of esteem for DE until recently (Keegan, 1990(a):95; 1983(a):36).

In support of his theory Sewart distinguishes between the conventional student and the DE learner. He maintains that the conventional students in consolidating the academic pabulum of their chosen study exist within a highly artificial and wholly supportive framework. For most of them, their study is merely an additional echelon in an unbroken linear development which was initiated when they were infants.

The DE learner is different. There are varying situations. Some learners are returning to study after a number of years. Others are studying on a part time basis, and so on. The process of DE is generically different to the conventional mode. The rapid feedback available from the traditional model is almost entirely absent. The supportive milieu of the peer group is lacking. Consequently, the benchmark of achievement and the maintenance of individual confidence is complex to establish (Sewart, 1983(1):51; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):96).

Sewart provides through his theory of continuity of concern an effective counterbalance to those who perceive DE simply as a materials production process. He argues that continuity of concern of the institution providing DE courses for quality of learner support will undoubtedly encourage higher completion rates of courses by DE students. Certainly, in the South African context this theory is of especial importance for the strategy of DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers. As will be
seen later, the majority of teachers are from the disadvantaged communities. The legacy of apartheid and its impact on education are still with us in many respects. Thus, the application of the theory of continuity of concern to the programmes designed to upgrade and improve qualifications of teachers will go a long way in ameliorating the desiderata that still exist and to promote a more enthusiastic and dedicated response from the teachers enrolled for the various courses.

3.4.8 DESMOND KEEGAN: A THEORY OF THE REINTEGRATION OF THE TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTS

Desmond Keegan enjoyed a varying career in DE in many parts of the world. He was Head of the School of General Studies at the Open College of Further Education in Adelaide in 1976. He held various other posts since then in several countries. In 1995 he became the managing director of Distance Education International Limited in Dublin.

Keegan provides a conceptual and logical analysis of DE as a prerequisite for theory formulation. He does so in the belief that clarity of DE is improved by such analyses (Keegan, 1993(b)(3):113-123; 1990(a):107-109; see also, Woodbridge and le Roux, 1996:25-26). Further, he suggests that the theoretician in DE needs to ask three important questions:

Firstly, is DE an educational activity? There have been occasional suggestions that DE does not contain any teaching function and, therefore, should not be classed as an educational activity. Moreover, it is suggested that some DE institutions display characteristics of business rather than of educational institutions and as such are oriented largely to production of financial profit. Keegan (1990(a):106; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:12; Amundsen, 1993:66), however, concludes that despite these characteristics his considered opinion is that the theoretical underpinnings of DE are to be found within general education theory.
Secondly, is DE a form of conventional education?

Keegan responds to this question by looking at organized formal education in terms of face-to-face interpersonal communication which is oral and group-based. The education imparted by such means depends on the availability of educators at appropriate pupil to teacher ratios in suitable physical infrastructure. However, with respect to DE, Keegan (1990(a):106; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:12; Amundsen, 1993:66) reinforces the contention that the basis for a theory of DE is to be found in general education theory but not within the theoretical structures of oral, group-based education.

Thirdly, is DE possible? Is it a contradiction in terms?

Keegan (1990(a):107; see also, Woodbridge and le Roux, 1996:25) refers to the theoretical framework for DE set by Otto Peters where the central theme in the study of DE was the justification of the abandonment of interpersonal, face-to-face communication previously deemed a cultural imperative for education in all civilizations. DE constitutes a fundamental break with the educational traditions of most cultures.

Keegan (1990(a):109; 1991:42) concludes that concepts of education process propounded by many theorists underscore the teaching-learning relationship as one of intersubjectivity and group experiences in which much is learned by association with those who have the qualities to be learned. In DE, however, the teaching acts are separated in time and place from the learning. Thus, by implication DE cannot be construed as a contradiction in terms and DE is possible because teaching and learning constitute the day-to-day reality in a DE system (Keegan, 1990(a):109).

In the light of the foregoing, Keegan (1993(b)(3):130; 1990(a):110; 1990(b):329; 1992:83) believes that the theoretical justification for DE is to be found in the attempt to reintegrate the act of teaching and two-way communication which is divided by the nature of DE. The intersubjectivity of teacher and learner in which learning from
teaching occurs has to be artificially recreated. Over space and time a DE system strives to re-construct the moment in which the teaching-learning interaction takes place. The linking of learning materials to learning is central to this process. It is represented diagrammatically as follows:

Figure 3.19 RELATIONSHIP OF LEARNING MATERIALS TO LEARNING IN A DISTANCE EDUCATION SYSTEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Materials</th>
<th>Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• developed</td>
<td>• quantity of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• purchased by the institution</td>
<td>• quality of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• status of learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The focus is on the teaching acts because learning, even institutional learning, can occur at any place. Keegan (1993(b)(3):131) believes strongly that a theoretical structure for DE focusing on the reintegration of the teaching acts by which learning is linked to learning materials is significant. This will contribute in some measure towards compensating for the lack of eye-to-eye contact in terms of the Platonic model referred to by Wedemeyer (1981:32) and which is deemed critical in education.

Keegan (1990(a):111; 1990(b): 330; 1993(b)(3):131; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:13; Amundsen, 1993:67) suggests that the reintegration of the teaching act is attempted in DE systems in two ways. Firstly, the learning materials, both print and non-print, should be designed to achieve as many of the characteristics of interpersonal communication as possible. Various suggestions incorporate easily readable style, anticipation of students' problems, careful structuring of content, self-testing questions, instructional objectives, inserted questions, model answers,
typographical considerations such as design, diagrams and drawings. In print, audio-visual, video and computer packages and laboratory kits, authors should attempt to simulate the intersubjectivity of the classroom, tutorial or lecture.

Secondly, when the courses are being presented the reintegration of the teaching act is attempted by several strategies. These include communication by correspondence, telephone tutorials, on-line computer communication comments on assignments by tutors or computers, teleconferences, video-conferences and computer-conferences.

In addition, some institutions arrange for personal contact sessions. They provide for optional or compulsory seminars, weekend meetings or face-to-face residential summer schools. Thus, Keegan (1990(a):112; 1990(b):330) affirms that DE institutions are not merely institutions for developing learning materials. In terms of his theoretical and conceptual framework for DE he conceives DE institutions as a component of the educational stratum which seeks to re-integrate the structure of teaching by providing a complete learning package that is consanguineous with the provision of conventional educational institutions from pre-enrolment counselling to examination and accreditation. DE institutions attempt to provide contemporaneously learning packages and a varied but rich structure of student support in terms of the theory of continuity of concern as mooted by Sewart to aid the students during their period of enrolment and study.

Keegan (1990(a):114; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:13) advances the opinion apropos his theoretical basis for DE that the process of reintegration of the act of teaching in DE brings in its wake a concatenation of changes to the normal structures of oral, group-based education. A compendium of the most important aspects are:

- the industrialization of institutional learning
- change of administrative structure
the privatization of institutional learning

different plant and buildings

changes of costing structure

In conclusion, Keegan (1990(a):113; 1990(b):331; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:13; Amundsen, 1993:67) enunciates three hypothetical positions in support of his theory of the reintegration of the teaching and learning acts. These can be adumbrated as follows:

- DE students exhibit a propensity to drop-out in those institutions in which structures for the reintegration of the teaching acts are not satisfactorily achieved.

- DE students experience difficulty in achieving quality of learning in those institutions in which structures for the reintegration of the teaching acts are not satisfactorily achieved.

- The status of learning at a distance may be questioned in those institutions in which the reintegration of the teaching acts is not satisfactorily achieved.

As in the case of the other theories of DE discussed, Keegan's concept of the reintegration of the teaching and learning acts has immense significance in the formulation of DE strategies for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers. The concept provides a powerful theoretical underpinning for DE across the spectrum. It addresses the chronic problem of the decomposition of the pedagogical act in DE over two periods of time and two different locations.
3.4.9 THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR CONTEMPORARY DISTANCE
EDUCATION: THE DEBATE AROUND FORDISM, NEO-FORDISM AND POST-
FORDISM

Currently numerous challenges for DE in terms of a comparative, global context have
presented themselves. For example, Jarvis (1996: 233-244) argues about continuing
education in a late-modern or global society. McGinn (1996: 341-357) presents a case
for education, democratization and globalization. Stewart (1996: 327-333) focuses on
globalization and education inclusive of DE.

These challenges and the emphasis on globalization have impacted on DE resulting in
a paradigm with respect to DE in terms of the theories related to Fordism, neo-Fordism
and post-Fordism. As Campion (1990: 59) suggests much contemporary discourse
about the general industrial strategies undergirds these theories.

of industrialization of distance teaching and learning as propounded by Peters and
discussed in paragraph 3.4.4 has often been referred to in the literature as the Fordist
theory. This is based primarily on the industrial mass production process developed by
Henry Ford (Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3): 90). This Fordist paradigm both for industry and
DE was characterized, in addition to the concept of mass production, by specialization,
standardization, dedicated machinery, the bulk purchase of materials and so forth.

The Fordist model for DE was originally adopted by many countries in the 1980s. For
example, the UKOU was commenced and conceptualized whilst the Fordist production
paradigm was dominant. In Australia, a Fordist orientation underpinned DE theory,
policy and models of best practice if not practice itself (Campion and Renner, 1992: 14-
15; see also, Campion 1990: 61; Raggatt, 1993: 23). This theory particularly appealed
to the larger DE institutions as the industrialized principles were construed as a cost-
effective method of providing DE to a large number of students.
Campion and Renner (1992: 9; see also, Campion, 1990: 61) refer to the development and refined conceptualization of Fordism in terms of new insights provided by Badham and Mathews (1989). Central to their model is the notion that production processes and paradigms can be characterized by three defining variables: the degree of product innovation, process variability and labour responsibility (Campion and Renner, 1992: 9; see also, Lyall, 1998: 58).

However, a number of key developments such as slowdown in productivity, speculative investment and depressed growth, increase in social expenditure and so on, are undermining the Fordist model in developed countries and to some extent in developing countries. This has put pressure on the Fordist system of production and especially on its fundamental premise of mass production. DE provision has not escaped this pressure.

In response to this, a second production system known as neo-Fordism has developed where high levels of process innovation and product variety are associated with low levels of labour responsibility. Neo-Fordism, then, is an extension of the Fordist system. It allows a much higher level of flexibility and diversity.

A neo-Fordist expression of DE might in fact be represented by a centrally controlled or a multi-national organization yet locally-administered model of DE. As Campion and Renner (1992: 11) elucidate, regional centres of DE institutions may offer courses devised at other institutions while providing support for participating students enrolled with the host institutions. Unlike the centralized Fordist model of DE, the neo-Fordist model offers greater course variety to the student and it could be adapted also for both internal and external students of, say, a dual mode institution.

One of the central features of neo-Fordist production strategies, according to Badham and Mathews (1989) as referred to by Campion (1990: 65), is their likely association with production paradigms. These would direct technological development as far as possible towards the degradation of skills and the centralization of control. For DE, the
focus will be the further development of technology directed towards overcoming short
term needs for academic skills and responsibility.

Now, however, with the emphasis on globalization and cheaper as well as more user-
friendly methods of interactive telecommunications technology becoming commonplace
especially in the developed world, various calls for modern modes of DE are being
made. This initiative is focusing attention towards an innovative theory described in the
literature as post-Fordism. Again, the fundamental basis is the contemporary
industrialized system (Lyall, 1998: 61).

*Inter alia*, post-Fordism dispenses with the rigid division of labour and strict managerial
control. It deliberately fosters a skilled and responsible workforce (Campion and
Renner, 1992: 11; see also, Edwards, 1995: 242; Farnes, 1993: 17; Mackintosh,

With respect to DE a more decentralized, democratic, open and flexible DE system is
envisaged in the post-Fordism context. It is assumed that both academic and
administrative staff of DE providing institutions are willing and able to participate in the
conceptualization, planning and implementation of DE for the twenty-first century. As
Campion and Renner (1992: 24) advocate such a policy would have to be grounded in
an open learning agenda which resists Fordist and neo-Fordist strategies.

Another perspective is provided by Evans (1995: 256) and Edwards (1995: 241). They
suggest that theoretically post-Fordism and globalization must be considered in tandem.
In their opinion, these phenomena constitute interrelated yet central, contemporary
features of social and economic development. Contemporary policy related to DE
especially in developed countries is reflexively involved with post-Fordism and
globalization. Evans (1995: 257) adds that the concepts of late-modernity, post-
modernity and post-Fordism have become the subject of vigorous debates for the
provision of education and DE with globalization as a fundamental theme.
Globalization implies that most countries are connected with distant events either directly or indirectly and sometimes by their own choice or inadvertently by circumstances beyond their control. Evans (1995: 259) pithily comments in this regard:

‘... globalisation presents nations with a dilemma: they access the world, but the world invades them.’

Further, Edwards (1995: 244), referring to Robertson (1992: 8), describes globalization as the compression of the world. This invariably leads to the intensification of the world as a whole.

In the light of the foregoing DE is bound to mutate along with other forms of education (Evans, 1995: 256). Policy makers, practitioners and theorists in the field of DE will be confronted with greater innovative challenges. The theoretical basis of DE especially in developed countries is destined to become even more complex with respect to educational structures, processes and practices taking into account concepts of late-modernity and post-modernity as well as post-Fordism.

These concepts will become essentially concerned with the analysis and articulation of the processes and outcomes of contemporary life especially as we enter the new millennium. For the provision of DE particularly for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, the theoretical and conceptual framework will, in addition to the theories of DE already discussed, now have to be determined in a broader context in terms of its globalized social, cultural and economic forms with its concomitant uncertainties, risks, diversities and differences which will inevitably arise. This will, no doubt, be complex for DE, because the globalization process of DE will span intranational as well as international boundaries. Notwithstanding, the post-Fordist theoretical approach to DE offers a flexible strategy for change (Raggatt, 1993: 21).
By way of conspectus, the Fordist, neo-Fordist and post-Fordist theories in terms of the production systems for DE from two different perspectives can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 3.20  FORDIST, NEO-FORDIST AND POST-FORDIST PARADIGMS

**FORDISM**
- Low product innovation
- Low process variability
- Low labour responsibility
- Crisis of Fordism

**NEO-FORDISM**
- High product innovation
- High process variability
- Low labour responsibility

**POST-FORDISM**
- High product innovation
- High process variability
- High labour responsibility

**SOURCE:** Campion and Renner (1992: 12; see also, Campion, 1990: 64; Lyall, 1998: 59; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3): 91)
Figure 3.21 **MODES OF PRODUCTION AND STAGES OF CONVENTIONAL AND DISTANCE EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODE OF PRODUCTION</th>
<th>STAGES OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONVENTIONAL EDUCATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Pre-industrial</td>
<td>Craft model, Oxbridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tutorial, apprenticeships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Industrial,</td>
<td>Mass elementary,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Fordist</td>
<td>expansion of secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Fordist</td>
<td>Mass secondary,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expansion of further and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Post-Fordist</td>
<td>Mass higher and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>continuing education,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mixed mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Farnes (1993: 11; see also, Lyall, 1998: 61)

The polemics revolving around the theories of Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism as applicable to DE provision is quite convoluted. The progress implied by many of those who advocate change from the Fordist to the neo-Fordist and post-Fordist developments needs to be critically assessed. However, for our purpose in this section, as with the other theories, reference has been made to Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism as part of the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study and to consider at a later stage how these would inform the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.
It is important to note that the theories of DE discussed above have been considered by DE practitioners worldwide as the pioneering exordium for the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE generally. They have been the subject of venerable encomium for the profound contribution made to the theory of DE. However, pari passu, the various initiatives have also been the subject of academic animadversion and objurgation. Further, these theories of DE in numerous instances provided other theorists with the point d'appui for the development of slightly varied theories of DE.

Thus, for example, the theory of DE as postulated by Perratton (1981:13-24; 1982:373-384; 1983(a):34-45; see also, Schlosser and Anderson, 1994:11-12) is composed of elements from existing theories of communication and diffusion as well as the philosophies of education. It is expressed in the form of fourteen statements or hypotheses. The first five are concerned with DE and the maximization of education, the next four address the need to increase dialogue and the final five underscore methodology. The key elements in the theory for DE as delineated by Perraton are illustrated below.
KEY ELEMENTS IN A THEORY FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION:

PERRATON


Daniel and Marquis (1979:29-44; 1983:339-359; see also, Rashid, 1992:48; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 119-120), extend the concept of two-way communication by Holmberg and Bååth. However, Daniel and Marquis emphasize not only the independent activities of the learner but also the interactivity of learners in the DE programme with the academics of the DE institution and other learners. They propose that a theory of DE should be oriented to achieve the complex synthesis between interaction and independence - getting the mixture right.

In like manner, Garrison and Shale (1987:7-13) developed a model similar to that postulated by Moore in terms of dialogue and structure, transactional distance and learner autonomy. Further, Garrison (1989:9-40) expounds a theory of communication and learner control in terms of educational transaction between educator and learner. Vestiges of the analysis of the theories propounded by Moore, Holmberg and Peters are to be found in arguments presented by Garrison.

Evans and Nation (1989(b)(3):237-252; 1992:3-13; 1989(a):37-42; 1987(a):48-53; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(a)(3) : 121) present a theory of DE in which the adoption of educational technology as instructional industrialism is debated. Walker (1993:16; see also, Farnes, 1993:10) describes this concept of instructional industrialism as the industrial or Fordist model of DE which requires a mass audience, long-term planning, high development costs and a relatively stable product.

Evans and Nation advocate a reversal of the general practice related to considering pedagogical problems and social theory at a distance. They ask instead that theorists should reflect on what social theory may have to offer the theory and practice of DE.
Interestingly, influenced by the critical interpretation of the nature of social science by Anthony Giddens, Evans and Nation (1987(a):52) recommend that the multi-instructional industry model of DE which is well entrenched internationally within DE should now be challenged. They suggest that those interested in such a challenge should explore the moves beyond cognitivism and advise that the work of Giddens and others should be very useful in this endeavour. They also advocate that critical reflectivity in DE should become the fundamental point of departure for a theory in DE. The process of critical reflection is continuous and leads to a set of transformatory practices through which the learners and teachers become competent, self-directed learners (Evans and Nation, 1989(b)(3):252).

In a more recent study, Saba (1996:107-114; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996 : 208-109) propounds a theory of DE in terms of a post-modern analysis of DE in the international area. He argues that globalization of telecommunications technology, the emergence of a multipolar world organization and the influence of the development communication model strongly suggest the need for a post-modern, dynamic systems paradigm for conceptualizing and implementing DE. He acknowledges categorically that his research up to the present time has revolved around the three concepts of dialogue, structure and transactional distance as delineated by Moore.

Closer to home, Waghid (1997(a):26-33; 1997(b):133-149), formerly of UNISA, attempts to unpack the rationales of some of the most influential DE explanations over the past decade. In analyzing these theories he attempts to provide explanations for what he calls 'conceptual spaces' in DE. He considers DE in terms of a positivist status and relativism to be implausible. He advocates that intersubjectivity characterized by shared, common meanings and critical skills on the part of learners and educators and as separate from the understanding of the concept by constructivists can fruitfully contribute towards filling the conceptual gaps in research and theory.

The theories of DE as discussed in the foregoing have all made profound contributions to the understanding of the DE systems extant in both developed and developing
'Theory in distance education is likely to remain heavily descriptive, elucidating understanding and explanations which are derived from practice. It is likely to remain heavily grounded in practice. And it is unlikely to be predictive at anything more than a level of statistical generality. And much of it is likely to be grounded in the context within which practitioners and evaluators find themselves operating.'

3.5 A TYPOLOGY OF DISTANCE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Curran (1992:58) makes the incisive observation that despite their common origins and characteristics institutions involved in DE can differ widely with regard to their objectives, programmes and institutional structures. Thus, it is understandable that with the evolution of DE a greater diversity of organizational structure has emerged (Garrison, 1989:14). This led logically to create order from the diversity of delivery systems and methods. Many involved in the field of DE considered developing a typology of DE systems as being immanent to underpinning a theoretical and conceptual framework for DE. This reference to a typology of DE systems is deemed crucial for undergirding this research as well. The analysis of the international scenario in terms of the typology of DE systems can inform the development of the DE system that would optimize the role of DE for improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in South Africa generally and in the province of KZN particularly.

In order to structure the farraginous mosaic of reference to the typology of DE institutions and systems we need to consider some authoritative attempts by theorists in the field. References to a typology of DE systems in the literature can then be subsumed under one or more of these models. The typology of DE systems, understandably, would involve DE across the spectrum of education inclusive of teacher education. With the current polemics in education in South Africa and the debates
surrounding teacher education and its hierarchical position in education an understanding of the typology of DE institutions assumes even greater significance in the general system and interrelated sub-systems of education. Again, because of space constraints, a broad overview of the main principles of selected typologies will be presented.

3.5.1 **TYPOLOGY PROPOSED BY OTTO PETERS**

In 1971 Peters presented a comparative study of open universities and departments of conventional universities teaching at a distance in the 1960s (Peters, 1994(3):46). He dichotomized his study into distinct, supra-national groupings: western models and eastern ones. He argued that they differed with regard to their rank in national educational policy, the competent and responsible persons for it in the hierarchy of the DE institution, the degree of their organizational integration into the institution and the strategies of teaching and learning employed (Peters, 1994(3):46). He accordingly classified his typology in terms of the existing political structure in the national education policy, curriculum structure with respect to contents and programmes, organizational structure related to the hierarchy of the institution and didactic structure apropos methods of teaching and learning and use of technology (Peters, 1994(3):47-53; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):118; Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):26; Van Niekerk, 1997(2):8-9).

With respect to political considerations the western models try to help the individual. DE is deemed to be a fringe form of educational provision and is generally characterized by proprietary influences. In the eastern models DE is a planned component of socio-cultural development and constitutes an integral part of the national provision of education and enrolls between 20% - 50% of all undergraduates.

The curriculum in these two types also varies considerably. The western typology is characterized by a fragmented provision from individual institutions whereas the eastern
models are centralized and national.

The organizational structure in the institutions of the western model evinced a loose integration into the mainstream of tertiary education. On the other hand, the eastern models enjoyed a more influential role in university structures.

The didactic components in the west were based on proprietary precedents, monomedia systems of printed materials with the additional strategy of regular correspondence correction of assignments. In the case of the eastern types the principal approach was that DE was based on a virtual replication of directed education. Correspondence correction of assignments was reduced or replaced by regular voluntary or compulsory seminars.

Peters cited some examples of the DE institutions which fitted into his typology. He regarded the universities of Wisconsin and Nebraska (USA), New England (Australia), UNISA (South Africa), Chuo, Hosei, Kaio (Japan) and the UKOU as representative of the western models. He mentioned institutions such as Karl-Marx, Leipzig (Germany), Karls, Prague (Czechoslovakia), North Western Polytechnic, Leningrad (Russia) and People's Republic of China as representing the eastern typology.

3.5.2 TYPOLOGY PROPOSED BY JUDY EL-BUSHRA

The first category comprises institutions dealing exclusively with external students. She suggests that the most widely known university of this type is UNISA (El-Bushra, 1973:13; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):119; Holmberg, 1981(b):35). However, she outlined the details of the UKOU as being more recent and controversial in this category. The main advantage of this system is that it recognizes the special problems of DE learners and the institution concentrates its resources on solving them. It is autonomous and makes its own decisions without being dependent on the approval of a larger body which does not have DE learners as its principal concern.

The second category includes institutions which only offer facilities for external examinations. Such institutions do not provide actual teaching. The External Degree Service of the University of London typifies this model (El-Bushra, 1973:13; see also, Kaye and Rumble, 1981(b):228; Holmberg, 1981(b):35; Keegan, 1990(a):119; Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):26; Kaye, 1981(1):15). The National Extension College Degree Service in the UK provides tuition through DE for those who are preparing for the university examinations. In the USA, the New York Regent's degree is placed in this category.

Category three includes those institutions offering DE courses in one department only. Examples given to illustrate this type of institution are College of Estate Management (University of Reading) and the School of Education at the University of the South Pacific. This type of organization can be used to meet exceptional needs. For example, Perraton (1991:13) refers to the establishment of the William Pitcher College in Swaziland which was established to provide DE courses for the INSET of teachers. Sometimes, such an arrangement can be expanded over time to provide for a wider range of subjects. Further, institutions operating under circumstantial constraints may find it expedient to commence DE programmes in a relatively small way and expand in terms of needs and in the light of experience.

Category four is exemplified by the University of New England in Australia (El-Bushra, 1973:14; see also, Holmberg, 1981(b):36; 1986(b):39; Perraton, 1987:6; Keegan and
Rumble, 1982(1):27; Kaye, 1981(1):15). Candidates are accepted as both internal and external students in the same teaching department. Its main advantage is the maintenance of high academic standards through the close integration of internal and external teaching.

In institutions of category five a DE unit is established which undertakes the responsibility not only for the administration of the courses but also for the teaching. The teaching staff as a consequence are not members of the respective departments but are responsible to the DE unit. The fundamental rationale for this strategy is that DE learners need academics who have been specially trained in distance teaching. An example of this arrangement is the Department of External Studies at the University of Queensland, Australia (Kaye and Rumble, 1981(b):228; see also, Perraton, 1987:6; Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):27; Kaye, 1981(1):15).

Category six comprises those institutions which offer DE courses in co-operation with other bodies. Curran (1992:60-61) and others such as Holmberg (1981(b):36-37), Moore (1990(a)(2):xx; 1991:299-300), Perry and Rumble (1992:22), Knapper and Cropley (1985:90-91), Escotet (1992:99) and Perraton (1991:15) refer to this model suggested by EI-Bushra as the consortia model. Although academic bodies have always co-operated with one another in certain areas, the pooling of resources for learning is a comparatively recent development. Massey University in New Zealand and the Texas Association for Graduate Engineering and Research (TAGER) are examples of this category.

EI-Bushra concludes that these six categories are not presented as alternatives. Clearly some are mutually exclusive while others can be found in combination. She suggests that they should be perceived as concrete examples of different strategies of approaching the sort of problems encountered in DE systems (EI-Bushra, 1973:15).
3.5.3 **TYPOLOGY PROPOSED BY MICHAEL W NEIL**

Neil (1981:138-141; see also, Keegan, 1990(a):119-120; Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):27; Van Niekerk, 1997(2):9-10) offers a typology distinguished by concerns of the degrees of authority and control exerted in key operational areas of DE systems. These operational areas are identified as finance, examination and accreditation, curriculum and materials and delivery and student support systems. Using these criteria Neil categorizes the following DE models:

The first is described as the classical centre-periphery model. This is typified in terms of a whole system control. Control is high or total in the four key areas of operation. The UKOU is an example of this model. Some theorists refer to this model as the autonomous model or a dedicated DE model or multipurpose free standing institution (Kaye and Rumble, 1981(b):229; Kaye, 1981(1):17; 1989:7; Moore, 1990(a)(2):xix; 1991:295; Knapper and Copley, 1985:90; Peters, 1992:30; Escotet, 1992:98; Perraton, 1991:13; 1987:6; Rumble, 1981:65; McAnany et al., 1983:301-303).

The second is referred to as the associated centre model. The Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED), Madrid, is a typical example. This is a system with a central organization and a number of associated centres. The central organization has partial control only of finance within the DE system. The associate centre, aided by local authorities, savings institutions, private enterprises and other interested syndicates control the rest of the finance. The central organization, however, has a high or total control over examinations and accreditation, a high degree of control over curriculum and materials but a low degree of control over delivery and support services which come within the ambit of the associated centres.

The third is designated as the dispersed centre model. The DE institution co-operates fully with a plethora of institutions, organizations and bodies within the community in which it operates. The Coastline Community College in California, USA, is cited as the prime example. The community is the campus of the DE institution. The control over
the award of credit for courses is the responsibility of the DE institution. Other areas are delegated to the appropriate community constituents of the system.

The fourth is delineated as the switchboard organization model. It operates as a facilitating centre for DE projects essentially enabling, co-ordinating, initiating and approving roles in the development of DE. Use is made of diverse and well developed educational resources already in existence in the country with control exercised by educational and public bodies. The Norsk fjernundervisnug (Nfj, Norwegian Distance Education), Norway, is given as an example of this model.

Neil provides a fifth model depicted as a service institution model. The Deutches Institut Für Fernstudium (DIFF), Tübingen, is provided as an example. This model is primarily a service institution based on co-operation with other institutions. Services offered include development of DE course materials, consultancy on implementation of DE projects and carrying out evaluation and research. Apart from creation and production of DE materials, the service institution has little or no control over the operational areas.

3.5.4 TYPOLOGY PROPOSED BY DESMOND KEEGAN AND GREVILLE RUMBLE

• **Autonomous, centrally controlled DE institutions which teach wholly at a
distance and are clearly identified with a single organization.** They
determine their own curriculum and design their own materials or
purchase such materials required on their own initiative. They are fully
responsible for their own examinations, accreditation, delivery and support
systems and financial autonomy. The UKOU is an example of such an
institution. As indicated other theorists have also referred to this typology.

• **Autonomous, decentralized DE institutions comprise organizations which
teach wholly at a distance and are clearly identified with a single institution.**
They share the characteristics of the previous category but have a lower
degree of control over their delivery and student support systems which
are handled by associated centres. The Universidad Nacional de
Educación a Distancia (UNED) of Spain and the China Central Television
and Broadcasting University (CCRTVU) of the People's Republic of China
are examples of this model.

• **Essentially autonomous DE institutions operating within a federal structure
encompassing both conventional campuses and a distance teaching unit.**
The Télé-université in Quebec exemplifies this model. It is an
autonomous unit operating under the University of Quebec Board of
Governors. This body is responsible for the overall management of the
university's largely autonomous campuses at various sites such as
Montreal, Trois, Rivieres, Rimouski and Chicoutimi as well as various
other specialized institutions.

• **Autonomous centralized DE systems with a high degree of control using
facilities based in and run by conventional universities.** These
organizations cannot be regarded as a single institution. Rather they are
perceived as DE systems. This model was typical of the former German
Democratic Republic (DDR) where the Central Office for DE, a
Government Ministry at Dresden, exerted a fair degree of control and was responsible for admission of students, curricula, supervision of course materials and production and general management of the organization and consultation centres. The latter primarily operate as DE departments with the conventional universities.

- **Mixed mode, multi-departmental model.** This model also enjoys the appellation of the Australian integrated mode or the New England model. In this category of DE academic staff are responsible for teaching both internal and external learners. A Department of External Studies is established fundamentally as an administrative and not as an academic unit.

- **Mixed mode, multi-institutional model.** The Massey University in New Zealand is a prime example of this kind of DE institution. It is a mixed mode institution teaching its own campus-based and external students. However, it has the additional responsibility as the sole provider of DE at university level in the country to register external students of other universities for tuition purposes only in demarcated courses. Such students write the examinations set by Massey University but receive accreditation in the name of their residential university.

Keegan and Rumble (1982(1):30) make the valid point that the typology developed by them is helpful to distinguish the various kinds of DE institutions. However, in practice it can be very difficult to draw dividing lines between the various models. Further, it is important to note, that in developing the typology of DE systems, similar examples are given yet the designation or description of typology with respect of nomenclature varies.
3.5.5 **TYPOLOGY PROPOSED BY DESMOND KEEGAN**


- It should be helpful to the DE practitioner to focus on a range of institutions enabling him or her to identify the statements underscoring the common elements in a particular grouping of institutions and that which distinguishes it from other categories.

- The typology should not be artificial but should have a large number of institutions and students within that grouping. Further, the grouping should be identifiable for at least a decade or more.

- It should attempt to encompass all DE institutions across the educational spectrum.

- It should include those DE institutions or departments of existing institutions which exhibit both the major characteristic sub-systems of DE institutions: course development and student support services.

(Keegan, 1990(a):123-124; 1993(a):63)

He then ratifies as accurate the concept of autonomy in terms of the four key areas of control according to Neil (1981:140), namely:
Keegan next proposes a typology of DE systems distinguishing principally between autonomous distance teaching institutions and distance subsections of conventional institutions as illustrated in figure 3.23 below.
3.5.5.1 AUTONOMOUS DISTANCE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The autonomous DE institutions have been dimidiated into Group 1 called 'Public and private schools and colleges' and Group 2 referred to as 'Distance teaching universities'. This dichotomy is based on complexity of didactic structure and level or provision (Keegan, 1990(a):125; 1993(a):64).

The public and private correspondence schools and colleges (Group 1) have control over all the key operational areas in whatever spatial capacity they may function. This model is widely used throughout the world both by government-sponsored and by proprietary institutions. To a considerable degree the correspondence element in DE
is emphasized in this group and print tends to be the didactic medium. This is certainly true for many such DE institutions currently operating in South Africa in this category.

With regard to distance teaching universities (Group 2), such as UNISA and the UKOU, they do not have students in residence, neither do they have full time day students not even part time night students (Keegan, 1990(a):128; 1993(a):67). These represent universities of a nation or a state with possibly decentralized sites or regional offices. In their didactic structure these institutions provide a more comprehensive concatenation between learning materials and student learning.

The quintessential differences between Group 1 and Group 2 institutions are:

- The level of provision of Group 1 is primarily pre-tertiary and further education of adults while Group 2 focuses on tertiary education and some further education courses.

- The use of media by Group 2 is generally characterized by non-print educational technology to a large extent, particularly in developed countries.

- The didactic link between learning materials and learning is particularly more coherent for Group 2 than it is for Group 1 to ensure a requisite and acceptable standard of tertiary education.

Keegan (1990(a):130) emphasizes the point that human institutions do not fit easily into typologies. Thus, there are multi-level DE institutions which straddle the two groups discussed. The Centre National d’Enseignement à Distance (CNED) in Paris and the Open Learning Institute (OLI) in British Columbia are examples of such institutions. Perhaps international co-operative structures such as the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) set up by the British Commonwealth Heads of Government in 1987 could also be included in this typology as a mix between Group 1 and Group 2 as proposed by
Keegan. The principal objective of the COL was to promote co-operation in DE with the Commonwealth and to share resources among Commonwealth colleges and universities (Perraton, 1991:15).

3.5.5.2 DISTANCE EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS OF CONVENTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Keegan (1990(a):131-132; 1993(a):69) refers to three groupings under this rubric:

- **Independent study divisions of a conventional college or university (Group 3).** There are numerous examples of this category throughout the world. Noteworthy among these are the Independent Study Divisions of Extension Colleges of American and Canadian universities, similar structures in France, Sweden, India and Latin America. *Inter alia*, these institutions provide a wide array of continuing education programmes in various delivery modes: correspondence lessons, credit by examination, special programmes for groups, television courses, video-cassette courses, radio courses, university without walls and so on.

- **Consultation model (Group 4).** This constitutes in essence a subset of a mixed institution which teaches both on-campus and at a distance. The didactic aspect comprises allocation both to the institution from which students will obtain the qualification which may be far away and to a consultation centre at an institution near their home and work place. In some cases the enrolment and consultation centre are at the same institution. Study generally commences with a residential seminar on-campus. Thereafter, students study at home from the learning materials provided. The home study is interspersed at regular intervals by consultations which are frequently compulsory.
The Australian integrated mode - New England model (Group 5). A distinct form of DE department with a conventional college or university has evolved in Australia. It is eponymized as the New England model or the Australian integrated mode. It is found with variations in Australian colleges of advanced education and universities that teach at a distance. Lecturers are given a dual mandate and are allocated groups of both internal and external students in equal numbers. The system maintains that the academic staff of the institution are responsible for the total teaching/learning process. External and internal teaching are integrated with the same academic staff teaching both sets of learners. Students are enrolled in the same courses, take the same examinations and obtain the same qualifications. An External Studies Department has been established to execute all the administrative functions, production and distribution of course materials, student records, statistics and student support services.

Keegan (1990(a):138-139; 1993(a):74-75) asseverates that the DE institutions in the typology presented by him parallel conventional institutions with respect to functions of admission, teaching, assessment, evaluation and total learning experience. However, an additional function is the preparation for continued learning for future learners and the utilization of multifarious media to achieve their objectives. He also emphasizes the contention that the demands of a viable typology that would comprise groupings of institutions large enough for practical implementation of DE have eliminated from consideration numerous institutions that are often associated with the evolution of DE. Amongst these are some accrediting institutions, some materials production centres and certain audio-video and television programmes.
3.6 **CONCLUSION**

In this rather detailed chapter, the theoretical and conceptual framework for DE has been analyzed. As indicated, the debate on aspects of the theoretical constructs and praxiological applications of DE is on-going. The intention was not to add any further neologisms to the concept of DE nor to posit a doctrinaire, metascientific noumenon. On the contrary, the principal aim in the development of this theoretical and conceptual framework is the comprehension of the dialectics of DE in terms of the international comparative repertory of theories for adaptation to the South African and KZN context. Further, the study of existing theories was undertaken in order to consider the morphology of such theories for adaptation to promote a viable and implementable strategy of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in South Africa generally and in KZN particularly.

The various definitions of DE and related terms were discussed with emphasis being placed on venerated theorists in the field such as Peters, Holmberg, Moore, Keegan, Wedemeyer, Dohmen and Delling. In the light of the debates revolving around the definitions of DE, the syncretic collocation of the characteristics common to the definitions was synthesized by Keegan. This provided an omnibus definition of DE which is deemed to be universally applicable to DE as well as for our specific purposes oriented to teacher education.

In the formulation of a theory for DE, *per se*, emphasis was placed on those propounded by recognized international experts. Thus, Delling, Wedemeyer and Moore were considered for their theories which encapsulated theories of independence and autonomy.

The theory of Otto Peters comprising comparative studies throughout the 1960s and theoretical formulation of the 1970s and even the decade thereafter to the present time, underscored the conceptualization of DE as an industrialized form of teaching and learning. Understandably, this theory became the point of departure for animated
polemics in the whole intellectual panorama of DE. In the South African context, and, in terms of the current status of DE where there is a sharp distinction and juxtaposition of first world and third world characteristics, this theory is of especial significance. However, with the challenges facing education generally and DE particularly as we approach the new millennium the theoretical considerations for contemporary DE in terms of the debates around Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism will invariably assume greater significance globally.

The theories concerned primarily with interaction and communication as proposed by Holmberg related to guided didactic conversation, that by Bååth was concerned with two-way communication and teaching models, while Sewart underpinned the focal student support services in terms of a continuity of concern. In this category also, is included the reintegration of the teaching and learning acts as the theory advanced by Keegan. All of these theories have elements that are quintessentially centripetal to the development of a strategy of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

The synthesis of theoretical perspectives which constitute adaptations germane to theories of DE already discussed was presented in a compendious form. Thus, the theories of Perraton, Daniel and Marquis, Verduin Jr. and Clark, Garrison and Shale, Saba, Waghid, Evans and Nation also contribute to the cognitive understanding of the theoretical and conceptual framework of DE. However, it has been explicitly stated that there is no single best theory for DE and debate surrounding the theoretical and conceptual framework for this strategy in education will continue. The route adopted in this research is a via media. The key elements of the theories discussed will be extrapolated to determine an eclectic theoretical and conceptual framework for the role of DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

Again, as part of the theoretical and conceptual framework, the typology of DE institutions was discussed. The autonomous and hybrid or dual mode models as exemplified by Peters, El-Bushra, Neil, Keegan and Rumble and the conflation of the
typologies by Keegan afford education planners a wide panoply of opportunities to plan the most practical model for DE for improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers to suit the local demands of KZN.

DE in many countries is now offered as a discipline of study in its own right. (Amundsen, 1993:62; see also, Holmberg, 1987:20; Harry et al., 1993:289-291; Mackintosh et al., 1997:1-227; Moore and Kearsley, 1996:237). The dialectics in this regard by Holmberg (1986(a):25-40; 1989(f):60-61; 1989(g):62-64) and others, such as Devlin (1989:56-59), Sparkes (1983:179-186) and Coldeway (1989:54-55; 65-66), have engendered even livelier debate underpinning further studies on theory development and a systematic and structured approach to research in DE. Our concern, as Calvert (1990:155) and Holmberg (1990(a):159-161) rightly point out, is to utilize the epistemological understanding generated from this theoretical and conceptual framework for the parturition of coherent thinking in DE in order to ameliorate the travail that is deemed to be contemporaneous with the efforts directed towards the transformation of the praxis of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

In the next chapter, in keeping with the theme of an international comparative study of DE, an overview of DE in selected, developed and developing countries will be undertaken. An analysis of the UKOU and the AU will serve as models of the developed countries. The IGNOU and ZINTEC exemplifying DE efforts in developing countries, will also be considered. The emphasis in these studies obviously will be primarily on the impact of DE on teacher education. The experiences of these initiatives and their trials and tribulations, mutatis mutandis, will be of immense significance to our study of the role of DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in KZN.
CHAPTER FOUR

HISTORICO-COMPARATIVE STUDY: DISTANCE EDUCATION IN SELECTED DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

David Sewart (1993: ix), as the President of the ICDE commented that ever since the first Conference in Vancouver in 1938, ICDE World Conferences have provided a regular opportunity for the international community of those involved in DE to meet together and share experiences and ideas. However, what is more significant is that the Conference provides ample evidence of the status of DE in various parts of the world.

For example, the 15th ICDE World Conference held in Caracas in 1990 had as its theme: 'Distance Education: Development and Access' (Croft et al., 1990). The Conference deliberated on wide-ranging views from all over the world on DE and development strategies for DE, literacy as a challenge for the 1990s, DE and developing countries, production of materials for DE, students, technology application and future planning.

Similarly, the 16th ICDE World Conference held at the Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University in Thailand in November 1992 had as its theme: 'Distance Education for the Twenty-first Century' (Scriven et al., 1993). It was patently clear from the papers presented at the Conference that different countries are still at different stages of development and this is also analogous in their DE systems.

Again, the 17th ICDE World Conference in Birmingham, UK, in June 1995 with its focus on 'One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning' and the 18th World Conference of the ICDE at the Pennsylvania State University in the USA...
underscoring the theme 'The New Learning Environment: A Global Perspective' provided a canvas for the burgeoning of open learning and DE throughout the world. Participants coming to these Conferences from different countries around the globe and their presentations of a wide array of papers on different aspects of DE are a lucid indication of the enormous number of institutions and people now involved in the non-traditional forms of education especially DE.

At one end of the spectrum, as noted in the typology of DE already discussed, we find very large scale institutions specifically set up for DE activities. These are designed to meet a national need represented by tens of thousands or even hundreds of thousands of students (Sewart, 1995 (a):xi). At the other end of the spectrum we find small scale DE enterprises where traditional institutions and organizations for profit provide non-traditional educational opportunity for a vast panoply of specific needs identified by students.

The international historico-comparative study of the literature and more particularly a detailed reading and analysis of the papers presented at the ICDE World Conferences over the years on DE in both developed and developing countries clearly illustrate the point that no universal vocabulary and no specific theoretical and conceptual framework by various theorists, as already discussed, is readily available. Nonetheless, it is possible to observe, both from the literature and those involved primarily in DE in other parts of the world, emerging trends and a certain maturity in the evaluation of DE.

It must be emphasized, however, that there is still a great diversity. Thus, a technique or technology already in daily use in one country may be perceived as a twenty-first century objective for another. Understandably, the social, political, economic, cultural and geographical factors will impact on how different countries and certainly the manifold DE institutions within the same country will develop their DE systems. Ideas, innovations and strategies are not confined to a single country. In terms of this era of globalization of communication there will inevitably be an interaction among various
countries in the field of DE.

Numerous surveys and case studies by various persons and organizations such as, *inter alia*, UNESCO (1987 (b)), Daniel (1987; 1988), Perraton (1984 (a)(1); 1993 (a)(1)), Perry (1984), Rumble and Harry (1982), Wakatama (1983), Wong *et al.* (1992), Dodd and Rumble (1984), Mugridge (1992), Khan (1992), Harry (1981), Cahill (1985), ICDL (1995), Keegan (1990 (a)), Deshmukh (1990), Koul and Jenkins (1990), Reddy (1988 (1)), Keegan and Rumble (1982 (1)), National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin (1983), Moran and Mugridge (1993), Raggatt and Harry (1987) and MacKenzie *et al.* (1975) have provided details of DE in numerous countries. These sources primarily provided insights by government, institutions, NGOs and an impressive array of other stakeholders and role-players in DE. The information ranged extremely widely with respect to innumerable categories such as characteristics of the DE systems, origins of institutions, dealing with the multifarious needs of students and courses, media and methods, the course sub-system which incorporates course creation, production and distribution of course materials both print and non-print; the student sub-system which underpins student administration, student support for learning, assessment and examinations; organization, administration and planning involving government and administration, control related to academic aspects, quality control and resources.

The surveys and case studies included tertiary education which embodied teacher education, school education, non-formal education and innovative programmes in DE in both developed and developing countries. These studies have focused on the intrinsic flexibility of DE and the remarkable contributions being made by this strategy in providing education to a gallimaufry clientele.

UNESCO (1987 (b):8) provides a conspectus of the factors facilitating or impeding the development of DE in various countries. These factors are indeed often complementary with respect to determining the progress or delays in DE development. They can be delineated as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACILITATING FACTORS</th>
<th>IMPEDING FACTORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective use of resources</td>
<td>Poor use of resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate funding from the government and other sources</td>
<td>Inadequate funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong institutional leadership</td>
<td>Weak institutional leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient personnel</td>
<td>Insufficiently or inadequately trained personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good co-ordination at national level</td>
<td>Poor co-ordination at national level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid teaching methodology</td>
<td>Inadequate teaching methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic uniformity</td>
<td>Cultural barriers including language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance of innovation</td>
<td>Resistance to innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong political continuity and support</td>
<td>Lack of continuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost-effective technology</td>
<td>Expensive technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementarity of conventional and DE systems</td>
<td>Competition between systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearly defined objectives and clientele</td>
<td>Poorly defined objectives and clientele</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate state support for access to technology</td>
<td>Inadequate support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonious relations between academics and their partners, e.g., administrators and technicians</td>
<td>Poor relations between academics and their partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious long range planning</td>
<td>Absence of long range plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong ties with industry</td>
<td>Weak linkage in this area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to adapt to changing needs</td>
<td>Inflexible systems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the purposes of undertaking an historico-comparative study of DE a detailed search was made in the literature with regard to the practice and multiple issues apropos DE in various countries. For example, an intensive appraisal of DE provision and programmes was undertaken with special reference to teacher education in Anglophone African countries such as Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Botswana, Zambia, Uganda, Nigeria, Tanzania, Ghana, Kenya, South Africa, Malawi, Lesotho and
Namibia. Institutions offering DE in other countries were also analyzed. These were Australasia and the South Pacific region, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Canada, China, Costa Rica, Denmark, Finland, Fiji, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Korea, Malaysia, Mauritius, Micronesia, Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Palestine, Papua New Guinea, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Latin America, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Thailand, Turkey, USA, Venezuela and West Indies. In addition, reference was made to the overview of various institutions offering DE courses by UNISA (1999)(m). A further source was provided by Wong et al. (1992) in their survey of countries in Asia and the Pacific.

Many of the DE institutions in these countries provide education across the spectrum from school level to tertiary education. However, following upon the example of UNISA and the UKOU several institutions were established to provide in the main tertiary education including teacher education (ICDL, 1995:1-19; see also, Granger, 1990:46; Dodd and Rumble, 1984:231-254; Harry, 1981:293-322; Rumble and Harry, 1982:32-203; Mugridge, 1992:3-139; Koul and Jenkins, 1990:4-95; Raggatt and Harry, 1987:1-50; Keegan and Rumble, 1982 (1):15-25; Rumble, 1982:29; National Institute for Higher Education, Dublin, 1983:78-172; Timmers, 1990 (1)).

Amongst the more well known tertiary institutions providing DE, then, are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>DATE ESTABLISHED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
<td>1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open University, UK</td>
<td>1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Spain</td>
<td>1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fern Universität, Germany</td>
<td>1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open University of Israel (Formerly Everyman's University)</td>
<td>1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan</td>
<td>1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athabasca University, Canada</td>
<td>1975</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED) (Spain)
Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) (Thailand)
Anadolu University (OEF) (Turkey)
Open University (UKOU) United Kingdom

The emergence and success of these mega-universities have been described as the most striking manifestation of the evolution of DE. These institutions have a student enrolment exceeding 100,000 each.

Daniel (1995: Foreword) points out that the mega-universities have unshackled themselves from the trammels of the eternal triangle of access, quality and resources which have traditionally limited the expansion of education. Indeed, these institutions have been the trailblazers for access to tertiary education in their respective countries. They have been instrumental in providing equality of opportunity, massification and egalitarianism in education. They have also underscored the fact that increased student numbers can be accompanied by improvements in the quality of course materials and student support.

These institutions vary enormously not only in their objectives but in the methods and media that they use (Perry, 1981:9). Notwithstanding, there are experiences, common features, shared interests, problems and techniques which can effectively be adapted to our needs in KZN, particularly for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers (Van Niekerk, 1997(3):19-33).

Understandably, because of space constraints it is not possible to discuss each of the institutions in the various countries studied. Consequently, we shall consider the UKOU and the AU of Canada as examples of models in developed countries. In the case of developing countries we shall look to India and Zimbabwe. IGNOU will serve as our model from India and as we are principally concerned with the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE we shall consider the strategy described as ZINTEC which was inaugurated in Zimbabwe after its independence.
In the case of developed countries, the socio-economic conditions are generally far advanced. The countries are highly industrialized, the illiteracy level is virtually minimal and a wide array of educational systems are available with respect to primary, secondary and tertiary education. The availability of resources, use of current, modern and state-of-the-art technology for interactive communication, a high level of sophistication and research and opportunities for advancement of all sections of the population are generally deemed to be a matter of course.

The characteristics of developing countries are inherently very different. Further, the level of the socio-economic development will also vary from country to country. The developing countries, broadly speaking, are principally struggling with innumerable economic, political and social dilemmas in an attempt to satisfy the aspirations of the population at large (Peñalver, 1990:21). The countries are also characterized by one crisis after another causing tremendous suffering for people who are being overwhelmed by the effects of foreign debts, inflation, unemployment, hunger, disease and cultural deprivation. The majority of the people subsist primarily well below the poverty datum line.

Notwithstanding, these developing countries have realized that education is the engine that will drive the momentum for the improved quality of life and economic affluence that everyone dreams of. In this regard, these countries have also realized that DE and its offsprings of science, technology and communication, are capable of laying the foundation for the recovery and advancement of underdeveloped countries and overcoming the crises at regional and local levels (Peñalver, 1990:21-30; see also, Chung, 1990:61-66; International Extension College, 1992; Laaser, 1995:303-306; Villarroel, 1992:45-53; Holmberg, 1989 (a):141-143; Young et al., 1980; Guy, 1990:48-58; 1991:152-175; Evans, 1991 (2):133-136; Gachuhi and Matiru, 1989:23).

A large number of others have also commented at length on the role that DE can play in helping to alleviate some of the problems of education endemic in third world countries. Much has also been written on the utilization of the strategy of DE in the

These sources have provided useful and valuable insights into the manner in which developing countries have endeavoured to adapt DE to massify education and equalize educational opportunities across the spectrum. In this way they hope to succeed in ameliorating the quality of life of all people living in these countries. We shall now consider the comparative situation in developed and developing countries with respect to the provision of DE and its role principally for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers as indicated.

4.2 THE UNITED KINGDOM OPEN UNIVERSITY (UKOU)

4.2.1 ORIGINS OF THE UKOU

The UK is an established and highly industrialized country. It has a population of 58 395 000 and an area of 244 102 square kilometres. The Gross National Product (GNP) per capita is £11 018 (US$17 207; South African Rand, R110 180). There are 452 000 teachers in the UK with 211 000 in nursery and primary schools and 223 000 serving in secondary schools (Leach and Moon, 1997:2). Its educational system, both at pre-tertiary and tertiary level, has often served as a model for education systems in other developed and developing countries in the world. It is, therefore, not surprising that any educational innovation implemented in the UK will have rippling effects in many parts of the world. This is true also for its efforts in promoting open and DE through the UKOU which has its main campus at Walton Hall in Milton Keynes.
The origins, characteristics and development of the UKOU have been widely studied, publicized and reported upon. Further, much has been written also on the genesis of the ideas and the early endeavours that led to the establishment of the UKOU. For example, Lord Walter Perry (1987) has provided a detailed personal account of the UKOU in terms of an unrivalled authority as its first Vice-Chancellor. Others such as Tunstall (1973), Rumble (1982), Bell and Tight (1993), Chander (1991), Hawkridge (1973), Harry (1982) and Ferguson (1975) have also provided vivid accounts of the UKOU.

It is not intended, therefore, to provide more than an overview of the early history of the UKOU in order to contextualize the provision of DE in the UK. Currently the UKOU enjoys an international reputation with UNISA as the major catalyst for the proliferation of tertiary education including teacher education across the developing and developed countries of the world through the medium of DE.

For nearly thirty years the UKOU has been acknowledged as the leader in part time education and training through the method of open and DE in the UK. The flexibility and quality of the approach adopted by the UKOU has led to more than two million people enrolling to study through the UKOU over the years. In a recent analysis based on Higher Education Funding Council assessments of the quality of teaching in 98 universities in the UK, the UKOU was ranked an impressive eleventh (Open University, 1999/2000:1;6;1999:3).

The Right Honourable Betty Boothroyd, Member of Parliament, Speaker of the House of Commons and Chancellor of the UKOU, declares:

'The Open University occupies a unique place in the academic world and in our national life. It offers the opportunity for higher education and thus for self-fulfilment to thousands of men and women of all ages and backgrounds who could not otherwise enjoy the privilege.'
Harold Wilson, former Labour Party Prime Minister of the UK and the person responsible for sowing the seed that ultimately grew into the UKOU, described this DE institution 'as one of the most important educational and social developments of this century' in the UK and the wider world (Perry, 1987:xii). Wilson elaborates:

"The decision to create the Open University, then known as the 'University of the Air', was a political act. It was announced as a firm commitment of the incoming Labour Government on 8 September, 1963; the text and outline proposals had been written out by hand in less than an hour after church on the previous Easter Sunday morning. It was never party policy, nor did it feature in Labour's election manifesto. But our political history is full of cases where the Prime Minister has a private hobby-horse and is determined to use the not inconsiderable resources of his office to get it through, whatever the opposition."

(Perry, 1987:xii)

Others have eulogized the UKOU as one of the most significant advances in the field of DE and an apparently highly successful innovation (Greyling, 1989:36; Holmberg, 1985 (c):138; 1986 (b):36; Bell, 1990:62; Chander, 1991 (a):100; Hawkridge, 1973 (a):1; Coffey, 1988:243). It is an extremely radical, extra-paradigmatic initiative introducing unique methods, a relevant and effective qualifications structure, a novel type of organization, a revolutionary category of academic staff and profoundly inspirational tasks for professors and lecturers.

Anastasios Christodoulo (1993:ix), as Secretary-General of the Association of
Commonwealth Universities, declares:

'... the Open University is an institution of world stature and widely respected. Of all its achievements, perhaps the greatest, in posterity's judgement, will be that it made respectable academically and legitimated educationally the whole concept of distance education; and set an example of successful enterprise which inspired others to be bold in launching similar experiments.'

Perry (1987:1-8; 1990:5-13; 1992:226-228; see also, Rumble, 1982:5-6; Bell and Tight, 1993:133) indicates that the concept of the UKOU evolved from the convergence of three major post-war educational trends. Since the Second World War the educational scene bubbled with a continuous ferment of new ideas. Amongst these were the provision of adult education which was described by many in the UK as the Cinderella of the educational world. There were very few opportunities offered to adults who wished to embark upon academic or vocational courses at the tertiary level. There was a gap in provision for mature adults and limited access to most universities. Preference was given to young school leavers for the limited places available at universities.

Another gap in adult education provision lay in its inability to attract those very members of the adult community for whom much of it had been originally designed: those who at the stage of initial education had been underprivileged and deprived.

A second major educational trend contributing to the evolution of the UKOU was the expansion in educational broadcasting. From its inception the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) had given education a high priority among its objectives in planning. Numerous valuable experiments were carried out. For example, the collaboration of Harold Wiltshire at the Extramural Department of the University of Nottingham with one
of the independent television companies and of Michael Young at the National Extension College with the Further Education Department of the BBC in offering courses that combined radio and television broadcasts with DE proved to be the clear precursors in the years between 1963 and 1969 of the UKOU (Perry, 1987:7; see also, Rumble, 1982:6).

The third major trend was the increasing concern expressed throughout the world that the existing educational system was elitist. Numerous reports in the UK indicated that the social background of children was a large factor in determining their educational career. The reports recommended amongst other things that initiatives should be taken to make opportunities more easily available to the lower socio-economic stratum. Thus, as Hawkridge (1973 (b):1; see also, Harry, 1990 (b):15; McIntosh, 1972:6) asserts, the establishment of the UKOU was a strategy to offer a second chance to people who had been deprived of an opportunity for higher education for whatever reason.

It is interesting to note that in 1962 Michael Young had urged the establishment of an Open University in order to add to the educational resources of the UK. The essence of the strategy mooted was that broadcasting and correspondence should be conflated with face-to-face teaching (Young et al., 1980:vii; see also, Open University, 1993 (d):1). Such an initiative would produce an innovative institution for part-time adult studies. There was no immediate reaction to this obiter dictum.

By 1963 the tide turned. The educational Zeitgeist was most opportune for someone to grasp the significance of the three trends as outlined by Perry and to crystallize them into a coherent pattern. The lacuna in the provision of adult education, the strong political motive for promoting educational egalitarianism, which underpinned Labour Party philosophy and the developments in educational broadcasting provided cogent arguments for an innovative approach.

In addition, as Ural (1982:7) and Titmus (1981:41) remark, in the 1960s the British intellectual climate was favourable for a move against the traditional elitist conception
award degrees.

The University of the Air was to be an independent university offering its own degrees, making no compromises on standards and providing an opportunity to all without any entrance qualifications. It was conceived as the legatee of a long sequence of attempts to make education a right (Birnbaum, 1973 (?):35). Further, stress was placed on the comparability and parity of esteem that the new university would enjoy with existing universities (Bell and Tight, 1993:134).

Between February 1966 and September 1967 progress was made, although it was arduous and slow. Further, the nomenclature Open University replaced that of the University of the Air. As Scupham (1975:329) observes, 'A University of the Air' was deemed to be a handicap and a bane to this initiative. It had to be discarded also because such a concept suggested to the groves of academe a meretricious attempt to provide a highroad to learning without effort. Some commentators derided the concept of 'A University of the Air' as a university which would grant 'Degrees while you dust'.

By 1967 through the unwavering persistence of Jennie Lee the most important decisions concerning the UKOU had already been taken. A Planning Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Peter Venables, the distinguished Vice-Chancellor of Aston University and Deputy-Chairman of the Committee of the Vice-Chancellors and Principals in the UK, was appointed. This appointment contributed immensely towards endowing the project with academic respectability (Rumble, 1982:8; see also, MacArthur, 1973 (?):10; Chander, 1991(a):101; Ferguson, 1975:14; Scupham, 1975:327; Open University, 1993 (d):1). Lord Perry was appointed as Vice-Chancellor of the UKOU in May 1968 and the university received its Royal Charter on 23 July 1969 (Perry, 1987:211; see also, Bell and Tight, 1993:134; Rumble, 1982:8; ICDL, 1995:17; Bates, 1988 (b):3; Harry, 1981:308; 1982:171; 1990 (b):15; Hawkridge, 1973 (a):1; 1974:90; Open University, 1993 (a):55; 1993 (d):1; 1991:4; Ruggles et al., 1982:4; Ferguson, 1975:19; Venter and Mathias, 1999:63). The UKOU
commenced its work in 1971, with its headquarters at Walton Hall, Milton Keynes.

4.2.2 AIMS OF THE UKOU

The over-arching aims of the university were directed towards providing opportunities at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels of higher education to all those who, for whatever reason, have been or are being precluded from achieving their educational objectives through an existing institution of higher learning. These aims encapsulated the consideration of admission to the university of candidates who were:

- previously deprived of higher education through lack of opportunities rather than lack of ability

- qualified school leavers who could not gain access to a conventional university

- early school leavers who had not satisfied normal academic requirements but who later realized they desired or needed higher education

- certificated non-graduate teachers who wished to improve and upgrade their qualifications to graduate status

- professional candidates interested in the courses provided by the UKOU

- women who wished to study further for higher qualifications thereby contributing to the rectification of the sexual imbalance in further and higher education

(Rumble, 1982:10; see also, Open University, 1999:1-5; 1999/2000:1-2)
4.2.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

With respect to the admission of candidates to the UKOU, no educational qualifications are required for the study of undergraduate courses. As already indicated, in the inaugural address of the UKOU's first Chancellor, Lord Crowther, the issue of open admission was emphasized (Daniel, 1995 (b):400-401; see also, Houle, 1973:35; Bell and Tight, 1993:139; Open University, 1993 (a):56; 1993 (d):2; 1994 (a):5; 1999:6;81;1999/2000:3; Ruggles et al., 1982:4; Smith, 1988:236; Ferguson, 1975:19-20; MacKenzie et al., 1975:16; Willén, 1988:72; Venter and Mathias, 1999:65). The official admissions policy of the UKOU is clear. Students are accepted on a 'first come, first served' basis (Harris, 1987:14-15; see also, Titmus, 1981:44; Open University, 1999:81).

Further, students must be at least 18 years of age and must be resident in the UK or in any European Union country and in certain other European countries in which the university has agreed to register students. These include: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Republic of Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland (Open University, 1999:78). The normal minimum entrance requirements for candidates wishing to pursue postgraduate studies as applying in conventional universities in the UK also apply to the UKOU. The age and residential requirements of the undergraduate programme also apply to continuing education programmes. In the case of professional and upgrading courses stipulations are promulgated concerning required levels of previous knowledge (ICDL, 1995:18; see also, Open University, 1999/2000:4-5).

The main programmes offered by the UKOU are undergraduate programmes, continuing education programmes and higher degree programmes. Recently the UKOU introduced a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course for the PRESET of teachers.
Students registered for undergraduate study could obtain an undergraduate level diploma or a bachelor's degree or honours degree with weighting towards the arts or sciences (Open University, 1995 (d):8-41; 1993 (a):5-6; 1999 : 6-69; 1999/2000:3; see also, Chander, 1991 (a):101; Harry, 1990 (b):16; 1982:171-174; Willén, 1988:72). The courses are offered by the Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Social Sciences, School of Education, Institute of Educational Technology, School of Health and Social Welfare, Centre for Modern Languages, Faculty of Mathematics and Computing Faculty, Faculty of Science and Faculty of Technology.

In addition, university wide courses comprising Health and Disease, Environment, Issues in Women Studies, Third World Development and The English Language reflect their focus on topics of global significance in the modern world. These courses try to integrate at least some aspects of the perceptions, knowledge and methods of the sciences and technology with those of the humanities and arts. These courses are available to students from a wide range of educational and professional backgrounds, interests and intellectual tastes (Open University, 1995 (c):51; 1999:6-69; see also, Bates, 1988 (b):4; Prescott and Robinson, 1993:287-288; Harry, 1981:309; Woodley and McIntosh, 1980:12; Wakatama, 1983:289-293).

In the continuing education programme associate students take a variety of post-experience and community education courses. These are offered individually or in a stipulated conjunction with each other leading to a diploma. Other courses lead to certificates and letters of course completion. Some courses are specially developed while others are derived from foundation courses (Rumble, 1982:13; see also, Bates, 1988 (b):4; Open University, 1999:6-69).

The higher degree programmes and professional qualifications include the degrees in the faculties of arts and sciences and are described as the taught higher degrees. These higher degrees are studied part time and externally. The UKOU currently offers taught higher degrees and professional qualifications in Manufacturing: Management and Technology, Computing for Commerce and Industry, Management - a Master's in
Business Administration (MBA) and a MBA (Technology), Education, Humanities, Mathematics, Business and Management, Development Management, Environmental Decision-making, Health and Social Welfare, Law, Open and Distance Education, Science and Social Sciences (Open University, 1999/2000:4-5).

Research higher degrees fall into two schemes of study. These are full time in which students work at the university's main campus at Walton Hall, at its Oxford Research Unit or at one of its regional centres. The other is part time for students who want to study and use research facilities in the area where they live. Qualifications available are a Bachelor of Philosophy (B.Phil.), Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) or a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.). The usual minimum entry requirement for a research degree is an upper second-class honours degree of a British university or the equivalent. Candidates for these research degrees are expected to be resident in the UK (Open University, 1995 (a):13; 1994 (b):5; 1993 (a):6; 1999/2000:5; see also, Bates, 1988 (b):5; Rumble, 1982:13; Harry, 1981:309; 1990 (b):16-17; 1982:174-175; Chander, 1991 (a):103).

The medium of teaching at the UKOU is directed at what the UKOU claims as a pioneered system of study. This is the concept of supported open learning that endeavours to bring its courses and study materials within the reach of the students enrolled with the UKOU (Open University, 1995 (a):5; 1999:4-5; 1999/2000:2; see also, Scupham, 1975:338; Keegan, 1990 (a):193-194).

The course materials comprise specially written and professionally printed textbooks or workbooks. These are developed by course teams. The team operates in two distinct phases. The first is concerned with the initial design and development of the course ready for its first year of presentation. During the second and subsequent years the course has to be maintained during its course life.

In this stage new assignments and examination papers have to be prepared, the course content amended in the light of feedback from teaching and to reflect changes in the
subject matter of the course. Typically, while the majority of members of a development course team will be reassigned to other duties at the termination of the development phase, one or two members supported by a course co-ordinator will retain responsibility for the course during its presentation (Rumble, 1982:92; see also, Bates, 1988 (b):5; Prescott and Robinson, 1993:288; Harry, 1981:309; 1982:178-179; 1990 (b):18-19; Harris, 1987:100; Woodley and McIntosh, 1980:11; Ruggles et al., 1982:4; Keegan, 1990 (a):194; Ural, 1982:8).

In addition, printed materials such as assignment and broadcast notes are also provided. Course materials include special equipment such as home experiment kits for practical work mainly for science and technology courses, audio- and video-cassettes produced by the UKOU and BBC Production Unit, computer software and other relevant materials.

Many courses include radio and television programmes on the national BBC networks. Computing has developed into an important aspect of the courses offered by the UKOU (Open University, 1999:4; 1999/2000:2). Computer-conferencing facilities, teleconferencing, access to databases and field trips constitute key elements of the courses. These are designed to develop and broaden the study experience and improve the comprehension of different aspects of the course. These programmes are also oriented towards preparation for study and providing information with regard to important developments.

Some courses include one week residential schools. These are usually held in the summer months at other universities or conference centres in the UK. There are also shorter residential schools such as during the week or at weekends.

These residential schools provide a concentrated period of study, free from other pressures and the normal distractions of work and domestic responsibilities. They provide an opportunity for the students to participate in group activities and interact with other students and teaching staff. They also enable students to carry out essential field
and laboratory work or participate in special activities deemed to be critical for the course (Open University, 1995 (a):5; 1999:4; 1999/2000:2; see also, ICDL, 1995:18; Rumble, 1982:41; Woodley and McIntosh, 1980:11; Harry, 1982:177).

An important aspect of the UKOU programmes is the teaching and counselling support that is offered. Sewart (1980:173; see also, Open University, 1993 (d):1-2; 1993 (e):1; 1999:4; 1999/2000:1-2) expresses the opinion that the inclusion of the counselling service in the UKOU and the origins of the concept of 'continuity of concern' arise out of the context of the constraints involved in the delimited tuition system and has been developed to meet the needs of the students as the UKOU has increased in scale and complexity. Keegan (1981:52) adds that this form of support provides an interlocking link between course materials and learning.

There are thirteen Open University regions in the UK. These regions are described as: London Region, South East Region, South Region, South West Region, West Midlands Region, East Midlands Region, East Anglia Region, Yorkshire Region, North West Region, North Region, The Open University in Wales, The Open University in Scotland and the Open University in Ireland (Open University, 1999:89; 1999/2000:7). They manage some 290 study centres and employ 7 000 teaching and counselling staff. The services of the regional offices include tuition and counselling.

Students constitute part of a small group attached to a tutor. Most of the teaching is done by correspondence with some group sessions. A counsellor gives general guidance on study techniques and assists candidates with problems encountered in the course of their studies.

Students have the option to attend group tutorials at a study centre in their region. Other events related to the courses being studied may also be organized by the study centre. Students are also involved in making contact with other students studying similar courses in terms of a self-help group (Open University, 1995 (a):6; 1999:4; 1999/2000:1-2; see also, Rumble, 1982:39; Prescott and Robinson, 1993:288; Harry,
The academic performance of students is measured principally by continuous assessment and written examinations. Continuous assessment measures of performance throughout the course are based on assignments. These comprise written work marked by tutors or multiple-choice questions that are marked by computer. These marks are combined with those awarded for the examination at the end of the course to calculate the final result. An important aspect of the assessment is the informal feedback from the tutors by way of written comment on the various assignments (Open University, 1995 (a):6-7; 1999:5; 1999/2000:2; see also, Rumble, 1982:42-43; Harry, 1982:181-182; Venter and Mathias, 1999:65-66).

4.2.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

Rumble (1982:79; see also, Harry, 1981:310) asserts that DE providing institutions represent a novel departure in the organization and management of such educational institutions. In general terms, two distinctive features characterize their organization. They are designed, in the first instance, to serve the needs of adults who, for whatever reason, are unable to attend a conventional institution. Secondly, since the students are not provided instruction, in situ, the teaching materials and local support services must be made available to the candidates in the DE programmes in or near their place of abode.

Consequently, the DE institutions have to marry two differing concepts. The one is the production and distribution of course materials in terms of a variety of quasi-industrial processes which require a form of business enterprise necessitating appropriate management and control. The other approximates the traditionally conceived academic areas in which staff expect a style of management or governance reflecting accustomed
forms of management in conventional universities.

The UKOU took cognizance of these considerations and the fact that it enjoyed full university status. It, therefore, decided that unlike the cellular structure characterizing the conventional universities where each department had full control of the teaching programme, the UKOU as a whole has full control over the design, production and distribution of its multi-media teaching materials, admission, registration, tutoring, assessment and accreditation of the students.

In terms of decision-making the university is an autonomous institution established by Royal Charter. This provides the fundamental formal framework by setting up a minimum number of formal governing bodies and officers. Further, the university is empowered to create or modify its own detailed internal government structure as and when required.

The Charter recognizes the essential differences of the UKOU from conventional universities in many respects. Nonetheless, it establishes the normal organs of governance of a British university (Scupham, 1975:330).


- The Council which is constitutionally responsible for the overall management of the university with respect to its finance and its physical plant. The Charter deems the Council to be the executive governing body of the university.

- The Senate is the academic authority of the university. However, it remains subject to the powers reserved to the Council by the Charter and
Statutes. Thus, there is an element of subordination in the relationship of the Senate.

Notwithstanding the *locus standi* it is perhaps more realistic to conceive the situation in terms of a separation of powers. It may also be seen as a system of checks and balances so that to all intents and purposes the Senate is fully concerned with and responsible for academic matters.

The most important chief executive officer of the UKOU is the Vice-Chancellor. As Chairman of the Senate and a powerful voice in Council he is understandably the lynchpin of discussions involving broad issues of policy. He is assisted in the academic orientation of the UKOU and in the promotion of policy over other areas by the Pro-Vice-Chancellors and Deans of the various faculties. Meetings with such personnel and the interaction of these members of the UKOU constitute in essence its corporate management team. Numerous committees assist with the requisite inputs that are essential for the overall policy decisions involving the UKOU as a whole.

The organograms represented in figures 4.1 and 4.2 below provide a conspectus of the hierarchical structure at the UKOU. This hierarchical structure has not changed as we approach the new millennium.
Figure 4.1 UNITED KINGDOM OPEN UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

VICE-CHANCELLOR

PRO-VICE-CHANCELLOR Academic
PRO-VICE-CHANCELLOR Student Affairs
PRO-VICE-CHANCELLOR Planning
PRO-VICE-CHANCELLOR Continuing Education

INTERNATIONAL OFFICE

INFORMATION SERVICES
Director

PROJECT CONTROL
Controller

FACULTIES U-AREA CENTRE FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY REGIONAL OPERATIONS ADMINISTRATION LIBRARY AND MEDIA RESOURCES UNIT

Head Director Director Director (see substructure charts following)

Deans Sub-Deans

Academic Co-ordinators Deputy Director

COURSE DEVELOPMENT DIVISION INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH DIVISION CENTRAL RTS REGIONS

Head Head Deputy Director Asst. Director Regional Directors Deputy Regional Directors

DISCIPLINES RESEARCH GROUPS ACADEMIC COMPUTING SERVICE (MATHS)

Heads Directors/Heads Manager

LIBRARY AND MEDIA TECHNICAL SERVICES

Sub-Librarian Sub-Librarian Sub-Librarian

SOURCE: Rumble (1982:87; see also, Costello, 1993:4)
Figure 4.2 UNITED KINGDOM OPEN UNIVERSITY GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE

COUNCIL

SENATE

Vice-Chancellor's Office --- Vice-Chancellor

SIX FACULTIES

Deans

ARTS

EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

MATHEMATICS

SCIENCE

TECHNOLOGY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Director

LIBRARY AND MEDIA RESOURCES UNIT

MARKETING Director

Librarian and Director of Media Resources

APPLICATIONS COURSE

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH UNIT

EDUCATIONAL MISSIONS

SCIENCE

SOCIAL SCIENCES

STUDENT COMPUTING SERVICE Manager

COURSE TEAMS

INSTITUTIONAL MEDIA RESOURCES

Director

Director Librarian and Director of Media Resources

MEDIA DEVELOPMENT

Director of Media Development and Acting Head of Media Production

MEDIA PRODUCTION

PUBLISHING Director

ADMINISTRATION Secretary

ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION

Deputy Secretary and Registrar

DATA PROCESSING Manager

COUNCIL Finance Officer

Senior Assistant Secretary

FINANCE Officer

CORRESPONDENCE SERVICES Manager

EXAMINATIONS SECTION

PERSONNEL REGISTRY SENATE SECTION

REGIONAL TUTORIAL SERVICES Director

TWIN REGIONS Regional Directors

SOURCE: Rumble (1982:88; see also, Costello, 1993:4)
4.2.5 THE ROLE OF THE UKOU IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

In the 1950s and 1960s two routes to qualified teacher status in the UK were available. The first was a qualification obtained at a college of education after three years of study. The second was open to graduates who were allowed to teach without any further professional qualification or such graduates could study for a one-year postgraduate certificate in education.

The 1970s saw the development of an all-graduate profession for teachers. A four-year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree was initiated. The degree was awarded by colleges of education validated by the local universities or the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). This placed teachers who had trained earlier and who were not graduates at a tremendous disadvantage both financially and in terms of career prospects.

Teachers earned the same salary whether they taught in a primary or secondary school. Differences in salary were determined in terms of individual qualifications and additional increments were attached to posts of special responsibility (Prescott and Robinson, 1993:289).

At this time INSET for teachers concentrated in the main on further professional development for qualified teachers. Impetus for INSET programmes was provided by the James Report (Bagwandeen, 1991(b):257-260; see also, Prescott and Robinson, 1993:290; Boyd-Barrett, 1993:94).

According to Graves (1995:2-3) at this time Institutes of Education which were also referred to as the Area Training Organizations (ATOs) were to make education of teachers subject to academic control of universities. In 1984 a Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was set up to advise the Secretaries of
State for Education and Science on the approval of initial teacher training courses.

The promulgation of the Education Reform Act of 1988 introduced major curriculum and assessment changes in schools resulting in the need to promote the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Further developments in teacher education took place when CATE was reconstituted in 1990 for the purposes of accrediting teacher education courses. However, when the Education Act of 1994 was promulgated CATE was abolished and the new Teacher Training Agency (TTA) was set up. The TTA is responsible for the funding of teacher training. The debate in the UK with regard to teachers is still continuing in terms of a technicist view versus a broader cultural view of the way teachers ought to be educated (Graves, 1995:4). However, government policy in the UK now changed to provide more varied and flexible routes to gaining a teaching qualification. For example, in the UK in 1995/6, 21 000 students entered a full time one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course and 14 300 students entered for a full time B.Ed. course (Leach and Moon, 1997:2).

Prescott and Robinson (1993:287) are of the opinion that the involvement of the UKOU in teacher education may seem surprising in some ways. The UK is not a very large country. Hence, distances are not too great for much of the population. Communications are good and there are a considerable number of colleges and universities offering teacher education courses of all kinds.

However, in the earlier period few part time opportunities existed for teachers to upgrade their qualifications. Although the possibility of using DE for PRESET or for the provision of INSET courses to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers per se did not figure prominently in the initial plans of the UKOU, there was a large reservoir of qualified teachers who wished to upgrade themselves formally. There were some 250 000 teachers out of a total of 400 000 who were seeking this avenue (Scupham, 1975:325).
Indeed, as Perry (1987:68; see also, Prescott and Robinson, 1993:292; Smith, 1988:241-242; Scupham, 1975:324-325) contends, the Faculty of Educational Studies was primarily concerned with the need of the very high proportion of non-graduate certificated teachers who wished to study for an appropriate degree. In 1971 when the UKOU started its DE courses out of a total of 19,581 enrolled students, 40.1 per cent of such students were teachers (Prescott and Robinson, 1993:292; see also, Williams, 1973 (?):153).

There were three primary reasons for the large number of teachers applying to the UKOU. Firstly, the publicity given to the inauguration of the UKOU was overwhelming. Secondly, as Harris (1987:33; see also, Raynor, 1980:220) suggests, the announcement was made that from 1972 teaching was to become an all-graduate profession. Graduate status for teachers meant increased emoluments in terms of the Burnham salary scales for educators and also enhanced prospects for promotion in an established career structure (Scupham, 1975:346). Thirdly, the publicity information for the UKOU had offered incentives in the form of exemptions from some parts of the degree to those candidates already holding higher education diplomas including the PRESET qualifications of the teachers' certificate. Thus, the UKOU provided at the same time both a speedy and a valuable route to graduate status for teachers in the UK.

The potential of the UKOU to make a wider national contribution to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers through DE is now firmly established. The courses for teachers in service range from the undergraduate degrees to postgraduate programmes. The latter include advanced diplomas in education, certificate of professional development in education and a Master of Arts (M.A.) and a Doctorate (Ed.D.) in Education. The professional development of teachers is now recognized within the teaching profession as part of the continuous process of academic, curriculum and skills development for individual teachers, schools and the education service (Open University, 1995 (b) (1):2; 1999:37; 1999/2000:4; see also, Prescott and Robinson, 1993:294-296).
It is interesting to note that postgraduate study is not dependent upon teachers having a first degree. Some of the routes prepare non-graduates for postgraduate courses. Thus, for example, the Certificate in Professional Development in Education provides a suitable introduction to postgraduate study in education for those teachers who are not graduates. Similarly, the M.A. in Education admits non-graduates if there is some clear indication that the teachers enrolled will benefit and succeed (Open University, 1995 (b) (1):2; see also, Boyd-Barrett, 1993:95-97).

The UKOU M.A. in Education is now firmly established as the most popular postgraduate degree for education professionals with over 3500 students registering each year. It is a modular degree and candidates are at liberty to select from a range of options which best suits the individual interests and professional goals of the teacher.

The modules are designed to equip the teachers to identify problems and questions in areas of interest and to design study plans or research strategies to deal with them. It enables teachers enrolled for the course to critically evaluate relevant literature and provide an introduction to the methods and skills needed for the areas chosen. It further provides candidates with the professional skills appropriate for work or consultancy (Open University, 1995 (b) (1):31; 1993 (f):1-6).

The distinctive characteristics of the UKOU Doctorate in Education are its professional orientation, its substantial taught element and its modular structure. It is designed to meet the needs of professionals in education and related areas who are seeking to extend and deepen their knowledge and understanding of contemporary educational issues, to develop appropriate skills in educational research and enquiry. It also enables the candidate to carry out research and to contribute to professional knowledge and practice. The structure of the Ed.D. offered by the UKOU consists of a taught component and the thesis component (Open University, 1995 (b) (1):50).
The UKOU programmes for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers were developed to meet the needs and interests of teachers at different stages in their careers. Case studies and practical work in classrooms and schools are included in the courses to ensure that they relate directly to the professional experience of teachers.

An interesting development for teacher education is that since 1994 the UKOU began to offer the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) which is a PRESET initial training course for graduates on a part-time basis. This initiative of the UKOU was first announced in August 1991 (Open University, 1992 b:19).

The PGCE is a new course from the School of Education which offers individuals enrolled for the course to become fully qualified teachers. The UKOU PGCE programme has now evolved into Europe’s largest open and DE programme for PRESET representing 7.2% of the national total of graduate entrants in the UK. The esteem and veneration, in which the PGCE as offered by the UKOU is held, were demonstrated in February 1997 when the programme was awarded the Queen’s Anniversary Prize for Higher Education (Open University, 1997:6; see also, Leach and Moon, 1997:2; Moon, 1998:9).

This course is in keeping with the requirements of the Department for Education (DFE), previously the Department of Education and Science (DES), and the TTA (Boyd-Barrett, 1993:95). The initiative was taken in response to market research which indicated that a significant proportion of UKOU students are interested in teaching as a career (Moon and Mayes, 1995:2; see also, Leach and Moon, 1997:3). Further, many of them were interested in scarce subjects such as Science, Mathematics and Languages where difficulty was experienced in recruiting teachers. These students also could not register for a PGCE course at a conventional institution because of employment or because of distance from a teacher training institution.

The course is oriented towards the education and training of primary and secondary
school teachers. In addition to the academic component the student enrolled for the PGCE spends fifteen weeks full time in blocks of three, four and eight weeks of school placement. The equivalent of a further three weeks' experience will be required to give students a wider understanding of the life of the school. This will involve visits to other schools, attendance at parents' evenings, teachers' meetings after school and perhaps assisting with extra-curricular activities or residential visits (Open University, 1993 (b):3; 1993 (c):9; see also, Boyd-Barrett, 1993:97; Pearson, 1992:17-20; Leach and Moon, 1997:4).

Within the school there will be a mentor who will play the leading role in teaching, support and assessment of the student during school placements. Schools are also asked to nominate a senior member of staff to act as the management link with the UKOU and to play a role in validating school-based assessments of student progress in the classroom and the school generally. Such a person is described as the school co-ordinator.

Within the UKOU regional structure a staff tutor (PGCE) or assistant staff tutor (PGCE) will be responsible for implementing all aspects of the PGCE programme including liaison with the partner school and training of mentors and course tutors. The course tutor appointed locally by the UKOU will have a complementary role to that of the school mentor.

The School of Education has been meticulous in ensuring that the training for PGCE designated school staff, namely, the mentor, the school co-ordinator, the staff tutor and the course tutor as well as the partnership roles and responsibilities have been clearly defined (Open University, 1993 (c):14-23; see also, Leach and Moon, 1997:6). Training and briefing sessions for such personnel as well as training packs are made available by the UKOU.

These roles are shown in the illustration in figure 4.3 below.
The UKOU course for PRESET comprises primary and secondary subject specialist course materials which have been developed within a common course framework. The framework, which is also an interesting model for the KZN context, includes the following features:

- The content of the study material is integrated into the practical experience of teaching in schools. It reflects the centrality of the student's school experience.

- The three stage structure and the organization of the school-based experience will be common to all PGCE course lines.

- The majority of the course will be primary or secondary school subject specific material with some material generic across all course lines. The framework permits similar issues to be addressed at common points in the course but with a subject perspective. This has the advantage of facilitating the integration of course structure and assessment as well as permitting cross-referencing between subjects at tutorials and day schools.
• At each stage in the course students will be required to carry out a personal audit focusing on their own knowledge of the school curriculum and the subjects they will be teaching.

• The course is designed to deal even-handedly with the sensitive and controversial issues which every PRESET teaching course is required to cover.

• Throughout the course the content and framework will underpin areas of study or experience that will necessitate further professional development through induction and the early years of teaching.

(Open University, 1993 (c):10; see also, Moon and Mayes, 1995:3-5; Leach and Moon, 1997:6-8)

As Boyd-Barrett (1993:97), Graves (1995:5) and Blake et al. (1995:40) point out the emphasis on PRESET for teachers has occurred against a background of substantial change in government policy for initial training. There is now a move towards less reliance on university departments of education and a much greater role for schools. In 1993 the government announced the School-Centred Initiative in Teacher Training (SCITT) to enable schools to take responsibility for training teachers with or without the involvement of higher education (Blake et al., 1995:40; see also, NEPI, 1992(b):60-62).

The old debate between 'training' and 'education' for teachers has been resuscitated (Bagwandeen, 1991(b):33-34; see also, Graves, 1995:5; Lucas, 1995:11-13). Notwithstanding, the UKOU PGCE programme has attracted widespread interest, nationally and internationally (Leach and Moon, 1997:12). As such it has become an effulgent model to create opportunities through DE for significant sectors of the population to realize their ambition of becoming better and more competent educators.
4.2.6 **SUMMATION**

There can be no doubt that the UKOU has had a major impact on the provision of education in the UK. Sir John Daniel (1995 (c):xv), the Vice-Chancellor of the UKOU, comments:

'In the summer of 1970 a first cohort of 25,000 students were admitted to a new university. They took a risk in joining The Open University. It was an untried institution whose radical innovations of open admission and multimedia distance learning had provoked hostility among politicians and scepticism in educational circles. Now, a generation later, we can see that those intrepid students actually pioneered the most important educational innovation of their time.'

Certainly, the UKOU’s ideals and impact have vividly captured the imagination of the world in the latter part of the 20th century. Its ideals and innovations will no doubt lead DE into the 21st century (Open University, 1994 (a):5; 1999:2).

The university was from the outset committed to excellence and parity of standards with other universities (Rumble, 1982:107). As Holmberg (1986 (b):37; 1985 (c):138), referring to Hawkridge (1976) remarks the UKOU has become a success story and Britain’s best contribution to education in the second half of the twentieth century, a masterly harnessing of technology to social purposes and a powerful catalyst in higher education worldwide. Indeed, Jones et al. (1993:35) concur with the much vaunted opinion that the UKOU is a household name in the UK.

The UKOU has achieved two separate innovations: a university offering universal access both into the institution and through its courses; a national educational institution using a sophisticated system based predominantly on DE methods. Zigerell
(1991:45) voices the opinion that the UKOU without doubt is one of the greatest educational achievements of this century.

Garrison (1989:57-58; see also, Greagg, 1985:15-33; Smith, 1988:235; Wedemeyer, 1981:6; Keegan, 1981:44; Willén, 1988:71; Tait, 1991:42; Costello, 1993:3) also advances the view that the UKOU is unique in many ways. It is continuing a century of tradition of DE. At the same time it has raised the methods of independent study to an admirable level of sophistication by integrating the electronic communications media with print-led courses and coterminously underscoring concern for the quality of support in DE.

Harris (1987:36; see also, Open University, 1993 (a):18-23; Smith, 1988:244) adds that the UKOU has been a veritable boon especially for female students. Currently more than 35 per cent of all places for women in higher education is provided by the UKOU.

Bell and Tight (1993:137) refer to the comments made by Cerych and Sabatier (1985:27-28) who as foreign commentators expressed the view that the UKOU has also served as a model for the design of institutions in at least a dozen countries as diverse as Venezuela, Pakistan, India and Iran. The UKOU is now expanding its horizons and in terms of its strategic planning prognosticates that it will become the focus of the European, English language DE institutions.

With respect to improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers the UKOU provides a wide range of teacher education courses from the PRESET postgraduate certificate in education to INSET award bearing courses up to the doctoral level. In addition, the UKOU makes available study packs and in-service resources for non-award bearing, school-focused INSET (Open University, 1995 (b) (1):51; 1999:37-38). Prescott and Robinson (1993:313) elaborate that the UKOU in this regard has amply demonstrated its capability to produce high quality learning materials and to deliver them effectively for teacher education courses as well as other directions of study.
Raynor (1980:219; 226-227) remarked during the tenth anniversary celebrations of the UKOU that in a relatively short period the university has come to be seen as making a significant contribution to the professional development of teachers. Currently this role is being enhanced by the various courses on offer related directly to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers.

The teacher education courses have been generally received most positively. They are regarded as relevant and useful for teaching and educational management. The UKOU courses underpin the need for the awareness and response to the rapidly changing dynamics in schools and educational services. It has also demonstrated most commendably its ability to accommodate such on-going metamorphosis to a very large extent.

Hawkridge (1973 (a):13) expressed the view that the UKOU both in concept and actuality contains great potential for developing countries. Daniel (1995 (c):xv) reinforces this proposition by affirming that the UKOU and other such institutions of open and distance learning provide the keys to successful practices, describe the wheels that do not need to be reinvented and demonstrate innovative and challenging ways of accessing knowledge and skills.

Most certainly, the UKOU has institutionalized the praxis of initiating innovations to a remarkable degree. Daniel (1995 (b):403) further expounds the view apropos the UKOU and its spirit of educational enterprise:

‘By remaining open as to people, open as to places, open as to methods and open as to ideas it will continue to pioneer new expressions of the academic ideal in the future.’

This vision statement and the example of the UKOU as a DE institution as well as its wide array of programmes for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers
are incontrovertibly worthy of emulation in KZN. Understandably, cognizance will have to be taken of the local situation, vis-a-vis the UK in terms of the availability of modern interactive telecommunications, other technological media, economic and budgetary constraints and the various other traits that distinguish the sophistication level of the UKOU as representing the model of a DE institution in a developed country.

In the final analysis, however, the UKOU should be deemed a distinguished exemplar for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers through DE. The UKOU's model of academic vitality and quality of teaching underpinned by evolving technologies enabling it to provide convenient and cost-effective courses will empower and increase the professional impact of teachers in the Province of KZN.

Moreover, it must be noted, as will be seen later, that the current dynamics and crisis apropos teacher education in KZN makes this study of the UKOU even more relevant. Unlike other developing countries, there is no shortage of teachers in this province. Thus, changes in the PRESET programmes of teachers and the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE can be enhanced in terms of the UKOU model.

4.3 **THE ATHABASCA UNIVERSITY (AU) OF CANADA**

4.3.1 **ORIGINS OF THE AU**

O'Rourke et al. (1995:28) express the opinion that an overview of DE in Canada is a daunting task given a population of some 27 million people who are culturally diverse, a land area of nearly 10 million square kilometres, two official languages and a political structure which assigns responsibility for education at all levels to provincial and territorial governments. Be that as it may, the Canadian experience has invaluable lessons for DE and its role for improving and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.
Rothe (1986: 4; see also, Croft, 1988:101; Burge et al., 1991:1) succinctly comments that the DE landscape in Canada is dotted with many organizations, departments and agencies providing a variety of services according to regional demands. While earlier events in DE such as the commencement of correspondence education at Queen's University in 1889 and at the University of Saskatchewan in 1907 are noteworthy, in the 1970s the UKOU had a profound impact on the DE scenario in Canada. As a matter of fact, a direct consequence of this was that the DE strategy in Canada has been transformed from the ugly duckling to the elegant swan (Turnbull, 1987:108; 1988:429).

A major development in Canadian DE occurred in 1970 with the establishment of the AU. The colourful yet stressed travail and history of the AU is well documented. Paul (1986 (a):129) remarks pithily about the origins of the AU:

‘Insecurity and booming enrolments, identity crises and leadership status in the world of distance education, a relocation that could not be justified on educational grounds and first-class new facilities, innovative ideas and a traditional quest for credibility: contradiction and controversy have surrounded Athabasca University (AU) since its inception in 1970.’

Perhaps the best known account of the establishment of the AU is that by its Founding President T C Byrne (1989). Several others, such as Sweet (1989 (1)), Morrison and Saraswati (1988), Abrioux et al. (1984), Mugridge and Kaufman (1986), Paul (1986 (a); 1987; 1989), Abrioux (1992), Shale (1982) and Rothe (1986), have provided interesting and detailed accounts of AU as a DE institution.

The headquarters of AU is located above the town of Athabasca which nests in the Athabasca River valley. On 30 August 1982, Peter Lougheed, premier of Alberta, turned the first sod of the university's headquarters. He thereafter commented that the
university had come home. This political statement is illustrative of the irony that is a hallmark of the tumultuous and tortuous history of AU (Byrne, 1989:vii). The origins of Alberta's fourth university was forged in the crucible of the political history of the Manning Government which had been in power in Alberta for almost three decades.

According to Shale (1982:33; see also, Smith and Croft, 1987:106) the ten provinces and two territories of Canada are linked together by a federal system of government under which the federal and provincial governments have established areas of jurisdiction. The legislative responsibilities of these two levels of government are established in terms of the British North America Act. Education is identified as a provincial responsibility. Technical, vocational and industrial training together with the professions, university level study and training in the arts are subsumed under the level of post-secondary education.

In terms of reflecting growth and progress in education the government in Alberta appointed a Committee in the late 1940s with respect to post-war reconstruction. With regard to education at tertiary level including teacher education, the University of Alberta which had been established in 1906 was to have a campus at Calgary. The issue of the Calgary campus becoming an autonomous university was on the tapis for almost two decades.

During this time in addition to other courses offered, the university concluded agreements with the Minister of Education to provide programmes in teacher education leading to certification for teaching both the elementary and secondary school grades. The two provincial normal schools in the province, one in Edmonton and the other in Calgary, became part of the newly-established Faculty of Education.

The discovery of oil and subsequent economic expansion in Alberta led to its transformation from a rural to an urban society (Byrne, 1989:6). Edmonton became the service centre for the oil industry while Calgary served as the administrative and financial centre. By 1960 Calgarians including members of the university staff,
students and the general public began to agitate for an autonomous university, one befitting the size and importance of a city like Calgary.

In November 1965 recommendations were made by the MacDonald Committee for the two campuses of the University of Alberta to become separate universities. In terms of the new Universities Act passed by the Alberta Legislature in April 1966 the University of Calgary was established as separate from the University of Alberta. In 1967 the University of Lethbridge, a third university, was established (Byrne, 1989:9; see also, Paul, 1986 (a):129; AU, 1999(b) : 1).

This set the scene for the birth of the AU. Demands of the projected growth in enrolment at the University of Alberta became a major issue (Byrne, 1989:11; see also, Shale, 1982:34; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:20). It was estimated that by 1973-74 the student population at the University of Alberta would reach 25 000. This was much too large an enrolment for the university in the considered opinion of many (Byrne, 1989:16; see also, Rothe, 1986:9).

On 25 June 1970, Lieutenant-Governor Grant McEwan proclaimed Order-in-Council 1206/70 establishing Alberta's fourth University (Byrne, 1989:16; see also, Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:20; Harry, 1981:297; Abrioux, 1992:3; AU, 1992 (a):1; 1999(b):1). The primary purpose of the university was to develop excellence in undergraduate studies. In April 1971 T C Byrne was appointed the first president of "the first Athabasca University".

However, problems arose when the ruling Social Credit Party lost the provincial elections in August 1971 after 36 years in power in Alberta. The new Conservative Government led by Peter Lougheed promptly started evaluating all major projects of the previous government which were in the planning stages (Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:20; see also, Paul, 1986 (a):130).

The new provincial government expressed its opposition to building this first Athabasca
University on the site, approved by the previous government, which was near Edmonton. Further complications arose as a result of declining enrolments for tertiary education (Byrne, 1989:46; see also, Shale, 1982:35). Many felt that the new Athabasca University would be stillborn.

In order to prevent the abrogation of the legislation which led to the establishment of the first Athabasca University, Byrne, as a proponent of lifelong learning, advocated that a pilot project to determine the efficacy of the special role of the university as an undergraduate institution be considered. Inter alia, it was recommended that a study be made of the university and its provision of courses to meet the needs of the part time learner aged anywhere from eighteen to more than eighty years.

An evaluation of the pilot project, which had been approved and conducted, provided an in-depth study of the operating model. It was recommended that AU be accepted as a permanent member of the provincial university system.

The university in terms of the project was to be an open university providing undergraduate courses for such special groups as the educationally and socially disadvantaged. Further, those who by chance or circumstances beyond their control could not or did not choose to attend other provincial universities were also to be considered for admission to the university.

On 12 April 1978 the Order-in-Council 434/78 promulgated the regulations for AU. The legal existence of the university was reaffirmed. The legislation also granted the university unique governing structures. The AU was enabled to exercise attractive flexibility by being free from the rigidity which characterized the traditional classroom lecture (Byrne, 1989:83; see also, Shale, 1982:36; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:22; AU, 1999(b):1).

As Shale (1982:53; see also, Paul, 1986 (a):132; 1986 (b):8; 1989:146; Rothe, 1986:10; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:19; 23; AU, 1999(b):1) informs us that the
Government decided to establish the headquarters of the AU at Athabasca. This decision to move from Edmonton to a location some 145 kilometres away, in a town of approximately 1800 people, was greeted with shock and disbelief by the university’s Council and staff alike. The Council ultimately accepted the decision. However, Byrne, as President of the University at the time, resigned and the staff had become embittered. But the die was cast. The AU was established as an independent university at its new venue in Athabasca in 1984 to provide DE courses.

4.3.2 AIMS OF THE AU

The AU was established as an open university. Its mission statement encapsulates the aim of being dedicated to increasing equality of educational opportunity for all adult Canadians. This was to be achieved by the removal of barriers that traditionally restricted access to and success in university level studies. The AU was oriented to provide for Canadians resident in Canada the advancement of their tertiary education regardless of their geographical location and prior academic credentials. In common with all universities, AU is committed to excellence in teaching, research and scholarship and to being of service to the general public (AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):1; 1992 (a):1; see also, Smith and Croft, 1987:112; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:19; 23; Paul, 1986 (b):18; Powell et al., 1989:9). AU, like most other DE institutions, was determined to create innovative learning systems and to combine the best features of openness and innovation with the disciplinary research of a conventional university (Paul, 1989:145).

The AU hoped to achieve its aims by committing itself to specific strategies. Quite obviously at this stage the AU had become influenced to some extent by the success of the UKOU. The strategies adopted by the AU were:

- A commitment to an admissions policy which dictates that the only entrance requirements are that students be 18 years of age or older and
residents of Canada.

• A specialization in techniques of delivery and teaching designed to minimize temporal and spatial constraints of study for students.

• A commitment to credit co-ordination allowing students to assemble credit earned at other institutions towards credentials at AU.

• The provision of special tutorial, counselling and other support services that facilitate students' learning.

• The development of programmes in the light of identifiable needs of prospective students including members of disadvantaged groups.

• A commitment to collaborative arrangements with other institutions with a view to improving the facilities and opportunities available to students.

• A commitment to continuous review of course content and delivery mechanisms and their effectiveness.

• A commitment to identify elements of programmes that may be better delivered and supported by the utilization of innovative pedagogy and relevant educational technologies.

• A commitment to active search for adequate funding deemed essential for the realization of longer term objectives.

(Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:24; see also, AU, 1992 (a):5-6; 1999(a))
4.3.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

Shale (1982:45; see also, Abrioux et al., 1984:4; Paul, 1989:146; 1986 (a):129; 138; Crawford and Spronk, 1995:62; Ruggles et al., 1982:5; Powell et al., 1989:9; AU, 1992 (a):13; 1999(a); 1999(b):5) points out that like the UKOU the AU has an open admissions policy. There are no academic requirements for entry to the AU. The only caveat is that students must be eighteen years of age or older and must live in Canada. In most cases AU students may enrol *ad lib* for courses and at any time of the year. The students may proceed through the various courses selected at their own pace. They can complete courses when they are ready. As a consequence of this laxity, the AU does not have an academic year or academic terms. New courses are generally offered in September - October or January - February. Advertising for enrolments are synchronized with these periods. In addition, the AU grants credit for approved courses completed at other recognized post-secondary institutions (AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):239-248).

The courses provided by the AU can be divided into two main categories: undergraduate and graduate programmes. The undergraduate programmes comprise the following:

Degree programmes constituting:

- Bachelor of Administration with concentrations in Health Administration; Industrial Relations, Management, Organization and Public Administration.

- Bachelor of Administration (Post-Diploma) with concentrations in Health Administration, Management and Organization.

- Bachelor of Arts (3 year) in the field of Anthropology, English, French, History, Humanities, Information Systems, Labour Studies, Psychology, Sociology and
Women's Studies.

• Bachelor of Arts (4 year) with majors in Anthropology, Canadian Studies, English, French, History, Information Systems, Labour Studies, Psychology, Sociology and Women's Studies.

• Bachelor of Commerce.

• Bachelor of General Studies with designations in Applied Studies, Arts and Science.

• Bachelor of General Studies (Post-Diploma) with designations in Administrative Studies, Humanities, Science and Social Science.

• Bachelor of Nursing.

• Bachelor of Professional Arts with majors in Communication Studies and Criminal Justice.

• Bachelor of Science with or without a major in Human Science.

• Bachelor of Science (Post-Diploma).

• Bachelor of Science in Computing and Information Systems.

• Bachelor of Science in Computing and Information Systems (Post-Diploma).

The AU offers the following Diploma programmes:

• University Diploma in Arts.
University Diploma in Inclusive Education for teachers who wish to enhance their knowledge and skills in the area of special needs learners.

With regard to University Certificates, the AU provides courses in a variety of fields: Accounting, Administration, Advanced Accounting, Career Development, Computers and Management Information Systems, Counselling Women, English Language Studies, French Language Proficiency, Health Development Administration, Home Health Nursing, Information Systems, Labour Relations, Labour Studies, Public Administration and Rehabilitation Practice.

(AU, 1999(a); 1999(b): 9-146)

As from 1994 graduate programmes were offered by the AU. These included a Master of Distance Education (MDE) degree and a Master’s degree in Business Administration (MBA), an Advanced Graduate Diploma in Management and an Advanced Graduate Diploma : Community Nursing Practice (AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):179-214; see also, Crawford and Spronk, 1995:61).

Initially, during the pilot project AU undertook to develop its own courses. Subsequently, AU acquired print-media courses produced by UKOU, Coastline Community College in the USA, Laurentian University and the Télé-Université in Canada and from other institutions. More recently, the AU is collaborating with other Canadian DE institutions to produce courses more relevant to Canada.

Other strategies of DE such as teleconferencing, seminars and so on are also employed by AU to reach its students. However, as Shale (1982:41) observes the home study course remains the mainstay of the AU instructional system. These are designed to be self-instructional and are essentially self-contained. All required textbooks, study guides, audio-cassette tapes, workbooks, references and other requisite course materials are included in a course materials package sent to the student.
Morrison and Saraswati (1988:30) describe the AU courses as: ground-up model where courses are written and produced in their totality by a course team; wrap-around model, where courses are developed with a suitable textbook as the core instructional material with the course team writing and producing elaborate workbooks to guide the student through the text; reading courses, designed for senior level courses, which are based exclusively on assigned texts and are characterized by minimal guidance in the form of workbooks and increased tutorial support.

Where laboratory facilities are required the AU offers such courses in limited locations depending on whether the university can arrange laboratory facilities and the degree of student demand. Some courses have television and/or radio components associated with them on video-tapes which may be viewed at some of the regional learning centres throughout the province. Some television programmes, according to Shale (1982:42), are broadcast via satellite. It is interesting to note that most of the television and radio programmes offered by AU have been acquired by purchasing courses from other institutions. From a cost-effective perspective there is an important consideration here for DE programmes in South Africa and KZN.

With respect to course development, as at the UKOU, course teams are responsible for developing the various courses. The team comprises a subject matter expert, an instructional developer, a visual designer and an editor with one of these individuals assuming additional duties as the course team manager (Shale, 1982:42; see also, Abrioux et al., 1984:6; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:26; 31-34; Rothe, 1986:9; Paul, 1986 (a):134; 1987:146-147; Harry, 1981:298; Abrioux, 1992:6-7; Ruggles et al., 1982:5; AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):5-8).

Both full time academic staff as well as expert consultants are engaged to develop the content of the courses. There is close interaction among the members of the course team. Various models of course teams are tried out in an effort to find effective and efficient strategies to produce courses.
Students at AU are assessed and given a percentage grade in a course on the basis of their performances in a set of assignments/essays and examinations. The number of assignments/essays in a course and the total weight in the final grade for the course are determined at the time of the course design. The system allows a student to write an examination whenever such a student feels prepared, after completing the required assignments/essays in a satisfactory manner.

If the student lives near a regional centre or a learning centre the examination is scheduled at the centre at a time convenient for the student. Otherwise the student approaches the local school or library for examination arrangements with a suitable invigilator acceptable to the university. The Registry sends the examination papers to the invigilator whose responsibility is to conduct the examination and then send the examination answer books back to the Registry. Though tutors grade and mark assignments/essays, all examinations in a course are marked by a central marker to ensure uniform assessment (Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:36-37; see also, Harry, 1981:299; AU, 1992 (a):10; 1999(a); 1999(b):7;223-224).

Student support services constitute a key element in the provision of DE programmes at AU. A tutor is deemed to be the most important element in the area of academic support to students. When students enrol for a DE programme they are automatically assigned to a tutor who becomes the immediate contact between the student and the university (Shale, 1982:43; see also, Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:34-36; Paul, 1986 (a):140; Harry, 1981:299; AU, 1992 (a):9; 1999(a); 1999(b):215-222).

The tutor provides guidance to the student with respect to course content, administrative matters, marking and commenting on the assignments submitted by the student. Further, the tutor helps to organize seminars, discussion groups or workshop sessions. An interesting and cost saving strategy for two-way interactive communication implemented by AU is the toll-free telephone access that all students have with the tutors from anywhere in Canada. Thus, the tutor engenders that critical personal element into the loneliness that characterizes DE (Shale, 1982:43; see also,
Byrne, 1989:83; Abrioux et al., 1984:4; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:36; Paul, 1986 (b):18; 1987:148-149; Abrioux, 1992:8; 10-13; Greagg, 1985:40; AU, 1992 (a):8; 1999(a); 1999(b):215-217). In addition AU now has a computing services help desk which is designed to help students and staff. There is also an Ombuds Office which provides a single point for quick action to resolve any problems students may experience with AU services (AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):219-220).

The AU recruits tutors as part time members of staff. They are generally highly qualified with at least a Master's degree and have relevant experience in the discipline with which they are involved. The responsibility for the interaction of tutor and student and other pertinent issues related to the tutor is delegated to a Regional and Tutorial Services Department.

At the AU a course co-ordinator interacts with the tutor with respect to academic matters related to courses and students. The course co-ordinator is an academic member of staff with qualifications equivalent to those in faculties at other universities. He is also responsible for providing tutors and students with additional information regarding the course content as and when required (Shale, 1982:43).

The Regional and Tutorial Services Department of the AU has established learning centres throughout the province. These centres are often situated in local schools or libraries and provide students with access to a wide array of supplementary learning materials. These centres act as the repertory of relevant reading material. Some are equipped with computer terminals, televisions and other audio-visual or electronic media which provide valuable learning tools for AU students. These learning centres, as indicated, also serve as the venues for studying or examinations (Shale, 1982:44; see also, Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:38).

Like UNISA in South Africa and the UKOU, the AU also has established regional offices. These are situated in Calgary, Fort McMurray and Edmonton (AU, 1992 (a):26; 320-321; 1992 (b):9; 1999(a); 1999(b):216; Byrne, 1989:88-90; Morrison and
Saraswati, 1988:37-38). Various other regional offices are being developed in other locations in the province.

An interesting co-operative agreement underscoring the esteem in which the AU is held is that concluded with several post-secondary institutions. These provide tutorial and other forms of support services to local students. However, the students are enrolled for AU courses and examined by the AU (Shale, 1982:44; Byrne, 1989:96; AU, 1992 (a):20-23; 1999(a); 1999(b):239-248).

Similar to the counselling services provided by the UKOU to its students, the AU has established a Student Development Services Department. This section is an organizational unit within the AU. It advises the students on a variety of matters including such aspects as career choice, educational planning, selection and organization of study programmes. In addition, this unit also makes available to students information on the functioning of the AU, transfer of AU credits to other institutions and the nature and scope of programmes that would best accommodate a particular combination of career, educational and personal goals (Shale, 1982:44; Byrne, 1989:88; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:40-41; AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):216-217). The Student Development Services is also responsible for the AU publications such as the AU magazine containing general information about the university and its activities, the Student Handbook and a Student Directory which contain a wide range of information on study skills, course registration, contact with other students and so on.

The AU Library Services are similar to that of UNISA in South Africa. Students requiring library reference materials such as books, journals, newspapers and so forth may borrow such paraphernalia from the AU library personally. They could also write to the library or request their requirements telephonically (AU, 1999(a); 1999(b):219). An important positive arrangement that the AU library has established, which should be emulated by DE institutions in South Africa and KZN, is that access to other Albertan university libraries is available to AU students without a great deal of bureaucracy. Moreover, a system of inter-library loans, as obtaining in South African
universities and other tertiary institutions, is operative in Alberta as well. This facilitates the use of library resources by AU students who are located far and wide in the province.

4.3.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

The AU operates with a unicameral governance system (AU, 1992 (a):2; 1999(b):1; 261; see also, Abrioux et al., 1984:8; Shale, 1982:47; Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:25; Harry, 1981:299). According to Paul (1986 (a):135) this governance system is unique among Canadian universities. The Governing Council incorporates the full responsibilities of a traditional Canadian university Board of Governors which is the committee responsible for overall policy.

The Chairman of the Governing Council is also the Chancellor of the University and is appointed by the government. The choice of a unicameral system of governance was adapted in the belief that such a system would be able to respond to changing needs much quicker than the traditional bicameral system (Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:25; see also, Shale, 1982:52; Rothe, 1986:10).

A General Faculties Council is responsible for academic policy while the Senate fulfils the role of community liaison. The Council comprises one student representative, one tutor, one support staff, five academic staff and fifteen public members appointed by the Government of Alberta. The President and Vice-Chancellor and three Vice-Presidents of the University are ex officio members of the Council. AU is a full member of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, the Association of Commonwealth Universities, the ICDE and the Canadian Association for Distance Education (CADE) (AU, 1992 (a):2).

The principal academic and administrative officer is the President of the university. There are three Vice-Presidents who are responsible for the operational division of the
AU. One Vice-President is delegated the task of controlling Learning Services which is responsible for academic functions; another controls the University Services which provides administrative support; and, the third is in charge of Finance and Facilities apropos planning of the infrastructure and all financial matters concerning the AU (Shale, 1982:47; see also, Morrison and Saraswati, 1988:25; Rothe, 1986:10).

Numerous units are subsumed under these portfolios in terms of academic functions, course development and programme services. These understandably cut across organizational lines. As the AU has evolved various organizational structures have been established to accommodate the burgeoning areas of responsibility.

The organizational structure of the AU is illustrated below in figure 4.4 and remains in force at this stage:
Figure 4.4 ATHABASCA UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

SOURCE: Morrison and Saraswati (1988:25; see also, AU, 1999(b):261)
4.3.5 **THE ROLE OF THE AU IN IMPROVING AND UPGRAADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION**

In the Canadian context, as in most developed countries, the PRESET for teachers requires a first university degree and professional studies (Burpee and Wilson, 1995:236). Unlike the UKOU and UNISA which provide courses for initial training of teachers as well as award bearing INSET courses leading to improved and upgraded qualifications for teachers, the AU provides opportunities for teachers with respect to the latter strategies.

In Canada, then, universities generally, like the AU, have responded to the demands of teachers wishing to upgrade and improve their qualifications by pursuing postgraduate courses. The number of professional development and graduate courses for teachers in the period 1993-1995 increased by 52 percent (Burpee and Wilson, 1995:236).

The professional qualifications for upgrading are determined by the provincial Ministry of Education. Universities by and large, attempt to develop these courses in terms of fulfilling the Ministerial injunctions. On completion of the required courses the teacher's record will be forwarded for assessment to the Ministry of Education or a mandated professional teaching organization. Such improved or upgraded qualifications are often required for teaching or advancement in specialized fields.

According to the Canadian Association for University Continuing Education Directory of Distance Education Courses, 1994-95, the types of professional development courses for teachers primarily were: Foundations of Education / Educational Psychology; Special Education; History of Education and School Law; Methods of Teaching; Language Acquisition, Writing and Reading Skills; Second Languages; Educational Computing; Educational Administration; Adult Education; and, Counselling and Guidance (Burpee and Wilson, 1995:237).
In addition, graduate distance degree programmes in Educational Administration, Counselling and Educational Psychology are offered by a number of universities. AU, as indicated, is offering, for example, a Master's degree in Distance Education (MDE).

Universities, including the AU, also provide credit in-service courses which provincial Ministries of Education recognize and reward teachers for taking. Consequently, school boards normally take the initiative in approaching the AU as well as other universities to provide local INSET courses in specific fields in terms of identified local needs (Burpee and Wilson, 1995:238).

Further, Haughey (1990:1) highlights the changing scenario in Canada with respect to school-based DE especially in isolated rural areas. These are characterized by small numbers of pupils, lack of qualified personnel or the inability of students to attend classes. There is increasing demand for high quality DE for such clientele ranging from high teacher control to high student control. In addition, greater use of technology is becoming an educational imperative in such regions (Haughey, 1992:123-139).

Understandably the AU is playing a pivotal role in providing the essential upgrading of educators to enable them to cope with the sophisticated telecommunications technology being used for DE in schools. A variety of DE formats provide access to graduate programmes which in turn provide equity to teachers in terms of programming, helping them to explore teaching and learning options which can be implemented in their own schools and jurisdictions (Haughey, 1992:138). Quite obviously, the Canadian and AU experience in this regard, constitutes a worthwhile model for KZN in terms of the urban and rural school situations.

4.3.6 **SUMMATION**

Paul (1989:145) contends that Canada has become a world leader in DE at tertiary level most notably but not exclusively because of the contribution of the AU and other
DE institutions in the country. However, the contribution of the AU to DE and teacher upgrading remains formidable.

Shale (1982:50) makes the pertinent observation that by most standards the AU has had a tempestuous and crisis laden past. That it has survived and performed commendably is something approaching a minor miracle. Morrison and Saraswati (1988:19) maintain, however, that the traumatic experiences that led to the birth of the AU helped to develop its unique characteristic and ability to respond and adapt to changing needs and demands of the society it serves.

Byrne (1989:128) elaborates that the AU is certainly a leader among institutions directly concerned with ideas in a contemporary society. A significant characteristic of this new society is lifelong learning. As such AU is taking the lead among the Canadian universities in removing the barriers of place, time and academic preparation that often act as trammels towards achieving an education at a conventional institution. AU is providing invaluable community service in terms of its mission as a DE institution. By twentieth century standards the AU in the opinion of some may not be rated highly. Nonetheless, in confronting the challenges posed by the futuristic information age and its contribution to upgrade teachers to cope with such a challenging metamorphosis, it is marked for greatness as a dedicated DE institution in the twenty-first century.

Indeed, the experience of the AU as a DE institution can in some ways be deemed to be a living laboratory in educational innovations and the upgrading and improvement of teachers' qualifications. The AU has evinced categorically, like the UKOU, that new modes of educational delivery to improve teacher education as well as other aspects of education can be developed. While the Canadian DE canvas represents a national pot pourri of DE service, the AU serves as another benchmark development for DE. The AU model of DE also trenchantly accentuates the maxim for us in KZN that in the provision of DE and particularly for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers, we are limited only by our imagination.
Bates (1989:133) avers that Canada can be rightly proud of its innovations and its enterprises in DE. Canada has earned the reputation of having become a major innovator in the use of its communication technology. An example in this regard that South Africa and KZN could well follow is that of CADE. It organized computer-conferences, audio-conferences and conducted several virtual conferences using electronic telecommunication strategies (CADE, 1997). CADE is a national association of professionals committed to extending educational opportunities to learners by DE. The association was established in 1983 to foster excellence in the provision of DE in Canada, to promote research into DE theory and practice, to provide services related to DE and so on.

In terms of their geography and diaspora of rural population, KZN and Canada have degrees of commonality. The manner in which, for example, the AU has reached its rural clientele is certainly a model for KZN to consider. This perception is accentuated by Morrison and Saraswati (1988:42) who proclaim that the AU has established its DE programmes and teacher upgrading courses in terms of the principles of interdependent learning rooted not only in the course materials and instructional support but also in the social and cultural environment of the learner.

This philosophy underpins the two dimensions of the DE paradox as a traditional concept of independent learning and the assumption that the long standing variables of educational background, time and space need not be barriers to learning. In bridging this paradox the AU (1992(b):2; 1999(a); 1999(b):1) epithet that it is promoting DE as an intrinsic strategy for lifelong learning as a necessity and the key to the future of a dynamic and complex society has much to commend it. Thus, as for Canada, so also for KZN, the AU model has profound lessons for application in the current situation in KZN where the DE strategy could be profitably utilized for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers.
4.4 THE INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY (IGNOU) OF INDIA

4.4.1 ORIGINS OF THE IGNOU

The establishment of IGNOU must be seen in the context of the anfractuosity of a country which is complex, to say the very least. The mélange of cultural ethos, regional moulds, linguistic spectrum, ethnic milieu, social scenario and economic landscape is a veritable educational minefield. Chib (1991:57) and Mani (1990:127) suggest that in the light of such a pot pourri of heterogeneity and contradictions any single module or system of education is not possible.

Panda (1996:103; see also, Koul, 1991:115) informs us that India is a Union of twenty six states and six Union territories. It is the second most populous and second largest democracy in the world. It occupies a land area of 3 287 263 square kilometres. The population is approximately 900 million. Males outnumber females and more than 75 per cent of the population live in villages. While the Constitution of India recognizes fifteen major languages as many as 1 652 dialects and patois are spoken. India is a multi-cultural and multi-lingual nation. It is still predominantly an agricultural country although in the post-Independence era, since 1947, and more especially in the recent developments of economic liberalization towards a free market system, there has been conspicuous industrialization.

Its education system is vast and varied. As Satyanaryana (1988:151) points out, the Indian education system is a gigantic enterprise with about 755 000 institutions, in excess of 3,5 million teachers, 130 million students and an annual expenditure of 30 000 million rupees. The national stock of educated manpower is approximately 48 million. The annual increment to this category of the population is now in the order of about 3,5 million.

At Independence in 1947 there were eighteen universities with a student population of almost 200 000. By 1995 there were 220 universities or equivalent institutions,

The demand for various types of courses offered by universities is expected to rise even faster in the future owing mainly to the pursuance of the constitutional objective, similar to that in South Africa, of universalization of elementary education. The consequence of this will be a snowballing effect which would inexorably widen the base of secondary education and increase the transition ratios at tertiary levels of education. Ansari (1992:31; see also, Satyanaryana, 1988:154; Sahoo, 1993:160-161) projects that by the year 2000 A.D. the number of students at higher education would exceed 6 500 000. Notwithstanding, this figure represents currently only 6% of the total Indian population in the higher education sector (IGNOU, 1999:5). In this regard, then, DE in India both for improving and upgrading teacher education as well as for providing education and training for a wide panoply of human resource development and professional and vocational-technical needs is critical.

Sahoo (1993:158; see also, IGNOU, 1999:5) contends that DE in India has been perceived as a direct means of democratizing the educational system. At the same time the Indian system of DE is also oriented to meet the genuine demands for tertiary education through flexibility offered by the DE strategy.

It is interesting to note that the similarities with respect to tertiary education demand in India and South Africa, particularly in KZN, are striking. This is illustrated by the observation made by Altbach (1993:4):

"Indian higher education seems like an enigma enveloped in contradiction. Pockets of excellent teaching and research are surrounded by a sea of substandard colleges. The best graduates compete successfully in the world job market, but
unemployment at home is reality for many. Scholarship is often superseded by politics and, in many institutions, crisis is the norm. A system which was at one time highly selective has opened its doors to a large number, yet at the same time there is conflict and sometimes violence over access to what remains a scarce commodity.'

(As quoted by Panda, 1996:105)

The expansion of facilities, creation of institutions and diversification of their activities became necessary. After Independence the Government of India inaugurated educational reforms which underpinned a linear expansion especially in the areas of teacher education and tertiary education embedded in a plethora of Five Year Plans (Panda, 1996:105; see also, Ansari, 1992:32; Satyanaryana, 1988:153; Sahoo, 1993:5).

However, demographic pressure for teacher education and tertiary education has been high and steadily increasing in the past few decades. The position was exacerbated by increasing democratization of socio-economic services provided by various levels of governments. Further, the growing realization among the masses of the crucial significance of the socio-economic, political and cultural values of education has resulted in considerable pressure being exerted on the authorities for education among a cross-section of society.

Understandably, this phenomenal increase in the number of students was beyond the manageable capacity of the conventional system. Ansari (1992:32) comments in this regard that since the:

'... opening of more institutions with adequate provision for infrastructure facilities has been beyond
the capacity of the Central and State Governments to finance them, the search for an alternative to CS [conventional system] became imminent in order to meet the ever growing demand for various types of courses at tertiary level.'

Ansari (1993:105) continues this argument further in maintaining that the conventional system of delivering education has not been responsive for other reasons as well to the needs of modern India in ensuring equity and providing low cost, efficient and relevant education programmes to all who demand them and wish to upgrade their knowledge and skills at their own convenience and pace of learning. He argues that DE is deemed to be reasonably equitable and efficient since it is flexible enough to meet the requirements of learners of all groups from different regions.

In its 28th meeting in January 1961 the Central Advisory Board of Education, the highest policy determining body for education in India, recommended the appointment of a committee to investigate the feasibility of correspondence courses as a solution to the problems of increasing demand for enrolments at tertiary institutions. This committee under the Chairmanship of Dr D S Kothari, Chairman of the University Grants Commission (UGC), undertook a comparative study of correspondence education as obtaining in the Soviet Union, UK, USA, Australia and the Scandinavian countries.

As a result of the success of the DE courses initiated by the University of Delhi the UGC, upon the recommendations of another committee set up in 1967 extended the provision of DE courses to other universities. Thus, by 1970-80 there were some 19 institutes or directorates of DE courses from within conventional universities (Ansari, 1992:37; see also, Panda, 1996:106).

The establishment of the UKOU and the global trends of DE impacted on India as well. In 1971 the Government of India appointed a working group with Shri G Parthasarathi, the Vice-Chancellor of the Jawaharlal Nehru University, Delhi, as Chairman, to examine the feasibility of establishing an open university in India (Satyanaryana, 1988:164; see also, Panda, 1996:106; Khan (AW), 1990:128; Sahoo, 1993:13; Reddy (CN), 1988:94; 1990:70; Reddy, 1988 (3):110; 1987:22). The report of this committee was submitted in 1975 with some initial spade work being completed to establish a national open university. Subsequently, in 1982 another committee appointed by the UGC to enquire into the working of the central universities under the Chairmanship of Dr Madhuri R Shah recommended that practical steps for creating a national open university for DE be implemented without delay (Satyanaryana, 1988:165; see also, Khan (AW), 1990:129; Reddy, 1988 (3):111).

The debate at the national level on the open university also stimulated discussions on the subject in various states. On 26 August 1982 the Government of the State of Andhra Pradesh took the initiative in establishing the Andhra Pradesh Open University (later in 1993 renamed Dr Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University) (Satyanaryana, 1988:165; see also, Panda, 1996:107; Khan, 1992:i; Khan (AW), 1990:129; Sahoo, 1993:19; Mani, 1988:297; Misra, 1990:5; Deshmukh, 1990:62; Cahill, 1985:46; Reddy (CN), 1988:95; Reddy, 1988 (3):111). This university adopted as its mission the provision of access to higher education to the adult population of the State, for upgrading their functional capacities and improving their quality of life in the context of the broader social and political objectives and equalization of educational opportunities.
Further, it emphasized the emergence of a new concept of life and lifelong education. This was the first fully-fledged, autonomous, degree granting open university to be established in India (Jenkins, 1989 (a):51).

Subsequently, realizing the significance and immediate relevance of DE and the growing demands for higher education in India through other means than conventional universities, the Government of India decided to establish a national open university. On 5 January 1985 the Prime Minister, Shri Rajiv Gandhi, in a broadcast to the nation spelt out the Government's policy in relation to education and the establishment of a national open university:

‘Steps are being taken to establish an Open University to bring higher education within easy reach of all.’

(Satyanaryana, 1988:165; see also, Reddy, 1988 (3):112; 1987:23)

The Indian Parliament promulgated on 20 September 1985 the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) Act which led to the establishment of IGNOU on 19 November 1985 (Takwale, 1995:32; see also, Koul, 1991:117; 1992:121; Chander, 1991 (a):19; Sahoo, 1993:20; Pandit, 1995:135; Khan, 1992:i; Misra, 1990:5; Deshmukh, 1990:63; Reddy, 1988 (3):112; Singh, 1988:253; Jenkins, 1989 (a):51; IGNOU, 1999:59; Van Niekerk, 1999:43). The university was eponymous of Shrimati Indira Gandhi, the first woman Prime Minister of India. The birth of IGNOU was the fulfilment of her cherished objective for education which she had enunciated on 14 November 1964:

‘We must bring education to all parts of our country and all sections of our people, especially the weaker sections and those who have so far been underprivileged.’
Further, she firmly believed that education is a liberating and democratizing force cutting across the barriers of caste and class. She conceived education as the crucible for smoothing out inequalities imposed by birth and other circumstances (IGNOU, 1999:1).

Professor G Ram Reddy was appointed as the Founder Vice-Chancellor. The headquarters of IGNOU is located at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.

The IGNOU Act articulates dual objectives for the university. The first is to introduce and promote DE and open university systems in India. Secondly, IGNOU should co-ordinate and determine standards in such systems in the country (Panda, 1996:107; see also, Takwale, 1995:32; Chander, 1991 (a):19; 1991 (b):32; Khan (AW), 1990:129; Reddy, 1988 (3):112). These objectives were to some extent the embodiment of the philosophy espoused by Shri Rajiv Gandhi, the Prime Minister of India, when he laid the foundation stone of IGNOU:

‘Our endeavour is that in India, the poorest, the most backward children receive the best possible education, and in this direction today, we are here to take a step forward. The Open University will extend educational opportunities to all the corners of the country . . .’

(IGNOU, 1992:5; see also, Khan (AW), 1990:129; Singh, 1988:253)

IGNOU started offering its courses in 1987. It uses multi-media teaching-learning methodology at a distance. It also has the responsibility to co-ordinate and determine standards for both the DE offered at dual mode mainstream universities and the open DE provided at national and state open universities through its official mechanisms and statutory authority of the Distance Education Council (DEC) established in 1992. The
DEC is delegated the additional responsibility of providing financial grants to various DE institutions in India. Subsequent to the establishment of IGNOU several other open universities were established at state level. These institutions are entrusted with the responsibility of providing equality of educational opportunities, democratizing education and designing academic programmes to suit human resources requirements at regional and local levels (Panda, 1996:107). However, IGNOU is presently the only national open university in India. Its jurisdiction covers the entire Union of India, taking education to all parts of the country both urban and rural (Reddy, 1988 (3):113).

4.4.2 **AIMS OF THE IGNOU**

The aims of the IGNOU can be summarized as follows:

- Strengthening and diversifying the degree, diploma and certificate courses which meet the needs of employment and are necessary for building the economy of the country on the basis of its own natural and human resources.

- Providing opportunities and access for higher education to a large segment of the population, the disadvantaged groups in particular such as those living in remote and rural areas including working people, housewives and other adults who wish to upgrade or acquire knowledge through studies in various fields. In this way it would be possible to achieve the goal of promoting the educational well being of the community generally.

- Encouraging the open university and DE systems in the educational pattern of the country and determining the standards in such systems.
• Promoting the acquisition of knowledge in a rapidly developing and changing society and continually offering opportunities for upgrading knowledge and skills in the context of innovations, research and discovery in all fields of human endeavour.

• Providing suitable undergraduate and postgraduate courses and promoting research.

• Providing networks of open universities and DE institutions in the country and co-ordinating and maintaining their standards.

• Providing national integration and the integrated development of the human personality through its policies and programmes.

• Providing an innovative system of university level education, flexible and open, in regard to methods and pace of learning, combination of courses, eligibility for enrolment, age of entry, conduct of examinations and operation of the programme with a view to promote learning and encourage excellence in new fields of knowledge.

• Contribute to the improvement of the educational system in India by providing a non-formal channel complementary to the formal system and encouraging transfer of credits and exchange of teaching staff by making use of texts and other software developed by the university.

• Provide education and training in the various arts, crafts and skills of the country, raising their quality and improving their availability to the people.

• Provide or arrange for training of teachers required for such activities or institutions.
Provide the necessary counselling and guidance to students enrolled for study with the university.

The university should strive to fulfil the aims outlined by the diversity of means of DE and continuing education and should function in cooperation with the existing universities and institutions of higher learning and make full use of the latest scientific knowledge and new educational technology to offer high quality of education which matches contemporary needs.


4.4.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

Unlike the UKOU and the AU, the concept of open in the case of the IGNOU is qualified. Formal pre-tertiary education in India is described as 10+2 level. Thus, for example, admission to the Bachelor's Degree Programme is possible through two streams: the non-formal stream and the formal stream:

- All those who do not have the formal education of the 10+2 level but have attained the age of 20 years or more on 1 January of the academic year can apply for admission to the Bachelor's Preparatory Programme. After working through this programme the candidates may join the Bachelor's Degree Programme if they so desire. To get admitted to the Bachelor's Preparatory Programme in the first instance, candidates need to pass an Entrance Test.

- All those candidates who possess the 10+2 level or equivalent level
formal education constitute the formal stream and are admitted directly to the Bachelor's Degree Programme on application.

- For other courses certain educational requirements, minimum age and admission criteria are clearly stipulated in the IGNOU handbook. Thus, for example, admission to the Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) degree, the educational requirement is 10+2 level or its equivalent with science subjects and admission will be on merit. Another example is that of candidates enrolling for a Diploma in Distance Education. The educational requirement is cited as a Master's degree or a professional degree in any subject while admission criterion is on merit.


Currently IGNOU offers 47 programmes comprising 553 courses for 172 548 registered students and 516 580 students on its rolls (IGNOU, 1999:4).

The university organizes its academic programmes through its Schools of Studies. These are as follows:

- School of Humanities
- School of Social Sciences
- School of Education
- School of Continuing Education
- School of Engineering and Technology
- School of Management Studies
- School of Health Sciences
- School of Computer and Information Sciences
- School of Sciences
The programmes offered by IGNOU include the following:

- Bachelor's Degree Programme (Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Commerce). These courses are designed to provide opportunities for higher education mainly to working persons, people living in rural and remote areas and backward sections of the society.

- Bachelor's Degree Programme in Science (Bachelor of Science). Apart from providing opportunities for higher education mainly to working persons, people living in rural and remote areas and backward sections of society, the programme is expected to make a wide and significant impact throughout India by creating a scientific attitude to life.

- Diploma in Creative Writing in English or Hindi. The aim of these courses is to provide understanding, skill and professional knowledge about the art of writing. Further, the courses are designed to help develop the creative ability of those interested in taking up careers as professional or freelance writers.

- Bachelor of Library and Information Science provides opportunities for professional development to those employed in libraries but who are not professionally qualified and are, as a result, under-employed.

- In Education, a Diploma in Distance Education promotes awareness of the concept and utility of DE in the country and to develop resources for the DE institutions. Another course offered is the Diploma in Higher Education. This diploma enables participants to acquire a perspective regarding the system of higher education, its context, its function and its linkages with other systems. It helps to develop professional
competencies that a university or college teacher ought to have. Further, it enables the candidate to develop readiness to undertake reforms and innovations in the practice of the teaching profession.

- A Master's degree in Distance Education is also offered by IGNOU. This programme intends to develop human resources at specialization level in the area of DE.

- Programmes in Engineering and Technology include:
  - Diploma in Computers in Office Management
  - Diploma in Computer Applications for Teachers
  - Bachelor's Degree in Computer Area
  - Bachelor of Technology Degree and Higher Diploma Programmes

These courses in terms of their particular orientation are designed to develop computer applications and to train personnel in the use of the modern technology.

- In the area of Continuing Education, a Certificate in Rural Development and a Diploma in Rural Development are offered to provide an understanding and knowledge of rural development, rural change and to train functionaries in rural development. Further, a Certificate in Food and Nutrition and a Diploma in Nutrition and Health Education as well as a Diploma in Early Childcare and Education are also offered. These courses are designed, *inter alia*, to enlighten and create awareness in terms of the areas of specialization.

- In the field of Management several courses are offered. These include the Diploma in Management (DIM); Advanced Diploma in Management (ADIM); Specialization Diplomas in Management (SDM) in Financial Management or Human Resource Management or Marketing Management; Integrated Module; and, a Master of Business
Administration (MBA) degree. Those who successfully complete the DIM, ADIM, one of the SDMs and the Integrated Module will be awarded the MBA by the university. All of these qualifications as the titles would suggest are oriented towards managers, technologists, entrepreneurs and those involved in the business world and industry.


The various schools undertake the task of designing and developing multi-media packages. Support is provided by extensive course writers and media production is provided by a service sub-system. Service divisions such as DE, admission, computing, course material printing and distribution provide the necessary support to the academic faculty in course material development (Panda, 1996:109-110; see also, Reddy, 1988 (3):118-119; IGNOU, 1999:39-48)

Figure 4.5 illustrates the course development strategy at IGNOU:
The university employs a combination of various media including printed correspondence texts, audio- and video-cassettes, radio via satellite provided by All India Radio, television via satellite through Doordarshan (Indian Television) in selected programmes, face-to-face tutoring, face-to-face counselling, regional centres and work centres. A national network of academic support is provided for some 242,000 students countrywide.

There are 245 study centres, 78 work centres and 16 regional centres scattered all over India. Study centres are generally located in existing educational institutions and usually function on all holidays, weekends and in the evening on working days. These centres have been provided with audio-visual and other necessary electronic equipment, library and tutorial facilities (IGNOU, 1991:27; 1992:23; 1999:78-94; see also, ICDL, 1995:5-6; Panda, 1996:110; Takwale, 1995:33; Koul, 1992:130-132;
Students may also obtain details with respect to reception and information services related to rules, regulations, procedures, schedules and so forth of the university. The study centres also provide services in respect of the submission of assignments, responses for tutor comments and grading or marking and term-end examinations.

In addition, IGNOU has established a permanent audio-conferencing network, linking the headquarters with its sixteen regional centres and other state open universities. IGNOU is also constructing a very sophisticated educational media production centre with Japanese aid. It has established the Staff Training and Research Institute of Distance Education and the Commonwealth Educational Media Centre of Asia with support from the Commonwealth of Learning (Panda, 1996:110; see also, IGNOU, 1992:24; 1999:49-53; Takwale, 1995:33).

Academic counselling, as at the UKOU and the AU, constitutes an important instructional component of DE at IGNOU. General counselling is person-specific and in the main is related to personal and individual needs. Tutoring is essentially course centred. Communication is directed substantially from tutors who are subject specialists to the students.

Most of the students at IGNOU require general counselling to a large extent along with some academic tutoring. This combination of general counselling and tutoring is what is referred to as academic-counselling and the persons who offer it are called academic counsellors at IGNOU (IGNOU, 1992:23; 1999:12; see also, Takwale, 1995:34).

Once a student is admitted to an academic programme the student is allocated a nearby centre. Though attending counselling sessions is optional it is in the interest of the student to attend the regular academic-counselling sessions. In some instances, counselling concerning assignment responses may be done through correspondence.
The instructional system implemented at IGNOU is depicted in Figure 4.6 below:

*Figure 4.6 INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM CHART : INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY*

The system of evaluation at IGNOU differs from that of conventional universities (IGNOU, 1991:22; 1992:22-23; 1999:11). The evaluation of students is dependent upon various instructional activities undertaken by them. A student has to write assignment-responses from time to time while engaged in an academic programme. Such assignment-responses are compulsory. The assignments are graded or marked.

IGNOU uses two types of assignments: tutor marked assignments and computer marked assignments. At present the computer marked assignments constitute nearly a third of the total number of assignments in most courses. In some courses both the
assignments marked by tutors and those marked by computers are used while some courses have only tutor marked assignments.

The evaluation of assignments is referred to as continuous assessment. It accounts for 25-30 per cent of the examination mark. A student has to write term-end examinations which might include project work for some courses. The examinations and project work, where applicable, carry a 70-75 per cent weightage. These term-end examinations are conducted in June / July and November / December at various centres all over India (IGNOU, 1991:22; 1992:23; 1999:11; see also, ICDL, 1995:6; Takwale, 1995:34).

4.4.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

Like the other central universities, IGNOU has its academic and administrative bodies. An important feature of its organization is the large measure of flexibility built into it which enables the university to amend and determine its structure from time to time and as the need arises (Reddy, 1988 (3):113). The university does not have a Chancellor. Rather, the President of India is the Visitor of the University. It was deemed that the position of Chancellor was a superfluous appointment.

The Board of Management, Academic Council, Planning Board, Finance Committee and the Board of Recognition are the important university authorities. The Board of Management is similar to the Executive Council in central universities. It is the executive authority and exercises a decisive role in the organization and working of the university. The Academic Council formulates and monitors the academic programmes of the university. It supervises academic policies of the university. The Planning Board is primarily responsible for designing and formulating appropriate plans for the growth and development of the university. It advises the Board of Management and the Academic Council on matters concerning the realization of objectives for which the university has been established. The Finance Committee concerns itself with financial
The Board of Recognition is responsible for its affiliation functions (Reddy, 1988 (3):115).

The Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellors, Directors, Registrars and the Financial Officer are the main officers of the university. They are eminent academics inducted on a national basis to head various Divisions and Schools of the university. This arrangement is different from the Departments in conventional universities. This is to ensure inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary programmes which the university is expected to offer. It was considered that discipline-based departments are ill-suited for an unconventional university like IGNOU. Each of the Schools is headed by a Director. Since the Heads of the Schools have both academic and administrative functions the nomenclature was changed from Deans to Directors (Reddy, 1988 (3):116).

The organizational structure of IGNOU is presented in the following organogram figure 4.7:
4.4.5 THE ROLE OF THE IGNOU IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

In India currently primary school teachers require the matriculation plus one-year training at a college of education to become professionally qualified. However, to teach at a secondary school up to grade ten the requisite qualifications are a degree plus the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) which is obtained after one-year's training at a college
of education. Further, a senior secondary school teacher (10+2 level) must be in possession of at least a Master's degree plus the B.Ed. Those who are involved at tertiary level must possess a Master of Education (M.Ed.) degree in addition to either a Ph.D. or a Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) degree.

Takwale (1995:32; see also, Khan, 1991 (2):205) states that the DE institutes of conventional universities in India account for 10 per cent of the total enrolment in higher education. Amongst these individuals who want to improve and upgrade their qualifications are a large percentage of teachers who are keen to pursue higher education. Datt (1991:75) asserts that with the emergence of technology and the gallimaufry strategies of delivery systems teachers in India, as indicated in the case of Canada, have to be re-tooled to adapt to the changing scenario in the classrooms. The DE programmes for upgrading teachers are a critical contribution by the DE institutes of dual mode institutions and IGNOU. In addition, working secondary and primary school teachers who have not received their teacher training are able to study for their Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degrees through DE and thus attain qualified status (Cahill, 1985:47).

For teachers particularly, according to Rao (1984:96) and Chary (1984:85), DE courses in India constitute an important strategy for the attainment of postgraduate qualifications. However, job availability is acutely limited. Many of the neophyte teachers trained are not being absorbed and provided with suitable employment. As in the case of the claim made by KZN at present, there is an oversupply of teachers in India.

Nonetheless, IGNOU plays a pivotal role in providing opportunities for teachers to pursue postgraduate studies. An interesting innovation launched by IGNOU is the INSET of teachers involved in DE (Khan, 1991 (2):205-206; 1992:54-55). The course is based on the premise that distance teaching is rendered more effective if teachers involved in the preparation of DE course materials, student support services and other aspects of DE are provided with the necessary upgrading and improvement of their
qualifications in this direction. Koul (1984:43-71) in a detailed study pointed out conclusively that the assumption that a teacher brought up and engaged in face-to-face teaching is, ipso facto, an effective DE teacher too, is untenable.

Another area with respect to teacher education is the problem identified by Pandit (1995:135; 1989:54-61; see also, Koul, 1991:115; Bansal, 1991; 160-170; Khan, 1991(3):171-191; 1990:259-281). This concerns the INSET directed towards teachers of English at school level particularly. In India, English is an interstate link language and as a language of Science, Technology, Social Sciences and Humanities. Most of the information explosion is in English. The major newspapers are in English and satellite television brings news into Indian homes from the UK and the USA in English. It is clearly accepted as the window to the modern world.

Moreover, English is deemed by a large majority of people in India as an associated official language with the national language of Hindi. But it is generally accepted that English will have important functions in communication of diverse types. The use of English in India in terms of the skills of communication, oral as well as written, both expressive and receptive will continue to be at a premium.

The School of Humanities and the School of Education at IGNOU, therefore, designed and prepared a syllabus for the training of school teachers of English at a distance. All practising and aspiring school teachers are eligible for admission to the course.

We note the remarkable parallel in this regard with KZN. A similar need exists particularly for teachers whose mother-tongue language is Zulu. In all tertiary institutions in the province the medium of instruction is English. There are serious implications for candidates at these levels in terms of comprehension and expression. The example of IGNOU and its programmes regarding the training of school teachers of English, mutatis mutandis, can help in the teacher education programmes for improving and upgrading expertise in this field through DE in KZN.
4.4.6 **SUMMATION**

Jenkins (1989 (a):50) maintains that in developing countries DE institutions are often expected to make a major contribution to the educational performance of the country. This is clearly borne out in the case of India. Challapalli (1997:273) reminds us of the fact that India is one of the most populous countries in the world. Half of its population as we have noted is illiterate. One third of its population lives below the poverty datum line. The situation is more or less parallel in KZN.

In this intricate socio-economic milieu, and cultural, political and geographical environment DE and open learning as exemplified by IGNOU is now performing its historic part as a valuable supplement to the existing educational system (Deshmukh, 1990:63). As Reddy (1988 (3):122) claims IGNOU is an important milestone in the development of tertiary education in India. It is destined to play a leadership role in strengthening DE in the country and oriented towards providing innovative and high quality education. IGNOU has the potential to equalize opportunities and take tertiary education to the doorsteps of the people. At the same time, IGNOU plays a pivotal role in helping teachers improve and upgrade their qualifications which ultimately leads to the improvement of educational delivery in the classroom.

Takwale (1995:32) argues cogently that DE in India emerged as an essential need and IGNOU as the vehicle of such DE has assumed a pivotal role as the apex body for DE institutions. IGNOU is already being perceived as an international institution and has received a mandate from the Government of India to be the co-ordinating agency for DE institutions (Khan, 1989:xi; see also, Dewal, 1992:251; IGNOU, 1999:5).

The example of India has a special lesson for KZN especially in the field of upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. IGNOU's psychological aphorism of 'learn while you earn' is well worth noting (Chib, 1991:49; see also, Chander, 1991 (b):37; Sahoo, 1993:163-164). Tertiary education for teachers and others has been monopolized to a large extent by the urban elite. IGNOU and its implementation of
open and DE have resulted in a general awakening and increased tempo of socio-economic upliftment for those in the remote rural areas. DE for improving and upgrading teacher education as well as for other vocations in India has taken the beams of learning and enlightenment to the very doorsteps of the seeker of knowledge even in the farthest and remotest hamlet of the country (Chib, 1991:51; see also, Chander, 1991 (a):11; 1991 (b):36; Sahoo, 1993:166). The manner in which IGNOU has achieved this goal especially for teachers is worthy of emulation in KZN.

Another radical and imaginative role of IGNOU is the opportunity that the institution has provided for the educational development of women generally and female teachers particularly (Chawla, 1997:89; see also, Trivedi, 1989:17-22). Many women have been afforded the opportunity to upgrade and improve their qualifications and to step into the mainstream of education. Trivedi (1989:22) maintains:

‘If we are to fulfill what was envisaged by the Founding Father, Gandhiji, that "Education covers the entire field of life, there is nothing howsoever small which is not the concern of Education", there is no gainsaying that distance education will play a fundamental role in future development, especially that of women.’

Again this is a profound example pregnant with meaning that KZN could well follow.

Another perspective of the IGNOU model of DE and its impact on education in India is the pertinent observation made by Chib (1991:52) concerning the budgetary constraints. The Government of India is cognizant of the fact that:

‘The educational institutions shall continue to weigh heavily upon the national exchequer but the hard reality is not to be lost sight of that any expenditure on education is in fact a meaningful investment which
after a long gestation period does pay recurring fruitful dividends in the form of qualitatively improved human resources that constitute the anchor sheet for the edifice of socio-economic development. Distance education is no exception to this fact.'

Reddy (1988 (3): 106) extends this argument by his ratiocination that education is a vital input in modernization and development. Consequently, a democratic society which lays stress on egalitarianism and social justice inevitably generates an irresistible and demanding pressure for education. As such, Jenkins (1989 (a):53) suggests, DE will most certainly become an integral part of the Indian national system of education with IGNOU as the apex body.

With the financial morass in which education and teacher education particularly in KZN finds itself cognizance should be taken of the example of IGNOU and India. Despite its penury and impecunious situation India has not adopted a niggardly attitude towards education. On the contrary, India has used education, and more particularly the strategy of DE, as the powerful instruments to develop, modernize, equalize and democratize the society. There is no doubt that IGNOU, as the national institution for DE in India is one of the most significant and key role-players in this regard. As such, just as in the case of the UKOU and the AU, this analysis of IGNOU has many lessons for South Africa and KZN especially with regard to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE.

4.5 **THE ZIMBABWE INTEGRATED NATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE (ZINTEC)**

4.5.1 **ORIGINS OF ZINTEC**

Professor Charles Dlamini, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Zululand, described the
bleak current situation in Africa thus:

'Although many countries attained their independence some years ago, the situation in Africa has been disappointing. Africa has been characterised by poverty, high unemployment, high mortality rates, lack of economic growth and social and political instability.'

(Daily News, 1998-05-26)

These conditions, understandably, have had cataclysmic repercussions on education in practically all the countries in Africa. A further pathogenesis of the problems in education, per se, is diagnosed in terms of a panoramic overview by Fay Chung (1992:1; see also, Jenkins, 1989 (b):42; Van Niekerk, 1997(4):98-101), Minister of General Education in Zimbabwe. Chung suggests that the aetiology of the chronic malady lies in the fact that the quantitative expansion of education has not kept pace with quality education. This unprecedented expansion has exerted immense pressure on various sectors of the economy of most nations including the need to train more teachers and to provide physical facilities and suitable teaching materials.

Conventional education in many African countries is beset by serious problems of declining financial resources resulting in the demand of education in formal institutions outstripping the capacities of the economies of such countries. The greatest educational challenge facing African countries today is how to design a system of learning and promoting teacher education that both meets the individual country's priorities and also maximizes learning in a cost-effective way utilizing the resources available.

The prognosis offered to overcome these problems and to accelerate the economical and educational growth of African society is DE (Wakatama, 1983:9; see also, Kinyanjui, 1996:75; Edström, 1973:90-99). The ZINTEC model for teacher upgrading
and improvement of qualifications is one such attempt of DE.


The common trend in the case of Africa is that DE is being used to pursue almost entirely conventional educational objectives. The World Bank has identified DE as a crucial tool in seeking to identify methodologies of improving education in Africa (Jenkins, 1989 (b):43; see also, Van Niekerk, 1997(4):101-113).

This strategy, as we have seen in the UK, Canada and India, is oriented towards widening access to education, to raise the quality of education both through teacher education and by bringing resources into the classroom as well as new methods and techniques into schools. DE in Africa, however, as in India, attempts to address the geographical problems that confront most educational systems on the continent. It is highly acclaimed, however, because it apparently offers economic advantages that were significant to the countries suffering from acute and dire economic constraints. DE is also conceived in the African context as a remarkable expedience in providing education for all of its citizens (Obanya, 1996:185; see also, Curran and Murphy, 1992:17-40).

The ZINTEC model as adopted in Zimbabwe with respect to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers through DE is of tremendous significance as a bold experiment. Zimbabwe attained Independence in April 1980 after 90 years of colonial rule. These years under the colonial regime were characterized by a systematic neglect of educational provision for the majority of the Zimbabwean people
(Gatawa, 1990:100; see also, Kilpert, 1999(2):139-140; Van Niekerk, 1974(4):102-103).

About half of Zimbabwe's population of eight million had been denied access to any meaningful and structural education. This situation was deemed to be grossly unacceptable. It was not allowed to continue after Independence.

Gatawa (1990:100-101) asseverates that the first national Government of Zimbabwe declared that education is a basic human right for all citizens. Moreover, it is argued that the greatest asset of a nation is its human capital which should be fully nurtured and guided towards positive and productive development through education. The economic growth and evolution of any nation are vested in a judicious development policy which is fully dependent on education.

Independence in Zimbabwe, as it did in India and other developing countries, led inexorably also to the crisis of angst and expectation among the masses who had been previously deprived of access to education. They perceived education as the means of salvation from rural poverty, a gateway to the opulence and the bright lights of urban dwelling and the white collar employment opportunities. The buoyancy and thrill of independence in Zimbabwe nurtured a chiliastic and optimistic mood which underpinned access to meaningful education as the gatekeeper to the millennium.

In response to these pressures there was an unprecedented expansion in the provision of education at all levels. For example, in 1979 there were 2 401 primary schools with an enrolment of 819 586 pupils. In 1989 the number of primary schools increased to 4 504 with an enrolment of 2 274 178 pupils. At secondary school level in 1979 there were 177 secondary schools with an enrolment of 66 215 pupils. These increased in 1989 to 1 502 secondary schools with an enrolment of 695 882 pupils (Chivore, 1993:42; 1992:103; see also, Gatawa, 1990:101; Sibanda, 1983:269; Pather, 1995:230; Coldevin, 1990:115; Dove, 1986:228; NEPI, 1992 (b):59; Testa and Lestang, 1993:21).
Apart from involving the Zimbabwean Government to a committed programme of providing additional infrastructure to accommodate this phenomenal increase in the school going population, this development led to an increased demand for teachers. Understandably, the expansion in the provision of education lacked the concomitant adequate supply of professionally and academically qualified teachers. This imbalance is illustrated below in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1 PROFESSIONALLY TRAINED TEACHER SHORTAGE IN ZIMBABWE, 1980-88

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>TRAINED TEACHERS</th>
<th>UNTRAINED TEACHERS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>20 424</td>
<td>8 031</td>
<td>28 455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>22 654</td>
<td>15 119</td>
<td>37 775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>23 699</td>
<td>21 768</td>
<td>45 465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>25 954</td>
<td>26 548</td>
<td>52 502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>30 424</td>
<td>24 000</td>
<td>54 424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>30 065</td>
<td>26 610</td>
<td>56 675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>31 496</td>
<td>26 752</td>
<td>58 248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>26 133</td>
<td>30 987</td>
<td>57 120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>29 589</td>
<td>28 173</td>
<td>57 762</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The statistics demonstrate clearly that the percentage of untrained teachers rocketed to an increase of 350.8 per cent. The percentage increase of appropriately qualified educators was 144.8 per cent. To meet this challenge of providing qualified teachers both in primary and secondary schools where the imbalance was assuming the proportions of a phantasmagoric incubus for the educational authorities, ZINTEC was inaugurated in 1981 (Gatawa, 1990:101; see also, Sibanda, 1983:43; Jenkins, 1989(b):57; Chivore, 1993:43; 1992:104).
ZINTEC was pronounced as the most highly acclaimed post-Independence teacher education programme in Zimbabwe. This programme comprised a combination of DE and face-to-face tuition to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers both academically and professionally. This programme has been described as a sandwich programme which combines campus-based courses with periods of DE while teaching in the field before returning to the institution for more face-to-face instruction (Coldevin, 1990:114; see also, John, 1991:155).

The programme was predicated on the assumption that the conventional teacher education system in Zimbabwe could not meet the new level of demand for qualified teachers. Moreover, the teachers were to improve and upgrade their expertise in consonance with the new educational and political ideology of the country. In addition, the development process for teachers and teacher education underscored the development process that on-the-job training was quintessential to blend theory with practice. Further, as education was declared incontrovertibly a basic human right it was assumed that every person in Zimbabwe has a right to education. Consequently, it was incumbent for the country to have a large teaching force capable of working under difficult and trying conditions (Chivore, 1992:105; 1993:44).

4.5.2 **AIMS OF ZINTEC**

The aims of ZINTEC included the following:

- To meet the teacher shortage through an in-service type of teacher education.

- To develop a teacher education system relevant to the specific problems facing the Zimbabwian people in their everyday lives in the community.
To develop a teacher education programme which is better placed in terms of more competent dissemination of knowledge guided by socialism as an ideology for Zimbabwe.

To effect developmental changes through teacher education whose practical operations must highlight learning by doing and thus combining theory with practice.

To develop a professional teacher with skills needed in the appropriate teaching techniques capable of providing active learning experiences to pupils understanding the concept of education with production.

To develop an all round teacher with positive attitudes, perceptions and values that promote meaningful involvement in community development.

The pedagogical aims embraced all the relevant psychomotor, affective and cognitive skills that a teacher needs to operate effectively in the classroom. These included, inter alia, organization and management of a class and school in response to the needs of children; read and interpret curricula; relate fruitfully to children, colleagues and parents; knowledge of conditions of service for teachers and the universal ethics which govern their professional conduct; meaningful participation in community affairs and so on.


4.5.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

Admission requirements for the ZINTEC programme, according to Chivore (1993:45;
are exactly the same as those which applied to candidates enrolling for non-university graduate teacher education courses at the primary or secondary school level. These are a pass in five 'O' level subjects with a grade 'C' or better plus English as a language or six grade XI passes including English. Other languages on offer were Ndebele or Shona as second languages. Grade XI was a four-year secondary school programme introduced in the 1970s by the colonial regime for a number of secondary schools for Africans. It was discontinued at Independence. These entry qualifications meet the requirements of the University of Zimbabwe for colleges preparing students for the University Certificate in Education.


ZINTEC is a four-year programme which combines face-to-face contact and distance teaching. The programme package is patterned on the curriculum of conventional colleges but with a deliberate orientation towards development related activities. The programme is divided into three phases with distinct but interlocking course components.

In phase one there is a four-month or one school term college-based face-to-face residential programme. This involves a full package aimed at providing the students with a broad spectrum of baseline classroom skills before they are sent to schools. At this stage students are generally introduced to all facets of the course content. The principal activities during this period comprise:

- Classroom management and organization which is done through micro-teaching and lesson observations in local schools.
- Introduction to professional foundations of education.
• Didactics or applied education which involves a study of methods of teaching school curriculum subjects.

• Introduction to curriculum depth study which involves an in-depth study of the contents and methods of teaching one curriculum subject.

• Development studies comprising a study of home economics and agriculture to enable the student to participate meaningfully in community development projects.

• A course on study and research methods and ways of conducting production oriented community projects.

• College-based productive work in the form of gardening and keeping rabbits and chickens.

• The organization of running evening classes in preparation for conducting similar classes in rural areas.

At the end of this first residential programme students are assessed through short written examinations and course assignments in order to determine whether they can proceed to the second phase of the programme.

In phase two students are placed in schools in rural areas and given classroom responsibilities. The deployment is done in collaboration with Regional Educational Officers. They have the current statistics in regard to the quality of teachers in their jurisdiction. The objective here is to service the poorest staffed schools.

This period of placement is forty months or ten school terms. It is the critical component of the programme. It is made up of a number of courses which is done through a combination of modules of printed texts, radio broadcasts and face-to-face
Students receive modules at the rate of four per school term and write two assignments which are assessed by tutors. They attend college-based two week long vacation courses after every two school terms. Further, they have to attend problem-specific fortnightly day seminars generally on Saturdays. At school level the course is characterized by school-based tutorial sessions and observations of lessons conducted by field lecturers, education officers and principals of the schools. They participate in cluster meetings and demonstration lessons involving qualified teachers and themselves. They are also involved in the execution of production oriented community projects. Evening classes are conducted by these candidates for adults and youngsters who are unable to enter the formal system. Radio broadcasts pertinent to their course of study are conducted once a week which complement the DE materials and inform the candidates of administrative issues.

The major course components studied during this phase include Professional Foundations of Education, Development Studies, Curriculum Depth Studies, Teaching Practice and Applied Education. Moreover, apart from these course inputs students are examined in Teaching Practice during the last two terms of this phase. Field lecturers and a team of University of Zimbabwe external assessors are responsible for the evaluation of Teaching Practice. A mid-course assessment in the second year of the course serves as part of the formative evaluation of the candidates. The students are made aware of their strengths and weaknesses and decisions of colleges on individual students are made known.

In the final phase three the students are college-based for four months following a residential programme. During this period a summative evaluation is concluded with students revisiting and collocating all courses of the programme. They process the schedule of studies with the objective of consolidating, reinforcing and revising. The candidates complete the course by writing examinations which lead to certification by the University of Zimbabwe.
ZINTEC colleges are associated colleges of the University of Zimbabwe. The process of assessment of candidates takes various forms:

- At the termination of the first residential programme students are assessed through course assignments and short written examinations.

- In the second year of the course there are mid-course assessments.

- During the forty months placement in schools students write tutor-marked assignments, complete three projects and carry out production-oriented projects which have a 50 per cent weighting in the final assessment.

- During the last two terms of the period of placement in schools students are examined in Teaching Practice.

- At the end of the final residential course they write examinations which contribute 50 per cent towards the final assessment. The examination papers are set and marked by the colleges and moderated by the university lecturers as external examiners.

- The final assessment of ZINTEC candidates combines continuous assessments in the form of course work and written examinations each contributing 50 per cent towards the final result.

(Gatawa, 1990:108)

Students are placed in schools in the rural areas where the need for trained teachers is the greatest. The students are deployed in clusters of three or more per school to facilitate interaction and school-based tutorials. Students are supervised by field lecturers who are appointed in the ratio of one field lecturer per 50 students. The field lecturers have the responsibility of visiting the students in the schools, monitoring their
work and ensuring that they are satisfying the ZINTEC course requirements. Student supervision is also conducted by education officers, lecturers from conventional colleges and principals of the schools. A library loan system is established at colleges to enable students in the ZINTEC programme to borrow requisite literature for their courses (Gatawa, 1990:110-112).

Initially there were four colleges: Morgan in Harare, Andrew Louw in Masvingo, Marymount in Mutare and Gwanda in Gwanda. In 1988 Marymount and Andrew Louw combined to form a conventional college, the Masvingo Teachers' College (Chivore, 1993:48; see also, Pather, 1995:231).

4.5.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

The ZINTEC programme is a project under the Teacher Education section of the Ministry of Education. It enjoys equal status to other Ministry institutions. The head of the programme is a Director who is responsible to the Chief Education Officer, Teacher Education. The latter is subordinate and answerable to the Deputy Secretary, Education Development, who is responsible to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education (Gatawa, 1990:103-104).

The Director is primarily in charge of the ZINTEC National Centre based in Harare (Gatawa, 1990:104; see also, Chivore, 1993:45; 1992:106; Pather, 1995:231; Dove, 1986:229). The centre produces the DE materials for ZINTEC students. The Director is also responsible for the co-ordination and monitoring of the activities of the ZINTEC colleges. The figure 4.8 below illustrates the delivery of programmes within the ZINTEC system:
The Zintec National Centre has two units: One is the Professional Unit, headed by a Principal Lecturer who is assisted by two Senior Lecturers responsible for course development and course editing respectively. Lecture-writers are responsible for writing and radio lessons. All matters pertaining to the course materials such as evaluation and testing, despatch of materials, attendance at seminars and so on are the responsibility of this unit (Gatawa, 1990:104; see also, Chivore, 1993:47).
The second is the Administrative Unit which provides support services. A Senior Executive Officer is assisted by the Executive Officer. The latter supervises the work of the registry clerks, accounts clerks and other administrative staff. According to Chivore (1993:47-48; 1992:107) when the ZINTEC programme started there were five regional centres. These were Mashonaland based in Harare; Manicaland based in Mutare; Midlands based in Gweru; and, Masvingo and Matabeleland in Bulawayo. Regional centres were responsible for the supervision and monitoring of student-teachers. Lecturers at the regional centres also supervised student teachers in DE using modules supplied by the National Centre.

Each of the colleges is headed by a Principal. A Vice-Principal (Internal) is responsible for residential college-based courses. A Vice-Principal (External) is in charge of field supervision. The Vice-Principal work with four Principal Lecturers who are Heads of the college departments. Senior Lecturers and college-based and field Lecturers constitute the subordinate staff responsible for the courses. An Executive Officer at the colleges is a person responsible for the administrative and financial affairs (Gatawa, 1990:104).

Support to the full time professional and administrative staff in the ZINTEC programme is provided as follows:

- A Department of Audio-Visual Services for graphics and radio broadcasts.
- The National Radio Service for air-time.
- School Principals and Education Officers for student supervision.
- The formal colleges for student supervision.
The Planning and Evaluation Division of the Ministry of Education for programme evaluation.

The University of Zimbabwe for consultancy on curriculum, staff development, examinations and certification.

(Gatawa, 1990:105)

4.5.5 THE ROLE OF ZINTEC IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

Chivore (1993:54; 1992:109; see also, Sibanda, 1983:278) comments that a number of studies have been carried out to determine the effectiveness of ZINTEC students. It was found that the ZINTEC trained teachers were rated as being more effective than conventionally trained teachers (Murphy and Zhiri, 1992 (2):142). The conclusion, in the considered opinion of Chivore (1993:56; 1992:112) is that it would seem that the longer the exposure to practical teaching during training, the more effective is the teacher so trained.

Since the launching of the ZINTEC programme in 1981 several evaluations have been carried out by the Ministry of Education, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and other interested scholars on various aspects of the ZINTEC programme apart from its effectiveness as referred to by Chivore. These included aspects of organization, staffing, student supervision, regional centres and colleges, non-graduate INSET for teachers and lecturers in service, education with production, education and the community, problems encountered by the students enrolled in the ZINTEC programme and so forth (Chivore, 1993:56-63; 1992:110-112; see also, Sibanda, 1983:278; Gatawa, 1990:112-113).
Several problems of the ZINTEC programme were identified. These were related to issues concerning adequate and appropriately qualified teaching staff, the high lecturer to student ratio particularly in the case of field lecturers, financial constraints which resulted in limiting the number of visits to schools and lack of adequate local supervision and professional support of the students at the schools, over loading the student teachers with responsibilities which impinged on their study and interaction time.

The evaluations carried out in the ZINTEC programme and the implementation of the numerous recommendations affected the mode of non-graduate teacher education in Zimbabwe. An important impact of the success of ZINTEC resulted in the 'Zintecization' of teacher education colleges. In place of the three-year conventional training programme a four-year course comprising the first-year residential, second-year job-embedded, third-year residential and fourth-year on-the-job strategy has been instituted in Zimbabwe (Chivore, 1993:63; see also, Gatawa, 1990:112). Further, because of the tremendous achievements of the ZINTEC programme, despite the desiderata identified and problems experienced including the implications for the cost-effectiveness of teacher training and the improved output of trained teachers, DE has become a permanent feature of Zimbabwe's system of teacher education (Chivore, 1992:113; see also, Sibanda, 1983:279; Jenkins, 1989 (b):59; Chanakira, 1986:143; Van Niekerk, 1997(4):102-103; Kilpert, 1999(2):141).

Gatawa (1990:112; see also, Perraton, 1993 (b):225) proclaims that in terms of its objectives ZINTEC has been a success. It proved to be a viable and effective strategy to improve and upgrade the qualifications of non-graduate teachers (Chivore, 1993:64). Indeed, for developing countries affected by a serious shortage of appropriately qualified teachers the ZINTEC model has many positive attributes for adaptation to the local context.

Part of the success of the ZINTEC programme was due to rigorous evaluations carried out from time to time. These highlighted quite candidly the weaknesses and problems
and the recommendations emanating from such evaluations were implemented to good effect.

4.5.6 **SUMMATION**

Chivore (1993:64; 1992:114; see also, Van Niekerk, 1997(4):102-103; Kilpert, 1999(2):141) concludes that in the past decade Zimbabwe introduced several experiments and innovations in teacher education. These certainly impacted and influenced conventional teacher education as well as general education policies. As Coldevin (1990:115) remarks, although Zimbabwe was not the first to apply the concept of the sandwich method of INSET for teacher training, the ZINTEC model is perhaps the best example of such a strategy. There is general consensus among educators in Zimbabwe that the ZINTEC programme was most outstanding and successful.

Prior to 1998 perhaps, with the large percentage of un- and underqualified teachers in KZN, the ZINTEC programme had several lessons that could have been positively adapted to the KZN situation. However, with the process of rationalization and the increased pupil to teacher ratio of 35:1 in secondary schools and 40:1 in primary schools being implemented currently in KZN it would appear that there is a surplus of educators in the province.

Nonetheless, the impact of ZINTEC on the teacher education programme, while not being directed towards ameliorating a shortage of teachers as in Zimbabwe, could be considered in terms of other ramifications in KZN. This is particularly true in relation to the use of the strategy of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers. At this time in KZN when there is pandemic economic distress and the need to implement austerity measures such a strategy assumes critical proportions.
4.6 **CONCLUSION**

In this chapter an analysis was made of the strategy of DE in developed and developing countries with a view to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers. It is quite apparent that the nature and scope of DE and its level of sophistication differ from country to country especially as teacher education requirements and the need for teachers also vary greatly.

DE institutions range from mega-universities catering for thousands of students to a variety of much smaller institutions. All of them, however, provide a panoply of courses.

Numerous surveys of the world trends in DE have been carried out by those involved in DE research. These studies have provided invaluable inputs which can be adapted for the special needs of South Africa and KZN.

For example, the UKOU case study underpins the concept of open learning and DE where the emphasis is on modern interactive telecommunications. At the same time the strategies for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers through the postgraduate courses and the PGCE have important object lessons for KZN. The AU in Canada also underpins the pivotal role for teacher upgrading through DE particularly in terms of technology.

India and KZN have a great deal in common. The mix of population and cultures, the levels of illiteracy, the penury of the large majority of people particularly those in the rural areas and other socio-economic conditions endemic in India are to a large extent reminiscent of KZN. The vital role of IGNOU in bringing about the massification of education, equalization of educational opportunities and democratizing education as well as promoting the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers is quite remarkable. The current situation in KZN, where there is now a projected surplus of teachers is similar to India. Thus, the dynamics of DE as exemplified by the study
of IGNOU in helping to improve the quality of education, *inter alia*, by providing courses for teachers in service leading to the improvement and upgrading of their qualifications is worthy of emulation.

The ZINTEC model in Zimbabwe has been regarded by many commentators as an eye-opener for third world countries. While the rationale for ZINTEC as the strategy to overcome the acute shortage of teachers particularly in the rural areas does not now apply to KZN, *per se*, the success of the sandwich programme for teacher education is to be noted for consideration in KZN.

As we shall see later, teacher education in KZN is in a state of serious crisis. The studies of the UKOU and AU as representative of developed countries and IGNOU and ZINTEC models of DE as reflecting the *status quo* in developing countries have much to offer in ensuring that DE could be effectively and efficiently used to ameliorate the situation in KZN particularly and South Africa generally with respect to the vital issues and conditions revolving around teacher qualification improvement and upgrading. These models are critical for us.

In the final analysis, education and the future of the Province of KZN must emerge as winners. In order to ensure that such an objective is attained in the impending millennium the education of teachers must be continued so that by improving their academic and professional qualifications they become better and dedicated professionals. The strategy of DE in terms of the proven example of the UKOU, AU, IGNOU and ZINTEC could be implemented to good effect to realize such goals.

In the next chapter an overview of the general South African situation is undertaken. Selected DE institutions offering the main teacher education courses will be considered. Such an analysis would set the scene for a detailed study of the situation regarding the role of DE in the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS AT NATIONAL LEVEL IN SOUTH AFRICA

HSRC Library and Information Service
RGN-Biblioteek en Inligtingsdiens

DATE DUE - VERVERDAATUM

08/10/2007
(NO EXTENSION)
SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1997)
CHAPTER FIVE

DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS AT A NATIONAL LEVEL IN SOUTH AFRICA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The Republic of South Africa, as indicated in the map, comprises nine provinces. The Department of Education at national level is responsible for education policy in general and all aspects of tertiary education. However, schools and most of the colleges of education and other pre-tertiary education fall under the jurisdiction of the provincial Departments of Education and Culture.

At the outset of this research the writer collected wide-ranging information on various aspects of teacher education in terms of the situation in South Africa generally. In the South African context, it is widely held that decades of inferior, racially-based education as the iniquitous legacy of apartheid have contributed to a plethora of educational problems (Bagwandeen, 1995(a):10). Much has been written and reference is often made by politicians, educationists and other commentators on both the emotionally rhetorical and scientifically rational impact of apartheid and education. Consequently, it is not intended in this chapter to revisit education and teacher education in the period prior to the birth of the new democracy in South Africa in 1994.

Further, it must be noted that while literature on teacher education, per se, is also vast in terms of the South African context, our principal concern is with DE and the use of this strategy to improve and upgrade the qualifications of teachers. This undergirds the fundamental philosophy propounded by the writer that as a consequence of the enhanced qualifications of teachers education will tend towards becoming more social-reconstructionist with schools providing a formative experience of a more just society.
Moreover, the more highly and appropriately qualified teacher would contribute immensely to the reification of praxis thereby promoting the professionalism of the educator. It is true that many variables in their aggregate contribute to what may be described as a competent teacher. From experience and research globally, there can be no abnegating the fact that the more widely one is exposed to learning the more one’s horizon is broadened. Further, the depth of one’s intellectual perspicacity and knowledge is increased infinitely by the interaction of the individual with such learning. Consequently, the researcher rejects outright the often naive and cynical comments of the uninformed that the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE or even face-to-face contact is nothing more than ‘paper-chase’. On the contrary, the writer strongly supports the contention that at this stage in the South African situation enhanced teacher education will contribute positively towards the development of critically orientated, socially compassionate and impassioned, reflective educators and schools (Bagwandeen, 1995(a):13).

Currently, education is in serious crisis in South Africa. Many would consider 1998 as the *annis mirabilis* for cataclysmic decisions in education in South Africa generally and KZN particularly. Parents and the organized teaching profession blame the former national Minister of Education as well as the former Provincial Minister of Education in the case of KZN, directly for the low morale among teachers and the uncertainty in education.

For example, a cause for serious concern at the beginning of 1998 was the issue over poor matriculation results in the country (*Daily News*, 1998-01-05; 1998-01-07). Shindler (1998:1) states that the 1997 standard ten examination results were the lowest recorded since 1979. For example, in KZN only 54 percent of the matriculants passed the examinations as indicated in figure 5.1 below:
Figure 5.1 MATRICULATION RESULTS: 1997 IN KWAZULU-NATAL

CLASS OF '97

Failed: 46%
Matric Exemption: 17.4%
Senior Certificate: 36.6%

SOURCE: THE SATURDAY PAPER, 1998-01-10
Further, table 5.1 below provides the National Pass Rate trend while table 5.2 depicts the declining pass rate in the various provinces. Table 5.3 provides interesting statistics apropos the matriculation examination results by province and gender for 1998.

Table 5.1  MATRICULATION NATIONAL PASS RATE TREND IN SOUTH AFRICA

![NATIONAL PASS RATE TREND](chart.png)
Table 5.2  THE DECLINING PASS RATE FOR THE MATRICULATION EXAMINATION IN THE VARIOUS PROVINCES

THE DECLINING PASS RATE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>1996 PASS RATE</th>
<th>1997 PASS RATE</th>
<th>% CHANGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>80.4%</td>
<td>76.3%</td>
<td>-4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>69.9%</td>
<td>63.7%</td>
<td>-6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>50.9%</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
<td>-5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwazulu Natal</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
<td>54.0%</td>
<td>-7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>-4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>66.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>-16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>49.7%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>-3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>51.1%</td>
<td>42.3%</td>
<td>-8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Province</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>-5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td><strong>54.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>47.1%</strong></td>
<td><strong>-7.6%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graphic: FIONA KRISCH

SOURCE: SUNDAY TIMES, 1998-01-11
Table 5.3  **STANDARD TEN EXAMINATION RESULTS BY PROVINCE AND GENDER, 1998**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Candidates</th>
<th>Total Passes</th>
<th>% Total Passes</th>
<th>University Exemptions</th>
<th>% University Exemptions</th>
<th>Total Failures</th>
<th>% Total Failures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34 975</td>
<td>17 414</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3 183</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17 461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>26 152</td>
<td>20 974</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2 362</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20 108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>61 127</td>
<td>38 388</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5 545</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>46 569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18 097</td>
<td>8 987</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2 332</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9 110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22 283</td>
<td>8 712</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2 06'4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13 571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>40 380</td>
<td>17 699</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4 398</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22 681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34 138</td>
<td>19 798</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>5 525</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14 349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22 638</td>
<td>22 902</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>6 963</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19 756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>56 776</td>
<td>42 700</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>12 498</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34 076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu-Natal</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48 925</td>
<td>25 436</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>8 490</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23 442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>60 651</td>
<td>29 226</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9 551</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31 349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>109 559</td>
<td>54 662</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18 021</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>54 887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17 895</td>
<td>13 450</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3 822</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4 465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21 787</td>
<td>15 326</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3 279</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4 642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>39 682</td>
<td>28 776</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>7 094</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10 927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3 403</td>
<td>2 356</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1 050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4 021</td>
<td>2 500</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4 111</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1 521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>7 424</td>
<td>4 856</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>806</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2 571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Province</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51 025</td>
<td>20 027</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4 250</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>37 001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>63 305</td>
<td>20 191</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3 490</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>43 114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>114 330</td>
<td>40 218</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7 780</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>76 125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18 846</td>
<td>10 882</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>2 775</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7 764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22 152</td>
<td>12 356</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2 916</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11 437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>40 998</td>
<td>23 238</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5 691</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19 271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17 025</td>
<td>12 043</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>4 071</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2 912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21 521</td>
<td>16 525</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4 957</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4 566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>38 546</td>
<td>28 568</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>8 958</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8 502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATIONAL</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>244 040</td>
<td>122 245</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>34 395</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>111 795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>309 111</td>
<td>147 741</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36 913</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>161 198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>553 151</td>
<td>269 986</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>71 308</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>272 393</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Results as at 7 January 1999. Excludes the results of 1 026 (0.25%) candidates who were still awaiting results. Includes the results of 1 615 candidates in the Eastern Cape and 1 541 in KwaZulu-Natal with pending irregularities.

Compiled by EduSource from information provided by the Directorate: Information Systems, Department of Education, 1999

Source: Shindler and Bot (1999:5)
The situation at the beginning of 1999 has not improved in any dramatic manner. As a matter of fact, Professor Paulus Zulu, Pro-Vice Chancellor of Student Governance at the University of Natal, Durban and Chairman of the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) Board, expresses the opinion that education in South Africa is crumbling (1999:8). This assertion seems to be justified by the matriculation examination results throughout South Africa at the end of 1998. As seen in Table 5.3 a total of 273,165 candidates failed. Nationally, these results account for a mere 51% pass rate (Shindler and Bot, 1999:5; see also, *The Independent on Saturday*, 1999-01-09; *Daily News*, 1999-01-08).

In KZN the matriculation results were described as the worst ever with only 54,672 candidates passing. This indicated a slump from a 54% pass rate in the 1997 matriculation examinations to just 50% in the 1998 matriculation examination results (Shindler and Bot, 1999:5; see also, Bissetty, 1999(a):1; *Daily News*, 1999-01-07; 1999-01-21).

Indeed, in KZN the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union (SADTU) described the matriculation results as abysmal and called for the resignation of the Education Minister, Dr Vincent Zulu (*Daily News*, 1999-01-08; see also, Khumalo, 1999:2; Zulu 1999:8). The disappointment of the community at large in KZN was so acute and grave at the parlous state of affairs in education, that the incessant call for the replacement of the Minister of Education was ultimately acceded to. Eileen kaNkosi Shandu was appointed as Minister of Education to replace Dr Zulu (Bissetty, 1999(b):13; see also, Zulu, 1999:8).

Further, the general expenditure on school education in South Africa is enormous, as depicted in figure 5.2 below:
Figure 5.2  EXPENDITURE ON SCHOOL EDUCATION PER PROVINCE FOR 1997/98

The amounts in this figure indicate the expenditure on school education (both public and private schools). The per capita expenditure varies from R1 650 to R3 000 in the different provinces.

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1998: 23)
The ineluctable conclusion by many in South Africa then is that the matriculation failure rate has cost the taxpayer in South Africa a staggering R814 million (Naidoo, 1999(a): 1). Professor Ben Parker, as Head of the School of Education at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, maintains that the primary cause of this state of affairs can be attributed to the fact that despite the past five years of democratic government, the system of education in South Africa remains bedevilled by its apartheid and colonial heritage. In his call for a whole new learning curve he is supported by Dr Chandru Kistan (1999: 8), Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville, who calls for quality leadership in education. This can be achieved, as both declare, by redefining the role of the teacher as educator and ensuring that all educators are encouraged to further their studies to ensure the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications. Even Nelson Mandela, the former President of South Africa, declared the critical need for a new commitment to education in one of his many farewell speeches (Daily News, 1999-06-17).

Latakomo (Daily News, 1998-06-03) ascribes this crisis in education to the fact that the culture of learning that everyone talks about is something of a mirage. The position in education has been exacerbated by the proposal for reduction in the number of educators in South Africa. In 1995 the national Department of Education estimated that the country could afford only 360 000 teachers with a teacher to pupil ratio of 1 : 35 for high schools and 1 : 40 for primary schools (Sunday Times, 1998-03-29). This of course meant that thousands of teachers will have to be retrenched. However, in terms of the student numbers reflected in the following tables the need for more teachers is expedient and will be critical for many years to come. Figure 5.3 indicates the learner enrolment according to province in 1997 while figure 5.4 depicts the learner enrolment according to school phase and gender in 1997. Figure 5.5 provides the learner enrolment forecast to the year 2008.
The KwaZulu-Natal Education Department has the largest number of learners in South Africa (nearly 25%). The four largest education departments have more than two thirds of the total number of learners in South Africa. The 12 001 613 learners show a decline of 0.4% compared to the number of learners of 1996. This decline is mainly caused by the fact that there is a decline in intake in Grade 1.

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1998: 2)
Approximately one third of the total number of learners in South Africa are in the Foundation Phase (grades 1 to 3). The other phases are the Intermediate Phase (grades 4 to 6), the Senior Phase (grades 7 to 9) and the Further Education and Training (FET) Phase (grades 10 to 12).

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1998 : 2)
Figure 5.5  LEARNER ENROLMENT FOR 1993 to 1997 AND FORECASTS FOR 1998 TO 2008 FOR SOUTH AFRICA

Average annual growth rate (%)  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Western Cape</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1998: 15; see also Arnott and Chabane, 1995: 38)
In this combined graph the number of learners (y-axis left) and the number of educators (y-axis right) are indicated. The number of learners per educator for the different provinces is: 37.2 (Eastern Cape); 31.6 (Free State); 27.2 (Gauteng); 34.0 (KwaZulu-Natal); 35.7 (Mpumalanga); 27.3 (Northern Cape); 31.0 (Northern Province); 29.2 (North West) and 25.2 (Western Cape).

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1997 : 9)
In addition, the number of educators and learner enrolment per province in 1996 as illustrated in figure 5.6 should not be drastically changed if further chaos in schools is to be avoided.

Teacher bodies in South Africa, namely, SADTU, the National Professional Teachers Organization of South Africa (NAPTOSA) and the Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwysersunie (SAOU) threatened to embark on mass action in protest against the tight budget and retrenchment of teachers (The Saturday Paper, 1998-01-03). Some 30 000 teachers around the country face losing their jobs this year as provincial education departments reel under massive debts (Daily News, 1998-01-05; 1999-01-15; 1999-02-10; 1999-02-22; 1999-05-04; 1999-05-05; 1999-05-06; see also, Sunday Tribune Herald, 1999-01-31; The Independent on Saturday, 1999-01-16). In addition to figure 5.2 which reflected the general expenditure on school education, the detailed breakdown of expenditure on education for each province is illustrated in table 5.4, while table 5.5 provides a projection of the expenditure by province for 1996/97 and table 5.6 gives details of the education expenditure and the various expenditure categories:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Type</th>
<th>1995/96</th>
<th>1996/97</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>1234</td>
<td>5678</td>
<td>3456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>2345</td>
<td>5678</td>
<td>3456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary</td>
<td>3456</td>
<td>7890</td>
<td>4567</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures are in thousands of dollars. Changes are in thousands of dollars.


Table 5.4: Summary of expenditure on education by province, 1995/96

337
Table 5.5
SUMMARY OF PROJECTED EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY PROVINCE, 1996/97

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Public Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expenditure</td>
<td>Expenditure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>Amount</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Due to rounding off, percentages may not add up to 100.

Source: Department of Education, Expenditure of Provincial Departments for 1995/96.

NB: Due to rounding off, percentages may not add up to 100.

Source: Bot (1998: 12)
### Table 5.6 SUMMARY OF EDUCATION EXPENDITURE BY PROVINCE AND EXPENDITURE CATEGORY, 1996/97

#### Expenditure on Personnel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Salaries and wages</th>
<th>Other personal</th>
<th>Supplies and services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Expenditure on Fixed Assets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Land acquisition</th>
<th>New buildings</th>
<th>Maintenance of buildings</th>
<th>Equipment</th>
<th>Other (10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
<td>Projected %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) Includes personnel on out of school arts, culture and sport.
2) Basic salaries, wages, on four compensation (including overtime of permanent and temporary personnel (including personnel working on an agency basis).
3) Leave benefits, Employee contributions to provident and pension funds, (b) housing subsidy, (c) medical aid fund and (d) unemployment insurance fund. Loans, Gratuities, Pensions, Unemployment, Car allowance, Other personnel remuneration.
4) Includes student collections.
5) Includes subsidies, transport costs, professional consultation services, bonuses and scholarships to pupils for study purposes, reimbursed with an expected useful life of less than one year.
6) Includes funds earmarked to a department of works for school building projects, but excludes RDP funds.
7) Completed projects are projects where the Department has already acquired a tender to a specific contractor.
8) Includes equipment with an expected useful life in excess of one year and an existing which is not deleted completely through use.
9) Includes library books, journals, records, computer programs, video tapes and other media carried items, but not apparatus and school books.
10) Includes museum and art collections, and livestock in education.
11) Estimates.

### Source:
Bot (1998:14)
Understandably, with the expenditure in education increasing the drastic cutbacks on essential school services are beginning to bite (Daily News, 1998-04-23).

The crisis in education is evident from a quick survey of the media in 1998 on educational issues. This exercise provides a valuable insight into the ominous and calamitous situation in education in South Africa in general and KZN in particular:

- Schools head for trouble (The Saturday Paper, 1998-01-03).
- Crisis meeting on teachers (Daily News, 1998-01-06).
- Unions tell education department to scrap plan to reduce number of teachers: schools facing closure (Daily News, 1998-01-23).
- Many KZN pupils sent home and told not to return until crisis has been resolved: panic as schools shut (Daily News, 1998-01-27).
- Teachers take to the streets (Daily News, 1998-02-06).
• Education Department given a week to sort out problems at closed schools: get back to teaching! (Daily News, 1998-06-03).

• Teacher unions stand firm: last ditch effort to avert strike (Daily News, 1998-06-03).

• Nationwide strike seems certain: teacher crisis talks today (Daily News, 1998-06-04).

• Backs to the blackboard as strike looms (Sunday Times, 1998-06-07).

• Schools dispute put on hold (Daily News, 1998-06-11).

In the first six months of 1999 the dire straits in education continue. The Education Policy Unit (EPU) of the University of Natal outlined inadequate funding, large class sizes, controversial policies and fear of the retrenchment of teachers as just some of the major issues threatening the collapse of the education system (Daily News, 1998-06-08; see also, Zama, 1999: 8; Zulu, 1999: 8; Kistan, 1999: 8; Parker, 1999: 14; Lodge, 1999: 8).

According to Bulger (Daily News, 1998-06-10) the Government's problems in education are attributed to a convergence of two of the major weaknesses of post-apartheid South Africa in dire need of reconstruction and development. They are its centrist and ideologically-loaded approach to decision-making and its relationship with its trade union allies on the one hand and the simple lack of resources especially money on the other hand.

Pretorius (Sunday Times, 1998-06-14; see also, DOE, 1996(a):29-32) explains further that the former Minister of Education, Professor Sibusiso Bengu, had little choice when he announced a plan on 17 April 1998 which would make large-scale retrenchments inevitable. In addition, for the past two years money for schooling was obtained from the total annual budgets granted to individual provinces. This meant that central
government set policy but had no jurisdiction over how the provinces divided up their budgets.

After paying the salaries of teachers the provinces had little money left to implement Central Government's ambitious policies such as the new Curriculum 2005, related to outcomes-based education introduced in Grade 1 in 1998. They were also hard pressed to maintain decent conditions at schools especially in rural and poor areas or supply the requisite books and stationery.

To avoid the strike by the teacher unions in South Africa the Minister was forced to backtrack on his plans. Inter alia, it was agreed that pupil to teacher ratios would be negotiated by the unions; the unions would also participate in the budgetary process on a provincial and national level; the redistribution of teachers in service in township and suburban schools had to be determined equitably; retrenchments where possible had to be avoided; temporary teachers, many of whom were seriously underqualified, were to be treated as permanent for the purposes of redeployment; and, there was to be a moratorium on the termination of the contracts of temporary teachers pending the planning by the provincial education departments on how to curb expenditure on personnel.

The agreement with the unions represented a commitment by the national DOE to stabilize the teaching profession. However, the SAOU perhaps hit the nail on the head with its terse, but candidly relevant, criticism:

'(We regret) the fact that only the symptoms associated with the problems in education are being addressed at present.'

(Pretorius, Sunday Times, 1998-06-14)

Further, the agreement was a policy statement by Professor Bengu. It did not encompass the financial process which appeared to be left to the provinces.
Consequently, the provinces, especially KZN, may be forced to employ more teachers (*Daily News*, 1998-06-16; 1999-05-04; 1999-05-21; see also, Naidoo, 1999(d) : 5).

In addition, while figures 5.3 and 5.4 depict statistics of learners at schools, the trenchant observation is made that some 400 000 children from disadvantaged backgrounds and of schoolgoing age still do not attend school. This is deemed to be another crucial problem in education. As figure 5.2 and the tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 lucidly indicate more than R40 billion are being spent annually on education. This sector thus becomes the biggest recipient of state funding. It seems a phenomenal amount. However, even such a colossal sum for education does not contribute to the remediation of the serious backlogs in school education particularly of those who are deemed to be the underprivileged and deprived sectors of the South African community (Bulger, *Daily News*, 1998-06-10).

The ill-fated strategy, myopic in many respects, to redeploy teachers by offering retrenchment packages to those who qualified and sending some of those who remained to schools in other areas, precipitated a reaction akin to a cataleptic paroxysm of rage and vehement if not vitriolic opposition from both parents and teachers. In analyzing this decision, the ineluctable conclusion is that it was decidedly a grandiloquent and ideologically driven project. It failed to take cognizance of the vagaries of human nature. It ignored the predilection of individuals who preferred to remain in one part of the country rather than be sent to another without any option or choice.

It apparently attempted to disregard the democratic right of parents to have their children taught by teachers whom they perceived to acquiesce voluntarily to be in their schools. Moreover, the fundamental objective of the strategy to right-size the total number of teachers in terms of the proposed teacher to pupil ratio was obfuscated by the fact that the large majority of educators who opted for the voluntary severance packages were of the calibre that the education departments needed most. The irony of this Gargantuan débâcle and gauleiter *faux pas* on the part of the Department of Education is lucently illustrated in figure 5.7 below:
Figure 5.7 THE DÉBACLE OF THE VOLUNTARY SEVERANCE PACKAGE FOR TEACHERS

...ALL VOLUNTARY RETRENCHMENTS, MS. STUBBS? WHAT A SPIRIT OF SELF-SACRIFICE!

SOURCE: DAILY NEWS, 1998-05-18
The hard-hitting critics of such retrenchment have condemned the strategy as a truly cretinous decision. Many frustrated parents have also scathingly deprecated this plan of retrenchment as acute myopia on the part of the educational authorities.

In an attempt to change from apartheid education a long list of commissions and task teams were appointed to investigate aspects of education across the spectrum. New legislation to implement the recommendations of these commissions and task teams were promulgated. Notwithstanding, education in South Africa and in KZN particularly remains on the brink of disaster.

This perception is underpinned by the recent President’s Education Initiative Research Project. The findings of the project indicated that while the democratic government in South Africa has laid a firm policy framework for an equitable, non-racial education system, nonetheless, ‘South Africa had one of the least efficient schooling systems in the world’ (Vergnani, 1999:15). Thus, according to Dr Nick Taylor, Director of the Joint Education Trust:

‘It has become "blazingly-obvious" that the biggest priority facing the new Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, will be to get schooling functioning efficiently ....’

(Vergnani, 1999:15)

In a survey among academics eliciting the identification of key education issues that must be addressed by President Thabo Mbeki’s Government elected in June 1999, inter alia, teacher upgrading was deemed quintessential to get the school system running efficiently. Professor Peter Kallaway, Professor of Education at the University of the Western Cape, and Professor Michael Ashley, Professor of Education at the University of Cape Town, were among those who unanimously endorsed the opinion that the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of
teachers as part of INSET to make them more relevant as educators in the new millennium were critical to the whole schooling system in South Africa (Vergnani, 1999: 15).

Thus, it is against this background of the teachers' squeeze and the ball-game between teachers and the Government, as tersely illustrated in figures 5.8 and 5.9 below, that we need to consider the historico-comparative study of the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers at the national level in South Africa. Unlike in other developing countries, in the South African context, there is, in terms of Government projections a surplus of teachers. It would seem, therefore, that the strategies of DE used in developing countries to overcome teacher shortages are no longer relevant to the current circumstances in South Africa.

Be that as it may, apart from the need to upgrade and improve the qualifications of the large number of un- and underqualified teachers in the various provinces as indicated in table 5.7, there is also the urgency to continue the formal, award bearing INSET for qualified teachers. This anxiety is clearly demonstrated by table 5.8 indicating teachers enrolled for various degrees, diplomas and certificates leading to upgrading and improvement of their qualifications, table 5.9 showing the diaspora of teachers engaged in such programmes throughout South Africa and table 5.10 which provides interesting statistics of the cohort of teachers pursuing further studies in terms of their ages.
Figure 5.8 TEACHERS' SQUEEZE

SOURCE: Sunday Times, 1998-06-14
Table 5.7 **PROVINCES RANKED ACCORDING TO PROPORTION OF UN-AND UNDERQUALIFIED TEACHERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Un(der) qualified</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>12 921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>24 326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>9 916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu-Natal</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>27 639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>9 720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Province</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>17 413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>2 229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>7 639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>10 521</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Arnott and Chabane (1995:22)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>NO. OF MALES</th>
<th>NO. OF FEMALES</th>
<th>AFRICAN</th>
<th>WHITE</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>INDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Diploma</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Education Diplomas</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Management Certificate</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Readiness Certificate</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diterne Tsa Thuto</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B A Programmes</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Undergraduate Degrees</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>30%</strong></td>
<td><strong>70%</strong></td>
<td><strong>86%</strong></td>
<td><strong>4%</strong></td>
<td><strong>5%</strong></td>
<td><strong>5%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: SAIDE (1995(b):138)
Table 5.9 **STUDENT DETAILS: BREAKDOWN OF STUDENTS BY PROVINCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>GAUTENG</th>
<th>KWAZULU-NATAL</th>
<th>W CAPE</th>
<th>E CAPE</th>
<th>N CAPE</th>
<th>MPUMALANGA</th>
<th>N PROV</th>
<th>FREE STATE</th>
<th>N WEST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Diploma</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Education Diplomas</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diplomas</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Management Certificate</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Readiness Certificate</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diteme Tsa Thuto</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B A Programmes</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Undergraduate Degrees</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** SAIDE (1995(b):139)
Table 5.10 **STUDENT DETAILS: STUDENT AGES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>AGES OF STUDENTS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LESS THAN 35 YEARS</td>
<td>35-50 YEARS</td>
<td>OLDER THAN 50 YEARS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teachers' Diploma</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary Higher Diploma</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Teachers' Certificate</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Secondary Diploma</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Education Diplomas</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diplomas</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Management Certificate</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Readiness Certificate</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diteme Tsa Thuto</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B A Programmes</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Undergraduate Degrees</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>57%</strong></td>
<td><strong>40%</strong></td>
<td><strong>3%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** SAIDE (1995(b):141)
It is also important to note that the concerns of education in general and the future of teacher demand, supply, utilization and costs are critical in terms of the changing scenario in South Africa. However, these latter areas of concern must be left for further research. There can be no gainsaying the fact that such research is now imperative if South Africa is to maintain its momentum and thrust into making a formidable impact on the global environment and to be venerated as being relevant and progressive as a country in the next century.

5.2 THE PROVISION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Dr Mangosuthu Buthelezi (1998:1-4), in addressing diplomates in his capacity as the Chancellor of the University of Zululand, at the graduation ceremony of teachers who had successfully completed the requirements for the Diploma in Education of the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU), observed pithily:

'It is a welcome sight to see those of you who have chosen the honourable profession of teaching. As I stand among you, I am filled with gratitude that so many have answered the call in South Africa for more and better qualified teachers . . . . I commend the fact that you are already teaching and greatly admire your self-discipline and dedication to your profession portrayed by the fact that you have chosen distance education as a means to continue actively teaching, while developing your own capacity to teach. This is the kind of teacher that South Africa needs; the teacher who remains a student in order to become a better teacher.'
This candid and highly relevant observation by Dr Buthelezi epitomizes the very heart of what South Africa and KZN need to ensure the optimal delivery of education.

In recent years, reports such as those of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) (1996(a); 1996(b)), NEPI (1992(b)), DOE (1995(a); 1995(b); 1995(c); 1995-1996; 1996(a); 1996(b); 1996(c); 1996(d); 1996(e); 1996(f); 1996(g); 1996(h); 1997(a); 1997(b); 1997(c)), SAIDE (1992; 1995(a); 1995(b)), HSRC (1987), Hofmeyr and Hall (1995), Van Niekerk (1997(5):114-131) and others have made reference to the educational debate in South Africa at various levels. In some respects reference has been made to DE specifically or subliminally as a strategy worthy of consideration.

However, there are two important sources with implications for teacher education through DE and in particular the evaluation of the nature and scope of such courses offered by various institutions in South Africa. These are that of the Panel of International Commissioners, under the Chairmanship of Professor G Dhanarajan, previously Director of the Open Learning Institute of Hong Kong and currently the President and Chief Executive Officer of the Commonwealth of Learning (COL), who undertook a Review and Assessment of Distance Education in South Africa and the report for the national audit on Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa (SAIDE, 1995(a); 1995(b)).

In the case of the former, a thorough assessment of the current provision of DE across the educational spectrum was undertaken. In addition, the Commissioners were required to propose strategies by which DE can contribute integrally to the realization of the principles and goals proposed for the new education and training system being introduced into South Africa especially pertaining to open learning. Finally, the Commissioners were requested to postulate recommendations on how to change the present educational provision of DE (SAIDE, 1995(a):xii).
Moreover, the terms of reference for the investigation by the Commissioners were outlined as follows:

Firstly, to describe:

- the prevailing organization of DE in South Africa at all levels of education in both the public and private sectors;
- existing arrangements for the formulation of Government policy in relation to DE provision and the social, economic or policy-making organizations expected to use DE trained students;
- the present arrangements for training DE skills;
- the present structure for, and the functioning of, the supervision of DE provision in the public and private sectors; and,
- the present system of financing DE and the priorities in that financing.

Secondly, to review and assess the performance of DE provision.

Thirdly, to recommend changes in policy direction, including structure and finance.

Fourthly, to provide key stakeholders and policy makers with the principal elements of initial policy and organization for open learning and DE so as to maximize the contribution of this strategy of learning to education and training for a democratic South Africa.

(SAIDE, 1995(a):xii-xiii; see also, DOE, 1996(c):9-15)
It must be noted that this group of evaluators considered the current provision of DE across the board in South Africa. They included in their study the four national institutions of UNISA, Technikon SA, Vista University and Technisa, some residential universities offering courses through DE, colleges of education, private commercial colleges and several NGOs involved with DE. Their inputs constitute an evaluation of DE in general.

Their observations and criticisms are indubitably valuable. Their recommendations, however, are not specific to teacher education. Nonetheless, those aspects with specific reference to improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers through DE will be incorporated into the general conclusions and recommendations of this thesis.

The latter report, namely, *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* (SAIDE, 1995(b)), is more closely aligned to our objective for this research. It constituted a sector of the national teacher education audit which was undertaken in terms of the recommendation contained in the White Paper on Education and Training (DOE, 1995(c)). The national audit was to provide a comprehensive overview and analysis of the current state of teacher education in South Africa (Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:1; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):1-2; DOE, 1996(c):3-5).

This national audit was carried out under the aegis of the DOE. The general objectives of the audit were firstly, to develop an analysis of teacher demand, supply and utilization as a basis for the development of models for projecting future requirements. Secondly, the audit was directed towards evaluating teacher education institutions and programmes, formal and non-formal, in terms of their capacity to provide PRESET and/or INSET, the quality of the programmes offered and the staffing and governance structures (Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:1). The national audit, understandably, revealed extremely interesting data. With respect to teacher education through DE the task was delegated to SAIDE.
This report on teacher education through DE considered, *inter alia*, as its prolegomenon a detailed discussion of the criteria which formed the basis of the description and evaluation of teacher education offered at a distance in South Africa. These included a consideration of education in South Africa, the global context *vis-a-vis* South Africa and the goals, values and principles of the new education system in the country (SAIDE, 1995(b):9-16). Taking the cue from the White Paper on Education and Training (DOE, 1995(c)) the report adumbrated criteria for good teacher education as follows:

- Teacher education is crucial to South Africa's reconstruction and development.

- Teacher education should form part of the higher education system.

- PRESET and INSET should be seen as part of one continuum of professional development.

- Teacher education needs to develop innovative, cost-effective methods of educational provision.

- A diversity of approaches to improving teacher education and learning should be supported.

- Teacher education should integrate theory and practice.

- Greater accountability to a range of interested parties is required from teachers, schools and teacher education institutions.

- Teacher education should be collegial rather than individualistic.
There needs to be a focus on developing teachers in subject areas of national need.

(SAIDE, 1995(b):16-18)

In the audit of teacher education offered at a distance various universities, institutions, colleges of education and private commercial colleges are evaluated. It must be clearly understood that while some of the criticisms made are highly debatable, some of the recommendations are worthy of serious consideration. These will also be considered as a component of the conclusions and recommendations of this thesis.

In the next chapter, we shall consider in some detail those institutions that provide DE programmes specifically for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers within the boundaries of the Province of KZN. At this juncture, however, we shall consider a historico-comparative overview of UNISA, Vista University and the South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) as the national major providers of teacher education through DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. However, brief reference will also be made to some of the private, for-profit commercial colleges, NGOs and other institutions offering such DE programmes that lead to teacher upgrading.

5.2.1 THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA (UNISA)

5.2.1.1 ORIGINS OF UNISA

UNISA has earned for itself the highly esteemed reputation of being the doyen of DE and has been described, *inter alia*, as the world's oldest correspondence school (Silk, 1974:15). A detailed history of UNISA has been presented by Boucher (1973). The early history of UNISA in terms of its origins and development has been largely
acclaimed as being coterminous with the history of higher education and the rise of universities in South Africa as a whole (Harley, 1992:1).

Boucher (1973:1) states categorically that university education in South Africa is only a century old. Through the years of the Dutch East India Company rule at the Cape from 1652 until the first British occupation in 1795, higher educational development was confined principally to a few private secondary or 'Latin' schools. In 1829 the South African College was established with the promise of high standards of attainment by its students. The staff were accorded professorial rank (Boucher, 1973:2; see also, Van Niekerk, 1968:31).

In 1850 the administration of the civil service examinations was placed in the hands of the Board of Examiners of Candidates for Government Service. Van As (1985:223; see also, Kruger and Booyse, 1996:5) deemed this innovation as the beginning of academic life in South Africa.

Sir George Grey, Governor of the Cape of Good Hope between 1854 to 1861, prompted by his proclivity for education, appointed a Commission to consider the establishment of an examining board with wider powers. The Commission reported in 1858 and proposed the appointment of an enlarged board with examiners in Arts, Science and Law. This was the genesis of a colonial university corresponding in powers and functions similar to the London University and the Queen's University in Ireland (Boucher, 1973:8; see also, Van Niekerk, 1968:32; Financial Mail, 1989-08-04:61; Houle, 1973:39; Gerrity, 1976:132; Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):16).

As a result of determined campaigning by various educationists in the Cape Colony the Cape Parliament promulgated Act 16 of 1873 which established the University of the Cape of Good Hope (Van As, 1985:223; see also, UNISA, 1998(f):3; Harley, 1992:1; Kruger and Booyse, 1996:5; Kilpert, 1999(1):116-117; Financial Mail, 1989-08-04:61). The university received the Royal Assent on 26 June 1873. The Board of Public Examiners was consequently abolished. Langham Dale, who was then the
Superintendent-General of Education, was elected the first Vice-Chancellor. Thus, from the outset, the University of the Cape of Good Hope was closely linked to the entire colonial educational system (Boucher, 1973:31).

At this stage the University of the Cape of Good Hope set and marked examinations but the teaching was left to others. Some critics, accordingly, described the institution as not a university in reality but merely a factory of certificates (Boucher, 1973:75; see also, Harley, 1992:1).

However, as a direct outcome of interest displayed by leading men in education in other parts of the country, the University Extension Act of 1875 was passed. This legislation enabled the Cape University to operate beyond the colonial borders (Boucher, 1973:75-79; see also, Van Niekerk, 1968:79).

The post-1910 period not only saw the South African colonies move towards political unity but also experienced a greater degree of educational uniformity under the control of the University of the Cape of Good Hope. Simultaneously, however, a campaign throughout the provinces of South Africa, at that time, for a teaching university, was set in motion (Boucher, 1973:94-111). Reform was urgently needed.

Such reform was to take place against the background of British imperialism, Afrikaner nationalism and the First World War. It undergirded the fact that by this stage the University of the Cape of Good Hope had outgrown its usefulness. After a period of heated discussions and debate lasting for many years, legislation in the form of Act No. 12 of 1916 was promulgated which decreed that the University of the Cape of Good Hope was to be incorporated in a federal university designated the University of South Africa (Van As, 1985:223; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):3; 1995(b):270; DOE, 1996(a):93; UNISA, 1998(f):3; Harley, 1992:1; ICDL, 1995:10; Kruger and Booyse, 1996:6; Houle, 1973:39; Wakatama, 1983:146; Greyling, 1989:28).
The change was to become effective from the 2 April 1918. The administrative seat of the new university was to be in Pretoria (Boucher, 1973:136-139; see also, Van Niekerk, 1968:35). The University of South Africa became the successor of the University of the Cape of Good Hope and acted solely as an examining university for its constituent colleges and for private or external students who were registered with it.

The examinations of UNISA at this early stage provided an opportunity to many who could not attend the existing institutions for tertiary education for various reasons. By 1936 the enrolment of non-collegiate students at UNISA exceeded those attending face-to-face lectures. At a Council meeting held on 28 November 1944 it was resolved that Professor A J H van der Walt be seconded from the Potchefstroom University to organize an advisory service for external students; to investigate, prepare memoranda and make recommendations on the desirability, possibility and practicability of the institution by the university of its own correspondence courses; and, to investigate and report on any matters relative to external students (Van Niekerk, 1968:39; see also, Boucher, 1973:216; Kruger and Booyse, 1996:7; Houle, 1973:39; Wakatama, 1983:137-149).

Thus, following upon the recommendations of Professor van der Walt, a Division of External Studies was instituted at UNISA. In terms of the Higher Education Amendment Act (Act 18 of 1946) which received the assent of the Governor-General on 8 May 1946, UNISA was empowered to provide DE courses as from 1 January 1947. It had now succeeded in justifying its existence by undertaking the tuition and guidance of those candidates whose welfare it had largely ignored for almost three quarters of a century (Boucher, 1973:220; see also, Van As, 1985:223; UNISA, 1998(f):3; Harley, 1992:3).

UNISA was reconstituted in terms of Act No. 30 of 1951. It no longer had any constituent colleges except Fort Hare for African students. However, it provided DE courses for its own enrolled students. At this stage a prospective candidate had to
satisfy the Council that valid reasons prevented such a candidate from attending a conventional university.

In terms of Act 45 of 1959 UNISA assumed the guardian role for university colleges established for the non-White students. These included the following institutions which are now independent universities:

- University of Zululand
- University of the North
- University of Western Cape
- University of Durban-Westville

UNISA played a part in their government, supervised the academic work, helped staff and conferred degrees upon successful candidates (Boucher, 1973:331; see also, Harley, 1992:2; *Financial Mail*, 1989-08-04:62; Houle, 1973:40; Wakatama, 1983:150-151).

In the 1960s the future for UNISA seemed bright with promise indeed. Student numbers were increasing rapidly and high standards were being maintained. UNISA was at last enjoying notable prestige both as a teaching institution and as the matrix of a new brood of associated colleges.

In 1962, Ministerial approval was finally given to UNISA for compulsory enrolment for students wishing to study through DE with UNISA. From 1964 all students registered for examinations were obliged to receive their tuition through the university (Boucher, 1973:333; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):3; DOE, 1996(a):93; Kruger and Booyse, 1996:9).
Greater pressure was now brought to bear upon students enrolled for the UNISA examinations for adequate tuition and learning. This inevitably narrowed the chasm between the learner and teacher at UNISA.

In 1967 UNISA came of age. The Principal and Vice-Chancellor of the University had been elected as the Chairman of the Committee of University Principals (CUP) with the Registrar as its Secretary. In terms of the Amending Act on Universities (Act 53 of 1967) UNISA was no longer compelled to have other university principals or their representatives to serve on the Council of UNISA. The university now assumed the complete status and was accorded due recognition of a fully-fledged DE university (Kruger and Booyse, 1996:10).

In this year also, UNISA invited Professor Charles A Wedemeyer, the William H Lighty Professor of Education, University Extension, University of Wisconsin, to undertake an analysis of UNISA in terms of:

- assessing the organization of UNISA to accomplish its mission;
- assessing the instructional methods of UNISA;
- assessing the operational procedures of UNISA;
- determining the need and practicability of the greater application of educational technology in UNISA;
- assessing the adequacy of the financial support level of UNISA particularly in comparison with other South African universities.

(Wedemeyer, 1968:11-35; see also, Kruger and Booyse, 1996:11-12)
Wedemeyer offered some rather progressive recommendations which led to innovative teaching developments. There was an improved delivery system of DE by UNISA for the benefit of its students (Wedemeyer, 1968:36-79). However, Wedemeyer (1968:80) stressed the point that at the time of his evaluation:

'UNISA is now one of the foremost institutions for the independent learner in the world; perhaps in five or ten years it will be the greatest.'

The unprecedented expansion of the university necessitated enhanced infrastructure. Completely new buildings catering for all the academic and administrative requirements were necessary. These were constructed on Muckleneuk Ridge above the Fountains Valley with excellent panoramic views of Pretoria and the Magaliesberg Range beyond the city. This location comprises the new headquarters of UNISA and was officially opened on 14 April 1973 by the then State President, the Honourable J J Fouché.

Currently, UNISA enjoys the status of a mega-university with an enrolment exceeding 130 000 students. The student body is widespread and comprises those who live within the borders of South Africa with some 1 200 students who live beyond its borders (ICDL, 1995:10; see also, Harley, 1992:3). In little more than a quarter of a century UNISA evolved from the centre of a dissolving federation of constituent colleges into an institution with a unique function and a highly venerated international reputation amongst DE tertiary institutions. Professor Anthony Melck, newly appointed Principal and Vice-Chancellor of UNISA, underscores this contention in maintaining that the University is a fundamental part of higher education in South Africa and most certainly has an important role to play in the southern African region and the world at large as a major provider of DE (Daily News, 1999-06-07; see also, UNISA News, 1/1999: 1; 4). That UNISA would rise to the challenges of the new millennium and of the changing times, was the confidence expressed by President Nelson Mandela, described as UNISA's most famous alumnus. Speaking at the
inauguration ceremony of Professor Melck as the sixth Vice-Chancellor and Principal of UNISA, President Mandela stated:

'You have a proud history of distance education that stretches far beyond our borders. You have the resources and the collective wisdom to adapt and to transform in order to continue to be a leader in the 21st century.'

(UNISA News, 2/1999 : 1)

5.2.1.2 AIMS OF UNISA

The aims of UNISA are simply stated in terms of its mission:

'The University of South Africa is an institution for tertiary education which, on the principle of equal opportunities for all, aims at providing society with academically and professionally educated men and women who can assist in meeting the needs and aspirations of the people of South Africa.'

(Harley, 1992:5)

Further, as an integral component of its fundamental role UNISA:

'... accepts tuition, research, and community service as interrelated functions in fulfilling its mission and recognises the right of its faculties, departments, institutes, bureaux, and centres to perform these functions in different ways and with varying
The approaches and emphases of the various faculties reflect intriguingly diversified response to the mission of UNISA. Notwithstanding, they all combine in a concerted thrust in achieving the quintessential functions that have been delineated. In addition, while the activities of the various Faculties are determined primarily by the nature and scope of the disciplines taught, there is a sensitive awareness, albeit, of the challenges of a rapidly changing South Africa. UNISA, to its credit, has begun pragmatically to introduce dramatic changes in terms of its vision and mission (Suttie, 1995:170).

Consequently, UNISA, apropos its aims, is striving valiantly to become dynamically involved in multifarious aspects of the South African educational, social, political and economic scenario. It is determined to dispel the perception that it is an ivory tower.

Professor Marinus Wiechers (1995(a):190; 1995(b):15), former Principal and Vice-Chancellor of UNISA maintains:

'... the transformation of the University of South Africa does not simply mean the adaptation of teaching methods, and the undertaking of organisational restructuring, or introducing novel ways of rationalising and designing courses and course materials, but the infusion of the whole institution with the spirit of our new-found democracy.'
Thus, Professor Wiechers (*The Daily News*, 1994-10-27; see also, Wiechers, 1995(a):191; 1995(b):16; Kruger and Booyse, 1996:17) considers the aims of UNISA in consonance with its transformation process to encapsulate the following considerations:

- There is need for reconsideration and reformation of its mission statement which has to be undertaken jointly by management and staff.

- Improving the quality of the university's study material by adopting a team approach to the production of such material.

- Developing and implementing a comprehensive student support programme under the direct supervision of the Vice-Principal (Tuition).

- Establishing and expanding a network of learning centres designed to take the university closer to the community and providing a platform for an interactive learning model with significantly improved learning and teaching gains in close proximity to disadvantaged sectors of society.

- An aggressive affirmative action programme aimed at redressing historical imbalances in staff composition on the basis of equity and excellence - a process monitored by a specially appointed advisory body and supported by an extraordinary budget allocation to accelerate the process.

- Integrating students into the decision-making structures of the university and to acknowledge the Students' Representative Council (SRC).

In addition to the foregoing, according to Harley (1992:6), UNISA has highlighted other aspirations in keeping with its objective for transformation. Some of these are:
• to adapt to changes and developments taking place in South Africa as a challenge to contribute towards the establishment of an open and just society;

• to provide all sectors of the population who are able to benefit from a university education with the opportunity for academic and professional advancement;

• to accept the responsibility of taking cognizance of the particular circumstances of Southern Africa in formulating policy for tuition, research and community service without compromising academic standards;

• to exploit the advantages of DE optimally and contribute meaningfully towards the demand for tertiary education and the African Renaissance in terms of teaching and research.

It is important to note that in order to meet these challenges and to attain the objectives outlined with respect to the current development and metamorphosis in South Africa the university established the UNISA Broad Transformation Forum (UBTF) on 29 September 1996 comprising 40 members representing 18 stakeholder groups (UNISA News, April-July 1998, 25(2):4). In the light of the deliberations of the UBTF the aims of UNISA will also undergo change in the future particularly in relation to matters of policy such as:

• rewriting the UNISA Act;

• proposing a language policy for the university;

• devising a student representative electoral system;
formulation of a tuition policy;

affirmative action policy for staff;

formulating a new vision and mission statement for UNISA.

All of these aims and the new vision and mission of UNISA were incorporated as a seven-point plan and unveiled by Professor Melck at the opening of the academic year on 9 February 1999 (UNISA News, 1/1999: 1). For example, UNISA’s emerging inclusive approach to running the university will see students being represented in all the management structures, such as the Council, Senate and Institutional Forum, for the first time in the history of the university (UNISA News, 2/1999: 1). The seven-point plan was to be carried out in phases over the next three years and designed to take UNISA into the new millennium.

5.2.1.3  ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

Unlike the UKOU and AU and in some respects similar to IGNOU, UNISA has clearly stipulated specific requirements with respect to admission to the various courses leading to certificates, diplomas, undergraduate degrees and postgraduate degrees in the detailed catalogues of handbooks and calendars provided for students. This is in keeping with the South African practice of admission to higher education study (Houle, 1973:40; see also, Kilpert, 1999(1): 118).

Thus, to register for undergraduate studies, diplomas and certificates candidates have to satisfy the conditions outlined in Clause A14, Admission to Studies (UNISA, 1998(a): 12-15; 1999(a): 13-16):

- For a first bachelor’s degree candidates must have one of the following
certificates:

- a matriculation certificate issued by the Joint Matriculation Board;

- a senior or school-leaving certificate with a matriculation exemption endorsement signed by the Secretary of the Joint Matriculation Board;

- a senior certificate with a matriculation or university admission endorsement issued by the South African Certification Council;

- a certificate of full or conditional exemption from the matriculation examination issued by the Joint Matriculation Board;

- an exemption certificate or conditional exemption certificate issued by the Matriculation Board of the Committee of University Principals (CUP).

Moreover, for some degrees additional requirements are stipulated. Further, where candidates hold a senior or school-leaving certificate without a matriculation exemption, matriculation or university admission endorsement, conditional exemptions on grounds of age (+23), foreign qualifications and so on, may be obtained from the university. Candidates possessing three- or four-year diplomas from a college of education, technikon, university or nursing college would also be entitled to a certificate of exemption to study for a bachelor's degree.

To be admitted to a diploma course candidates must hold a senior or school-leaving certificate with or without a matriculation exemption, matriculation or university admission endorsement. However, the candidate must have offered at least five subjects on the higher and/or standard grade. Alternatively, the candidate must qualify for an exemption certificate issued by the Matriculation Board of the CUP. In some
cases additional requirements are stipulated. The admission requirements to study for diplomas varies from diploma to diploma.

Candidates could also study for non-degree purposes. In such instances the candidates must hold at least a senior or school-leaving certificate with at least five subjects on higher and/or standard grade. Alternatively, the candidates will have to satisfy requirements for an exemption certificate issued by the Matriculation Board of the CUP.

It is interesting to note with respect to access, that unlike other South African residential universities who demand stringent entrance standards, UNISA does not preclude students because of relatively poor performance at senior certificate level. Within the legal limits for admission as outlined, UNISA aims to be as open as possible (Financial Mail, 1989-08-04:65; see also, Kilpert, 1999(1) : 118). Moreover, the admission policy of UNISA is predicated on the principle that all students should enjoy a fair chance to show that they have the potential to succeed (Harley, 1992:4).

Admission to postgraduate studies vary from Faculty to Faculty as in the case of the UKOU, AU and IGNOU. The general rules are clearly stipulated in the handbook provided by the university to candidates at the time that they wish to register for any postgraduate qualifications. Postgraduate studies at UNISA include the degrees of B.Ed., Honours, Master's and Doctor's degrees (UNISA, 1998(b):39-49; 1999(h) : 12-67; 1999(i) : 2-196).

The university offers courses in the following Faculties:

- Faculty of Arts (the B.A. degree and career-oriented degrees and diplomas)
The basic teaching method at UNISA is for academic members of staff to teach a course to students distributed throughout the country. This is achieved primarily through printed study guides and/or manuals and tutorial letters. Some study guides are designed to stand-alone in terms of the ground-up model of the AU while others are wrap-around guides which accompany textbooks (SAIDE, 1995(a):5; see also, UNISA, 1998(g):12-13; 1999(l):16-17; Financial Mail, 1989-08-04:68; Kilpert, 1999(1):118 - 119).

Course materials are heavily print orientated. This is because of the belief that this medium is most accessible to the students mainly in the rural areas of the country. In addition, however, audio-cassettes and video-tapes are distributed for many subjects. UNISA also buys air time on Radio 2000 for use in several subjects.

The assessment of students consists of examinations at the end of the course. There are also assignments assessed by the academic staff at the main campus with a usual turn around time of about three weeks (SAIDE, 1995(b):271). Admission to examinations is based on a system of credits which students obtain through submission of assignments (Harley, 1992:9).

Learner support is offered through personal communication between student and tutor via the post and through telephone tutoring (SAIDE, 1995(b):271; see also,
Harley, 1992:8). In addition, a Department of Student Support has been established at UNISA which administers tutorial support programmes, administers financial aid schemes, supports the provision and development of facilities at the UNISA learning centres such as open study space and tutorial rooms, works in collaboration with other service departments and provides administrative support to the SRC within UNISA (UNISA, 1998(g):27; 1999(l): 32-33; see also, The Daily News, 1994-10-27).

Further, students are provided at first- and second-year levels with weekly face-to-face tutorials led by suitably qualified tutors. Tutorials commence on the first Saturday in March of each year and continue till mid-October.

Learning centres are located in Cape Town, Durban, Johannesburg, Pietersburg and Pretoria. Satellite centres are being planned around these main centres (UNISA, 1998(a):2; 1998(g):27; 1999(l): 6-7; see also, Kilpert, 1999(1): 119).

While all academic matters are dealt with and controlled by the central campus in Pretoria, UNISA has, however, decentralized the administration of student enrolments to regional administrative centres. These are located in Pretoria, Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town and Pietersburg (UNISA, 1998(a):2-3; 1998(c):50; 1998(g):4-5; 1999(l): 5-6; see also, DOE, 1996(a):95; SAIDE, 1995(a):5; 1995(b):272). Each of these regional centres also provides accessible library facilities.

UNISA has also established a Bureau for Student Counselling. Students who need guidance, counselling or therapy for personal or emotional problems, who are uncertain of their chosen career or appropriate subjects or who are experiencing study problems are invited to seek counselling advice from the Bureau.

A professional team of counsellors assists the students who are able to visit the main campus and regional facilities and learning centres. Counsellors can also be
contacted by telephone, e-mail, facsimile machines and the Internet. An interesting
development at UNISA is that the Bureau also offers the Certificate Course in
Student Development as an access course or preparation course for prospective
students. Students who are not permitted to continue their studies because of poor
academic progress may register for this Certificate Course with a view to re-entering
a degree course (UNISA, 1998(g):28; 1999(l): 34-36; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):271;
DOE, 1996(a):95).

5.2.1.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

UNISA is an autonomous institution under its own statute and governed by its own
Council and Senate as obtaining in other South African universities (SAIDE,
1995(a):4; 1995(b):272; see also, UNISA, 1998(a):v-xii; 1999(a) : v-xii; DOE,
1996(a):94). The Chancellor enjoys the status of the nominal head of the university.

The executive head of the university is the Principal and Vice-Chancellor who is
Chairman of Senate and Chairman of Convocation. He is assisted by a Vice-
Principal (Tuition) and a Vice-Principal (Research and Planning). For administrative
matters there are Registrars for each of the portfolios of Academic, Operations and
Professional Services and Finance.

The Senate, as at other universities in the country, is responsible for all academic
matters. An Executive Director controls aspects of Science, Technology and
Informatics and another Executive Director is responsible for Library Services. In
addition, Deans and Vice-Deans of the Faculties together with the Heads of teaching
departments and Directors of Bureaux and Institutes are responsible for the various
academic programmes (UNISA, 1999(a) : v-xii).

Its academic head participates in the CUP. The CUP is a statutory committee which
considers policy initiatives and other matters of common interest to universities. In
addition, UNISA is linked to the Government with respect to policy formulation through the Advisory Council for Universities and Technikons (AUT) (SAIDE, 1995(b):272). This statutory body collaborates with representatives of CUP and the Committee for Technikon Principals (CTP) and experts from commerce, industry, statutory institutions and the public sector. AUT also advises the national Minister of Education on a vast array of matters such as student subsidies, course development, allocation of programmes to universities and technikons and other related concerns of tertiary education.

5.2.1.5 THE ROLE OF UNISA IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

Table 5.11 below provides an insight into the number of educators across the spectrum enrolled for the various courses offered by UNISA in an attempt to improve and upgrade their qualifications. Table 5.12 provides a bird's eyeview of such educators enrolled for UNISA courses in the various provinces:
Table 5.11  ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS :  1998 AND 1999  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATION CODE</th>
<th>ENG DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TOTAL NO OF STUDENTS 1999</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING BEFORE 1998</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING 1998</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING 1999</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS EXPECTED TO QUALIFY 1999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1147</td>
<td>HED(PRIMARY)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1155</td>
<td>HOD(SECONDARY)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1163</td>
<td>EDUCATION DIPLOMA(PRIMARY)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1848</td>
<td>ABET LEARN EXAM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>CERT COURSE DIST EDUC PRAC</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2178</td>
<td>BPRIMED</td>
<td>711</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2208</td>
<td>BACHELOR OF SEC EDUCATION</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3034</td>
<td>BED(ADMISSION EXAMINATION)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3042</td>
<td>DIP IN SPECIALISED EDUCATION</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3050</td>
<td>DIP IN NURSERY EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3069</td>
<td>HED(POSTGRADUATE)</td>
<td>1185</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3093</td>
<td>CERT IN SPECIAL EDUCATION</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3107</td>
<td>HED(POSTGRADUATE PREPRIMARY)</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3115</td>
<td>POSTGRAD. DIP TERTIARY EDUC</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3123</td>
<td>HED(PREPRIMARY)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0314X</td>
<td>HED (TECHNICAL)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3158</td>
<td>DSE(REMEDIAL EDUCATION)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3166</td>
<td>FDE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3174</td>
<td>END SPEC IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3182</td>
<td>HED(TECHNICAL)(SHS)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3190</td>
<td>END SPEC IN EDUC MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3212</td>
<td>END SPEC IN CURRICULUM DEVT</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3220</td>
<td>END SPEC IN GIFTED CHILD ED</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3247</td>
<td>END SPEC PREPRIMARY EDUC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3255</td>
<td>BED - SPEC PREPRIMARY EDUC</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3506</td>
<td>BED</td>
<td>1892</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3530</td>
<td>BED(SPEC IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3549</td>
<td>BED - SPEC EDUC MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>706</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3557</td>
<td>HED - SPEC CURRICULUM DEVT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3565</td>
<td>BED - SPEC GIFTED CHILD EDUC</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3573</td>
<td>FDE (EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3581</td>
<td>FDE (ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0359X</td>
<td>FDE (EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP)</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3603</td>
<td>FDE (ENGLISH)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.11 (cont) **ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS: 1998 AND 1999**

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATION CODE</th>
<th>ENG DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TOTAL NO OF STUDENTS 1999</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING BEFORE 1998</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING 1998</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS ENTERING 1999</th>
<th>NO OF STUDENTS EXPECTED TO QUALIFY 1999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3611</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC EDUCATIONAL NEEDS)</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0362X</td>
<td>FDE (MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3638</td>
<td>FDE (GUIDANCE)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3648</td>
<td>FDE (MATHS EDUCATION)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3654</td>
<td>FDE (ACCOUNTING EDUCATION)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3662</td>
<td>FDE (PHYSICAL SCIENCE EDUC)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3670</td>
<td>FDE (TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3689</td>
<td>POSTGRAD IN HST EDUCATION</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3697</td>
<td>BED (SPEC IN SPEC NEEDS EDE)</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3700</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC EDUC NEEDS: DEAF)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3719</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC NEEDS EDUC VIS DIS)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/27</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC NEEDS EDUC PHYS DIS)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/35</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC NEEDS EDUC INT DIS)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC HUM ANS)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/51</td>
<td>FDE (SPEC NEEDS EDUC BPP)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03/8X</td>
<td>END (SPEC NEEDS EDUC)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/78</td>
<td>FDE (BIOLOGY EDUCATION)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6037</td>
<td>MEL (PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6045</td>
<td>MED (PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCA)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6053</td>
<td>MED (HIST OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6061</td>
<td>MED (ORTHOEPEDAGOGICS)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6068</td>
<td>MED (DIDACTICS)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7055</td>
<td>MED (COMPARATIVE EDUC)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7285</td>
<td>MED (NATURAL SCIENCE EDUC)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7293</td>
<td>MED (ENVIRONMENTAL EDE)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7420</td>
<td>MED SPEC IN GUILD &amp; COUNS.</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7439</td>
<td>MED (EDUC MANAGEMENT)</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7447</td>
<td>MED - SOCIO-EDUCATION</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8013</td>
<td>DED (PSY OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8021</td>
<td>DED (PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCA)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0963X</td>
<td>DED (HIST OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>804X</td>
<td>DED (ORTHOEPEDAGOGICS)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8091</td>
<td>DED (DIDACTICS)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0994X</td>
<td>DED (COMP EDUCATION)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0930X</td>
<td>DED (EDUC MANAGEMENT)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9512</td>
<td>DED IN SOCIO-EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL**

| TOTAL 6785 | 2490 | 1772 | 2523 | 2152 |

SOURCE: Bureau for Management Information (1999(a))
Table 5.12  **ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS AND PROVINCES**: 1999  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
Monday, 1999 August, 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATION</th>
<th>EASTERN CAPE</th>
<th>FREE STATE</th>
<th>GAUTENG</th>
<th>KWAZULU NATAL</th>
<th>MPUMA LANGA</th>
<th>NORTH WEST</th>
<th>NORTHERN CAPE</th>
<th>NORTHERN PROVINCE</th>
<th>WESTERN CAPE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BACHELOR OF SEC EDUCATION</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED - SPEC CURRICULUM DEVT</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED - SPEC EDUC MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED - SPEC GIFTED CHILD EDUC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED - SPEC PREPRIMARY EDUC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED (SPEC IN SPEC NEEDS EDU)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED (ADMISSION EXAMINATION)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BED (SPEC IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PRIMED</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERT COURSE DIST EDUC PRAC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERT IN SPECIAL EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (COMP EDUCATION)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (DIDACTICS)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (EDUC MANAGEMENT)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (HIST OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (ORTHOPEdagogics)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DED (PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCA)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.12 (cont)  **ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS AND PROVINCES: 1999**  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
Monday, 1999 August, 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Eastern Cape</th>
<th>Free State</th>
<th>Gauteng</th>
<th>KwaZulu Natal</th>
<th>Mpumalanga</th>
<th>North West</th>
<th>Northern Cape</th>
<th>Northern Province</th>
<th>Western Cape</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DED (Psy of Education)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dip in Nursery Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dip in Specialised Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSE (Remedial Education)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Diploma (Primary)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End (Spec Needs Educ)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End Spec in Curriculum Devt</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End Spec in Educ Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End Spec in Gifted Child Ed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End Spec in School Guidance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End Spec Preprimary Educ</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Accounting Education)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Biology Education)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Educational Evaluation)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Educational Leadership)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (English)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Guidance)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Maths Education)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.12 (cont)  
ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS AND PROVINCES: 1999  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Eastern CAPE</th>
<th>Free State</th>
<th>Gauteng</th>
<th>Kwazulu Natal</th>
<th>Mpuma Langa</th>
<th>North West</th>
<th>Northern Cape</th>
<th>Northern Province</th>
<th>Western CAPE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Physical Science Educ)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Educational Needs)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Needs Educ Beh PR)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Needs Educ Int Dis)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Needs Educ Phys Dis)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Needs Educ Vis Dis)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Needs Educ)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Spec Educ Needs: Deaf)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Technology Education)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Environmental Education)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE (Multicultural Education)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Technical)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Postgraduate Preprimary)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Postgraduate)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Preprimary)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Primary)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HED (Technical) (SHS)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (Comparative Educ)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (Didactics)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.12 (cont) | ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS AND PROVINCES: 1999 | FACULTY OF EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification and Field</th>
<th>Eastern Cape</th>
<th>Free State</th>
<th>Gauteng</th>
<th>Kwazulu Natal</th>
<th>Mpumalanga</th>
<th>North West</th>
<th>Northern Cape</th>
<th>Northern Province</th>
<th>Western Cape</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MED (EDUC MANAGEMENT)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (HIST OF EDUCATION)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (ORTHOPEDAGOGICS)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCA)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED - SOCIO-EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED SPEC IN GUID. &amp; COUNS.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (ENVIRONMENTAL EDU)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (NATURAL SCIENCE EDU)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MED (PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATIO)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSTGRAD IN DIST EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSTGRAD. DIP TERTIARY EDUC</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>767</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>1516</strong></td>
<td><strong>1348</strong></td>
<td><strong>521</strong></td>
<td><strong>315</strong></td>
<td><strong>63</strong></td>
<td><strong>1494</strong></td>
<td><strong>243</strong></td>
<td><strong>6440</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Bureau for Management Information (1999(b))
It is common knowledge that over many years UNISA has played a key role in providing a wide range of courses for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. These have been in the form of providing teachers with DE opportunities for undergraduate and postgraduate degree studies as well as making available a wide panoply of diplomas and certificates for the teaching profession in various areas of general and specialized studies.

Harley (1987:48) concludes that the large number of teachers enrolled to study at UNISA is a pellucid affirmation that teachers wish to improve and upgrade their qualifications. Other considerations apart, the primary motivations are to become more competent educators in their fields and to advance their career possibilities in the teaching profession.

With specific reference to teacher education through DE then, both in terms of PRESET and INSET formal, award bearing courses the Faculty of Education has undergone radical change recently. This has affected everything from the structure of the Faculty to the composition of the courses (UNISA News, January - March 1997, 24(1):3). Recent visits by the Panel of International Commissioners (SAIDE, 1995(a)) and representatives of the UKOU as well as the national teacher audit on Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa (SAIDE, 1995(b))elicited considerable criticism of UNISA especially with regard to study materials.

The Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (DOE, 1996(d)) also urged universities to reflect critically on their study material and course structures. The Faculty of Education at UNISA reacted positively to the criticisms and the challenge for transformation.

The structure of the Faculty of Education has changed from six academic departments to a more supple structure comprising four academic departments. Teaching now undergirds a thematical approach rather than the previous emphasis on sub-disciplines of education. These four new departments are:
The Department of Primary School for Teachers' Education

The Department of Secondary School for Teachers' Education

The Department of Further Teachers' Education

The Department of Educational Studies


The following organogram, figure 5.10, illustrates the pattern of the restructured Faculty of Education at UNISA:
The courses offered at UNISA for teachers for PRESET or INSET formal award bearing courses leading to the improvement and upgrading of their qualifications can be summarized as follows:

* Degree courses:

- Bachelor of Primary Education (B. Prim. Ed.) with endorsement for Early Childhood Development and Senior Primary Education.

- Bachelor of Secondary Education (B. Sec. Ed.).

- Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) (General) and Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) with specialization in one of Educational Management, Gifted Child Education, Pre-primary Education, Special Educational Needs, School Guidance and Counselling.

- Master of Education (M. Ed.) and Master of Education (M. Ed.) with specialization in one of Guidance and Counselling, Environmental Education, Natural Science Education.

- Doctor of Education (D. Ed.).

* Diplomas:

Technology Education

- Higher Education Diploma (HED) (Postgraduate)

- HED (Postgraduate Pre-primary)

- HED (Pre-primary)

- HED (Primary)

- HED (Technical)

- HED (Technical) (Endorsement Radiography, Occupational Therapy, Physiotherapy, etc.)

- Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education

- Postgraduate Diploma in Tertiary Education


The PRESET courses for initial training of primary and secondary school teachers satisfies the requirements of the NQF and the SAQA as well as the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education as determined by COTEP (DOE, 1995-1996; see also, UNISA News, January-March 1997, 24(1):2). The courses are imbued with a practical philosophy which is not separated from the practical teaching situation. This innovative approach of the Faculty underscores a pluralistic, problem-centred strategy which focuses attention on the thematic issues of concern relating to educational discourse (SAIDE, 1995(b):270).
The courses for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers currently offered by the Faculty comprise mainly print medium. Course materials are prepared by academic staff and follow a wrap-around strategy with textbooks. Minor use is also made of video- and audio-cassettes, computer-aided instruction and formal lectures in courses from time to time. Approximately half of the design of courses is undertaken by subject matter specialists assisted by instructional designers, editors, subject librarians, audio-visual administrators and managers.

The teacher education programmes through DE offered by the Faculty include a teaching practice block of five weeks in both first and second year. Students are prepared for these blocks through lectures on the theory of teaching practice, demonstration lessons and assignments on how to plan, prepare and present lessons. Candidates are given the option to organize the teaching blocks at times convenient to them. The blocks are assessed by school-based teachers. When completed their success is evaluated by Faculty staff, students and the principals of the relevant schools. It is conceived that this process provides the candidates with the opportunity to reflect critically on existing practice (SAIDE, 1995(b):271).

The vast array of options in education makes UNISA indubitably the leader in South Africa in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Professor Laurie McFarlane, the Dean of the Faculty of Education, expresses keen optimism in the transformed Faculty of Education at UNISA:

'The new structure offers interesting possibilities for flexibility and adaptability.'

Indeed, UNISA may rightly be regarded as the direct descendant of the very first university in South Africa (UNISA, 1987(b):3). From its birth UNISA was deemed to be a national treasure and a people's university (Suttie, 1995:170; see also, Daniel, 1989(b):52). It is deemed to be one of the most important forerunners of distance teaching universities (Keegan and Rumble, 1982(1):16).

Thousands of individuals within the borders of South Africa and abroad are beholden to UNISA for having provided them with the opportunity to upgrade and improve their education and academic and professional qualifications through DE. Many of them today occupy prominent positions in the professions, commerce, industry and even in the political life of the country. For example, as already indicated, the recently retired State President of the Republic of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, is a graduate of UNISA.

Professor Theo van Wijk, former Principal and Vice-Chancellor and the previous Chancellor of UNISA, astutely observes:

"The University of South Africa, conceived as a challenge to convention, has always displayed the resilience to adapt to challenges to its own conventions without losing integrity of purpose and humanity in execution.

... From its very inception it was truly a community university, its mission to match equity to equality, and to offer high education opportunities to, in the main, students disadvantaged in some sense or other, and regardless of creed, colour or social standing."
Among its students, then, teachers particularly are most fortunate. UNISA has been able to provide non-graduate qualified teachers the opportunity to study for undergraduate and later postgraduate qualifications. Un- and underqualified teachers have the chance of a lifetime to complete the specified requirements to become professionally qualified through DE and the courses offered by UNISA.

With its total enrolment exceeding 130 000 students UNISA is, unequivocally, the largest university in South Africa (SAIDE, 1995(a):4; see also, Financial Mail, 1989-08-04:59; DOE, 1996(a):94; Sutte, 1995:170). UNISA qualifications are recognised worldwide (The Daily News, 1994-10-27). The entire tuition model at UNISA is currently under review (ICDL, 1995:12; see also, Kruger and Booyse, 1996:17; Daily News, 1999-06-07; UNISA News, 1/1999 : 1). For example, some pioneering work in the field of electronic education with respect to Students-on-line (SOL) is being conducted. Students are now in touch with their tutors not only through the correspondence medium but also by using the telephone, facsimile machine, e-mail and the Internet (UNISA News, July-September 1997, 24(3):1; 12).

Certainly, the role played by UNISA as a national and international educational institution of higher learning cannot be over-exaggerated. The providers of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN would do well to take a leaf out of UNISA’s book. By exploiting and adapting the intellectual power and vision of UNISA, not only can the educational authorities in KZN resolve the current crisis in teacher education but they can also provide quality DE for the teachers so that they become more competent educators through the upgrading and improvement of their academic and professional qualifications.
5.2.2  VISTA UNIVERSITY

5.2.2.1  ORIGINS OF VISTA UNIVERSITY

During 1978 the Government in South Africa appointed a Commission of Enquiry to investigate university needs and requirements of urban Blacks in the Republic of South Africa. This Commission was initially chaired by Dr G van N Viljoen, Rector of the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU). Dr F P Retief, Rector of the Medical University of Southern Africa (MEDUNSA), succeeded him as Chairman of the Commission. The Commission submitted its report to the Government during 1980 (Vista University, 1998(a):8; 1999(a):10-12; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):14; 1995(b):280; DOE, 1996(a):101). The Commission recommended the establishment of Vista University.

Dreijmanis (1988:36; see also, Du Preez and Goodwin-Davey, 1999:131-132) avers that a new concept in African tertiary education was developed when Vista University was established in terms of the Vista University Act No. 106 of 1981. This institution was established on 1 January 1982. It was established with the aura of being the first university for Africans in the previously White-designated areas in terms of the former Group Areas Act.

Others who wished to study at Vista University had to seek the approval of the then Minister of Education and Training. The creation of Vista University was in some respects rather controversial at the time of its inauguration and many perceived the institution as the further implementation of the principle of separate development in terms of the ideology of apartheid. Dreijmanis (1988:36) concludes that:

'It would thus appear that the government’s traditional education policy played a significant part in the creation of Vista University.'
Factors of a non-political nature which also contributed to the establishment of Vista University included such considerations as:

- More generous opportunities and more adequate facilities for urban Blacks to receive tertiary education within their own residential areas.

- It was seen as a positive step towards a policy of stimulating humanpower development.

- Creating a better trained labour force.

- Upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

- Lower fee structure at Vista University was construed as an incentive for greater study opportunities.

- Some perceived the establishment of Vista University as a major step in recognizing the permanence of Africans as urban residents.

(Dreijmanis, 1988:36-37)

The first academic year began on 1 January 1983 at four decentralized campuses. The university is taken to the different campuses wherever there is a viable need. Vista University currently provides on-campus tuition at eight campuses: at the Bloemfontein Campus (Bloemfontein); East Rand Campus (Daveyton near Springs); Mamelodi Campus (near Pretoria); Port Elizabeth Campus (in Zwide); Sebokeng Campus (near Vanderbijlpark); Soweto Campus (near Johannesburg); Vista University Distance Education Campus (VUDEC) (Pretoria); Welkom Campus (in Thabong) (Vista University, 1998(a):8-9; 1999(a):10; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):14; 1995(b):280; DOE, 1996(a):102; Du Preez and Goodwin-Davey, 1999:132 - 133).
The VUDEC Campus in Pretoria is the only campus involved in the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE. Various degrees and diplomas are offered in terms of contact tuition and face-to-face lectures at all the other campuses.

5.2.2.2 **AIMS OF VISTA UNIVERSITY**

Vista, the name of the University, is also its motto. It suggests wide-ranging, innovative development in education.

The aims of Vista University are crystallized in terms of its mission statement and philosophy. Vista University thus dedicates itself as an open university in that it:

- Accepts as its fundamental mission the pursuit of academic excellence in the scientific search for and discovery, transfer and dissemination of knowledge through research, teaching and learning and service to society.

- Endeavours to achieve and uphold the universal roles, values, functions and standards associated with the true nature and character of a university.

- Applies academic merit as the primary criterion in the appointment of staff and admission of students.

- Does not discriminate on the grounds of race, sex or creed.

- Respects the human dignity, values and rights of the individual.
Offers equal opportunities to all employees to develop their abilities and to realize their career aspirations according to merit.

Pursues the development of its students, as total persons, towards becoming worthy, informed, balanced, independent and responsible citizens.

Commits itself to the principles of institutional autonomy and academic freedom in full recognition of the concomitant responsibilities.

(Vista University, 1998(a):2-3; 1991:31)

In addition, as we approach the new millennium Vista University has incorporated further principles with respect to its mission and vision. These include the consideration that as a learner-centred, community-based institution the university needs to reposition itself to evolve into a major stakeholder and provider in selected key areas of human resource development and national growth. Vista University hopes to achieve these goals by developing and introducing new and innovative programmes. Further, the university is encouraging the cultivation of a strong research ethos. It is attempting to create a culture of shared responsibility amongst all role-players involved with the university. It is also advocating the promotion of excellence as the yardstick for good practice in all areas of endeavour. Finally, the university is aspiring to provide futuristic, relevant, affordable and values-based education in terms of global demands. It is generating special emphasis on addressing the needs of the diverse communities it serves through its multi-campus structure and environment (Vista University, 1999(a): 3).
5.2.2.3 **ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY**

As in the case of UNISA and other universities in South Africa admission to undergraduate study is clearly stipulated. A candidate will only be admitted to study for a bachelor’s degree provided that such candidate is in possession of one of the following qualifications:

- the matriculation certificate of the Matriculation Board or a certificate of exemption from the Matriculation examination issued by the Board; or

- a senior certificate, school-leaving or university entrance certificate issued by one of the education departments in the Republic of South Africa and endorsed to the effect that the candidate has been exempted from the matriculation examination; or

- a valid certificate of conditional exemption from the matriculation examination, issued by the Matriculation Board; or

- a valid certificate of exemption from the matriculation examination on the grounds of post-school qualifications after Grade 12 issued by the Matriculation Board.

(Vista University, 1998(a):44-80; 1999(a) : 54-118; see also, Du Preez and Goodwin-Davey, 1999 : 134)

The general rules for admission to postgraduate degrees such as the B.Ed., Honours, Master's and Doctoral degrees obtaining at other South African universities also apply to Vista University. Each department considers such applications in terms of merit.
Contact tuition is provided in the following Faculties:

- Faculty of Arts
- Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
- Faculty of Education
- Faculty of Law
- Faculty of Science

However, DE courses are provided by the VUDEC Campus and are mainly for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. The courses and their characteristics will be discussed later in paragraph 5.2.2.5.

All courses are offered in English. The main medium of communication for the DE courses is through printed materials and tutorial letters all produced and printed by the university.

There are pilot projects being undertaken to test the practicability and viability of using other media such as audio-cassettes for tuition purposes (SAIDE, 1995(a):15; DOE, 1996(a):102). Recommendations in this regard are still awaited.

Study guides are written by lecturers in the various subjects on offer through DE. The study guides are in the main of the wrap-around category. While they are fairly comprehensive students are advised to regard them as guidance only and they are urged to use them in conjunction with the prescribed and recommended books (Vista University, 1998(b):4; 1999(b) : 4; see also, Du Preez and Goodwin-Davey, 1999 : 135).
An attempt is made to bolster the key theoretical and philosophical approaches underpinning curriculum design and teaching at Vista University by a variety of strategies. For example, a basic framework for planning distance teaching and guidelines and criteria for study manuals are provided by the Department of Teaching Development and Student Services (Vista University, 1987(a):1-71; 1987(b):1-57).

A holistic and eclectic strategy aimed at promoting reflective and critical skills in students is adopted. Lecturers are expected to be student-orientated in the contextualization of course content with the emphasis on the courses being relevant and practical (SAIDE, 1995(b):281).

VUDEC is adopting a new method of course design described as the Teamwrite project. This project is directed towards the production of study packages and appropriate video-tapes which are lucid, inviting and reader-friendly especially for DE students whose competency in the English language needs improvement. Teams comprise academic departmental writers, instructional designers and editors from the Academic Language Editing Services (SAIDE, 1995(b):281).

In addition, the effectiveness of the Teamwrite project was instrumental in a proposal being recommended for the establishment of an Instruction Design Unit to assist all course material writers responsible for study packages and to provide the requisite training in the making of audio-visual aids. This would be achieved through conducting workshops and engaging in consultations for continued generation and assessment of course materials. The Instruction Design Unit will also provide the necessary training to encourage the acquisition of computer literacy skills for flexibility in early drafts of the material. Further, graphic design skills to comply with international standards of academic material and design will be taught to staff involved in developing course materials (SAIDE, 1995(b):283).
Learner support is offered through personal communication between students enrolled for the DE courses and tutors by post and telephone tutoring. Contact sessions such as the orientation courses conducted at vacation school held in July are provided. In the case of Home Economics a compulsory tutorial session once a year is held for students enrolled in the course (Vista University, 1998(b):4; 23; 1999(b): 4-5; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):15).

The university has established a number of Learner Support Centres where teachers enrolled for courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications may attend for contact sessions and interaction with tutors and other colleagues. Although attendance at these centres is not compulsory, VUDEC encourages the teachers enrolled for its courses to attend the contact sessions offered at the centres. These centres are located at the following venues in the various provinces in South Africa:

- **Northern Province:**
  - Thaba Moopoo College of Education (Lebowakgomo)
  - Modjadji College of Education (Gakgapan)
  - Bopedi Bapedi High School (Marishane)
  - Bochum College of Education (Bochum)
  - Shingwedzi College of Education (Malamulele)
  - Pietersburg Technical College (Pietersburg)

- **Eastern Cape:**
  - Transkei Teachers' In Service College (Umtata)
  - Griffiths Mxenge College of Education (Zwelitsha)

- **KwaZulu-Natal:**
  - Indumiso College of Education (Pietermaritzburg)
  - Esikhawini College of Education (Esikhawini)
  - Gamalakhe College of Education (Port Shepstone)
• Ezakheni College of Education (Ladysmith)
• Madadeni College of Education (Madadeni)
• Kwaggikazi College of Education (Nongoma)

• Free State:
  • Tshiya College of Education (Witsieshoek)
  • Thaba Nchu College of Education (Thaba Nchu Selosesha)

• North West:
  • President Mangope Technical and Commercial High School (Rustenburg)
  • Systems N.W. (Old in-service training centre) (Mmabatho)
  • Moretele College of Education (Makapanstad)

• Mpumalanga:
  • Lowveld High School (Nelspruit)
  • Mapulaneng Community College (Acornhoek)
  • Marapyane College of Education (Kanyamazane)
  • Mapulaneng College of Education (Bushbuckridge)
  • Mlumati Technical College (Malelane)
  • Ndebele College of Education (Siyabuswa)

• Gauteng
  • Transvaal College of Education (Soshanguve)
  • Vista Soweto Campus (Soweto)
  • Vista Mamelodi Campus (Mamelodi)
  • Vista East Rand Campus (Daveyton)

(Vista University, 1999(b):43-44)
Counselling is offered to teachers enrolled for the various DE courses. Lecturers provide individual assistance in terms of personal contact, telephonically or by letter as the need arises on request by the candidates enrolled to study for the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications as teachers. Further, tutorial letters provide wide-ranging assistance to students. The Deputy-Director of the Department of Student Development also provides some counselling service.

Assessment of candidates is done on the basis of examinations and term marks. A term mark for each component or module composed of the marks obtained from tests and other means of evaluation for the specific component or module is calculated according to departmental policy and Faculty guidelines where applicable. For example, for bachelor's degrees no minimum term mark is required for admission to the examinations. The final mark for each component of study comprises one-third of the term mark and two-thirds of the examination mark (Vista University, 1998(a):48; 1999(a): 58).

5.2.2.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

As with other universities in South Africa, Vista University is an autonomous institution under its own statute and governed by its own Council and Senate. The nominal head of the institution, as in the case of UNISA, for example, is the Chancellor. While the Council is responsible for matters of policy and finance, the Senate is delegated all academic concerns.

The Vista University has a Management Committee comprising the Vice-Chancellor, Deputy-Vice-Chancellor (Academic), Deputy-Vice-Chancellor (Administration), Deans of the various Faculties, Campus Executive Officers and Central Campus Directors (Vista University, 1998(a):17; 1999(a): 23). The Senate comprises the Vice-Chancellor who is the Chairman, the Deputy-Vice-Chancellors, Representatives from the Council, Professors of the university, Heads of Departments who are not full
As with UNISA, the Vista University Vice-Chancellor participates in CUP with regard to policy determination for tertiary education. In addition, Vista University is also linked to Government through the AUT (SAIDE, 1995(a):14; 1995(b):284; see also, DOE, 1996(a):102).

5.2.2.5 THE ROLE OF VISTA UNIVERSITY IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

In the case of the Vista University, VUDEC provides a wide-ranging panoply of courses through DE for both un- and underqualified teachers to become qualified. In addition, various courses are also provided for qualified teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications.

The significant role played by Vista University in offering DE courses to teachers is underscored by table 5.13 which indicates the enrolment of teachers for the various courses. Table 5.14 presents the diaspora of such teachers in the various provinces while table 5.15 depicts programmes entry level and age distribution of the various candidates:
Table 5.13 **STUDENT ENROLMENTS : VISTA UNIVERSITY DISTANCE EDUCATION (1995-2001)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Certificate**</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Diploma**</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate**</td>
<td>2593</td>
<td>1657</td>
<td>1071</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma**</td>
<td>5622</td>
<td>4639</td>
<td>3573</td>
<td>2617</td>
<td>1407</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma</td>
<td>4773</td>
<td>4395</td>
<td>3953</td>
<td>3453</td>
<td>2801</td>
<td>2409</td>
<td>1921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate (HEC)**</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma (HEC)**</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma (HEC)</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate***</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma***</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>15586</td>
<td>12841</td>
<td>10153</td>
<td>8184</td>
<td>5468</td>
<td>2768</td>
<td>2297</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Projection based on student numbers for 1995-1999

**No new registrations in 1999 - to be phased out

SOURCE: Steyn - Bagwandeen, 1999-06-22
### Table 5.14 STUDENT ENROLMENTS VISTA UNIVERSITY DISTANCE EDUCATION: 1999

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Gauteng</th>
<th>KwaZulu/Natal</th>
<th>WCape</th>
<th>ECape</th>
<th>NCape</th>
<th>Mpumalanga</th>
<th>NProvince</th>
<th>OFS</th>
<th>NWest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Certificate</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Diploma</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>989</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate (HEC)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma (HEC)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma (HEC)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>813</td>
<td>798</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>1742</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>506</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Steyn - Bagwandeen, 1999-06-22
Table 5.15 **STUDENT ENROLMENTS: VISTA UNIVERSITY DISTANCE EDUCATION (1995-2001)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Entry Level</th>
<th>Ages less than 35 year</th>
<th>Ages 35-50 years</th>
<th>Ages older than 50 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Certificate*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education Diploma*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Certificate (HEC)*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education Diploma (HEC)*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma (HEC)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Certificate*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>301</strong></td>
<td><strong>211</strong></td>
<td><strong>88</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*No new registrations in 1999 - to be phased out

SOURCE: Steyn - Bagwandeen, 1999-06-22
The intrinsic consideration of the DE teacher education courses is that as in the case of UNISA, the courses offered by Vista University VUDEC are directly related to the classroom situation. The various courses and admission requirements which lead to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers are categorically stated and are outlined below (Vista University, 1998(a):58-71; 82-152; 1998(b):5-6; 13-21; 1999(a) : 76-100; 119-207; 1999(b) : 5-7; 12-35; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):280):

- **Primary Education Certificate (PEC) (Grade 4-5):**
  - A recognised senior certificate and one of the teaching qualifications described as the Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate (LPTC), Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC), Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate (HPTC) are required. Teachers who do not possess any of these qualifications but are presently employed as teachers in a primary or secondary school with at least five years' teaching experience would also be eligible for this course.

- **Primary Education Diploma (PED) (Grade 6-7):**
  - Candidates for this diploma must be in possession of a recognized senior certificate with either the PEC of Vista University or an equivalent M+2 ('B' category or REQV 12) category classification with respect to teaching qualifications.

- **Certificate in Education (Early Childhood) (CEEC):**
  - A recognized senior certificate or an equivalent qualification is required.

- **Diploma in Education (Junior Primary Phase) (DEJP):**
  - A recognized senior certificate plus a teaching qualification and current teaching at the Junior Primary level are stipulated admission requirements for this course.
Diploma in Contextual Ministry (DCM)

☐ The requirements for this diploma are a matriculation certificate of the Matriculation Board or exemption issued by the Board. The candidates wishing to enrol for this diploma could also be admitted if they possess a senior, school-leaving or university entrance certificate issued by one of the education departments in the Republic of South Africa. A further alternative for admission is a certificate of conditional exemption from the matriculation examination issued by the Matriculation Board or a certificate of exemption from the matriculation examinations on the grounds of post-school qualifications (after Grade 12) issued by the Matriculation Board.

Secondary Education Certificate (SEC) (Grade 8-10):

☐ To study for this upgrading or improvement of teaching qualification a recognized senior certificate together with one of the teaching qualifications of the LPTC, PTC or HPTC is required. However, those who do not possess such qualifications but have been teaching in a primary or secondary school for at least five years become eligible to enrol for this course.

Secondary Education Diploma (SED) (Grade 11-12):

☐ A recognized senior certificate and one of the following teaching qualifications, namely, SEC (Vista University) or Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (JSTC), Senior Primary Teachers' Certificate (SPTC) (Department of Education) or Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (JSTD) (University of Zululand) enable a teacher to enrol for this course.
Higher Education Diploma (HED)
- In keeping with the requirements of COTEP teachers wishing to enrol for this diploma must be in possession of a recognized senior certificate plus a three-year secondary teachers' diploma or the SED (Vista University).

Secondary Education Certificate: Home Economics (SECH) (Grade 8-10):
- Admission to this course is dependent upon the possession of a recognised senior certificate and a teaching qualification.

Secondary Education Diploma: Home Economics (SEDH) (Grade 11-12):
- Those teachers possessing a recognized senior certificate and either the SEC: Home Economics (Vista University) or a JSTC are eligible to enrol for this course to improve and upgrade their qualifications. However, teachers who are in possession of a senior certificate, a PTC and a teachers' certificate in homecraft may also apply for this SED: Home Economics course.

Higher Education Diploma: Home Economics (HEDH):
- For admission to this course teachers must have a recognized senior certificate plus a three-year secondary teachers' diploma in Home Economics or the SED: Home Economics (Vista University).

Further Diploma in Education: Management and Administration (FDEM & A):
- Teachers who are in possession of a recognized senior certificate and the PED (Grades 6-7) or the SED (Grades 11-12) or an equivalent three-year Diploma in Education may enrol for this course to improve or upgrade their qualifications as educators.

Further Diploma in Education: Cognitive Studies (FDECS):
- The minimum requirements for the admission to this course are a senior certificate and a teachers' qualification.
Further Diploma in Education (Food Service Management) (FDEFSM):

The admission requirements for this diploma are a recognized senior certificate plus a SEDH (Grade 11 - 12) awarded by Vista University or an equivalent teaching qualification with basic courses in Nutrition and Food, which involves at least three years’ training (M + 3 or REQV 13).

Further Diploma in Education (Mathematics Education) (FDEME):

The minimum admission requirements are stipulated as a recognized senior certificate that includes the subject Mathematics or the candidate has satisfied the requirements of MAT260 at Vista University. In addition, the candidate must be in possession of an REQV 13 qualification and must have at least two years of relevant teaching experience.

Further Diploma in Physical Science Education (FDEPSE):

The admission requirements for this course are a recognized senior certificate plus a teachers’ qualification equivalent to REQV 13 and at least three years of approved professional teacher education and at least two years of appropriate Physical Science teaching experience.

Further Diploma in Education (Special Education Needs) (FDESEN):

Teachers wishing to enrol for this qualification are required to be in possession of a recognized senior certificate plus a teachers’ diploma equivalent to REQV 13 together with experience in the field of special educational needs.

It is important to note that for all of the aforementioned qualifications the duration of study comprises a minimum of two years through DE.

VUDEC also offers a number of four-year integrated degrees. These are the Baccalaureus Artium Educationis Degree (B.A. Ed.); Baccalaureus Home Economics Educationis Degree (B.H.Ec. Ed.); Baccalaureus Comercii Educationis Degree (B.
Com. Ed.); and the Baccalaureus Scientiae Educationis Degree (B.Sc. Ed.). The general requirements for admission to undergraduate degree studies generally applies for admission to these courses (Vista University, 1999 (b): 7).

As at UNISA the general B.Ed. (Baccalaureus Educationis Degree ) is also on offer over two years through DE for teachers wishing to upgrade or improve their qualifications through Vista University. The requirement for admission to this B.Ed. degree is one of the following:

- a four-year composite degree in education or an equivalent qualification approved by the Senate;

- a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification approved by the Senate with the subject Education as one major and an approved professional teachers' qualification;

- a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification approved by Senate and an approved professional teachers' qualification requiring a school-leaving certificate as prerequisite.

(Vista University, 1998 (b): 6; 1999 (b): 7)

In addition to these formal qualifications for teachers VUDEC is also involved in other projects which lead to the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers. Amongst these are the following formal award bearing courses:

- Primary Education Project (PREP)

Since 1987 PREP which was based at the School of Education at the University of Cape Town has been researching, applying and delivering INSET and curriculum development programmes for the former Department of Education and Training primary
schools and farm schools in Western Cape, Eastern Cape and KZN. By 1994 PREP had developed an INSET model for junior primary teachers based on this research (SAIDE, 1995(b):211).

The PREP programmes are designed for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers to the level of the Diploma in Education (M+3 or 'C' category or REQV 13 level). VUDEC is one of the institutions offering this PREP programme. The entry level is M+1 ('A' category or REQV 11) or M+2 ('B' category or REQV 12) and teachers have to be teaching at the junior primary level Grade 0 to Grade 4 in order to qualify for registration (SAIDE, 1995(b):280).

Tuition for PREP courses comprises written assignments, contact sessions at VUDEC on Saturdays and vacations during which video material and audio-cassettes are used. Co-ordinators and facilitators undertake classroom visits. Evaluation comprises written assignments, examinations, tests, discussions with teachers and classroom practice (SAIDE, 1995(b):282).

- The Department of Agricultural Sciences of VUDEC is involved in rural development research to develop a model for practical training. This programme for Vista University candidates is being undertaken in collaboration with the Universities of Zululand, Fort Hare, The North, Orange Free State and Pretoria as well as the University of Wageningen in the Netherlands (SAIDE, 1995(b):282).

- The Department of Biology has produced, *inter alia*, a variety of DE course materials including a video programme for teachers on 'How to teach Biology'.

- The Department of Geography likewise has engaged in a pilot project to determine the feasibility of using multi-media in DE.
The Department of Home Economics has developed multi-media study packages which include audio-tapes, video-tapes and workbooks where appropriate to supplement the written text. Home Economics teachers enrolled for the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications through DE are also involved as community workers as an integral part of their course. Consequently, as a component of the Home Management course they are required to identify a specific need in their own communities and start a community development project to address this need. This strategy succinctly combines praxis with theory.

The Department of Mathematics has organized the formation of study groups which provide invaluable interaction and support among DE students studying through Vista University.

5.2.2.6 SUMMATION

Vista University is South Africa's youngest university. However, it is by no means its smallest. Within five years after its inauguration by 1988 it had 17 164 DE students and 4 573 contact tuition students studying full time and part time (Jenkins, 1989:1). By 1995 as indicated in table 5.13 the total number of teachers studying at Vista university with the objective of improving and upgrading their qualifications through DE exceeded 15 000.

The advent of Vista University, according to Jenkins (1989:1), was greeted with enthusiasm by Africans, especially those in the teaching profession. It was a milestone political decision by the Government of the day to provide university facilities. Only a few years previously it was reluctant to build secondary schools. Post-secondary studies and especially DE ocourses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers were made available in the townships as an alternative to the rural historically Black universities (HBUs).
Coming as it did, at a period of renewed commitment by the Government to improving the educational level of the Black teaching corps, it is deemed by many African educators to have inaugurated a renaissance of interest in further studies among African teachers. The university has most certainly opened new vistas and prospects especially in the field of DE for teachers who are seriously anxious to rise in the hierarchy of the profession and to improve and upgrade their qualifications in order to become more relevant educators at the level of the chalkface.

As Murray and Coetzee (1993:61) point out, Vista University has been receptive to developments in education in other parts of the world. It has learnt to adapt relevant ideas to its own situation in South Africa. VUDEC particularly is engaged in a process of continuous evaluation of teacher education strategies. As a result of this innovative approach it provides a unique ladder of opportunity and continues to play an exemplary and commendable role in empowering teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications through DE. Such teachers inevitably become better educators and by virtue of the strength of their enhanced qualifications their delivery of education is raised to new and positive heights.

5.2.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (SACTE)

5.2.3.1 ORIGINS OF SACTE

The former Transvaal Education Department under the House of Assembly established a College of Education for Further Training (CEFT) as an independent college offering a wide range of formal, award bearing INSET courses for teachers. Initially, teachers within the jurisdiction of the Department of Education and Culture, House of Assembly, could apply for any of the courses on offer by the college while those teachers in the other Departments of Education could only apply for certain specified courses (CEFT, 1992:10-11; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):22).
On 10 June 1991 the Minister of Education, House of Assembly, announced that CEFT may in future offer formal, award bearing INSET courses for the further training of teachers on a national level. On 25 June 1992 the college Council decided to change the name of the college to the College of Education of South Africa (CESA) (CESA, 1993:A15; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a):22; 1995(b):170).

With the rationalization of colleges of education in the Gauteng region after the 1994 general elections in South Africa, CESA merged with the College of Continuing Education (CCE) which had been under the control of the former Department of Education and Training (DET). Both these colleges were primarily concerned with the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE. The new institution came into being on 1 March 1996 with the nomenclature of South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) (SACTE, n.d.:1).

5.2.3.2 AIMS OF SACTE

SACTE, now as a national, dedicated DE teacher education institution, outlines its mission statement as follows:

It commits itself through DE and INSET to:

- Meet the needs of education in Southern Africa.

- Facilitate learning opportunities for teachers.

- Empower teachers by providing relevant quality assured courses.

- Raise the level of teacher competence and professionalism.

- Improve classroom practice.
• Improve the culture of learning and teaching by promoting appropriate knowledge, values and skills.

• Facilitate lifelong learning opportunities for the educator.

• Build educators' professional capabilities by providing relevant, quality assured purposeful courses.

• Provide community learning opportunities.

(SACTE, 1999(a); 1999(b); 1999(c); 1999(d); n.d.:1; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):170)

5.2.3.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

The college offers all underqualified and unqualified teachers the opportunity to obtain a teaching qualification or to upgrade and improve their qualifications through DE. In this manner such teachers can acquire the minimum qualifications of the Diploma in Education (M+3 or 'C' category or REQV 13) and become professionally qualified teachers.

Admission to the Diploma in Education is an appointment as a teacher, matriculation or senior certificate and three years of teacher experience. Qualified teachers may pursue courses leading to the Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) or FDE. The minimum requirements for admission to these diplomas is an M+3 ('C' category or REQV 13) professional qualification.

In offering its programmes of study the college works closely with the various Departments of Education and other tertiary institutions such as universities, technikons and colleges. The college also maintains collaborative arrangements with
similar institutions abroad to keep abreast of emerging trends and developments in DE and its role in improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers through DE (SACTE, n.d.:2).

Course packages comprise in the main printed study guides, in-house publications and handbooks as well as printed workbooks. In some courses the wrap-around principle with prescribed textbooks is adopted. Other courses incorporate various media materials such as audio-cassettes. Almost 80 percent of the design of courses is undertaken by subject matter specialists who are assisted by the audio-visual designer, graphic and text designer, administrators and an editor.

The study material is described as interactive learning modules which are frequently updated. The study material is outcomes-based orientated in keeping with current demands to develop the skills of educators to the benefit of the learners in the classrooms (SACTE, n.d.:2; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):2).

Learner support is offered through personal interaction and communication between student and tutor. This is achieved through postal communication and telephone tutoring.

Student support is also provided at Regional Learning Centres. Tutors have been appointed in Mathematics, Physical Sciences, Technology and English to assist students at the Regional Learning Centres on a fortnightly basis. Tutors are also available to assist students once a month in all other subjects.

The main Regional Learning Centres for 1999 established by SACTE are situated in Pretoria, Johannesburg, Pietersburg, Nelspruit, Newcastle, Empangeni, Pinetown, Queenstown, Hibberdene, Greytown, Lydenburg, Pietermaritzburg and Vryheid. Additional Regional Learning Centres have been planned for the future at Kokstad, Umtata, Bethlehem and Thohoyandou. Further, contact sessions are conducted during school holidays as well. Pre-programme counselling is not offered but students are
given in-programme counselling through contact sessions and telephone contact (SACTE, 1999(a): 2-5; 1999(b): 2-5; 1999(c): 2-5; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):171).

Assessment is done in the form of examinations and continuous assessment of individual students by means of assignments. The assignments are marked by academics at the college centre. There is also an assessment of school-based work. The usual turn-around time for assignments is three to four weeks.

The school experience is deemed critical. However, it is really integrated teaching practice since the candidates accepted for the courses are practising teachers. They are, therefore, unlike the case of candidates enrolled for the PGCE of the UKOU, or of the candidates enrolled for the PRESET courses of UNISA, not expected to be examined or assessed for a practical teaching component (SAIDE, 1995(b):171).

Specific procedures have to be followed by the teachers enrolled for the courses at SACTE and who wish to sit for the examination:

- A candidate wishing to write the examination is required to purchase an examination ticket from SACTE.

- An examination ticket may only be purchased if the study materials for the relevant module have already been purchased by the student.

- Examinations tickets have to be purchased at least six weeks before the first day of the specific examination period.

- Examinations may only be written at the venue indicated on the examination ticket and the ticket will be valid only for the indicated module and date.
Examination periods and examination centres may be chosen by the student.

Credits are accumulated for all modules passed.

A student will be allowed to have two examination opportunities after registering for a module. If the student is unsuccessful after two attempts, the student will have to re-register for the module at full cost. After registering for a module the student has twenty four calendar months in which to complete the requirements for that specific module.

Students have two opportunities per year to write examinations, namely, February and October. Students who register before 30 April are allowed to write examinations in October for the first time. The first examination opportunity for students who register between 1 May and 31 August will only be in February.

There are examination venues throughout the country.

(SACTE, 1999(a) :8-12; 1999(b) : 7-11; 1999(c) : 7-12; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b):171-172)

5.2.3.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

The college has a Council which comprises some 25 members. Representatives from the organized teaching profession, local community, Education Department, universities and academic and non-academic staff serve on the Council. Policy making decisions are the responsibility of the Council.

The College also has a College Senate. All academic concerns of the college such as
approving subject syllabuses, determining selection criteria for students, appointing examiners, introducing new courses and so on are the responsibility of the Senate. The Senate comprises representatives from universities, the Council, the Rectorate, as well as elected staff members, Heads of the Departments and officials from the Education Department.

The Executive Head of the College is the Rector who is also Chairman of the Senate. He is assisted in the management of the college by Vice-Rectors, the Registrar and other administrative staff.

5.2.3.5 THE ROLE OF SACTE IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

It is important to note that SACTE is primarily concerned with the upgrading and the improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE of teachers who are already in service. Thus, unlike UNISA, or the UKOU, for example, the college is not involved with initial training programmes for teachers as such. Those candidates who enrol for the courses on offer by SACTE but who are unqualified or underqualified are, nonetheless, already in the classroom functioning as educators.

Thus, SACTE provides the opportunity for unqualified and underqualified educators to pursue a course of studies which enables them to attain the requisite qualifications to be appointed to the permanent staff as qualified teachers. At the same time qualified teachers are empowered to improve and upgrade their qualifications in order to enhance their strengths as competent educators at various levels and in a number of school subjects.

The fields of study leading to the Diploma in Education and the Higher Diploma in Education are:
qualification evaluated as M+2 ('B' category or REQV 12), could enrol for the courses leading to the Diploma in Education (M+3 or 'C' category or REQV 13). As already indicated, this qualification is considered to be the minimum for teachers to be appointed to the permanent establishment as fully qualified teachers in South Africa.

SACTE also offers in the fields of study already mentioned a Higher Diploma in Education (HDE). Teachers who already have the Diploma in Education or other qualifications and are evaluated as M+3 ('C' category or REQV 13) and approved for employment in education become eligible for such courses (SACTE, 1999(a):6; 1999(b):5).

The structure of these courses is clearly outlined for students. They comprise compulsory general modules of study, integrated teaching practice and certain specified courses for candidates depending upon the qualifications they possess. Further, in the sciences and technical subjects certain practical components also have to be completed by the candidates enrolled for the courses (SACTE, 1999(a):18-51; 1999(b):17-48).

The college also offers a number of FDEs. Admission to the FDE courses is an approved professional teacher education qualification evaluated as M+3 ('C' category or REQV 13). The range of FDE courses offered by SACTE are in the following subjects:

- Home Economics
- English Language Teaching
- Educational Management
- Special Educational Needs in the fields of study of Remedial Education or Special Education or Education for the Gifted Child
An interesting development at SACTE is that as from 1999 the college will offer a B.Ed. degree. This will be done in conjunction with the University of Natal. The B.Ed. will follow on any four-year (M+4 or 'D' category or REQV 14) education qualification. SACTE will also be considering the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers leading to the M.Ed. and Ph.D. degrees (SACTE, n.d.:3; see also, UN/SACTE, 1999(a); 1999(b)).

5.2.3.6 **SUMMATION**

SACTE, as the amalgamation of the former colleges called CESA and the CCE, has now become a major national provider of teacher education courses through DE leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. As with UNISA and Vista University, SACTE is also making a vital contribution and playing a pivotal role in the attempt to promote the best interests of education by ensuring that its courses are directly relevant and related to enhancing the competency of teachers.
at the chalkface.

The statistics indicated in table 5.16 indicate the spread of teachers in the various courses on offer at SACTE. Table 5.17 depicts its impact as a provider of teacher education through DE in the country as a whole. In table 5.18 we note the programme entry levels and ages of teachers enrolled for the various courses. Table 5.19 provides the current enrolment apropos the various courses on offer at SACTE:
Table 5.16 **SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (SACTE):**

**STUDENT DETAILS FOR DIFFERENT COURSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>TOTAL NO. OF STUDENTS</th>
<th>NO. STUDENTS ENTERING 1994</th>
<th>NO. STUDENTS ENTERING 1995</th>
<th>NO. STUDENTS EXPECTED TO QUALIFY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Dip</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Dip</td>
<td>806</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Dip</td>
<td>14 421</td>
<td>1 916</td>
<td>12 505</td>
<td>1 916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary. Dip</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Sec. Dip</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Certificate</td>
<td>3 197</td>
<td>1 625</td>
<td>1 572</td>
<td>1 625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Certificate</td>
<td>2 958</td>
<td>1 537</td>
<td>1 421</td>
<td>1 537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Certificate</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Edu. Dip</td>
<td>3 783</td>
<td>2 082</td>
<td>1 701</td>
<td>2 082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>25 857</strong></td>
<td><strong>7 403</strong></td>
<td><strong>18 454</strong></td>
<td><strong>7 392</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: SAIDE (1995(b):175)
Table 5.17 **SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (SACTE)**

**BREAKDOWN OF STUDENTS BY PROVINCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>GAUTENG</th>
<th>KWAZULU/ NTL</th>
<th>WCAPE</th>
<th>ECAPE</th>
<th>NCAPE</th>
<th>MPUMALANGA</th>
<th>N PROV</th>
<th>OFS</th>
<th>NWEST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Dip</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Dip</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Dip</td>
<td>2,208</td>
<td>1,494</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1,996</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3,083</td>
<td>4,036</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary. Dip</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Sec. Dip</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Certificate</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>1,463</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>565</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Certificate</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>1,397</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Certificate</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Edu. Dip</td>
<td>1,151</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4,235</td>
<td>5,037</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>2,194</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>4,413</td>
<td>6,477</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>2,210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: SAIDE (1995(b):178)
Table 5.18  SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (SACTE) 
PROGRAMME ENTRY LEVELS AND STUDENT AGES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>ENTRY LEVEL (e.g. M+1)</th>
<th>EXIT LEVEL (e.g. M+3)</th>
<th>AGES LESS THAN 35 YEARS</th>
<th>AGES 35 - 50 YEARS</th>
<th>AGES OLDER THAN 50 YEARS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Dip</td>
<td>M + 1 / M + 2</td>
<td>M + 3</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Dip</td>
<td>M + 1 / M + 2</td>
<td>M + 3</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Dip</td>
<td>M + 1 / M + 2</td>
<td>M + 3</td>
<td>11 931</td>
<td>2 394</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary. Dip</td>
<td>M + 1 / M + 2</td>
<td>M + 3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Sec. Dip</td>
<td>M + 1 / M + 2</td>
<td>M + 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junprim. Certificate</td>
<td>M + 1</td>
<td>M + 2</td>
<td>1 826</td>
<td>1 256</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senprim. Certificate</td>
<td>M + 1</td>
<td>M + 2</td>
<td>2 012</td>
<td>874</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preprim. Certificate</td>
<td>M + 1</td>
<td>M + 2</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Edu. Dip</td>
<td>M + 3/ M + 4</td>
<td>M + 5</td>
<td>2 135</td>
<td>1 521</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Subjects (Single)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td><strong>19 091</strong></td>
<td><strong>6 322</strong></td>
<td><strong>424</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: SAIDE (1995(b):177)
Table 5.19  SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (SACTE): ENROLMENT FOR 1999

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Diploma in Education : Pre-primary</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Diploma in Education : Junior Primary</td>
<td>6 060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diploma in Education : Senior Primary</td>
<td>11 572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Diploma in Education : Secondary</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Higher Diploma in Education : Pre-primary</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Higher Diploma in Education : Junior Primary</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Higher Diploma in Education : Senior Primary</td>
<td>594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Higher Diploma in Education : Secondary</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) : Pre-primary</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) : Junior Primary</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) : Senior Primary</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Higher Diploma in Education (Post-diploma) : Secondary</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) : Secondary</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Further Diploma in Education : Pre-primary</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Further Diploma in Education : Junior Primary (Foundation Phase)</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Further Diploma in Education : Computer Science</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Further Diploma in Education : Economic Sciences</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Further Diploma in Education : Educational Management</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Further Diploma in Education : English Language Teaching</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Further Diploma in Education : Home Economics</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Further Diploma in Education : Mathematics and Natural Sciences for the Junior Secondary Phase</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Further Diploma in Education : School Subjects</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Further Diploma in Education : Special Educational Needs</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Further Diploma in Education : Technical Subjects</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Further Diploma in Education : Technology Education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Non-diploma purposes</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Bachelor of Education Degree</td>
<td>1 506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Primary Education Certificate (PEC)</td>
<td>1 195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23 308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Van Rensburg - Bagwandeen, 1999-03-24
All the courses offered by SACTE are in keeping with the tenets of the NQF and SAQA and also satisfy the requirements of the Department of Education in terms of the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education 1995-1996 (DOE, 1995-1996) as developed by COTEP. As such the qualifications obtained by teachers through SACTE in their endeavour to upgrade and improve their qualifications and thereby their competencies as educators in the classroom are recognized by all the provincial education departments. Further, SACTE indicates that all its courses are oriented towards ensuring that teachers studying for the various courses for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers also meet the challenges of educational transformation in terms of the philosophy of the outcomes-based education as advocated by the national Department of Education.

Indeed, the growth of SACTE with its approximately 24 000 teachers is undoubtedly remarkable. Together with UNISA and the VUDEC of Vista University, SACTE is playing an integral role at national level towards the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE.

5.2.4 THE ROLE OF OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS OFFERING TEACHER EDUCATION COURSES THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS AT A NATIONAL LEVEL IN SOUTH AFRICA

In addition to the three major institutions discussed, namely, UNISA, Vista University and SACTE, other providers of teacher education through DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers countrywide are commercial, private for-profit colleges, numerous NGOs, technikons and a few other institutions. Albeit, in some instances these organizations provide INSET courses as discussed in Chapter Two and which are non-formal, non-award bearing courses. All of these contribute in some measure towards improving the competencies of educators.
The Panel of International Commissioners (SAIDE, 1995(a):3-39) and the national audit report *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* (SAIDE, 1995(b):137-291; see also, DOE, 1996(a):91-116) evaluated some of these organizations and the courses offered by them. Among these organizations, NGOs and institutions the following are noteworthy, especially for teacher education courses and INSET programmes for teachers through DE:


- The Bureau for In-Service Teacher Development (BITED) which is an NGO operating from the campus of the Johannesburg College of Education (JCE) provides courses leading to Certificates and Diplomas in Education. These are awarded by JCE.

- Lyceum College is a private correspondence college which offers a primary teachers' diploma for both junior primary and senior primary levels. The diplomas are awarded by the RAU. In addition, Lyceum College in collaboration with the Department of Didactical Psychology and Specialized Education of the University of Stellenbosch offers an FDE: Learners with Special Educational Needs as well as other FDEs and the B.Ed. degree also accredited by the University of Stellenbosch.

- Promat College of Education offers DE courses orientated towards upgrading the qualifications of teachers from the M+1 ('A' category or REQV 11) qualification to the M+3 ('C' category or REQV 13) level.

- The RAU College for Education and Health offers FDEs through DE in Education Management, Remedial Teaching, Educational Guidance,

- Success College offers an FDE in Educational Management and an FDE: Remedial Education in collaboration with the University of Pretoria. Further in co-operation with the Faculty of Education of the University of Stellenbosch, Success College also offers an FDE: Natural Sciences (Mathematics Course); FDE: Curriculum Studies. An interesting development is the provision of DE courses leading to a B.A. degree specializing in teaching and a general B.A. degree. These will be awarded by the University of Pretoria.

- Technikon SA offers a variety of DE courses mainly for teachers in the technical field. These include: The National Teachers' Diploma in Education: Technical; a National Higher Diploma: Educational Management; a National Higher Diploma: Post-School Education; a Master's Diploma in Technology: Post-School Education; and, a Laureatus in Technology: Education.

- The Open Learning Group Academy provides through DE the Diploma in Education for the junior primary and senior primary phases; the FDE: Educational Management; HED: Secondary; Certificate in B.Ed. Bridging; and, the B.Ed. degree with specialization in one of Instruction and Learning; Non-Formal Education; Education Management, Law and Systems; and, Educational Psychology. These diplomas, certificates and degrees are awarded by the Potchefstroom University.

In addition to the foregoing the National Teacher Education Audit: NGO Sector (JET, 1995(a):17-37; 1995(b)) provided a useful conspectus and profile of the NGOs involved in aspects of upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers. There
are some 99 providers of INSET distributed in the various provinces (JET, 1995(a):17; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 330-333). However, not all of those referred to in the audit are involved in DE programmes, per se. Some of these NGOs are based at universities, others are dedicated INSET organizations, others still offer a wide range of educational services of which INSET for teachers ranks as one of them. There are also some community-based NGOs working in teacher development (JET, 1995(a):18-20).

The services provided by these NGOs for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers include short courses, school-based courses, classroom support courses, materials production and information to guide educators (JET, 1995(a):21-24; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 208-248). The programmes focus on a wide variety of areas impacting on teacher educators, colleges, schools and teachers in rural areas, unqualified and underqualified primary school teachers, language development of teachers, un- and underqualified secondary school teachers especially in Science and Mathematics and so on. Further, the contact focus of the NGO programmes incorporate, inter alia, Languages, Mathematics, Science and Technology, Management, Guidance and Counselling, Computer Training and so forth (JET, 1995(a):29-31).

5.2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter commenced with a brief analysis of education and teacher education and reference to the crisis besetting them in South Africa at present. The fundamental purpose was to contextualize the delivery of DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers. This was done in the firm belief, also, that highly and appropriately qualified teachers will prove to be an invaluable asset in providing quality education to all learners in South Africa.
Professor Sibusiso Bengu, former Minister of Education, regards the cries and anguish of educators, parents and others that education in South Africa is in crisis, as being purely alarmist. He believes, on the contrary, that since 1994 education in South Africa has been fighting its way out of a crisis. For example, he referred to the previous system of education as one which established colleges of education as if they were corner cafés. He maintains that:

'Brick by brick, we have been dismantling this edifice of pedagogic madness and building, in its place, a monument of the mind.'

(Bengu, 1998:10)

He blames the current situation on the apartheid legacy. Yet despite the rhetoric, the fact undeniably remains, that the morass in education cannot be simply wished away. Indeed, one viable and certainly practical solution out of this serious dilemma, gleaned from the international experience, is to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers through DE to ensure that the delivery of quality education to the current generation of learners becomes the indisputable norm. In this regard, Professor Kader Asmal, the newly appointed national Minister of Education, has indicated that amongst his priorities in education was to reinstate belief and trust in teachers (Daily News, 1999-06-30).

The national audit report, *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* (SAIDE, 1995(b)) and the report of the Panel of International Commissioners on DE (SAIDE, 1995 (a)) found serious flaws in the delivery of DE for teacher education. It was felt that:

'... the system of teacher education offered at a distance is characterized by low quality, fragmentation, massive inefficiencies, and rapid
In crude but nevertheless realistic terms, vast numbers of students are currently engaged in studies which will, in all likelihood, have little or no impact (even possibly a negative impact) on their teaching practice.

(SAIDE, 1995(b):97)

In the South African context at national level, with particular reference to teacher education through DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers the following characteristics were regarded by the teacher education audit as being significant:

- With more than 130 000 teachers enrolled for teacher education courses through DE the system is indubitably larger than most people initially believed.

- The system is now the largest and most rapidly expanding teacher education sector.

- There is rapid expansion of for-profit colleges working with state-funded institutions for accreditation.

- Very few students are studying in subjects of national need such as Mathematics, Science, Technology and English Language.

- The system, to a large degree, provides an education of poor quality and has no methodical means of improving and assuring quality.

- The system, with the exception of some, is characterized by questionably high pass and throughput rates.
The system is primarily print-based, correspondence-style education system, rather than a quality DE system.

In the main, the system is weak in terms of contact support or attention to skilling.

The system primarily caters for the historically most disadvantaged group of teachers and principally African females. It is believed that as such, the poor quality of the DE system for teacher education will exacerbate the already critical situation.

The system's ability to provide data or financial information is limited and manifestly unreliable.

(SAIDE, 1995(b):97; see also, Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:52; DOE, 1996(a):106-109)

Moreover, further criticism was levelled at the organization and quality of learning and teaching. These included the aspects of:

- outdated philosophical paradigms for education and teacher education
- obsolete pedagogical forms
- poorly designed and often archaic curriculum materials
- an unnecessarily high number of courses with overlapping content and pedagogy which resulted in low student enrolment in many courses and courses of poor quality
- courses not designed to improve teaching practice
• lack of learner support
• limited curriculum innovation
• very limited and ad hoc use of media in DE other than print

(SAIDE, 1995(b):97-98; see also, Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:53)

Consequently, the assessment of the researchers who compiled the report, *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* is that such teacher education is a contradiction in terms of the national effort to reconstruct teacher education and schooling. Further, they conclude that such a strategy in the South African context is largely unproductive and unsustainable. Finally, they express the opinion that there is very little evidence of taking seriously the effect that global metamorphoses in technology, economy and society are likely to have on South Africa and its education system (SAIDE, 1995(b):98; see also, Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995:53). Consequently, a new vision for DE in South Africa becomes imperative (Goodwin-Davey, 1997(3): 159-188; see also, Van Niekerk, 1997(6): 189 - 210).

While the evaluation in terms of this audit provided a rather funereal and depressing picture, on the positive side the evaluators expressed the considered view that there are glimmers of hope and advocated that policy decisions should be orientated to encourage and reinforce these. Undoubtedly, there is widespread recognition and gracious acknowledgement of the need for reform and the fact that there are certainly pockets of interesting innovation.

Further, it must be stressed that while the findings of the teacher education audit are polemical in some respects, they, nonetheless, generally provided useful insights for introspection into the serious desiderata of teacher education. *Pari passu*, this national exercise also underscored the possibilities for a national policy on teacher supply, utilization and development for the Department of Education (DOE, 1996(c):1-81).
Moreover, despite the fact that some of the criticisms by the researchers in the audit may be interpreted as being harshly acerbic and mordant, the institutions involved can only learn and benefit from the evaluation in a determined and sincere effort to improve their delivery system. Education will be the main beneficiary from such optimism. Indeed, this research has taken due cognizance of the audit. In the spirit of analyzing the international models of DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers recommendations will be made with respect to the remediation of the problems identified in an attempt to ameliorate the local situation especially in the Province of KZN.

It must also be noted that the provision of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers, by the national institutions such as UNISA, Vista University, SACTE and the commercial, private for-profit organizations, NGOs and others, despite their weaknesses, have, nonetheless, made a crucial contribution to education in general and to teacher education in particular. As the Panel of International Commissioners (SAIDE, 1995(a):60) concede, many distinguished men and women would never have attained the degrees, diplomas and certificates that have set them on paths of great eminence had it not been for such institutions.

In fairness to these institutions also, it must be sincerely conceded that there has been a positive reaction to their weaknesses and shortcomings that have been identified in their DE programmes. Instead of sweeping these criticisms under the carpet many have confronted them head-on. Thus, for example, we have noted that the Faculty of Education at UNISA, has resorted to the bowdlerization of its earlier philosophy and structure. This deserves the highest praise and commendation as such transformation has empowered the Faculty to meet the challenges of the new millennium with courage and aplomb. More importantly, it is hoped that the teachers in the classrooms enrolled for the DE courses in order to improve and upgrade their qualifications will become more competent as professional educators.
It has also been observed that those involved in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers care deeply about what they are doing. In fact, they are eschewing nonchalance and are endeavouring to alleviate in a positive and most praiseworthy manner their efforts in this regard. However, they are restricted in what they can do by the prevailing conception of DE in South Africa and the institutional structures and inherent constraints that go with it (SAIDE, 1995(a):60). A further obfuscating, if not frustrating, stumbling block is the menacing financial constraints for education and its negative impact on the provision of adequate human and material resources for education in South Africa.

Indeed, seemingly astute and shrewd politicians may ardently pursue the route to achieve the so-called African Renaissance. But this will irrefragably be transformed into nothing more than the search for the Holy Grail if education is allowed to degenerate further. The cartoon, in figure 5.11 below, encapsulates this perception in an épatant and tacit manner.
Figure 5.11  THE AFRICAN RENAISSANCE AND THE SEARCH FOR THE HOLY GRAIL IN EDUCATION

SOURCE: DAILY NEWS, 1998-06-16
The hope for South Africa is ineluctably in its corps of highly and appropriately qualified teachers. The adaptation of proven international experience of DE already analyzed in this regard can prove to be a manifestly invaluable role-model for the utilization of DE as a strategy for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in this country. The models for the provision of DE as represented by UNISA, Vista University and SACTE at the national level certainly have valuable lessons for adaptation, *mutatis mutandis*, in KZN.

As indicated earlier, we shall now consider, in Chapter Six, the three major institutions which have been providing DE for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KZN until 31 January 1999. These institutions were: the Springfield College of Education (SCE), Natal College of Education (NCE) and the Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE). Brief reference will also be made to the new institution, the South African College of Open Learning (SACOL), which was born as a result of the amalgamation of these three colleges of education.

The developments for teacher education and teacher education programmes through DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers are undergoing dramatic and phenomenal transformation in the province. These will, without doubt, impinge on education in KZN with far reaching consequences in a manifold manner.
CHAPTER SIX

UPGRADING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION IN KWAZULU-NATAL (KZN)
KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) is one of the nine provinces of South Africa. It is situated as can be seen on the map in Chapter Five, on the east coast of South Africa. Geographically, KZN is a region of sharp contrasts. Like India, for example, it is characterized by cities such as Durban which boasts of a metropolitan status similar to Mumbai (Bombay) or Calcutta or other major cities of the world. Durban is endowed with the largest natural harbour in Africa and possesses resources, infrastructure, communication facilities and so forth which compare favourably with other major cities.

In sharp contrast to the urban centres, the rural regions, much like those in India, are poor, both in material and human resources. The population is scattered and the infrastructure apropos housing, communication networks and facilities, transport routes, natural resources and so on are extremely limited. The topographical features of KZN also range widely from some flat lands along the coastal region suitable for agriculture and industrial activity to stark, hilly and mountainous areas in the interior.

The population demographics in KZN is representative of that of the rest of South Africa. Blacks are in the majority exceeding 10 million. Those of Indian origin number almost 600 000 of the total of approximately one million in the Republic. The preponderance of Indians in KZN is the result of an array of previous discriminatory and racist legislation which prevented the diaspora of people of Indian origin to other parts of South Africa (Bagwandeen, 1983: 1 - 12; 1991(a): 8 - 11; 1991(b): 335-349; 1989: 1 - 22; see also, Brijlal, 1989: 25 - 39; Pachai, 1971 : 1 - 71). People of Coloured origin number approximately 300 000 while Whites in the province are approximately in the region of 500 000. Thus, KZN has the largest population density of the nine provinces in South Africa.

This is true also with respect to the school population. By 1996 the previous Departments of Education in KZN under the control of the House of Assembly (HOA)
for Whites, House of Delegates (HOD) for Indians, House of Representatives (HOR) for Coloureds, the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (KZDEC) and the Department of Education and Training (DET) for Blacks merged into the KZN Department of Education and Culture (KZNDEC). As a consequence the learner enrolment in the KZN as a total of all the previous Departments of Education had increased to approximately 2,700,000 and the corresponding number of educators totalled almost 79,000 as indicated in figure 5.6 in Chapter Five and in figure 6.1 below. Further, the KZNDEC established its headquarters at Ulundi. It divided the province into eight regions. These are: Durban South, Empangeni, Ladysmith, North Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Port Shepstone, Ulundi and Vryheid. The distribution of learners and educators in each of these regions is illustrated in figure 6.2 below.

At this stage in 1996 a comparison of learner enrolment according to the various provinces and school phase, as depicted in figure 6.3, clearly establishes the fact that KZN had the highest student population in the country.
The Province is made up of ....:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>5 455</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>3 869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary &amp; Int.</td>
<td>1 347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Colleges</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Schools</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners</th>
<th>2 693 130</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>1 811 395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary &amp; Int.</td>
<td>788 525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>84 368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special &amp; Tech. Coll.</td>
<td>6 749</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Educators             | 79 429    |

**SOURCE:** Badcock-Walters (1998: 1)

**NB.** In terms of the above statistics:
- The total number of institutions should read 5 421
- The total number of learners should read 2 691 037
Figure 6.2  KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE: REGIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

Region 1
NORTHERN DURBAN
Teachers: 13,475
Pupils: 409,174

Region 2
SOUTHERN DURBAN
Teachers: 10,342
Pupils: 337,741

Region 3
PORT SHEPSTONE
Teachers: 7,640
Pupils: 306,843

Region 4
PMBURG
Teachers: 5,827
Pupils: 194,684

Region 5
LADYSMITH
Teachers: 10,645
Pupils: 369,361

Region 6
VRYHEID
Teachers: 4,417
Pupils: 172,597

Region 7
ULUNDI
Teachers: 7,530
Pupils: 325,021

Region 8
EMPANGENI
Teachers: 8,611
Pupils: 352,422

SOURCE: KZNDEC (1996: 1)
Figure 6.3 LEARNER ENROLMENT ACCORDING TO PROVINCE AND SCHOOL PHASE, 1996

There were 284 014 more learners in 1996 at school than in 1995. This number represented an increase of 2.4%. In some provinces there was a decrease, while in others an increase.

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1997 : 2)
This situation in KZN then is a matter for concern with respect to the need for increased staffing, infrastructure and classrooms. This is particularly important when the average annual growth for learners forecast for KZN from 1998 to 2008 of 3.06 per cent for primary schools and 5.49 per cent for secondary schools, is taken into account as projected in figure 6.4 below.

Already, during 1998, the KZN Department of Education and Culture enrolled 2,737,669 learners at public schools as indicated in the table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 LEARNER ENROLMENT IN 1998 IN KWAZULU-NATAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION REGION</th>
<th>PRE-Grade</th>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th>SECONDARY</th>
<th>SPEC/REM OTHER</th>
<th>TOTAL LEARNERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Durban South</td>
<td>1,572</td>
<td>261,850</td>
<td>134,340</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>398,744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empangeni</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>275,905</td>
<td>120,523</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>397,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladysmith</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>264,431</td>
<td>131,247</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>396,646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Durban</td>
<td>1,354</td>
<td>249,429</td>
<td>139,256</td>
<td>2,188</td>
<td>392,227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pietermaritzburg</td>
<td>1,045</td>
<td>178,407</td>
<td>87,673</td>
<td>1,001</td>
<td>268,126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Shepstone</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>211,090</td>
<td>84,860</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>296,771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulundi</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>283,563</td>
<td>106,653</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>390,932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vryheid</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>133,366</td>
<td>62,778</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>196,583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Total/Average</td>
<td>6,915</td>
<td>1,858,041</td>
<td>867,330</td>
<td>5,383</td>
<td>2,737,669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: EMIS, 1998
Figure 6.4 LEARNER ENROLMENT FOR 1993 TO 1997 AND FORECASTS FOR 1998 TO 2008 FOR KWAZULU-NATAL

Average annual growth rate (%)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>2,14</td>
<td>2,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>3,06</td>
<td>5,49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Strauss et al. (1998: 12)
As a matter of interest these learners in 1998 were accommodated in State schools as shown in Table 6.2. Again these figures relating to the total number of learners and the schools accommodating them will have serious implications for the number of teachers required.
### Table 6.2  **STATE SCHOOLS IN 1998 IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION REGION</th>
<th>PRE-GRADE</th>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th>SECONDARY</th>
<th>COMBINED</th>
<th>SPEC/REM OTHER</th>
<th>TOTAL SCHOOLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Durban South</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empangeni</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladysmith</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Durban</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pietermaritzburg</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Shepstone</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulundi</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vryheid</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provincial Total / Average</strong></td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3 873</td>
<td>1 380</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5 652</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only State Schools are included - no Independent schools

Pre-Grade : All schools offering learning to learners not yet in Grade R, includes the 3-4 year olds
Primary : Primary Schools offer learning from Grade R or Grade 1 through to Grade 7
Secondary : Secondary schools offering learning from Grade 8 to Grade 12
Combined : Any school with elements of Pre-Grade, Primary and Secondary Grades
Spec/Rem/Other : Specialised Education School, Remedial School or any other school offering another form of education

**SOURCE : EMIS, 1998**
For example, in 1998 the total number of educators employed in Kwazulu-Natal in various capacities is illustrated in Table 6.3. This has resulted in a drastic change with respect to the ratios involving learners, educators, classrooms and the different phases as indicated in Table 6.4.

Table 6.3 **EDUCATORS IN 1998 IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Region</th>
<th>Privately Paid Educators</th>
<th>State Paid Educators</th>
<th>Total Educators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>Temporary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durban South</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>10 531</td>
<td>1 446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empangeni</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>8 238</td>
<td>2 119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladysmith</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>8 703</td>
<td>2 078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Durban</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>10 131</td>
<td>1 879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pietermaritzburg</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>6 296</td>
<td>1 407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Shepstone</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>6 781</td>
<td>1 324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulundi</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7 451</td>
<td>2 577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vryheid</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3 728</td>
<td>1 504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Total/Average</td>
<td>1 639</td>
<td>61 859</td>
<td>14 334</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Privately Paid: Educators who are privately paid or are School Governing Body appointments
- Permanent: State Paid Educators who are permanently appointed
- Temporary: State Paid Educators who are temporarily appointed
- Sub-Total: The number of State Paid Educators
- Total Educators: Privately Paid and State Paid Educators at Public Schools

**SOURCE:** EMIS, 1998
Table 6.4  **RATIOS IN 1998 IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION REGION</th>
<th>L : C</th>
<th>L : E</th>
<th>E : C</th>
<th>PRIM : SEC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Durban South</td>
<td>40.87</td>
<td>32.29</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empangeni</td>
<td>41.59</td>
<td>38.40</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladysmith</td>
<td>45.55</td>
<td>36.79</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Durban</td>
<td>38.76</td>
<td>32.65</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pietermaritzburg</td>
<td>39.18</td>
<td>34.91</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Shepstone</td>
<td>43.42</td>
<td>36.62</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulundi</td>
<td>49.91</td>
<td>39.98</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vryheid</td>
<td>39.33</td>
<td>37.57</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Total / Average</td>
<td>42.34</td>
<td>35.93</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L : C : Number of Learners to a classroom  
L : E : Number of Learners to State Paid Educators  
E : C : Number of State Paid Educators to a Classroom  
PRIM : SEC : Number of Primary Phase Learners (Grades R - 7) to the Number of Learners in the Secondary Phase (Grades 8 - 12)

**SOURCE:** EMIS, 1998

Moreover, taking into account the total number of learners in 1998, namely, 2 737 669 and the total number of educators, namely 77 832, the average pupil to teacher ratio works out to approximately 35.17 : 1. In terms of the current policy where the pupil to teacher ratio is 35 : 1 for secondary schools and 40 : 1 for primary schools the number of educators that were required in 1998 in KZN in terms of the figures depicted in Table 6.3 should have been 24 780 for secondary schools and 46 451 for primary schools with a total of 71 231 educators.

However, in terms of the statistics in table 6.3 the total number of state paid educators was 76 193. This means that the KZNDEC had an excess of almost 5 000 educators.
Therein lies the rub. Schools were deemed to be overstaffed. This meant that the situation in KZN spells doom and disaster for PRESET teacher education in terms of a bleak future for those graduating from colleges of education and universities as the Department of Education and Culture cuts back on staff (*Daily News*, 1998-03-16).

As a matter of fact, the former Premier of KZN, Dr Ben Ngubane, announced in the first quarter of 1998 that the services of some 5 000 temporary teachers would be terminated in the first week of March 1998 (*Daily News*, 1998-03-16; 1998-04-02). Further, the Superintendent-General of Education, Dr M A M Jarvis, stated that there were too many colleges of education in KZN although there was still a shortage of secondary school teachers in scarce subjects such as Mathematics and Science. He stated that the KZNDEC has been forced to reduce its teaching force because of serious financial constraints (*Daily News*, 1998-03-16; see also, *Sunday Times Extra*, 1998-03-29).

Consequently, the teacher education colleges in KZN are to be drastically reduced and transformed by the year 2000 (*Daily News*, 1998-04-02). The Department of Education and Culture in KZN was determined to reduce the colleges of education to between five or six institutions and the intake of students for PRESET was going to be stringently curtailed. The Department had already begun the process of not enrolling first year students at certain colleges with a view to closure and amalgamation (*Daily News*, 1998-04-02; 1998-05-21).

In addition, the first year admission to such colleges of education for the 1998 academic year was to be restricted to students studying for the secondary course in the following subjects:

- Physical Science
- Biology
- Mathematics
- Technical Subjects
In the beginning of the new school term in 1999 concern was expressed in KZN that teachers may be out of jobs (Naidoo, 1999(b): 9). Tensions mounted in schools over the redeployment plan of the KZNDEC (Pillay, 1999: 1). The redeployment was to rationalize the apparent surplus of teachers. In this regard the Department had announced some 5,982 excess teachers (Naidoo, 1999(d): 5; see also, Bis[s]etty, 1999(c): 1; 1999(d): 2).

Thus, the current situation in KZN related to teacher education is in many respects similar to the UK, Canada and India where there is an adequate teaching corps for primary and secondary schools. Moreover, unlike Zimbabwe, the acute problem of the critical shortage of qualified teachers is no longer an issue in KZN. As indicated earlier, in South Africa the REQV 13 category which is equivalent to Grade 12 plus
three years of formal teacher education and training is generally accepted as the minimum formal qualification for an educator to be considered as professionally qualified. In 1997 the range of educator qualifications in KZN was as depicted in table 6.5 below.

At this stage the foregoing statistics clearly point to the fact that a total of 24 873 teachers representing 32.06% of the total number of educators in KZN were deemed to be professionally underqualified. The Minister of Education and Culture in KZN, Ms Shandu, stressed the fact at the official opening of SACOL, that KZN has had a history of teachers with a minimum of M + 3 qualifications or lower. She strongly supported the strategy of DE being postulated in this research by advocating that:

'In the light of the current crisis we need adequately qualified teachers. One cannot [but] underscore the importance of distance education in the improvement and upgrading of teachers’ qualification for the new millennium in Kwazulu-Natal.’

(Bissetty, 1999(e): 3)

There is little doubt that there is widespread support for this viewpoint in KZN. It is generally felt that since teachers are a vital resource in education, state-of-the-art school equipment, teaching aids, advanced curricula and even the most advanced philosophies of education count for little if the teachers themselves are underqualified (Daily News, 1999-05-17). The main thrust of teacher education in KZN is consequently to be orientated towards providing educators for the scarce subjects mentioned above and the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE.
### Table 6.5 1997 EDUCATOR QUALIFICATIONS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REQV LEVEL</th>
<th>EDUCATION REGIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DURBAN SOUTH</td>
<td>EMPANGENI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>1 760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1 599</td>
<td>1 255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>3 990</td>
<td>3 784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3 581</td>
<td>1 873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1 507</td>
<td>667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>779</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO DATA</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>9 882¹</td>
<td>9 882</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures are taken from the 1997 Annual Schools Survey. 984 Educators did not provide details regarding their qualification level and are reflected in the row captioned 'No data'. REQV levels are equivalent to the following qualification categories:

10 = Grade 12 (Matric)
11 = Grade 8 - 11 with 2 years of training  
12 = Grade 12 with up to 2 years of training  
13 = Grade 12 with 3 years of training  
14 = Grade 12 with 4 years of training  
15 = Grade 12 with 5 years of training  
16 = Grade 12 with 6 years of training  
17 = Grade 12 with 7 years of training  
18 = Grade 12 with 8 years of training  
19 = Grade 12 with 9 years of training  

NB: ERRORS IN ADDITION:
1 should be: 12 729
2 should be: 10 636
3 should be: 11 734
4 should be: 660
5 should be: 77 561

With respect to the principal providers of courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE in KZN, up until 31 January 1999, there were three institutions under the control of the provincial Department of Education and Culture. These were, as already mentioned, the SCE, the NCE and the UCFE. At this juncture we need to examine the contribution of these institutions to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers before discussing the role of the newly-established SACOL.

6.2 THE SPRINGFIELD COLLEGE OF EDUCATION (SCE)

6.2.1 ORIGINS OF SCE

The establishment of the SCE is closely linked with the history of people of Indian ancestry and the history of Indian education in KZN. The history of Indians in South Africa has been dealt with in some detail in the various publications germane to people of Indian origin aforementioned. Further, details concerning their primary and secondary school education have also been expounded in quite some detail by the researcher in a previous doctoral thesis (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 350 - 382). It is not intended, therefore, to reiterate these aspects in terms of the origins of the SCE.

Thus, our point of departure for the birth of the SCE then is the exordium and evolution of teacher education in KZN for Indians. The great need of Indian education in its cradle days in KZN was an adequate supply of suitably qualified teachers.

The first school for the training of Indian teachers opened in Durban in 1869. It was a school conducted in the evenings for older scholars who contemplated becoming teachers in the elementary Indian schools. In 1900 the then Natal Education Department (NED) introduced the Junior and Senior Indian Teachers' Examinations but made no provision for teachers wishing to study for such qualifications. In 1904, the St. Aidan's Mission on the initiative of Canon A H Smith established the St. Aidan's
Diocesan Training College which later came to be known as the St. Aidan’s Provincial Training College.

Students who passed standard four were admitted to the college which prepared candidates for the examinations which had recently been instituted by the NED. In addition to full time training, continuation INSET classes were inaugurated for unqualified assistants. With the outbreak of World War I the enrolment at the college dropped considerably and the training college section closed down in 1914 owing to insufficient numbers. The St. Aidan’s Training College was reopened in 1919 but the majority of those being trained as teachers were for the mission schools.

The NED later instituted weekend classes for pupil - teachers and unqualified assistants at the three centres: Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Tongaat. However, these early efforts at teacher education for Indian education were regarded at best a very poltroonish and inadequate preparation for the teaching profession. It also underpinned the pusillanimity and discrimination of the NED which failed to provide requisite and suitable infrastructure and facilities for the training of teachers of Indian origin. There was no college of education, no corporate student life and no continuous study. By the 1920s a virtual climacteric in teacher education for Indians was reached. The turning point in this regard was the Cape Town Agreement of 1927 (Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 388).

Sir Srinivasa Sastri, the Agent-General for the Government of India (Figure 6.5) stressed the urgent need for a training college in Durban in his annual report for 1927. This viewpoint was further underscored by the Indian Education Inquiry Committee which was appointed in 1928.

The herculean endeavours of Sastri and the philanthropy of Indians led ultimately to the establishment of Sastri College in 1930 as a combined training college and secondary school. Since there were not sufficiently locally qualified educators for the students enrolled, six teachers, all graduates, were recruited from India. In addition,
three Indian teachers from Natal were also appointed to the staff. Two Whites, W M Buss and H J Miller, were appointed Principal and Vice-Principal respectively.

At this stage the NED introduced a new system of teacher certification. This was as follows:

- Teachers' Third Class B (T3B) Certificate which was a post-standard eight course of two years' duration or one year's training after matriculation.

- Teachers' Fifth Class Certificate (T5) which was a post-standard six course of 18 months' duration.

- A Teachers' Fourth Class Certificate (T4) was offered as an external course with the prerequisite being either the possession of the T5 Certificate or a year's satisfactory teaching experience in a school recognized by the NED.

- There was also a post-matriculation Teachers' Second Class Certificate (T2) for Indian teachers. However, no provision was made for the training of teachers for this qualification.
THE AGENT-GENERAL, THE RT. HON. V.S. SRINIVASA SASTRI, P.C.

SOURCE: Naidoo and Bramdaw (1931)
An interesting development at this time was that although Sastri College was established as a single-sex institution for males, six Indian female students were admitted for teacher education courses in 1935. Albeit, Indian parents were reluctant to send their daughters to be trained as teachers at Sastri College. Consequently, in 1941 full training of female teachers was provided at the Indian Girls' High School in Durban (Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 392).

The dawn of a new era in teacher education for Indians in KZN was launched on 10 February 1944 when the NED appointed a Provincial Education Committee under the Chairmanship of E C Wilks. The Committee, inter alia, had to investigate the issue of teacher training and to make recommendations.

These recommendations of the Wilks Committee had far reaching consequences for Indian education generally and teacher education for Indians particularly. Perhaps the high water mark for Indian education was the establishment upon the distinct recommendation of the Wilks Committee of the co-educational Springfield Training College, renamed in 1966 as the Springfield College of Education (SCE), situated in D'Aintree Avenue, Asherville, Durban (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 412).

The SCE opened its doors on 20 August 1951 to 107 students from Sastri College and 18 students from the Durban Indian Girls’ High School (Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 394; 1995(c) : 375; see also, SCE, 1998 : 5; 1999, 11; SAIDE, 1995(a) : 24; 1995(b) : 230). At this stage the fundamental mission of the college was to train teachers for the primary school.

As early as 1952 the college offered matriculation plus one year of training for men and women as well as a Junior Certificate plus two years' training, described as the Natal Teachers' Senior Certificate (NTSC) for women. By 1952 the Natal Teachers' Diploma (NTD) which was an REQV 12 qualification, became compulsory for all male students. From 1963 the REQV 12 became compulsory for all candidates at SCE. However, from 1958 the Natal Teachers' Senior Diploma (NTSD) (REQV 13) was instituted at SCE.
as an optional course following upon the completion of the NTD (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 395-396; see also, SCE, 1998: 5; 1999: 12 - 13). This latter qualification enabled teachers to teach at secondary schools particularly in the scarce subjects such as Mathematics, Science, English, Afrikaans, Art and so on in Indian schools.

In 1966 Indian education came under the national control of the newly-established Department of Indian Affairs (DIA). This Department instituted a compulsory three-year post-matriculation (REQV 13) diploma course for all students seeking admission to SCE. These were:

- Education Diploma: Junior Primary
- Education Diploma: Senior Primary
- Education Diploma: Lower Secondary

In 1973 with the introduction of a differentiated system of education, the teacher education programme at SCE underwent metamorphosis. Simultaneously, the various diplomas on offer changed to the following:

- Education Diploma: Pre-primary and Junior Primary
- Education Diploma: Senior Primary
- Education Diploma: Junior Secondary

(Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 413)

In 1985, following the pattern at White colleges, SCE began offering the four-year education diploma (REQV 14). These were for PRESET initial training and comprised the following courses:

- Higher Education Diploma: Junior Primary
- Higher Education Diploma: Senior Primary with specialization in specific subjects
Higher Education Diploma: Non-Graduate (Secondary) with main specialization and second specialization subjects

(Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 415; see also, SCE, 1998: 5)

In addition to the provision of these four-year diplomas on 23 October 1987 regulations providing for the establishment of the college Council and Senate were promulgated. The Administration: House of Delegates, Department of Education and Culture, had concluded an agreement with the University of Durban-Westville (UD-W) on 7 May 1987 which provided for collaboration between UD-W and SCE with regard to teacher education, use of facilities, exchange of lecturing staff, accreditation of courses offered at the college and so forth (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 415; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 230).

Insofar as DE courses for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of Indian teachers were concerned SCE also played a most significant role. For example, as early as 1968, SCE offered DE courses for teachers leading to the REQV 12 qualification. In 1974 - 75 and again in 1978 - 79 and 1981 - 82 teachers who were in possession of an REQV 12 qualification were provided with an opportunity to enrol for the Education Diploma courses on offer at the college. These courses followed the Junior Primary, Senior Primary or Junior Secondary directions of study. These courses were in fact equal in terms of academic complexity and depth to the full time courses on offer. Candidates wrote the same examinations as the full time PRESET students of the college (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 427).

As from 1987 the SCE was converted into a dual mode institution offering both PRESET courses to full time students and formal, award bearing INSET courses for teachers in service. In 1991 the SCE became an open institution admitting students to both PRESET and INSET courses on a non-racial basis (Bagwandeen, 1995(c): 375; see also, SCE, 1998: 5).
These INSET courses also were provided through DE. Courses ranged from the REQV 11 to REQV 14 courses. The latter included HEDs for the pre-primary and junior primary phases and the senior primary phase as well as FDEs in various subjects both at primary and secondary school level.

These DE courses at SCE proved to be a veritable godsend to the large number of educators who wished to upgrade and improve their professional qualifications. Many of them had lacked the opportunity previously for a multitude of reasons for any kind of professional upgrading programmes. Not only did these courses improve the professional status and qualifications of teachers thereby helping to elevate the praxis of teaching at the chalkface but they also proved to be a most powerful catalyst in encouraging teachers to pursue further studies. This was enhanced in terms of the articulation agreements and understanding reached between the college and universities such as UNISA, UD-W, RAU, the University of Natal and others. Finally, the experience was hailed as a nonpareil in boosting the morale of these educators (Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 427).

6.2.2. AIMS OF SCE

It is interesting to note that the Prospectus of the SCE (1998) did not elaborate on the mission statement or the aims and objectives of the college. However, it is stated that the SCE was a teacher education institution which was open to all irrespective of race, colour or creed (SCE, 1998: 11).

Primarily, the college aimed to provide both PRESET for full time students and formal, award bearing INSET courses of acceptable standards and quality. The courses were orientated to equip educators with those essential competencies that would lead to a positive elevation of education at the ground level. The courses were in consonance with the aim of upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers within the parameters stipulated by the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for
Teacher Education of the Department of Education (DOE, 1995 - 1996). As such the college aimed to maintain the paradigm determined for standards and quality assurance for colleges of education throughout the country.

6.2.3 ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

As indicated earlier the SCE became a dual mode institution offering both PRESET for initial teacher education courses to full time candidates and formal, award bearing INSET programmes leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of underqualified and qualified teachers through DE. Our concern at this stage is with the latter category.

Access to the courses on offer were restricted to serving teachers and were determined as stated previously in terms of the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education (DOE, 1995 - 1996). The admission requirements to the Education Diploma has been synthesized by the Department of Education as follows:

- An unqualified or underqualified teacher without a senior certificate may be admitted to a programme of study leading to a three-year Diploma in Education if the candidate
  - has five years of teaching experience
  - has successfully completed a series of tests administered by the institution concerned

- An unqualified teacher with or without a senior certificate (REQV 10) who has been admitted to the programme of study leading to a three-year Diploma in Education and who has completed part one (1/3) will be classified as REQV 11 and on completion of part two (2/3) will be classified REQV 12.
A teacher with standard 8, a PTC (Primary Teachers' Certificate) and five years' teaching experience (currently on REQV 11) may be admitted to part two of the Diploma in Education. On completion of part two the teacher concerned will be classified as REQV 12.

A teacher with a senior certificate and a PTC (on REQV 12) may also be admitted to part two of the Diploma in Education. However, on completion of part two the teacher will remain on REQV 12.

Teachers with a matriculation plus two years' training (REQV 12) will be admitted to the course leading to the Diploma in Education.


Access to the HED and FDE programmes was granted to those teachers on level 1 or level 2 and who were already in possession of the Education Diploma or the equivalent professional qualifications on the category REQV 13. Further, all candidates for diplomas were subject to strict selection procedures (SCE, 1998: 16-17).

The Senate Sub-Committee for Selection of the College also followed stipulated guidelines for the selection of candidates where the demand for admission to a particular course exceeded the number determined by the Department of Education and Culture for that course. The procedure was as follows:

For the FDE courses:

- Candidates who were in possession of a Secondary Education Diploma and had specialized in the subject applied for and had university credits in the subject concerned were given first preference.
• Candidates who had a Secondary Education Diploma and had specialized in the subject applied for and were teaching the subject concerned were given second preference.

• Candidates who had a Secondary Education Diploma and had specialized in the subject applied for but were not teaching the subject were given third preference.

• Candidates who had a Senior Primary Education Diploma and were teaching the subject applied for were given fourth preference.

• Candidates who had a Senior Primary Education Diploma and were not teaching the subject applied for were excluded from the schedule concerned.

For the HED courses:

• Junior Primary
  • All Heads of Department at the Junior Primary phase were given first preference.
  • Candidates who were teaching at the Junior Primary phase and had specialized in Junior Primary were given second preference.

• Senior Primary
  • Candidates who had specialized in the subject concerned and were teaching the subject were given first preference.
Those who had specialized in the subject applied for but were not teaching the subject were given second preference.

Generally, candidates in all of the above instances were considered in strict order of seniority according to their nominal date of appointment.

The courses were offered in English. The course material comprised primarily printed materials produced by the academic staff. Reference was made to a plethora of textbooks as additional reading materials for the candidates. In addition, face-to-face tuition and practical work were provided in certain subjects during school vacations and on weekends.

The courses for each subject were designed by the lecturers in the respective departments. The syllabuses and curriculum were drawn up in collaboration with a number of stakeholders including representatives from UD-W, the Department of Education and Culture, the organized teaching profession and educators from schools. These were subsequently ratified by the Senate of the college and of UD-W before implementation. Study guides and tutorial material were predicated on the principles of guided didactic conversation as advocated by Holmberg and were commensurate with the current trends in DE (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 230).

Learner support was provided in a number of ways. As already indicated lectures on a face-to-face contact tuition basis and practical work such as that in the Sciences and Computer Science were provided during school vacations and weekends. The extent of this contact varied from course to course. Further, learner support was offered through personal interviews with lecturers, communication between students and lecturers via the post in the form of tutorial letters and through telephonic interaction between lecturers and students. Students were encouraged to visit the college as often as possible. The library at SCE was especially opened from Monday to Friday till about 18h00 each day. On Saturdays the library was open until midday. This schedule was
maintained for the distinct benefit of the DE candidates. During the vacations when orientation classes and face-to-face contact sessions were held the library also remained open.

Pre-programme counselling was offered to students in the form of a pre-registration orientation programme. When the selection of students was completed the programme was presented to the successful candidates in various centres. Details concerning the courses, structure of the curriculum, the syllabus of each course, the *modus operandi* of the administration, examination details and other matters of concern were fully discussed with the students at these sessions.

In-programme counselling was also offered. A guidance counsellor had been appointed to handle matters of a personal nature affecting students. Students could also contact the lecturers or Heads of Departments for problems of an academic nature and the Vice-Rector delegated the task of in-service matters or the Registrar with respect to administrative queries. The counsellor was responsible, amongst other things, for the implementation of appropriate counselling policy from time to time (SAIDE, 1995(b): 231).

The college was responsible for setting its own examinations and for appointing external examiners. External examiners were appointed for all courses and years of study. They were generally from the UD-W in terms of the aforementioned agreement concluded between the two institutions.

Various examination centres were used throughout the province. The centres were determined in terms of the spatial demographics of the students enrolled for the various courses.

Assessment of the candidates in the examination comprised traditional unseen papers at the end of the course. Examinations were generally held in January of each year.
before schools reopened. This was an instruction handed down to the SCE by the Department of Education and Culture to eschew the critical chaos besetting schools when teachers were away on study and examination leave during October - November.

The total examination mark comprised 25 per cent of the continuous assessment of assignments and 75 per cent of the examination mark. Continuous assessment constituted both assignments and practical work especially in the Sciences and Computer Science programmes (SCE, 1998: 27-40; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 231).

The assignments and practical work were assessed by the college lecturers. The usual turn around time for assignments was approximately 30 days. The Heads of Departments for the various subjects were responsible for monitoring the quality of teaching and overseeing the marking of the assignments. Arrangements had been made for the teachers enrolled for any course to make representations to the Head of Department or the Vice-Rector delegated the duty of administering the DE courses to discuss issues of concern apropos the marks allocated for assignments or the practical work. Staff encouraged feedback from the teachers with respect to the appraisal of their courses. Principally, no provision was made for any appeal against the final examination mark obtained although this depended on the circumstances surrounding such an appeal (SAIDE, 1995(b): 231).

6.2.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

The SCE had a college Council which was established, as has been mentioned, in 1987. The Council comprised Ministerial representatives as well as representatives of the Department of Education and Culture, UD-W, the community, the organized teaching profession, Senate and the SRC of the full time students of the college (SCE, 1998: 6, see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 232).
The Council was responsible for recommending staff appointments to the college, the overall management of the college, with regard to general policy, and in the disciplining of students. It had some say in the financial affairs and in matters concerning the disciplining of staff. It had, however, little or no authority over the dismissal of staff (SAIDE, 1995(b): 232).

All academic matters fell under the jurisdiction of the college Senate. This included the approval of subject syllabuses, determining selection criteria for students and promotion criteria for staff, appointment of examiners, introduction of new courses, processing and ratifying of examination results and so on. The Senate comprised the Executive Management of the college, Heads of Departments, elected staff representatives, nominated representatives of the Department of Education and Culture, UD-W, University of Natal, University of Zululand, Council representatives, the SRC of the full time students and representatives of the organized teaching profession (SCE, 1998: 7; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 232).

The chief executive officer of the college was the Rector who was assisted by a Vice-Rector (PRESET) and a Vice-Rector (INSET). A Registrar was responsible for all administrative matters including the library. While there was an SRC for the PRESET students no provision had been made for an SRC for the students studying at the college through DE.

6.2.5 **THE ROLE OF THE SCE IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION**

As noted earlier, prior to 1991 the SCE was responsible only for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers of Indian origin. Indeed, by 1990 there were only 130 Indian teachers with a qualification less than REQV 13. The SCE was principally responsible for the upgrading and improvement of the professional qualifications of Indian teachers up to this time.
Particularly for teachers of Indian origin also, as a result of the truly magnanimous gesture on the part of the educational authorities at the time in offering the DE courses for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers, the sweeping tide of regression was transformed into a rapid flow of professional progression. Out of a total of approximately 11 000 Indian teachers by 1991 there were less than 75 teachers without the REQV 13 qualification (Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 440).

After 1991 the SCE no longer considered its students in terms of racial appellations. However, because of economic constraints, admission to the various courses was limited by injunction of the Department of Education and Culture. The college offered the following DE courses:

- Higher Education Diploma with specialization in:
  - Junior Primary
  - Natural Science
  - History
  - Geography

- Further Diploma in Education
  - Afrikaans for the Senior Primary School
  - Afrikaans for the Secondary School
  - Biology
  - English for the Primary School
  - Mathematics for the Primary School
  - Mathematics for the Secondary School
  - Computer Science / Study
  - Physical Science
  - Physical Education
  - Natural Science
Technical Drawing (Part time and DE)
Metalwork (Part time and DE)
Woodwork (Part time and DE)

Diploma in Resource Centre Management
Education Diploma with specialization in

Junior Primary
Natural Science
History
Geography

(Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 441 - 452; 1995(c) : 375 - 376).

As will be observed from the Prospectus (SCE, 1998 : 28 - 51) all of these courses have direct relevance to the classroom situation. Further, the courses were designed to improve and broaden the educators' academic strengths in the subject and at the same time to underpin the didactical and methodological perspectives for successful implementation for the benefit of learners. In this way the SCE courses affirmed cogently the fundamental objectives of ensuring that the upgrading and improvement of the academic and professional qualifications of teachers enrolled for the courses were directly linked to improvement of competencies and not just 'paper-chase'.

As at 26 May 1998 the statistics obtained from the administration of the in-service division of the college revealed that courses and intake had been limited to the following as indicated in table 6.6.

The SCE was fully conscious of the fact that as a provider of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN cognizance had to be taken of the clientele being served. Many of the teachers enrolled for the various courses were mainly living and teaching in the outlying, rural areas. Facilities and infrastructure such
as electricity and libraries, transport and other forms of communication are seriously lacking in these areas (Bagwandeen, 1997(c): 358; see also, Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995: 76 - 77).

Consequently, the international model of the application of interactive telecommunications, use of computer-assisted learning and other modern media which are common place in developed countries such as the UK and Canada, and in some parts of developing countries such as in India, can hardly be utilized generally in KZN. This was the critical paradox confronting the SCE in its role as a provider of the state-of-the-art DE programmes for teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications (Bagwandeen, 1997(c): 358).
### Table 6.6: Student Statistics for 1998: Distance Education Courses: Springfield College of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Combination</th>
<th>1st Year</th>
<th>2nd Year</th>
<th>3rd Year</th>
<th>4th Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Diploma:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans (SP)</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans (SEC)</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics (Primary)</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics (Secondary)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Study</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Science</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Diploma M + 3 (4 Year):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Diploma M + 3 (2 Year):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Year Course for M + 3 Candidates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Drawing</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodwork</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalwork</td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>1064</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1577</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Springfield College of Education, 1996-05-26
6.2.6 **SUMMATION**

There can be no abnegation of the fact that from its inception in 1951 the SCE played a dynamic and pivotal role in KZN as a provider of teacher education. Indeed, the SCE had established itself as an educational landmark. Its graduates and diplomates are to be found not only throughout the length and breadth of South Africa but also in many distant parts of the world. They are all highly respected as educators wherever they have established their roots (SCE, 1998: 16).

Latterly, with the diminishing enrolment of the PRESET candidates for initial teacher education programmes by the official dictates of the KZNDEC, the role of SCE as a provider of DE for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in KZN had assumed significant proportions. This role underscored the animated debate concerning the crucial goal of strengthening the effectiveness of the educators as professionals as well as practitioners by developing both academic and teaching skills (Bagwandeen, 1995(c): 276).

Despite the acerbic and often virulent parochialism and the mordant contention bordering on vituperation by truly paternalistic and highly qualified educationists, many of whom hold doctoral degrees, that educators trying to upgrade and improve their qualifications are indulging in mere ‘paper-chase’ (Hofmeyr and Hall, 1995: 35; 95; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 96; 122), the SCE was indubitably making a profound contribution in ensuring that educators are appropriately qualified. (Bagwandeen, 1997(c): 359; 1995(c): 376). The SCE was deeply conscious of this role as part of its total mission in the province of KZN.

In informal discussions many educators in KZN enrolled for the SCE courses through DE have gratefully acknowledged that they have become better educators as a result of their experience and initiative to upgrade and improve their qualifications. Principals of schools where these educators are serving also endorse the view that such educators have indubitably benefitted enormously from such endeavours and certainly
have become more dedicated and competent teachers.

Be that as it may, as we shall observe at a later stage, that like its sister DE colleges in KZN, the SCE in 1998 was on the verge of a decidedly major metamorphosis as a provider of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. Such a situation, understandably, was both traumatic and disturbing to staff and students at the college. The angst was virtually palpable. However, in the prodromal spirit of progress, 1998 marked the final chapter in the existence of the SCE as the provider of PRESET for the initial training of teachers and as a DE institution for the provision of teacher education leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

6.3 THE NATAL COLLEGE OF EDUCATION (NCE)

6.3.1 ORIGINS OF NCE

The NCE, with its headquarters situated in Longmarket Street, Pietermaritzburg, had its roots in the Natal Training College which was started in 1908 as a PRESET college for the full time initial training of White teachers at the primary school level and the founding of the College of Education for Further Training in the old Harward School in Havelock Road, Pietermaritzburg on 1 January 1977 by the NED. With the establishment of this latter college the NED subtly accepted the principle of DE as a strategy for upgrading and the improvement of the qualifications of teachers already in service in the schools under its jurisdiction (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 194; 1995(a) : 23; see also, NCE, 1993 : iv).

The courses initially offered by the College of Education for Further Training led either to the three-year Diploma in Education for the primary school or to the Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) for the primary school which was to be a one-year diploma following upon the three-year diploma. From January 1980 the college was authorized
to offer in addition the HDE for the Junior Primary phase (NCE, 1993 : iv). 

Regional meetings were organized at this stage to meet with students enrolled for courses at the college to discuss problems. These meetings were held at Pietermaritzburg, Newcastle, Empangeni, Ixopo, Port Shepstone and Durban. Arrangements were made to conduct practicals for the Natural Science course over weekends. Further, the new college had become a popular venue for non-formal INSET courses and seminars for teachers organized by subject advisers of the NED in conjunction with college lecturers (NCE, 1993 : iv).

The first college examinations were written in January 1979. A total of 467 White teachers presented themselves for such examinations. Centres for the examinations were established at Dundee, Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Pinetown, Empangeni and Port Shepstone.

On 14 May 1980 the first diploma ceremony of the college was held in the Pietermaritzburg City Hall. Some 333 teachers received the Education Diplomas and the HDEs.

In 1981 Coloured teachers were admitted to the Education Diploma course. Subsequently, in 1982 they were also allowed to enrol for the HDE course on offer at the college (NCE, 1993 : v).

However, by this time the future of the college became uncertain. A Departmental investigation had been launched to determine the future course to be followed. The recommendation made by the investigating team was that the college should continue to offer DE courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of Coloured and White teachers. Further, it was suggested that the college should expand its activities in the light of educational developments occurring in South Africa generally and in KZN in particular (NCE, 1993 : v).
At the beginning of 1986, in terms of the rationalization and streamlining of teacher education by the NED, the College of Education for Further Training was amalgamated with the PRESET Natal Training College to become the Natal College of Education. (NCE, 1993: v; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a): 23; 1995(b): 194). The new college offered both PRESET initial training for junior primary teachers as well as DE programmes for teacher education leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers.

During the 1980s the declining numbers of learners in White schools impacted on the number of teachers required. In 1986 a new constitutional dispensation also transferred control of White education from the provinces to the House of Assembly. The central Department of Education proposed the closure of the PRESET initial training programme. Despite protests and the presentation of a petition with 10 000 signatures to the State President, the PRESET section of the college was phased out at the end of 1987 (NCE, 1993: v).

The NCE then continued to function as a purely DE institution for teacher education. On 27 February 1989 after lengthy negotiations between the college, the NED and the KDEC, a formal agreement was signed to allow Black teachers in the service of the KDEC to enrol at the NCE (NCE, 1993: vi; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 323). At this time some 100 Black teachers enrolled at the college. At the end of 1991 sixteen of the first intake of Black teachers received their HDEs.

The NCE had co-operative agreements with the Faculty of Education of the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, for the development of various programmes. In addition, the college was involved in a variety of outreach programmes with NGOs and networks with other colleges of education (SAIDE, 1995(a): 23 - 24; 1995(b): 194).
6.3.2 **AIMS OF NCE**

The aims of the NCE were encapsulated in its mission statement which reads:

(In the light of the demands of education in the region and the needs of its teachers, the Natal College of Education commits itself to provide, through distance education, relevant and purposeful courses that are aimed at increased teacher competence and enhanced pupil development.)

(NCE, 1998 : 1)

The college in the implementation of its mission statement aimed at ensuring that its staff comprised highly qualified professional lecturers. It offered a wide variety of opportunities for teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications. It did not preclude teachers on the basis of race anymore. It also provided, as an integral part of its aims, regular opportunities for face-to-face contact with students at its campus in Pietermaritzburg. It boasted a well-stocked library to support all courses of study and this facility was made available to teachers enrolled for study at the NCE.

6.3.3 **ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY**

Access to the various courses on offer complied with the regulations as stipulated in the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education (DOE, 1995 - 1996) and as indicated for the SCE as aforementioned by the Department of Education. The NCE categorically and explicitly stated that only a limited number of candidates could be accepted each year. Eligible students were to be admitted in order of application and payment until all places were filled (NCE, 1998 : 4).

Admission requirements were further stipulated by the college in terms of the various courses (NCE, 1998 : 5 - 9; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 287 - 288). These were
as follows:

○ For the Certificate in Education for the Junior Primary School, a senior certificate and a two-year teachers' certificate.

○ For the Higher Diploma in Education for the Junior Primary School, a senior certificate and a three-year Diploma in Education or a Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD).

○ For the Certificate in Education for the Senior Primary School, a senior certificate and the PTC (Primary Teachers' Certificate).

○ For the Diploma in Education for the Senior Primary School, a senior certificate and a two-year teachers' certificate.

○ For the Higher Diploma in Education for the Senior Primary School, a three-year Diploma in Education or the PTD.

○ For the Higher Diploma in Education for the Secondary School, a senior certificate and a three-year Diploma in Education or the Senior Teachers' Diploma (STD).

○ For the Further Diploma in Education: Administration and Management (Primary School), an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher. Preference was given to persons in a management position in the primary school. A minimum of 5 years of teaching experience was also required.

○ For the Further Diploma in Education: Administration and Management (Secondary School), an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher. Preference was given to persons in a
management position in a secondary school. A minimum of 5 years of teaching experience was also stipulated.

- For the Further Diploma in Education: Primary School Subjects, an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher and teaching experience in the primary school.

- For the Further Diploma in Education: Computer Literacy, an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher. No prior knowledge or experience of computers was required.

- For the Further Diploma in Education: Zulu Non-Mother-Tongue, an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher. Previous knowledge of Zulu was not a requirement. The course was not for mother-tongue speakers of an Nguni language.

- For the Further Diploma in Education: Teacher Competences, an approved professional qualification evaluated as Category C (REQV 13) or higher. The course was restricted to teachers teaching at a Toyota Teach school in the Umlazi / Umbumbulu area.

(NCE, 1998: 5 - 9)

The NCE had a fundamental admission policy pertaining to the FDEs. In addition to the minimum requirements as stipulated in the foregoing a selection procedure for candidates enrolling for the various FDE courses was also applied (NCE, 1998: 4).

The course materials comprised mainly printed study guides, produced by the academic staff, and textbooks. Minor use was also made of video- and audio-cassettes, computer-aided instruction and formal lectures. In the Sciences, experimental kits were provided to the candidates enrolled for the courses. The
medium of instruction was English although in a few courses Afrikaans was used.

The design of the courses was initiated by discussion at management level. Staff workshops were then held to discuss learners' needs, proposed outcomes of the course, student profiles, the curriculum, critical skills and methodologies to ensure that an impact was made in the teaching methods by the students in the classrooms (SAIDE, 1995(b): 194).

Before course materials were developed the necessary permission and approval for such courses were obtained from the HEDCOM. A team of writers was then assembled to develop materials in collaboration with the subject heads. Lecturers were allowed professional latitude to utilize a plethora of didactical concepts in course design. The caveat was that the curriculum for the respective course was covered (SAIDE, 1995(b): 194). Subject matter specialists, graphic and text designers, editors, administrators and managers collaborated to produce such course materials.

Learner support was offered through personal communication between students and tutors via the post and telephonically. Lecturers were available for consultations through individual arrangements and appointments by students. Short contact courses in each subject were also held on the college campus over weekends and/or during school vacations. In addition, tutorial meetings were held every semester.

NCE also had adequate library facilities. It was not open during evenings but was open on some Saturdays and selected days during school vacations.

Staff travelled out to six centres to meet students and assist them with difficult concepts, preparation for examinations, issues concerning assignments and general problems. The college also had established ten learning centres at Pietermaritzburg, Durban, Newcastle, Dundee, Vryheid, Mkuze, Ulundi, Eshowe, Madadeni and Ezakheni which were supervised by a local co-ordinator or liaison officer.
Supplementary learner support was offered by locally-based academic support. This was described as Supplemental Instruction and was provided for high risk subjects. The college had trained a number of student counsellors for this support programme (SAIDE, 1995(b): 195; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b): 298).

Further, with respect to counselling, the college arranged both pre-programme and in-programme counselling for students enrolled for the various courses. The *Prospectus* (1998) of the NCE also aimed to provide explicit course outlines and guides for the candidates. Moreover, an administrative Head of Department with the requisite expertise in the relevant admission criteria assessed the students. Subject lecturers also offered students appropriate advice and guidance as and when required.

There was also a compulsory 'residential' orientation programme at NCE conducted over two to three days. The fundamental purpose was to provide an opportunity for the candidates to interact with Heads of Departments for advice and possible change of subjects. Further, subject lecturers were available during the year including during the evenings to assist the teachers enrolled for courses at NCE with various queries.

Tutorial letters also provided a useful channel of communication and counselling. They adumbrated, *inter alia*, specific aspects of assignments and other related information. A student handbook was sent to each student explicating policy and procedures (SAIDE, 1995(b): 195).

The college was responsible for setting its own examinations. External examiners were generally not appointed by the college except in certain selected subjects. The assessment strategies included traditional unseen papers at the end of the course, continuous assessment of individual students which included group work and projects and assessment of school-based work.

Various examination centres were used at Pietermaritzburg, Durban, Empangeni, Port Shepstone, Pinetown and Newcastle. Examinations constituted 75 per cent of the final
mark with the balance of 25 per cent being obtained from the continuous assessment of assignments, group work and projects. Satisfactory performance by way of assignments also provided access to examinations. Assignments were marked by academics and markers at the college centre and by local tutors. The usual turn around time for assignments was between 30 to 40 days. School experience was assessed by the principal of the school in which the teacher was serving.

Students who wished to appeal against the final grade could do so in writing. When such an appeal was made, an investigation was undertaken. If deemed necessary, re-marking was carried out. Otherwise a review of the examination script was undertaken by the moderator and the examiner. Written appeals were considered with respect to dissatisfaction expressed by a student in connection with the quality of teaching or marks obtained for assignments (SAIDE, 1995(b): 196).

6.3.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

As with the SCE, the NCE had a college Council responsible for policy determination. The Council had representatives from the organized teaching profession, local community, Department of Education and Culture, the University of Natal, the student body and the academic and administrative staff. The Council was responsible for the financial affairs of the college and appointment of staff. It had some jurisdiction over the disciplining of students and overall management of the college.

The college Senate, as in the case of the SCE also, was responsible for academic matters generally. This included approving subject syllabuses, determining promotion criteria, appointment of examiners, introduction of new courses and so on. However, unlike the SCE, the Senate at NCE seemed to have little or no say in determining selection criteria for students.

Various sub-committees of the Senate were set up throughout the year. They reported on issues such as the calendar, examinations, finances and academic matters.
The college did not have an SRC. Notwithstanding, student representatives served on Council and in the Senate.

The chief executive officer of the college was the Rector who was assisted by a Vice-Rector. The academic staff comprised Senior Heads of Departments, Heads of Departments, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers. There was a Registrar who was responsible for all administrative staff and functions. A librarian was delegated the task of all matters related to the library of the NCE (NCE, 1993: ix - x).

6.3.5 THE ROLE OF THE NCE IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

The NCE played a meaningful role prior to 1990 in improving and upgrading the qualifications of White teachers mainly and to some extent of teachers in Coloured schools. Thereafter, when it became an open college, like the SCE, it enrolled teachers from all groups for formal, award bearing INSET courses.

The NCE regarded such upgrading and improvement of basic qualifications as being extremely important for at least three distinct reasons: the improvement of the professional competency of the teacher, promotion prospects for educators and category improvement (NCE, 1993: iii).

As indicated in paragraph 6.3.3 a variety of certificates and diplomas for teachers at primary and secondary schools were offered. It is not intended to repeat those here. However, these courses were most certainly serving the extremely useful purpose of upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers across the educational spectrum.
Table 6.7 below provides the necessary statistics with regard to the enrolment of teachers at NCE in 1997 for the various courses. These statistics were obtained from the college administration.

Table 6.7  **STUDENT STATISTICS FOR 1997 : DISTANCE EDUCATION COURSES : NATAL COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education for the Junior Primary School</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education :</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Diploma in Education :</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Primary</td>
<td>925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Primary</td>
<td>1 336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education :</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Literacy</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Competences</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Management :</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zulu (Non-Mother-Tongue)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>3 311</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is interesting to note that the Department of Education and Culture did not stipulate any specific number for enrolment in each of the courses offered by the NCE as it did for the SCE. Thus, the NCE could market its courses *ad lib*.

As already indicated, the certificates and diplomas complied with the requirements of the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education (DOE,
1995-1996). However, candidates were advised to be selective and to choose the fields of study which were relevant to their present or future teaching situation (NCE, 1998: 3).

6.3.6 **SUMMATION**

The NCE, like the SCE, had undoubtedly contributed much in the field of advancing the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE. In its range of certificates and general and further diplomas it attempted to focus largely on the requirements of the schools served by the educators enrolled for the various courses.

In this regard it also endeavoured to satisfy the goal of achieving its mission and aim of meeting the criteria for employment of teachers in South Africa. The NCE also ensured that the nature and scope of the courses offered to teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications were recognized also for the improvement of the competencies of such educators at the classroom level. Like the SCE, the NCE also devoted its energies to meeting the needs of the disadvantaged as well as the underqualified teachers in the remote rural areas of KZN.

The NCE together with the other colleges of education in KZN was enmeshed in the throes of the economic constraints and uncertainties characterizing educational policy development in the province. As with the SCE, the role of NCE in providing opportunities for teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications through DE came under review in 1998.
6.4 THE UMLAIZI COLLEGE FOR FURTHER EDUCATION (UCFE)

6.4.1 ORIGINS OF UCFE

The UCFE was set up by the KDEC in 1983 in order to improve and upgrade the professional and academic qualifications of Black teachers in KZN who had been categorized as underqualified (UCFE, 1998(a): 20; 1997: 11; see also, Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 322; SAIDE, 1995(a) : 24; 1995(b) : 260). The initial number of staff appointed was eight. The college was funded by the Anglo-American Chairman's Fund at the cost of half a million rand. The building in which the college was housed initially was a hostel in Umlazi, Durban, that had been converted to provide office space (UCFE, 1997 : 11; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b) : 260).

This project for the upgrading and the improvement of Black teachers in KZN was at that time a collaborative effort between the KDEC and the Faculty of Education of the University of Zululand. As a tertiary institution and the first of its kind for Black teachers in the province, the UCFE was expected to launch innovative programmes as an investment orientated towards preparing Black teachers for a more critical role in leading the nation towards a new democracy.

At this stage in the KDEC only 14 102 teachers possessed matriculation plus a teachers' diploma and some 1 136 teachers had a degree plus a teachers' diploma. Some 6 914 teachers had no professional qualifications and approximately 6 000 teachers possessed some form of professional qualifications but had not passed the matriculation examination (Bagwandeen, 1991(b) : 319). In essence, then, a total of 46 per cent of Black educators employed in schools under the control of the KDEC were without the minimum of the REQV 13 qualification in order to be deemed professionally qualified.

Consequently, the college embarked on an ambitious project to remediate this cataclysmic hiatus and transform the rather bleak scenario characterizing education for
Blacks in KZN. The college attempted to achieve this objective by inaugurating the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate and the Senior Secondary Teachers' Certificate. Understandably, a short while later, both these courses were rightfully considered inadequate to address the needs of teachers.

In 1986, consequently, two new courses were introduced:

- The Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma (SPTD) for teachers in the primary schools; and,
- The Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) for teachers in secondary schools.

The response from Black teachers for these courses was quite remarkable. Up to 1998 the UCFE had awarded approximately 3 500 SPTDs and 1 050 STDs (UCFE, 1998(a): 20). Both these courses were designed by college staff and ratified by the Department of Education and Training in Pretoria as well as the Faculty of Education, University of Zululand.

In 1992 the college inchoated a Certificate in Education (PTC) for unqualified primary school teachers. This was considered a revolutionary, formal, award bearing INSET strategy. It promised to coalesce aspects of a relevant and cost-effective model of teacher education for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. The programme was also a timely response to the urgent need to address positively the circumstances of 7 000 uncertificated primary school teachers predominating in rural schools in KZN.

By 1995 1 200 teachers had successfully completed the requirements for this PTC. This empowered teachers to professional status and provided them with the requisite access to further professional upgrading and improvement of qualifications to the Education Diploma level (UCFE, 1998(a) : 20).
In the same year also a Pre-Primary Teachers' Certificate was initiated as a research project funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). This programme was a partnership effort towards Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy at national and professional level. A total of 600 ECD practitioners registered for this certificate (UCFE, 1998 : 20).

In 1995 also the UCFE moved from Umlazi. The college relocated itself in Greyville, Durban, in the premises occupied by the former Bechet College of Education.

The college at this stage had a staff of more than one hundred. The focus of programmes had shifted from the emphasis on merely providing DE courses for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers to issues of quality (UCFE, 1998(a) : 21). In addition the UCFE contemplated other programmes directed towards encompassing the entire school and community. Further, the college involved itself in strategies that contributed to its being a relevant and technologically oriented DE institution (UCFE, 1998(a) : 21).

6.4.2 AIMS OF UCFE

The UCFE outlined its aims and objectives succinctly as an institution committed to meeting the challenges of teacher education in innovative and practical ways. It hoped to inculcate in students a critical attitude towards their important role in a non-racial South Africa. It was concerned with the upgrading and improvement of the professional and academic qualifications of both unqualified and underqualified teachers as well as those who were deemed to be qualified.

The college enunciated its objectives to pursue the quest for academic excellence through:

- On-going research in teacher education at all levels.
Devising meaningful and practical strategies to address the problems facing adult learners.

Continued improvement in the quality of teaching and teaching staff.

Recognition of the inadequate educational preparation of students and to offer special assistance through the institution of meaningful academic support programmes and student counselling.

Inculcation of human values and professionalism which would better equip students to impart quality education as teachers in the classroom.

Motivation of students to foster in their charges a spirit of goodwill and tolerance so that they could find their proper place in a democratic non-racial society.

(UCFE, 1997: 10; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b): 260)

In terms of the developments in education and training concerning the promulgation of the NQF, the recommendations incorporated in the Draft White Paper on Higher Education and the emerging needs in the country as a whole, the UCFE had broadened its aims and objectives to respond to the looming challenges in terms of outcomes. It was envisaged that these outcomes would motivate, effectively and efficiently, provision of the most needed competences. The broad outcomes propounded by the UCFE were crystallized as follows:

Changing the ethos and philosophical underpilings to redress education and training, but also for sectors in the community in response to their development inclusive of economic development.
Through various interactions with learners, promote critical thinking and problem-solving skills within a variety of life context at personal, interpersonal and societal level.

Through carefully structured learning experiences, predispose learners to move from field to field in lifelong learning.

In partnership with communities, education development agencies, institutions of higher learning and the private sector, facilitate the creation of supportive learning environments or at least the concept thereof to promote quality open learning.

Acquire and share the culture of quality discourse on such issues as policy by learners, teacher educators and other stakeholders.

Predispose learners and providers to meet challenges of education posed by an outcomes-based philosophy that promotes quality learning for all persons in South Africa.

Predispose learners and providers to action research and classic research that encompass development in the field of education and training.

Equip learners and providers with competences to promote awareness of the role of Mathematics, Science and Technology literacies in all communities.

Create an environment that will restore dignity to education and training and daily life in South Africa.

(UCFE, 1998(a) : 22 - 23)
6.4.3 **ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY**

Access to the various courses offered at the UCFE were explicitly stated in its *Prospectus* (UCFE, 1998(a): 25 - 34). The general requirement for any teacher wishing to register at the college was that such a teacher must be in possession of a senior certificate and must be employed as an educator at the time of application.

Further, those applying to study for an Education Diploma (REQV 13) had to be in possession of a teaching qualification such as the PTC as well. Those candidates applying for the Certificate in Education (Pre-Primary) were required to be in possession of a senior certificate and five years' teaching experience in a subsidized post (UCFE, 1998(a): 25). Admission to the FDE programmes on offer as in the case of the SCE and NCE had to satisfy the requirements stipulated in the Norms and Standards and Governance Structures for Teacher Education (DOE, 1995 - 1996). This was stated as the minimum professional qualification rated REQV 13.

The language of instruction for all courses was English. In the design of first year courses emphasis was placed on aspects of communicative and interactive approaches. The objective was to attain a smooth transition focusing on literacy, numeracy and oracy skills, bridging of academic content and underscoring experiential knowledge gained from school situations (SAIDE, 1995(b): 261).

Course materials comprised principally print material such as study guides and tutorial letters. These were supplemented by textbooks and experimental kits. Personal communication between tutors and students via the post and telephone as well as group interaction were utilized to assist students. Minor use was made of audio- and video-tapes, formal lectures, field trips and radio also to augment the presentation of the various courses.
Course designers were responsible for the presentation and examination of the course. The implementation of the PTC course took place both in large group sessions and in small group workshops. In the design of courses specializations such as subject matter, audio-visual designing, graphic and text designing and instructional designing were incorporated. Some departments in the college also worked with consultants in order to improve pedagogy and course books. They also assisted in evaluating activities on an on-going basis (SAIDE, 1995(b): 261).

Learner support was deemed integral to the courses offered as in the case of the SCE and NCE. This was achieved by outreach programmes such as visits to various centres, tutorial letters, study guides, radio, one-to-one counselling, group counselling, pre-programme orientation, networking and the appointment of mentors in schools. Principals were also asked to assist and were considered as crucial for in-programming counselling of teachers enrolled for the courses and who were members of staff at the respective schools of such principals (SAIDE, 1995(b): 261).

An extensive contact tuition programme was organized by the UCFE to address problems experienced by the teachers enrolled for the various courses. For this purpose centres at Ezakheni, University of Zululand, Madadeni, Pietermaritzburg, Port Shepstone and Umlazi were used. There were two major contact sessions for each academic year. The first was held in January in order to give students a good start to the year and the second session was organized during the winter vacation period (UCFE, 1998(a): 41).

Examinations were traditional unseen papers and were held in September - October of each year at the various centres throughout the region. All examinations were set by the UCFE in collaboration with the Faculty of Education at the University of Zululand or any other validating body as follows:
Pre-primary Phase Certificate in Education (PPC) : Provincial and UCFE.

Primary Teachers’ Certificate (PTC) : Provincial and UFCE.

SPTD : University of Zululand and UCFE.

STD : University of Zululand and UCFE.

FDE : Provincial and UCFE.

The diplomas and certificates were issued by the validating bodies aforementioned (UCFE, 1998(a) : 37; see also, SAIDE, 1995(b) : 262).

Assessment of the examination mark followed the year mark system similar to the principle adopted by the SCE and NCE. Assignments, projects and tests were used by the various departments at UCFE to determine performance throughout the year. A year mark which was calculated as the average mark obtained for all the work done throughout the year was awarded to each student.

This average mark constituted 40 per cent of the final examination mark. The remainder of the final mark, 60 per cent, was calculated from the examination. Thus, as the UCFE advised its students, the candidate who performed consistently well throughout the year enjoyed tremendous advantage over those who fared poorly during the year. At the UCFE, as it was at the NCE and the SCE, in view of this system, it was possible for a candidate to pass the final examination and still fail if the marks derived from the continuous assessment of assignments, projects and tests were poor (UCFE, 1998(a) : 40).

Assignments and examination questions comprised long essays, short paragraphs, definitions and multiple-choice questions. Marking of assignments was done by the academic staff at the college, other markers at the various centres and local tutors.
The turn around time for the return of assignments to students ranged between 30 to 40 days (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 262).

The quality of teaching and reliability of assessments given by the markers of assignments and so on were moderated by the Head of Department. Appeals against final grades were made to the Head of Department of the subject concerned. In addition, school experience and teaching practice were assessed at least three times by principals and staff members who submitted their reports to the UCFE (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 262).

6.4.4 ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

A college Council was established at UCFE in 1995. As with the other colleges, the Council was responsible in the main for policy decisions affecting the college. Representation on the Council reflected wide-ranging stakeholder involvement. These were the Department of Education and Culture, college personnel, the organized teaching profession, students and the community at large.

The college also had a Senate which was responsible for the academic matters concerning the college. Representatives from the Department of Education and Culture, University of Zululand, college personnel, organized teaching profession, students and the community served on the Senate.

The chief executive officer of the college was the Rector who was assisted by a Deputy-Rector. In addition, the senior management included a Vice-Rector for Faculty Programmes and Student Support, another Vice-Rector for Faculty Programmes and Assessment and yet another Vice-Rector for Faculty Programmes and Registration. There were also Heads of Departments, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers. A senior administrative officer was responsible for the administrative staff and administrative matters related to the college (UCFE, 1998(a) : 6 - 7).
6.4.5 THE ROLE OF THE UCFE IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

Since its establishment the UCFE played a significant role in the attempt to upgrade and improve the qualifications especially of Black teachers in KZN through the strategy of DE. While the majority of the teachers enrolled for the UCFE courses were from the primary schools, there was also a considerable input for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of Black secondary school teachers.

The courses offered by the UCFE were oriented towards unqualified, underqualified and qualified teachers. For the unqualified teachers the UCFE offered a Certificate in Education (Pre-primary Phase) and a Certificate in Education (Primary Phase). These courses were regarded as access courses to phase one of the Diploma in Education (UCFE, 1997: 18 - 19; 1998(a): 26 - 29).

For those teachers who had completed the requirements of the Certificate in Education the various diplomas such as the Diploma in Education (Junior Primary Phase) or the Diploma in Education (Senior Primary Phase) were offered. These provided the teachers with a professional status at the REQV 13 level.

For teachers at the secondary school level the Diploma in Education (Secondary Phase) was made available. This diploma offered students a number of options with regard to the subjects chosen. Directions of study were in the Humanities, Science and Commerce (UCFE, 1997: 23 - 25; 1998(a): 26 - 31).

The UCFE had also introduced FDEs for the purpose of the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers who were already deemed to be qualified by being graded in terms of their REQV 13 category. These FDE courses were similar to those also offered by the SCE and NCE with some notable differences in emphases.

Thus, the FDE in School Management was designed with a view to providing teachers
with the background to the principles and necessary skills for effective management of schools. Preference for this course was given to educators who were already holding a promotion post such as head of department, deputy-principal or principal of schools. The FDE in Science was intended for teachers in the senior primary classes preferably teaching two of Science, Mathematics or Geography (UCFE, 1997: 26 - 29; 1998(a): 32 - 34).

The goals and mission statements for these various subjects were clearly enunciated (UCFE, 1998(b): 1 - 4; 1998(c): 1 - 51; 1998(d): 1 - 66). However, the focus in each case, as exemplified by the courses offered by SCE and NCE, was on the improvement of the delivery system of each of these disciplines as well as to increase the intellectual perspicacity of educators in terms of academic and pedagogical perspectives in the subjects.

The UCFE also offered an FDE in Zulu as Second Language. The goals of this course were stated as:

- to broaden the teachers’ language expertise to include second language teaching;
- to develop in teachers the ability to critique different second language teaching methodologies;
- to promote the communicative language approach to language teaching;
- to foster love and respect of the Zulu language to non-mother-tongue speakers of Zulu;
- to create an awareness in teacher educators of the challenges related to linguistic diversity.
Consequently, this course provided opportunities for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers who were going to teach Zulu at school level as a second language. The course also took into account different proficiency levels of students in a mixed class with themes catering for basic, medium and advanced Zulu proficiency levels (UCFE, 1997: 29 - 30).

Table 6.8 provides the student statistics for 1997 for the various courses offered by the UCFE. The figures were obtained from the Rector of the College.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education (Pre-primary Phase)</td>
<td>487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education (Primary Phase - PTC)</td>
<td>1 086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education (Primary and Senior Primary)</td>
<td>1 853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education (Secondary)</td>
<td>394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Language (Zulu)</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4 017</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is to be noted also that in the case of the UCFE the Department of Education and Culture did not restrict enrolment as was in the case of the SCE. Further, UCFE also launched what was described as the Vulani Education Unit. This was an umbrella body that aimed to launch and support various teacher education issues, college-school relations, co-operation among various education efforts and in-service initial training of primary school teachers. The main thrust of the Vulani Education Unit INSET programme was improved classroom performance and leading teachers to the REQV
11 level. Further, it enabled teachers with the requisite qualification to enrol for the second year of the Diploma in Education course at any residential college (UCFE, 1997: 27; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a): 24 - 25).

6.4.6 **SUMMATION**

The UCFE commenced its educational apostolate as an institution dedicated to upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of unqualified and underqualified teachers serving in the schools controlled by the KDEC. It originally occupied a disused hostel in Umlazi and later moved to somewhat comparatively more hospitable premises that had been previously used by the Bechet College of Education which had closed.

Certainly, from very small beginnings the UCFE evolved into a major institution fulfilling an important role in teacher education through DE. It attempted from the outset to reduce the abnormally large number of Black teachers who did not possess the minimum qualifications to be classified as professionally qualified teachers by offering them the opportunity to upgrade and improve their qualifications. Over a period of time it began to provide innovative and vital programmes for Black teachers in KZN.

In its quest and pursuit for academic excellence the college introduced various programmes and strategies which compared favourably with those offered by the SCE and NCE in KZN for teachers in service. The UCFE contributed significantly towards preparing Black teachers for the daunting task of rebuilding a feeling of mutual trust and respect between the teachers who were upgrading and improving their academic and professional qualifications and the children in the classrooms. As with the other colleges, the UCFE and its DE programmes for teachers underscored the contention that the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers indubitably enhanced the competencies of the educators and thereby promoted the best interests of education in KZN.
However, as indicated earlier for the SCE and NCE, in 1998 the UCFE also faced the future with a degree of uncertainty. These three colleges were destined for a new future.

6.5 **AMALGAMATION AND RATIONALIZATION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION COLLEGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN KWAZULU-NATAL: THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN COLLEGE FOR OPEN LEARNING (SACOL)**

6.5.1 **ORIGINS OF SACOL**

The SCE, NCE and UCFE as teacher education colleges providing DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN had interesting and colourful histories with respect to their parturition, evolution and development. Prior to 1990, in terms of the political dispensation determined by the apartheid regime, these colleges served the interests of Indian, White and Black teachers respectively. In the post-1990 period the colleges no longer restricted admission to its courses in terms of racial discrimination.

In 1996 then the question arose as to whether there was a need to have three independent institutions under the control of the KZNDEC providing virtually the same service. The serious fiscal constraints facing the province necessitated resolute and tenacious introspection in this regard.

Consequently, a meeting was convened by the Director of Teacher Education in the KZNDEC on 3 December 1996 to consider various options with regard to the provision of teacher education through DE in the province. The Director, in an address to the delegates representing the various stakeholders in this regard, emphasized the fact that these institutions were competing for the same corpus of teachers and were providing similar qualifications. He suggested as a process of rationalization the
possible amalgamation of the three colleges (In-put address by Dr S Z Mbokazi, Director, Teacher Education, KZN, 1996-12-03). It was agreed at this meeting that in the long term a comprehensive restructuring of teacher education through DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers in KZN was in the best interest of education in the province.

A task force comprising representatives from the NCE, SCE and UCFE together with representatives from the Edgewood College of Education was set up to involve other stakeholders in order to broaden the consultative base (Minutes of Meeting called by Dr S Z Mbokazi, 1996-12-03). On 7 March 1997 the task force convened a meeting to consider proactive and practical solutions to the proposed process of rationalization and amalgamation (Minutes of Meeting Re-Provision of INSET and Distance Teacher Education in KZN, 1997-03-07). At this meeting a research committee was appointed comprising one delegate from each of the DE colleges and the Edgewood College of Education, namely, Professor D R Bagwandeen (SCE), Ms N Ntuli (UCFE), Ms A Todd (Edgewood College of Education) and M Steele (NCE).

The brief of the committee was:

'To investigate and report on options for the rationalization of INSET in KZN, including both formal and informal component of INSET teacher education. Because INSET and PRESET together form a professional development continuum, and because there is overlapping at M+2 and M+3 levels between INSET and PRESET colleges, a consideration of the latter colleges cannot be excluded from this planned rationalization.'

(Report of the Sub-Committee on INSET/Distance Education at Colleges in Kwazulu-Natal, 1997-06-03)
On 23 June 1997 the research committee reported back to the task force. It recommended that DE should be treated separately from other forms of INSET. Further, it recommended that the three colleges of education as providers of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN should be amalgamated into a single DE college of education with campuses in Durban and Pietermaritzburg. This recommendation was accepted at the meeting. At this stage also, the Edgewood College of Education withdrew from the process on the basis that PRESET and part time INSET were not included in the recommended model (Amalgamation of Distance Education Colleges in Kwazulu-Natal, Final Reports and Recommendations of the Task Team and Main Committee as Amended following the Meeting of College and Departmental Representatives, 18 March 1998: 1; see also, Minutes of a Meeting of the Committee of College and Departmental Representatives concerned with the Rationalisation of Distance Education Colleges, 1997-06-23).

On 7 October 1997 the task force reported back to a meeting of the main committee. It further appointed another task team of four delegates of each college, namely, SCE, NCE and UCFE, to develop a detailed plan of the rationalization model. The proposal for amalgamation was forwarded to the KZN Department of Education and Culture and to the Provincial Minister of Education for approval.

The task team submitted its report and recommendations to the main committee on 18 March 1998. These were accepted for submission to the KZNDEC, the Education and Labour Relations Council and to other bodies.

The core recommendation was that the three existing providers of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, namely, the SCE, NCE and UCFE, should be:

- amalgamated into a single college with
- campuses of equal stature in Durban and Pietermaritzburg,
to be called the South African College for Open Learning (SACOL),

providing distance courses in teacher and other education and training in accordance with national and international standards,

accessible to all persons in South Africa, and form

part of a network of centres of innovation and excellence in distance education.

(Amalgamation of Distance Education Colleges in Kwazulu-Natal, Final Reports and Recommendations of the Task Team and Main Committee as Amended following the Meeting of College and Departmental Representatives, 18 March 1998: 1).

Thus, on the 31st January 1999 the SCE, the NCE and the UCFE ceased to function as separate colleges of education. In terms of the recommendations aforementioned, SACOL was established as from the 1st February 1999 (Naidoo, 1999(c) : 2; see also, Sunday Times Extra, 1999-01-31). The official opening of the SACOL was held on 13 May 1999 (Daily News, 1999-05-14). The headquarters of SACOL was established at the campus of the former SCE and a satellite campus was established in Pietermaritzburg at the premises of the former NCE.

6.5.2 AIMS OF SACOL

The principle of one state DE college of education providing teacher education for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN has now been implemented with the establishment of SACOL. The aim and mission of this new college, as was suggested by the task team, are pithily enunciated as a commitment to excellence in teacher education and development as well as to extend its range of
courses within the field of adult education and training (SACOL, 1999(a)).

It is envisaged that while the college will be based in KZN it will serve the whole of South Africa generally and KZN particularly in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. The SACOL also committed itself to ensure that it will adhere to national and internationally recognized standards of DE delivery.

6.5.3 **ACCESS AND PROGRAMMES OF STUDY**

The various certificates and diplomas offered by SACOL (1999(a)) are as follows:

- **Certificate in Education** (CE1 : PP) intended to assist in-service ECD practitioners to gain a national professional qualification and recognition as competent educators in the foundation phase. Access to this course is stipulated as having a senior certificate, in-service practice and prior learning from NGO courses or a Grade 10 qualification, in-service practice, prior learning from NGO courses and a pass on an approved alternative entry test.

- **Certificate in Education** (CE 1) which is equivalent to the first year of study of the Education Diploma and provides a REQV 11 category classification. Access to the course is the possession of a senior certificate and three years of teaching experience or a Grade 10 qualification and five years of teaching experience. A further option is that teachers who are unqualified may apply to SACOL to be assessed for admission to this course.

- **Certificate in Education - Junior Primary** (CE 2 : F1) constitutes the second year of study in teacher education. The qualification is intended for serving teachers who wish to specialize in the Foundation and
Intermediate Phases of the Primary School (Grades R to 6). This qualification is equivalent to REQV 12 category classification. Requirements for admission to the course were enunciated as either a Grade 10 and Primary Teachers’ Certificate (PTC) with five years of teaching experience or a senior certificate with a PTC or a senior certificate and one year of completed PRESET.

Certificate in Education - Senior Primary (CE 2 : SP) also constitutes the second year of study in teacher education. This certificate is designed for serving teachers who wish to specialize in the Senior Primary Phase (Grades 7 to 9) and is equivalent to the REQV 12 category classification. The admission requirements were similar to that for the Certificate in Education - Junior Primary.

Diploma in Education: Junior Primary, Senior Primary or Secondary equivalent to the REQV 13 category qualification. These diplomas provided areas of specialization from Grades R to 6, 5 to 9 and 9 to 12 respectively. The requirements are two years of completed PRESET or a Certificate in Education (CE2).

Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) for specialization at the Junior Primary Phase, Senior Primary Phase and the Secondary Phase are also offered. In the case of the HDE : Junior Primary and HDE : Senior Primary the requirement is either a Primary Teachers’ Diploma (PTD) or a Diploma in Education. The requirement for the HDE : Secondary is a Secondary Teachers’ Diploma (STD). The HDE provides the in service teacher with a REQV 14 category classification.

Further Diploma in Education (FDE) in the following specialization areas are also offered:
Apart from the subject-specific requirements, the general requirement for admission to the FDE programmes of study are either a Diploma in Education or PTD or STD or an HDE or a three-year professional qualification. The FDE enables the educator to acquire the REQV 14 category classification.

6.5.4 **ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES**

The organization and decision-making structures of SACOL have not as yet been finalized. However, the recommendations, understandably, have underscored the establishment of a Council and Senate. These were established on 28 June 1999. Their composition and role functions are in keeping with the Council and Senate of the former SCE, NCE and UCFE. The chief executive officer of SACOL is the Rector with
two Vice-Rectors, one for the main campus at the former SCE premises and the other at the Pietermaritzburg campus in the former NCE premises. The process of rationalization at the college is still continuing. Thus, the staff of the former SCE, NCE and UCFE have now also been amalgamated and the various positions such as Heads of Departments, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers, at the time of writing, have not been finalized.

6.5.5 **THE ROLE OF SACOL IN IMPROVING AND UPGRADING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION**

SACOL inherited the approximately 6,000 teachers who had enrolled prior to 1999 with SCE, NCE and UCFE for the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications through DE. Consequently, it is now the responsibility of SACOL to ensure that these teachers complete the requirements for the various courses for which they had enrolled.

In addition, teachers, in KZN primarily, were encouraged to support the new college in its effort to provide formal, award bearing INSET courses for unqualified, underqualified and qualified teachers. However, at this stage, it is deemed much too premature to be able to make a definitive assessment of the role of SACOL in improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers through DE. Suffice it to say, that at this stage, perhaps the spirit and traditions of the former SCE, NCE and UCFE are still extant.

Understandably, then, it will take some time for SACOL to assert itself as a dedicated DE institution. The enrolment at SACOL for 1999, as illustrated in table 6.9, is a pellucid indicator of the role that SACOL is destined to play in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KZN:
### Table 6.9: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS: STUDENT REGISTRATION:

**SACOL 1999-06-17**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE</th>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>NO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education</td>
<td>CPP1</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education</td>
<td>CED1</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education: Junior Primary</td>
<td>CJP</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education: Senior Primary</td>
<td>CSP</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education: Junior Primary</td>
<td>DJP</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education: Senior Primary</td>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education: Secondary</td>
<td>DES3</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Diploma in Education: Junior Primary</td>
<td>HDJP</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Diploma in Education: Senior Primary</td>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Diploma in Education: Secondary</td>
<td>HDES</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Biology</td>
<td>FB10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Computer (Literacy)</td>
<td>FCOL</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Computer (Studies)</td>
<td>FCOS</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: English</td>
<td>FENG</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Mathematics (Primary)</td>
<td>FMAP</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Mathematics (Secondary)</td>
<td>FMAS</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Metalwork</td>
<td>FMET</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Natural Science</td>
<td>FNSC</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Physical Education</td>
<td>FPED</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Physical Science</td>
<td>FPHS</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Resource Centre</td>
<td>FRCM</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Second Language</td>
<td>FESL</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: School Management</td>
<td>FMAN</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Technical Drawing</td>
<td>FTED</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Diploma in Education: Woodwork</td>
<td>FWOO</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** SACOL (1999(b))
6.5.6 **SUMMATION**

There is no doubt that from the perspective of the developments in education and budget constraints in KZN the rationalization of the SCE, NCE and the UCFE and their amalgamation into a single college providing DE for teacher education was inevitable. A new era is being ushered in for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through DE in KZN. The merger will also be instrumental in the concatenation of commendable experience and acclaimed and invaluable expertise among the staff of the three colleges.

Irrefragably, with the economic benefits apart, the quality of teacher education through DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN will receive a tremendous and positive boost. It is certainly a most sagacious and praiseworthy initiative. The attempt to ensure that teachers in KZN remain at the cutting edge of development by upgrading and improving their qualifications through DE at an institution which has been transformed to meet the challenges of the imminent millennium should be supported. With the innumerable problems in education in KZN leading to obfuscation and a situation akin to contretemps for the educational authorities, this amalgamation and rationalization of the SCE, NCE and UCFE into a single college providing teacher education through DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers in KZN may be conceived as a ray of sunshine in an otherwise doleful and lugubrious situation in the province.

6.6 **CONCLUSION**

By the beginning of this decade the majority of teachers employed in the previously White and Indian schools in KZN were already in possession of the minimum requirements of the REQV 13 qualification. A small number of Coloured teachers was without the necessary post-matriculation diploma for teachers to be deemed professionally qualified. However, the largest sector of unqualified and underqualified
teachers were those employed by the KDEC.

In the case of the Indian teachers the establishment of Sastri College and later the SCE enabled them to upgrade and improve their qualifications as teachers over a period of time. Many Indian teachers in KZN also in terms of their own initiative enrolled for undergraduate and postgraduate studies mainly at UNISA, the University of Natal, UD-W and the University of Zululand to improve and upgrade their qualifications.

However, the SCE played a major and significant role in providing teacher education courses for both primary and secondary teachers. These courses were primarily related to the chalkface in relation to the didactical-pedagogical perspectives as well as to the academic enlightenment of the teachers. In this regard then the courses completed at SCE were accredited both by UD-W and UNISA for further studies in the academic field. In the post-1994 period the enrolment for HED and FDE courses at SCE was dominated by Black teachers with a very small number of Indian teachers. This was an indication that most of the teachers of Indian origin in service had by this time also attained an REQV 14 qualification.

A similar situation obtained for White teachers in the province. The NCE had also provided a valuable service initially for White teachers and later for Coloured and Black teachers with a number of courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of such teachers. The NCE also negotiated with tertiary institutions for accreditation and articulation of courses. Many White teachers in KZN also pursued further academic studies at university level on their own initiative.

The situation for Coloured teachers in KZN is in some respects similar to that of White and Indian teachers. As no institution had been established by the former House of Representatives for upgrading and improving the qualifications of Coloured teachers in KZN, many of them enrolled at SCE and NCE for such courses. Some also enrolled at universities to pursue academic undergraduate and postgraduate studies.
The situation with regard to unqualified and underqualified Black teachers has improved tremendously as a result of the efforts made by SCE, NCE and UCFE in providing teacher education courses through DE leading to improvement and upgrading of their qualifications. Unfortunately, at this stage detailed statistics pertaining to the current situation with respect to the qualifications of teachers and related data concerning education in KZN as presented by Jacobs (1990; 1992) are not available. The EMIS survey presented in table 6.5 provides information pertaining to the qualifications of teachers in KZN for 1997. Consequently, it is difficult to state categorically how many Black teachers have now satisfied the requirements for grading to the REQV 13 level to be deemed as professionally qualified teachers.

Notwithstanding, the role of the UCFE is particularly noteworthy in the provision of courses for unqualified and underqualified Black teachers. The NCE and SCE had restricted their enrolments to underqualified and professionally qualified teachers. The UCFE only began to offer a variety of programmes for qualified teachers in the post-1990 period.

Thus, in the aggregate, the SCE, NCE and UCFE, as colleges of education providing DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN have made a prodigious and monumental contribution to teacher education and education. As from 1 February 1999 these colleges with their remarkable and esteemed histories, individual ethos and venerable impact were amalgamated and rationalized into the dedicated DE institution for teacher education, SACOL.

The inauguration of such an institution is inevitably a substantial milestone in teacher education through DE in KZN and the genesis hopefully of a diuturnity of DE education for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in keeping with international standards. The expertise that was available at the three institutions is without doubt unique. The new institution will have to take serious cognizance of the situation relevant to DE for teacher education and education in the Province of KZN to ensure that it is indeed relevant and not an anachronistic manifestation of bureaucracy.
For example, understandably the amalgamation of the SCE, NCE and UCFE and the birth of SACOL will not be without administrative problems. However, these need to be addressed expeditiously to avoid frustration among teachers (Daily News, 1999-04-26).

As Clarke (1998: 11) points out, educational policy in the province will have to redress apartheid legacies. The current situation of under-resourced schools and the massive inequalities, upgrading and improving educators’ qualifications in neglected areas as well as the effective implementation of Curriculum 2005 will be formidable challenges for SACOL.

The new college will be well advised to consider the proven examples of the UKOU, AU and IGNOU as well as UNISA and the Vista University with respect to its DE courses. SACTE as an institution for teacher education courses through DE may also have some lessons for the new college. The principles of ZINTEC too can be considered with respect to adaptation of teacher education programmes. The college can also play a vital role as observed by Mabusela (1998 : 18) in creating quality teacher education where there is greater interaction and even integration between the PRESET initial training of teachers and formal, award bearing INSET for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

The problems in KZN related to education are grave. There is no order and discipline in many schools (Daily News, 1998-08-03; 1999-05-05; see also, Bissetty, 1999(a): 1; Khumalo, 1999: 2; Naidoo, 1999(a): 1). Indeed, tackling the manifold problems that beset schools in the province requires the involvement of all stakeholders facing up to their responsibilities. The teacher organizations, for example, have warned that they would in future not co-operate with the provincial Department of Education and Culture if it merely paid lip service to the restoration of a culture of learning and teaching in schools (Daily News, 1998-08-03).
Nonetheless, the contention expressed earlier is reiterated that the quality of education is dependent on the quality of teacher. Teacher education is deemed the most critical issue in education at present (Hindle, 1998: 24). Certainly, a corps of well qualified and dedicated teachers is central to every other initiative being taken in education. The success of transformation in education is dependent largely upon the ability of educators to be able to deliver with élan and self-confidence underscored by the strength of improved and upgraded academic and professional qualifications.

It is now incumbent upon SACOL to dedicate itself to providing quality teacher education programmes through DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers in KZN. In this way we can be assured that teachers in KZN will become the most influential agents equal to the task and manifold challenges of the new millennium in the sphere of education.

In the next chapter, we shall consider the conclusions and recommendations that underpin this research. The international experience of DE in both developed and developing worlds that have been analyzed and evaluated in this study as well as the vast body of literature that has been examined and scrutinized including the information culled from personal experience and visits abroad as well as the national teacher audit and the report of the Panel of Commissioners on DE have provided a wealth of invaluable information. These could be adapted and utilized most profitably in South Africa generally and KZN particularly in regard to the specific arena of the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through the strategy of DE.
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The *ipsissima verba* of Sir John S Daniel, Vice-Chancellor of the UKOU, reinforces puissantly the syncretic and sententious conceptualization of DE by the international community, namely, that:

'Individuals desirous of enhancing their own opportunities and governments seeking greater returns on public investment in education have embraced the methods of distance education with enthusiasm. These methods make possible the rapid and inexpensive provision of instruction of consistent quality to large and scattered populations.'

(Daniel, 1993: 54; 1992(b): 20)

Certainly, the social, economic and political trends that will inexorably characterize the genesis of the new millennium will cotermously create unprecedented educational challenges. This is the inevitable outcome of the monumental paradigmatic shifts in societies around the world. Educators particularly will be compelled to adopt innovative frameworks of thought and action in order to meet competently the demands of learners. The urgency and enormity of the formidable challenges globally create an historic opportunity for DE. In this regard, Evans and Nation (1996(3) : 169 - 175) supported by Verduin Jr. and Clark (1991 : 197 - 211) pithily remark, *inter alia*, that DE will be the catalyst for opening education to the knowledge and information futures and for ensuring prospects for lifelong learning. Indeed, in similar vein, Moore and Kearsley (1996 : xiii) contend that DE has certainly become a major form of learning and teaching throughout the world.
Further, DE has been conceived in both developed and developing countries as the most significant strategy for bridging the gap between needs and provision. It is venerated as the most effective and efficient means to enhancing educational opportunities to more learners. Moore (1990(a)(2) : xxvi) asseverates that DE is unequivocally an important strategy to improve the quality of education for all including the lifelong, continuing education of teachers as part of their INSET.

This perspective is corroborated by Rumble (1986(a) : 61) who maintains that there can be little doubt that DE has a valid and important role to play in national education systems. It can also serve a variety of ends and is extremely flexible (Baird and Monson, 1992 : 65; see also, Chung, 1990 : 66; Kaye, 1988 : 43).

It is small wonder then that DE has drawn widespread and growing interest resulting in diverse and creative DE systems as discussed in Chapter Three. The current educational scenario worldwide is being characterized by a shift from formal, centralized and segmented operations to increasingly complex, decentralized and integrated levels of organization (Garrison, 1989 : 38). DE is quite obviously at the nub of such an evolutionary process.

As early as 1966 Wedemeyer (1966(2) : 3) observed that DE in the form of correspondence education was responding with a vigorous dynamism to the problems of world education, although Holmberg (1967 : 68) noted that at this stage DE met with much prejudice. Subsequently, UNESCO (1987(b) : 3) confirmed that DE grew and evolved in a diverse fashion. As such, in its complexity and diversity, DE reflects differences in political philosophy between countries, the availability of new methods of communication, world economic conditions as well as the singular contribution of numerous organizations and individuals involved in DE.

DE has now emerged with a changed image as a mode of education in its own right (Keegan, 1990(a) : 3 - 4; see also, Holmberg, 1989(a) : 150; 204; Megarry, 1980 : 256; Bernier, 1995 : 35; Mackintosh, 1997(a)(1) : 58 - 59; 1997(b)(1) : 10 - 11). Further,
Moore (1990(b): 353) endorses this perspective asserting that the time has passed when DE was an idea and practice only to innovators. Now a substantial group of practitioners and decision-makers in the total spectrum of education are intimately involved in promoting DE. Holmberg (1986(b): 139), moreover, stresses the fact that DE has now been accepted widely as a discipline for research and study at university level. Thus, for example, the UKOU, AU and IGNOU offer a Master of Education Degree in Distance Education. In South Africa, UNISA provides a Postgraduate Diploma in DE (Mackintosh et al., 1997; Van Niekerk and Goodwin-Davey, 1997(1); Sached Trust et al., 1997(a); 1997(b); Dilley and Roman, 1997; 1998; UNISA 1997; Heese and Mackintosh, 1998; Bureau for University Teaching Team, 1997).

A further perspective is provided by Chung (1990: 66; see also, Van Niekerk, 1997(4): 98 - 113) who emphasizes the fact that education can become a tool for liberation for third world countries: liberation from the cycle of poverty and deprivation. Without education people in third world countries will lack the knowledge and expertise for advancement. Moreover, lack of education in such countries will entrench their pariah status and they will continue to be buffeted by the vagaries of an international order that they do not and would not be able to control. DE, then, offers such countries the opportunities for education across the spectrum and ultimately a brighter prospect.

Thus, as Mani (1990: 12) contends and, as it has been conclusively demonstrated by the overwhelming response to the world conferences on open and DE organized by the ICDE, no elaborate pleading is now necessary for the model of DE. It is deemed to be the only model that can successfully cope with an exploding population and a quantitative expansion of education. As a matter of fact, Reddy (1990: 303; see also, Nunan, 1993(2): 9 - 10) advocated DE as the mode of education for the twenty-first century.

For a plethora of reasons, then, both developed and developing countries are progressively employing the system of DE. The predilection for DE is fully substantiated by the exponential increase in learner numbers in relation to population
demographics worldwide, the attempts to massify education, the need to remediate inequalities and loss of time by the universalization of the right and access to education, the expansion of the curricula and range of subjects offered through DE. Economic constraints as the *bête noire* of progress in both industrialized and developing countries advance cogent arguments in favour of DE.

We have noted in Chapter One, and as Mackintosh (1997(b)(1):10) reminds us, DE had its origins in the correspondence mode of study more than a century ago with Caleb Philipps of Boston and Isaac Pitman of the UK ranking among the most esteemed of the early originators of DE. Certainly, the establishment of an affordable and efficient postal service promoted the evolution and rapid growth of DE. Developments in Europe and the USA as well as other parts of the world led to the formation of the ICCE in 1938. In 1982 with the presentation of the phenomenon of distance in the concept of education, the ICCE changed its name to the ICDE. This watershed event provided a tremendous boost to the whole strategy and conceptualization of DE.

The *raison d' être* for DE was crystallized and underpinned by the compelling transformation of the democratic thesis of the massification and egalitarianism of education internationally. As such DE as a strategy for upgrading and improving the qualifications of individuals enjoys numerous benefits but is also subject to manifold limitations. However, for teachers DE offers considerable advantages by way of facilitating the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications through formal, award bearing INSET.

As Moon (1998: 1) observes, debates around teacher education and training across the globe are now engendering significant rethinking and profound reform. Thus, the impact of INSET for teachers, both formal, award bearing as well as non-formal, non-award bearing, as discussed in Chapter Two, cannot be over-exaggerated. The provision of such INSET with regard to induction, extension, refreshment and conversion needs together with the various typologies of INSET discussed, must irrefragably become the key considerations for policy development in education.
As emphasized in the discussion INSET should be effected proactively in a systematic and structured manner. It should not be merely a reaction to an educational crisis. There is widespread recognition of the fact that INSET for teachers must be equal in form and status to that enjoyed in other professions such as medicine, law, accounting and so on. For formal, award bearing INSET, the new generation of DE and related open learning systems provide immense potential and need to be integrated into the whole programme of teacher education and training as the nub of the PRESET - INSET continuum.

In this research an extensive literature survey and first hand experiential information at a national and international level have been conflated in the study of the strategy of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. As an integral component of such a study a detailed reference has been made to the theoretical and conceptual framework of DE in Chapter Three.

The theories discussed were deliberately chosen in response to the primary question in Chapter One, namely: What theories of DE would best inform the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KZN? As Moore and Kearsley (1996: 211) have pointed out the fundamental purpose and value of theory is, *inter alia*, that it assists in describing and explaining a phenomenon, which in this case is DE.

It is apparent from the literature survey that no single definition of DE exists. While some terms are used as synonyms for DE, the syntagma of principles providing a utilitarian and pragmatic connotation of DE as postulated by Keegan (1990(a): 39 - 43) has generally been accepted as an all-encompassing and pivotal understanding of the concept of DE.

These include the quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learner, the influence of an educational organization, utilization of technical media, provision of two-way communication and the quasi-permanent absence of the learning group throughout the
length and breadth of the learning process. This provides a concise and synoptic perspective of DE.

It is important to note that the theoretical considerations discussed all have, in terms of their uniqueness, singular significance for the practical role of DE in the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. For example, Delling in his theory of DE as a process model and a helping organization has emphasized the concepts of feedback and two-way communication which are critical to DE. Providers of DE in KZN need to take particular note of the practical implications of this theory given the spatial demographics of the clientele being served and the impact on the ergonomics in KZN by the conspicuously disparate nature of the rural-urban geography predominating in the province.

Wedemeyer has undergirded the role of the DE learner in his conceptualization of independent study as the core element of DE. This theoretical argument is reinforced and extrapolated by Moore in his propositions of transactional distance and learner autonomy. Again, the role of the DE learner is cogently underpinned.

Both of these theories serve as the epistemological flagstaff of DE and emphasize the structural functionalism of DE where the learner interacts with his study material at a distance from the educator. Again, the role of the DE learner becomes significant. For teachers in service engaged in DE programmes for upgrading and improving their qualifications in KZN the concepts of transactional distance and learner autonomy have profound implications. For example, the providers of DE in KZN must heed the ramifications of the inherited apartheid education strategies which characterized rote learning and regurgitation of facts. Cognizance should be taken of the principles espoused in the theory of independent study, learner autonomy and transactional distance in the preparation of study materials and course design and development and so forth to promote the critical and specific outcomes generated by these eminent features of DE.
The theory of the industrialization of DE teaching and learning as propounded by Otto Peters undergirds the organization, administration and delivery pattern of the providing institution. Particularly in KZN, where even now the print-media dominate course materials offered to teachers enrolled for DE programmes, obviously this theory is meaningful.

However, as we approach the 21st century it becomes inevitable, that, despite the lack of electricity and adequate telecommunication facilities, primarily in rural areas, the arguments postulated by Peters with respect to the concept of post-industrial DE becomes extremely important. Careful thought must also be given by providers of DE in this region of the theoretical considerations related to the principles of Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism. Providers of such programmes cannot behave like King Canute (Oman, 1895: 56) and attempt to hold back the tide of implementing the third generation strategies of DE, where possible, if the trends and standards of DE at the international level are to be achieved.

Bâåth's theory of two-way communication has trenchantly focused on the various teaching and learning models advanced by Skinner, Rothkopf, Ausubel, Egan, Bruner, Rogers and Gagné. These theories invariably impact on the nature and scope of two-way communication not only for DE but also for the improvement of the teaching strategies at the classroom level. Thus, this theory has far reaching implications for the planning of DE programmes and the INSET of teachers.

Serious and insightful cognizance should also be taken by course designers of the theory of guided didactic conversation as mooted by Holmberg. Without doubt, the interpersonalization of the teaching process through DE cannot be over-emphasized. This theory is intrinsic to the efficacy and effectiveness of all study materials, but particularly written study guides, relevant to the courses offered through DE.

David Sewart has provided an invaluable caveat for all DE organizations. His theory of continuity of concern impinges on a most grave desideratum in the provision of DE
programmes. From experience in KZN with teachers studying through DE and who are spread far and wide in terms of geographical distance this theory is of special importance. With the lack of the requisite infrastructure and interactive telecommunication technology particularly in the rural areas teachers of KZN studying through DE are at a tremendous disadvantage. As will be discussed later, the establishment of learning centres and considerations related to student support and counselling, will be affirmative manifestations of this theory in the provision of DE for teachers.

In similar vein, the reintegration of the teaching and learning acts as the principal component of the theory expounded by Keegan constitutes the key element in the designing and development of courses. Teaching and learning, *ab ovo*, are analogous to the physiological functioning of the heart in terms of its rhythmic diastolic and systolic dilatation and contraction. These phenomena are inseparable and the one cannot occur without the other.

The theoretical and conceptual framework for DE provides the centripetal force for appropriate pedagogy and andragogy for the development of the necessary DE programmes for improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers in KZN. It also engenders a scientific basis for DE relevant to the objectives and assumptions enunciated for this research.

Various typologies of DE institutions have been identified in the literature. Moreover, the institutions providing DE programmes also differ with respect to their objectives, programmes and institutional structures. In the main, the basic distinction in determining a typology of DE institutions is whether the institution is an autonomous, dedicated DE provider such as UNISA, UKOU, AU, IGNOU, SACTE and SACOL and those that are mixed or hybrid or dual mode systems which cater for both DE learners as well as full time learners attending courses on a contact and face-to-face tuition basis. An example of the latter is the New England model of Australia and another, until the 31st January 1999, was the SCE in KZN.
In keeping with the theme of educational borrowing and considering the international scenario with respect to DE for the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN, in Chapter Four, the roles of the UKOU and AU of Canada representing providers of DE in developed and industrialized countries were considered. Also in this chapter, for the purpose of understanding the application of DE in developing countries, the reference to IGNOU in India and the implementation of the ZINTEC programme in Zimbabwe were deemed relevant.

In maintaining a general pattern for the purposes of obtaining a holistic overview of such providers and practice of DE for this research the same rubrics were used. These are the origins of the institutions and the practice in the case of ZINTEC, their aims, access and programmes of study, organization and decision-making structures and their roles in improving and upgrading the qualifications of teachers through DE. The synopsis provided in terms of such an overview and the experiences of such institutions and programmes can serve, for instance, as the cynosure for SACOL without the need for this infant institution having to reinvent the wheel for the provision of DE for teacher education in KZN.

The UKOU since its establishment by Royal Charter in 1969 has been venerated as the pioneer and model for open and distance learning systems in both developed and developing countries (Venter and Mathias, 1999: 63). Inter alia, it played a pivotal role through its programmes to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers in the UK both academically and professionally. Currently, the UKOU is providing PRESET initial training of teachers through its PGCE programme. It is also enabling teachers to participate in award bearing INSET courses leading to a panoply of certificates, diplomas, undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

The UKOU with its remarkable and picturesque history of growth and development as well as its fundamental philosophy of being open as to people, open as to places, open as to methods and open as to ideas, has incontrovertibly assumed the status of being among the greatest educational achievements of this century. Many educationalists
around the globe deem the UKOU to be the veritable *anima mundi* in the world of DE and open learning institutions. Thus, it is safe to conclude, that the UKOU most certainly has inestimable value as the paragon of open and distance learning for KZN in the latter's attempt to provide state-of-the-art programmes in DE for its teachers.

Similarly, the AU, described as Canada's Open University, with its headquarters in Athabasca, can also provide valuable insights for planners of DE in KZN. After its rather poignant *accouchement* in 1978 the AU developed into a leading DE institution in North America. It is currently providing multifarious programmes for school-based DE, higher education and the upgrading and improvement of qualifications of teachers in Canada. As such, the AU is also ranked as a leader and an animated laboratory among institutions directly concerned with ideas in the contemporary society for the advancement of lifelong learning through open and DE.

The AU has demonstrated convincingly that new modes of educational delivery to improve and upgrade the qualifications of teachers through DE can be developed. KZN can also adapt those aspects of the AU strategy for DE that would be relevant to its unique needs.

The IGNOU as a national provider of open and DE in India had its gambit in 1987. It has positively established itself as a quality DE provider. As Van Niekerk (1999: 43) points out the basic task of IGNOU is the advancement and dissemination of learning and knowledge by a diversity of strategies. This includes using a multi-media teaching and learning methodology involving print and other communications technology. It has become the nub of the provision of DE and determination of standards for DE in India and acts as the mentor for state institutions providing open and distance learning.

There is little doubt, even in international circles, that despite its short history, IGNOU is making a major contribution to the realization of the educational goals of the large majority of people in India. IGNOU is rapidly succeeding in performing an historic role as a praiseworthy partner in supplementing the existing educational system in India.
despite its complex, socio-economic milieu and its intricate cultural, political and geographical environment.

It has been noted that in this regard many parallels exist between India and KZN particularly with the need for the provision of education in the rural areas. Moreover, as in India, now apparently in KZN, there is a surplus of teachers. Hence the emphasis in both India and KZN is the convergence of initiatives to promote the strategy of open and distance learning as part of formal, award bearing INSET to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers. The IGNOU role-model of bringing education to the disadvantaged communities and especially women in the rural areas is of paramount significance to KZN.

Further, the dynamic and ground breaking INSET programme adopted by IGNOU with respect to the training of school teachers of English is noteworthy. In KZN there are serious implications concerning the proficiency of Black teachers particularly in the English language. Despite other perspectives, for candidates pursuing higher education and those who wish to succeed in the national and international arena, competency in the English language is a *sine qua non*. Thus, the pioneering effort of IGNOU in regard to upgrading and improving the teaching abilities of teachers of English is worthy of emulation.

The ZINTEC programme in Zimbabwe was evidently the most highly acclaimed teacher education experiment inaugurated in that country after its Independence. This well-founded programme which is described as a sandwich teacher education and training course comprises a combination of DE and face-to-face tuition to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers both academically and professionally. Teachers attend courses on campus with periods of DE while teaching in the field before returning to the providing institution for further contact tuition.

Kilpert (1999(2): 139) maintains that the ZINTEC programme was born out of crucial necessity. This programme was launched in order to satisfy the demand for qualified
teachers when the pupil population increased dramatically in Zimbabwe. The general consensus among those who evaluated the ZINTEC programme is that, despite its shortcomings, it has been a tremendous success in upgrading and improving the qualifications of unqualified teachers. Consequently, DE provision for teachers has now become a permanent feature of Zimbabwe's system of teacher education.

It may be argued that the rationale for the implementation and design of the ZINTEC paradigm does not apply directly to the KZN situation as there is no shortage of teachers in KZN in terms of the current pupil to teacher ratio as indicated in Chapter Six. Notwithstanding, the ZINTEC model is a pragmatic manifestation of the sandwich method of teacher education and training. The debate of education and training for educators which has been resuscitated and is now extant in the UK provides a new dimension for consideration emanating from the ZINTEC archetype.

In the South African national context, as discussed in Chapter Five, we have noted that serious educational issues have to be addressed in order to overcome the critical situation in education. Quite obviously, the brief media survey undertaken from January 1998 provides useful insights into the general situation countrywide and specifically for KZN. The outcome of discussions and consensus amongst educationists is that South Africa experienced one of its worst crises in education in 1998.

However, the situation has not improved in any dramatic manner in 1999. The government's problems in education are attributed, inter alia, to the convergence of the two major weaknesses of post-apartheid South Africa which must be urgently eradicated before reconstruction and development can begin. These have been identified as the government's centrist and ideologically-loaded socialist approach to taking decisions compounded by its relationship with trade union allies on the one hand; and on the other, the simple lack of resources, especially adequate financial, material and human resources.
The apparently myopic, if not catastrophic, decision which in many respects is but the verisimilitude of strategic planning, to right-size the teaching corps by offering voluntary severance packages to qualified personnel in education is partly to blame for the current predicament. The intractable attitude of the national education authorities by insisting on a pupil to teacher ratio of 35:1 for secondary schools and 40:1 for primary schools created further complications.

The implementation of Curriculum 2005 without the concomitant provision of INSET to enable teachers to cope with the demands of such a curriculum and adequate resources, especially in the rural areas, have also compounded the educational problems in the country. This has ineluctably underpinned the thesis that now, more than ever before, South Africa and particularly KZN, need to come to terms with the various issues confronting the provision of DE (Goodwin - Davey, 1997(1) : 159 -188). In this regard also, Van Niekerk (1997(6): 189 - 210) makes reference to the fact that a multiplicity of views have been expressed with respect to the future role of DE in the country. However, there can be no abnegation of the fact that DE programmes to upgrade and improve the qualifications of teachers to ensure competent and adequate delivery of education at the chalkface will constitute the vital component of INSET strategies to achieve such a goal.

At the national level, then, we may look at UNISA, Vista University and SACTE for such provision. UNISA can, undoubtedly, boast of its distinguished history as a provider of DE for educators and others. Currently, UNISA with a revamped Faculty of Education, is providing a wide array of teacher upgrading courses both for PRESET and award bearing INSET courses. These include undergraduate and postgraduate degrees up to doctoral level and a variety of teacher education diplomas directly related to the classroom milieu.

Indeed, UNISA from its remarkable origins, has been irrefutably a national treasure. Kilpert (1999(1) :116) observes that in fulfilling its mission, UNISA has become different things to different people. For example, it is conceived as a source of intellectual
power as well as an academic base. It is also considered as the crucible for the acquisition of academic and professional qualifications for those who wish to remain economically active in full time or part time employment. Thus, many individuals in South Africa, especially educators across the spectrum, have been provided with the opportunity of studying through DE at tertiary level. Certainly, as already referred to, innumerable distinguished personnel occupying critical and high ranking positions in the country and abroad, rank as alumni of UNISA. For the KZN, with respect to the provision of DE for teachers, UNISA could well serve as its sagacious guru.

Vista University also is playing a significant role especially for Black teachers in South Africa and KZN through VUDEC. Courses in education at the diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate levels enable teachers to upgrade and improve their qualifications through DE. As Du Preez and Goodwin-Davey (1999: 133) point out the establishment of VUDEC marks the transformation from a correspondence to a DE mode, providing valuable lessons for KZN.

SACTE has now emerged as a national college of education providing DE for teacher education. The college is certainly not confining its marketing of teacher education courses to the Gauteng region where it is situated.

There are numerous other NGOs and institutions such as RAU, Technikon SA and various for-profit private, commercial companies like Lyceum College, Success College and Open Learning Group Academy which are also involved in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. All of these are in some measure providing opportunities for educators to evolve into more competent teachers because of enhanced academic and professional qualifications.

Again, KZN has proven models closer home. The educational planners in the province could liaise effectively with UNISA, Vista University and SACTE in order to ensure quality in education and the efficacious delivery of INSET for teachers through DE.
In Chapter Six the situation related directly to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN was discussed. It was noted that until 31 January 1999, the SCE, NCE and UCFE were the principal providers of such DE programmes.

SCE initially was responsible for PRESET programmes for teachers of Indian origin. Since 1987 SCE functioned as a dual mode institution offering DE courses in addition to teacher education programmes for full time students. In 1991 the college became a fully open college admitting students of all race groups. The NCE started as an INSET college in 1986 offering DE programmes for White teachers. Subsequently, it enrolled Coloured teachers and in 1989 began admitting Black teachers to its courses. The UCFE commenced life as an institution under the control of the KDEC for the improvement and upgrading of the qualifications of unqualified and underqualified Black teachers. These colleges provided a wide-ranging category of teacher education courses. As from 1 February 1999 these three colleges were amalgamated into the single mode, dedicated DE institution, SACOL, for the provision of DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

Understandably, then, as the twenty-first century approaches, KZN is faced with the inchoation of a new chapter in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. Fortunately, an adequate theoretical and conceptual framework as well as distinguished role-models both at the international and the national level for the practical application of formal, award bearing INSET for teachers through DE now exists.

In addition, the recommendations which follow, gleaned from the international and national comparative study of DE provision as well as the experience gained at grassroots level, will, hopefully, generate fecund and positive strategic planning for DE for teacher education. The researcher is sanguine that as such these recommendations will also contribute in some measure towards the formulation of policy in the province leading to the provision of efficient as well as effective DE for
teachers thus ensuring the delivery of quality education.

7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.2.1 GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

It must be conceded that with the burgeoning literature on DE and the implementation of open and distance learning across the educational spectrum internationally, a vast array of recommendations for improved delivery of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers present themselves. However, it is not possible in this research to consider the total gamut of possible recommendations deemed quintessential for DE.

Consequently, reference will be made to those areas considered relevant to the KZN scenario and the immediate needs of the province. As a point of departure, for aspects of general recommendations, the considered opinions of the International Panel of Commissioners (SAIDE, 1995(a)) are regarded as being appropriate and relevant.

The national audit report, Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa (SAIDE, 1995(b)), provided a vision of South African teacher education in the year 2020. While it may be argued that transformation is expedient, the quest logically should be for the development of quality in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN in the immediate future rather than for an amorphous period a quarter of a century away. Goodwin-Davey (1997(1): 133 - 188) in discussing issues of DE and Van Niekerk (1997(6): 189 - 210) in propounding the polemical debate on the future of DE in South Africa, also provide extremely useful and pertinent insights for consideration as part of general recommendations.

The vision undergirding these recommendations and particularly those of the Commissioners was the provision of education and training opportunities generally in
South Africa. Notwithstanding, these could be applied, *mutatis mutandis*, for teacher education in KZN. Thus, the general recommendations for DE provision, *inter alia*, are:

- Open learning approaches and DE principles and practices be adopted as key policy instruments for increasing access, achieving redress and so on.

- DE providing institutions should be assisted to achieve the objective of reorientation to the goals and principles of a democratic South Africa; and, to empower them to effect the conceptual and organizational transformations that will be necessary for them to undertake DE on a different model and based on different principles.

With respect to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, the Commissioners, for example, proposed that the DE programmes for teachers should be reviewed to ascertain:

- The extent to which the programmes could be changed to become compatible with the inherent values, goals and principles of a democratic South Africa.

- Their practical effectiveness as programmes of continuing professional education.

- The contribution that, suitably transformed, they could make to an integrated continuum of PRESET and INSET.

(SAIDE, 1995(a) : 47 - 146)

Moreover, the Commissioners, in proposing general recommendations, were of the opinion that a new structure for the professional qualifications of teachers be created to encapsulate the PRESET/INSET continuum. DE courses should be designed for all
the elements of teacher education and training programmes. These could be utilized for increasing the output of new teachers at all levels and at the same time provide essential INSET opportunities for practising teachers to improve their professional competencies pivotal for education.

Further, as already indicated previously, the national audit report, *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* (SAIDE, 1995(b)), identified what the collaborators of the report deemed to be serious desiderata with respect to the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. In some instances their comments are, as they themselves concede, 'not a blueprint for teacher education' but postulated rather with the intention 'to attempt a concrete and coherent vision of teacher education in the future in order to initiate debate' (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 111).

Notwithstanding viewpoints to the contrary, it is strongly recommended that for purposes of general consideration, cognizance should be taken of those areas identified in the audit that require urgent attention. These should be addressed at both the national and the provincial level. The prestige of DE for teacher education can only but improve with the removal of such shortcomings.

Further, of paramount significance, as suggested by Van Niekerk (1997(6) : 203), practitioners of DE must be committed, *inter alia*, to the following:

- Addressing the needs of learners.
- Promoting lifelong learning.
- Producing quality learning materials.
- Co-operating with other role-players in the field of DE.
Participating in the transformation process by integrating DE into the national system of education.

7.2.2 SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS

With reference to the Province of KZN the following specific recommendations gleaned from this research as well as from practical experience in the field are suggested:

7.2.2.1 A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO DISTANCE EDUCATION

Moore and Kearsley (1996: 4 - 15; see also, Kuhn and Bussack, 1997: 7 - 14; Villarroel, 1988: 58; Coldeway, 1992: 26; Barker, 1992: 5 - 13; Rumble, 1986(a): 86 - 101; 1992 (a): 48) advise that systems analysis is the most appropriate tool for the provision of DE and that this policy should form the basis of the study of DE as well as the practice of the strategy for teacher education. The theoretical considerations of the philosophy of systems analysis as a framework in education have been debated widely in the literature (Banathy, 1991; see also, Higgs and Smith, 1997).

The DE system comprises all the components that constitute DE. KZN can benefit tremendously if DE providers in the province adopt this *modus operandi* both for the theoretical basis as well as for the praxis of the provision of DE for upgrading and improving the qualifications of teachers. The DE system would include learning, teaching, communication, design management and even such aspects as the history and institutional philosophy.

Integrated with these broadly named components are sub-systems, which understandably constitute systems in themselves. Thus, there is, for example, a subsystem in every DE system that deals with course design. This would include the
numerous activities which in their aggregate produce the course characterized by quality, within the scheduled time and at reasonable cost. The course design sub-system will invariably link to the other sub-systems to form the total system.

It is important to note that in the establishment of the various sub-systems which would contribute to the total DE system the understanding of the interrelationships of the sub-systems are critical. This is understandable because anything that may impinge on one part of the DE system will invariably have an effect on other parts of the system.

Moore and Kearsley (1996: 5) emphasize the fact that:

'The systems model provides a tool that not only helps us to recognize many of the issues that separate distance education, but also helps us distinguish good distance education from bad.'

In KZN particularly, neither teaching itself nor the organization of education has been very systematic. DE courses for teachers have been developed and delivered in an ad hoc fashion. Planning has been in a piecemeal mode, with top-down decision-making by management. This is generally characterized by a policy which can be described as reaction to crisis rather than being proactive.

Thus, it is now incumbent upon planners of education in the province to consider that in the future it will be better for students, teachers and educational institutions if DE programmes for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers are designed and developed in a systematic way. Moreover, it is crucial that the DE organization is developed, as other modern agencies, as a total system.

Figure 7.1 below illustrates a general systems model which underpins the principal component processes and elements of a DE institution, programme, unit, consortium or course. These are obviously the generic constituents for all levels and types of DE.
A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

SOURCE: Moore and Keogh (1996: 9)

Figure 7.1
It becomes patently clear, as already mentioned, that a great deal of interdependence will exist amongst the elements indicated in figure 7.1. All of these elements, for example, will be influenced by policy and management. Moreover, changes in any single component of the DE system will have a rippling effect on all of the other components. It is to be stressed that undue emphasis to a particular component without due regard to the others could result in lack of quality and even result in failure.

From the perspectives of inputs and outputs, which characterize the systems model, the interrelationships among the various components of the DE system are again stressed. Figure 7.2 provides some inputs and outputs of the DE system for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN.

**FIGURE 7.2 INPUTS AND OUTPUTS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION SYSTEM**

**INPUTS**

- Student Characteristics
- Instructor / Tutor Experience
- Competence of Administrative Staff
- Efficiency of Course Development
- Student Access to Resources
- Response Time
- Local Site Co-ordination
- Institutional Co-operation / Support
- Reliability of Evaluation

**OUTPUTS**

- Student Satisfaction Ratings
- Student Achievement Scores
- Student Completion Rates
- Total Enrollments
- Quality Assessments
- Accreditation
- Costs and Revenue
- Staff Turnover

**SOURCE:** Moore and Kearsley (1996: 15)

These inputs and outputs provide the DE institution with adequate measures of control in terms of the principles of systems analysis which take into account the full complexity of the process and the interaction between the various components (Villarroel, 1988: 61).
In following the systems model approach for DE as recommended, the educational authorities in KZN could also adapt the system of DE, in terms of this framework, of the UKOU, AU, UNISA, Vista University and SACTE. Some of the principles espoused in this recommendation already exist at these institutions. The proven and tested aspects could be applied positively towards the enhancement of the delivery of DE for teacher education.

7.2.2.2 COURSE DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

For the provision of quality DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers and to ensure that the courses are appropriate for the enrichment of competency at the chalkface, course design and development are critical. The course design and development of DE constitute the heart of the learning that is provided by the materials.

In this connection, there is abundant reference to course designing and development in the literature on DE in monographs and journal articles at an international level. However, the current situation extant in KZN in terms of publications on course design and development leaves much to be desired. In many respects also, there is poor development of learning materials.

Generally, the KZN experience has been that in a department at a college of education providing DE or a tertiary institution involved in the DE programme, a single writer as a virtual polymath in a particular subject is delegated the task of producing the learning materials. More often than not such an individual has little or no DE training or expertise.

It is recommended that serious consideration be given by DE providers in KZN to the establishment of a team for course design and development of DE programmes. The modus operandi obtaining at the UKOU, AU, IGNOU, UNISA and in some respects at Vista University and SACTE could serve as useful models. It is interesting to note,
for example, that UNISA has underscored the paramount significance of course design and development of DE materials by the study of this aspect of DE as part of the Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education (UNISA, 1997; Heese and Mackintosh, 1998; Bureau for University Teaching Team, 1997).

At these institutions it has been noted that the collaborative effort of a team results in highly successful course design and development. Each member of the team with particular skills and competencies provides the necessary rudiments of ideas and relevant inputs that lead ultimately to the total picture of the requisite DE course design and development. Such team participation encompasses and underpins instructional and scholarly leadership (Olcott Jr., 1996: 107; see also, Heese, 1997(a)(3): 119 - 171; Heese and Van Zyl, 1997: 87 - 104).

Of course, the size and nature of the team will depend principally on the structure, composition and scope of the course. Consensus is the touchstone of the team development model. As Moore and Kearsley (1996: 106) affirm the team responsible for the course design and development of course materials must acknowledge the various criticisms and the entire process must be constantly reviewed until approved by the whole team. For the DE courses for teachers it is also recommended that as part of the team input there should be consultation with representatives of students, tutors, the organized teaching profession and the Department of Education to ensure that the course materials are appropriate for the classroom situation in KZN. As Houdek (1990: 21 - 29; see also, Moore, 1990(a)(2) : xx; Perraton, 1991: 10 - 11) informs us, in recent years there is an increasing demand for both professionalism in course design and development and partnership among professionals for the achievement of the objectives of quality DE. Although it may be time consuming, a pilot project for the evaluation of the course design and development should also be undertaken.

It should be the categorical imperative for DE institutions to ensure that every course is well designed and developed (SAIDE, 1995(a) : 51; see also, Moore and Thompson,
In this connection a further recommendation is suggested by Thorpe (1995(b) : 175) who submits the argument that course designers must formulate cognitive approaches to learning. Further, in the development of DE programmes they must search for ways in which learners can mobilize their existing knowledge and create new frameworks which integrate old and new learning into innovative forms of understanding.

The designing and development of courses must be categorically predicated on a specific philosophy and theoretical framework as the underlying plan for the DE programme. Rumble (1986(a) : 101; 1992(a): 49) points out that this recommendation is vital as it will demonstrate explicitly the robust strategies that will be adopted to ensure that the goals and objectives of DE provision for teacher education are achieved. Obviously, further research in this area will be required.

Again, it is to be reiterated that for course design and development the theoretical constructs of the industrialization and post-industrialization principles of DE teaching and learning as propounded by Peters and the issues of Fordism, neo-Fordism and post-Fordism as discussed in paragraphs 3.4.4 and 3.4.9 will play a significant role. These theories will contribute to the evolution of conceptual pathways, knowledge, skills and practical abilities that could be incorporated in the course design and development process.

It is also recommended that in the strategy of course design and development cognizance should be taken of the radical need for educational syncretism for aiding the DE learners to find their way through the pathways enunciated for the DE programme. In addition, it must be noted, that both formative and summative assessments become integral to this learning process and must be encapsulated as an integral component of the course design and development of DE. In this regard, once again, the UNISA study manuals for the Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education for the design and development of DE materials provide exciting
possibilities. For example, amongst other aspects, useful suggestions are provided such as: the planning and integration of information and communication technologies (Heese, 1997(a)(2): 44 - 118); a model for designing distance teaching materials (Mackintosh, 1997(b)(2): 49 - 85); structuring the course and learner workload (Mackintosh and Wilson, 1997: 125 - 149); and, DE instructional devices (Mackintosh, 1997(b)(3): 151 - 183).

A further perspective to ensure that DE courses for teachers are successful with respect to course design and development a holistic presentation of materials should be effected. The objective should be, inter alia, to excite, engage and reward the learners. They should be involved actively in their own learning (SAIDE, 1995(b): 20).

Recommendations proposed by Brigham (1992: 171 - 173) could also be helpful in the process of course design and development in KZN. It is suggested that the following factors should inform course design and development:

★ The level at which courses must be approved.

★ Course production deadlines.

★ Varying views of what constitutes respectable materials.

★ Shortage of available working time.

★ Availability of instructional support services.

★ Experience of lecturers in the providing institution with DE.

★ Adaptability of such lecturers to the course design and development environment.
The course design and development organization.

In the opinion of Olcott Jr. (1996: 111) such factors could well provide the model of course design and development that would link the DE institution more closely with the needs of the clientele being served. Certainly, they may be rightly construed as providing an expedient and pragmatic, utilitarian focus.

Moore and Kearsley (1996: 101) also suggest that many fundamental questions must be addressed in the design and development of a DE course. These include:

- What should be the context of the course?
- What strategy should be employed for the sequential development and organization of the material?
- What are the best media to use to present the material?
- What kind of teaching strategies should be employed?
- How can learning be measured most appropriately?
- What feedback should students receive about their progress?
- What methods should be used to create the materials?

Moreover, DE institutions in KZN should also consider the implementation of the Instructional Systems Design (ISD) as proposed by Moore and Kearsley (1996: 102; see also, Mackintosh, 1997(b)(2) : 69 - 75) for course design and development. This ISD incorporates several theoretical perspectives on learning and teaching, systems theory and so on. The principal aim of ISD is that the development of instruction can be divided into a number of phases each of which involves certain procedures. The
ISD process can be illustrated, as in figure 7.3, below.

FIGURE 7.3  **MODEL OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEMS DESIGN (ISD)**

![Diagram of ISD process](image)

**SOURCE**: Moore and Kearsley (1996: 103)

Thus, in the analysis phase the need is to identify the specific skills and outcomes that will be required for the course design and development. Further, the characteristics of the learners and the learning environment, which are key elements, for example, in the specific case of KZN with its sharp contrasts in the urban-rural mix, also need to be analyzed to determine what the teachers need to learn in order to perform the desired skills at the required levels.

In the design stage the goals and objectives of the instructional programme, inclusive of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains, are synthesized in very definite terms. Further, in keeping with outcomes-based education and training (OBET) in KZN in terms of the unit standards (US) format, *inter alia*, the critical outcomes, specific outcomes, assessment criteria and range statements should also be explicitly stated. The structure and format of the course are also adumbrated. Media considerations can also be integrated in the design stage based on the objectives and OBET information on needs gleaned in the analysis phase.

The development stage is intrinsically related to the creation, production and testing of the multifarious instructional materials such as study guides, audio-tapes, video-
tapes and other media. In some instances, INSET for teaching staff and tutors for the DE programmes may also be provided.

In the implementation phase students register and instructional materials are provided. The process of interaction between the DE providing institution and the learners is also inaugurated.

Finally, in the evaluation stage, activities revolving around testing, examinations and assessment of assignments are considered. Further, an appraisal of the instructional effectiveness of the course and materials is undertaken with the prime objective of revising the process of course design and development aspect of DE provision.

It is important to note that the ISD approach is underpinned by careful planning of each stage. Moreover, the whole process is a continuous, on-going cycle with overlapping of the activities from one stage to another. In the final analysis, the ISD strategy is recommended for KZN in order to ensure a more scientific and structured approach to course design and development of DE provision for teacher education.

7.2.2.3 ASSURING QUALITY IN THE SYNTHESIS OF STUDY GUIDES

The national audit report, namely, *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 67), was highly critical of the fact that only a few teacher education institutions involved in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN planned to move towards using mixed media for their courses. It is true to a large extent that mainly in the developed and industrialized countries the viability and feasibility of modern, interactive, electronic telecommunications technology are hardly a problem. The same cannot be said for developing countries and certainly not for KZN at this stage.

In the Province of KZN the lack of the requisite financial resources and other facilities such as electricity and telephones, primarily in the rural areas, makes the use of
modern, interactive technology a rather complex issue at present. Moreover, as will be discussed later, further research in the use of such technology for DE and its applicability to KZN will be necessary.

Consequently, until the situation currently existing in KZN concerning availability of resources changes, the printed study guide will form the most common medium for the provision of DE for teachers (Bagwandeen, 1998: 2; 1999: 2; see also, Bagwandeen et al., 1999: 1). As a matter of fact, the International Panel of Commissioners evaluating open learning and DE in South Africa declare unequivocally that:

"No matter what other media can be employed, the printed word will continue to be an essential means of communication for the foreseeable future in South Africa."

(SAIDE, 1995(a): 51)

In addition, there is a large body of opinion globally that adheres to the thesis that print-based course materials still constitute the bedrock of DE and occupy key positions in the instructional system of DE (Sahoo, 1993: 99; see also, Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 107; Wilson, 1997: 143-145; Roman, 1997: 191-222). The study guides for DE are used to provide the structure for the course on offer. As such they rank as the nub of the print-based course materials. The study guides also serve to integrate any didactical component and instruction delivered by other media.

Consequently, it is recommended that DE providers in KZN for teacher education compile their study guides with utmost care and along accepted scientific lines. For example, as a start, the study guides should be conceived as endeavouring to do more than merely present subject matter. In consonance with the theories of guided didactic conversation as propounded by Holmberg in paragraph 3.4.6, of two-way communication by Bååth in paragraph 3.4.5 and of the reintegration of the teaching and learning acts by Keegan in paragraph 3.4.8, it should contain directions and guidance
for the learners in their study of the content. At the same time they must simulate the teacher by providing a structure for interaction between student and lecturer. For instance, the study guides should explicitly communicate in terms of the current emphasis on OBET, the goals and objectives of the subject should be lucidly enunciated and the approach and philosophy of the discipline being studied categorically stipulated.

Moreover, the study guides should provide opinions and offer advice concerning the conceptualization and delineation of the academic content of the subject. At the same time, from the didactical-pedagogical perspective they should indicate broadly the time factor for the various topics or exercises provided.

It is also recommended that the study guides should be written in a style that reflects the concerns of the teachers for the students. The study guides should be user-friendly, encouraging and supportive. It should be constantly borne in mind that the study guide is neither an academic paper nor a learned text, but a form of teaching.

Due to space constraints a detailed analysis of the writing of study guides is not possible. However, it is recommended that, amongst others, the following broad areas for the development and writing of study guides be considered by the providers of DE for teacher education:

- Appointment of writers with appropriate qualifications and experience as part of the aforementioned team for course design and development.

- Planning and development of the study guides, for example, in terms of the following models:
  - ground-up, integrated model
wrap-around, extra-textual model

research, independent model.

Presentation of the subject matter in terms that are clearly comprehensible and incorporating an appropriate conversational style.

Technical requirements with respect to references and so on are maintained.

Constitution of units of study with the relevant introduction, body and conclusion.

Presentation of the subject taking into account learner interaction with the text for active learning.

Inclusion of instructional devices and assessment activities.

Use of suitable visual materials in the text juxtaposed for consolidation of information.

Provision of annotated bibliography and suggestions for further reading or practical work.

Application of an effective and appropriate editorial process.

Undertaking some form of pre-testing of the DE study guides.

(Bagwandeen, 1998 : 4 - 11; 1999 : 1 - 22; see also, Bagwandeen et al., 1999 : 1 - 20 ; Moore and Kearsley, 1996 : 107 - 111; Gachuhi and
It is recommended further, that for a more detailed and comprehensive analysis of the writing of study guides the aforementioned sources, amongst others, should be consulted. It must be remembered, that the major design characteristics of study guides with respect to the organization of the content, a relatively informal and conversational style of writing and lively document layout cannot be over-emphasized to ensure that the study guides are indeed efficacious as the key instrument for DE provision.

7.2.2.4 STUDENT SUPPORT AND COUNSELLING

It is strongly recommended that DE providers of teacher education in KZN give serious thought to the implementation of numerous strategies to provide student support and counselling to the teachers enrolled for the various teacher education programmes. Tait (1995: 232) defines student support inclusive of student counselling as the range of activities which complement the mass-produced materials which make up the most well-known element in open and distance learning. The range of services which could be subsumed under student support and counselling would include:

- advice / counselling
- tutoring individually and in groups whether in contact sessions, face-to-face, by correspondence, telephonically or electronically
- the learning of study skills, including examination skills
peer group support arrangements

feedback concerning assessment and progress

language support

administrative problem-solving

organization of study centres

support for special needs

specific course and programme information

financial advice

library services


These activities comprise the key conceptual components of the notion of supporting the unique learning needs of individuals as well as of groups. In contrast, the mass-produced study materials are similar for all learners. Nonetheless, both these elements are critical and essential for the provision of quality DE for teachers.

However, in South Africa generally and in KZN particularly, student support in the case of DE for teacher education was found to be in the main of a reactive nature. When
students enrolled for DE courses experienced difficulties they contacted lecturers or administrative staff at the institutions providing the courses either telephonically or personally by making prior appointments. In some cases the teachers enrolled for DE courses communicated their problems in writing (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 72).

To complicate matters even further some institutions provided contact sessions for a short duration during the school winter vacation in the province. The underlying gravamen was that the contact sessions took the form of lectures in an attempt to reinforce the didactical-pedagogical nature of the study guides. In the case of the Sciences, such as Biology and Physical Science, the vacation period was utilized in addition for the purposes of conducting practicals and assessment thereof for the examinations.

Linked closely to the issue of student support is the question of counselling. Pre-registration orientation was offered for a short while by the SCE. However, because of financial constraints this was terminated. Moreover, the SCE had appointed a full time student counsellor. The counsellor had to service both PRESET and INSET students. Other colleges of education in KZN engaged in reactive rather than proactive counselling (SAIDE, 1995(b) : 74).

These inconsistent patterns of student support and counselling could be deemed to be the very antithesis of the theory of continuity of concern for DE learners as hypothesized by Sewart in paragraph 3.4.7 and which underscores the international consideration of student support and counselling. The manifold aspects of student support and counselling are conspicuously pervasive in the literature, especially in the case of highly developed and industrialized countries. These components of DE were also emphasized during the 17th and 18th World Conferences of the ICDE (Sewart, 1995(b) : 231 - 307; ICDE, 1997).

This aspect of the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN also cannot be over-emphasized. Generally, DE
learners need to adapt to the demands of guided self-study. In addition, they need information that is up-to-date and authoritative. Access to tutors and facilitators must be made both easy and regular. The DE learner must have guidance on what and how to study together with opportunities for interaction with their colleagues enrolled for similar courses.

Olcott Jr. (1996: 103; see also, Keegan, 1990(a): 154 - 155; SAIDE, 1995(a): 52 - 53; Sewart, 1998: 148 - 156; Roman and Sparg, 1998: 127 - 168; Mangena, 1997: 337 - 371) argues that without adequate support and counselling the current DE outreach and distance learning models will not be successful in the highly competitive, student-driven educational environment. This view is reinforced by Oosthuizen (1997: 71; see also, Dillon et al., 1992: 297 - 311; Perraton, 1991: 9 - 12; Moore and Thompson, 1997: 44 - 49; Robinson, 1981: 141 - 161; Sahoo, 1993: 113 - 130; Rowntree, 1992: 71 - 94) who states emphatically that the challenge to the organizer of DE programmes is to provide all the support the learner needs. Burge (1986: 26 - 37) adds a further dimension by suggesting that student support and counselling constitute the epistemological considerations relevant to the andragogical debate in the provision of DE. However, we must consider the caveat expressed by Roberts (1986: 37), namely, that thorough research must be undertaken to determine student needs prior to purporting what is in their best interest with respect to their DE studies. Moreover, Kuhn et al. (1998: 233 - 274) strongly advocate action research for the determination of appropriate support services in DE.

Further, arrangements should also be made by the DE providers in KZN to advise and assist those individuals who need counselling. Van der Merwe (1997(a): 59; 1997(b): 137 - 176; see also, Sewart, 1980: 171 - 187; 1998: 148 - 156; Moore and Thompson, 1997: 6) declares cogently that counselling is as central to learner support as is tuition. The process of counselling as the core of student support reinforces the primary value commitment of the DE providing institution. It also promotes and facilitates student development reifying the vibrant growth producing and dynamic relationship between the DE providers and the DE learners.
Thus, with special reference to the rural areas in KZN, counselling of teachers enrolled for DE programmes is crucial. Their social milieu and incommodious, harsh geographical environment characterized by acute problems of communication and isolation, aggravated by serious lack of telephones, virtually non-existent postal services, complex transport provision, no electricity and a host of other negative factors make learning a nightmare and in many cases a bane rather than a boon.

Consequently, taking into account the local conditions, student support and counselling as obtaining, for example, at the UKOU, IGNOU, AU, UNISA, Vista University and SACTE should be provided for the teachers enrolled for the DE courses in KZN. A case in point, for instance, is the Student Services Bureau of UNISA. It conforms to the philosophy that student support and counselling should concentrate on the expressed needs of students as well as their specific circumstances. In this way the DE providing institution will be able to succeed positively in facilitating the learning experience and reduce to some extent the negative impact of the social milieu and geographical environment (Van der Merwe, 1997(a): 59-60; 1997(b): 138-139).

A further recommendation related to student support and counselling is the urgent need in KZN for learning centres for the teachers enrolled for the DE courses. Roman and Tindall (1998: 29) contend that learning centres are an integral part of distance learning support. Learning centres could be schools, church halls, former colleges of education or other suitable venues. Tutors should be appointed at these centres to provide the necessary student support and counselling. Further, a selection of suitable media and books as well as other supplementary tutorial material should be made available at such learning centres.

It is being reiterated, for purposes of emphasis, that the provision of well planned student support and counselling and the establishment of learning centres in convenient and easily accessible venues are matters of extreme urgency for the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. This recommendation is deemed critical for quality DE provision in the province.
7.2.2.5 ADMINISTRATION AND POLICY PLANNING

The fundamental considerations for administration and policy planning for DE have been the subject of many studies at the international level. Issues and recommendations postulated generally involve academic management, production and operations management and evaluation of DE programmes (Rumble, 1986(a): 161-219; see also, Moore and Thompson, 1997: 29-32; Schlosser and Anderson, 1994: 31-34; SAIDE, 1995(a): 53; Roman, 1998: 169-232).

Related to the polemics surrounding administration and policy planning in DE, Keegan (1990(a): 154; see also, Holmberg, 1985(c): 103-121; Harry et al., 1993: 111-113) rightly asserts that the clusters of administrative tasks and concomitant instrumentality of sentient policy planning for DE will differ in many respects from other forms of educational administration. Further, it is important to remember, that the choice of an organizational and administrative structure and the predilections for policy planning, to a large extent, will be determined in terms of the typology of DE institutions, as discussed in Chapter Three. Moreover, Perraton (1991: 16) and Verduin Jr. and Clark (1991: 166) suggest also that the propensity for the model for administration and policy planning will be influenced by the educational exigencies to be addressed, the educational objectives that need to be achieved and the availability of the material and human resources considered indispensable.

Taking into account the foregoing submission relevant to administration and policy planning, it follows that the determination of adequate administrative support and assiduous policy planning for the provision of DE for teachers in KZN become compelling imperatives. The Department of Education and DE providers in KZN can ill afford to adopt an insouciant or lackadaisical attitude to administration and policy planning for DE.

At present the administration of the DE programmes by the providing institutions in KZN seems to concentrate particularly in getting materials forwarded to students and
receiving assignments from them in as efficient a manner as possible (SAIDE, 1995(b): 75). However, the plaintive jeremiad of many teachers enrolled for the teacher education courses is that they are required to register and contact the administrative offices during normal working hours. In most cases this means between 8h00 until 16h00 from Monday to Friday. In the majority of cases such a parochial and stringent decree on the part of the DE providers causes havoc among the teachers enrolled for the courses in KZN, particularly those residing in the rural and remote areas of the province.

During the prescribed office hours teachers are at schools. By the time they get to a telephone after school hours the offices of the DE providers are generally closed or professional or administrative staff are not available. The position is exacerbated by the escalating costs of travelling and telephone calls. The ethos, understandably, is one of frustration and despondency.

It is recommended, therefore, that with respect to the administration of DE courses for teachers in KZN, providers should take into account the following suggestions:

- Organizations should adapt their administrative policy in order to serve the needs of the students by, for example, having toll-free telephone lines and a 24 hour help-desk. The modus operandi of the UKOU, AU, IGNOU and UNISA are possible indicators in this regard.

- Potential students should be informed about proposed courses through the print- and electronic-media, by detailed prospectuses and handbooks and so on. Again, the example of UKOU, AU, IGNOU, UNISA and Vista University in terms of its printed information and electronic data on the worldwide web site, Internet, e-mail and facsimile facilities deserve a well earned encomium. Where such facilities in KZN exist students could use...
them to access the information.

- Students must be enrolled and registered at times and venues that are convenient to them. The practice of establishing regional centres or offices such as that by the UKOU, AU, IGNOU and UNISA could be followed.

- Pre-registration orientation courses could assist potential students in clarifying any misconceptions that may occur.

- Other aspects of administration such as student records, scheduling of examinations and processing examination results timeously, providing necessary information, organization of graduation and diploma and certificate awarding ceremonies and so on should be constantly assessed for effectiveness and efficiency.

- Another critical role of the administration is the establishment of learning centres and determining location, facilities, staffing, collaboration with the main office, funding and opening and closing times.

- Administration must also take cognizance of the need to provide equipment that may be required for hands-on and practical activities in certain subjects such as the Sciences, Computer Studies, Woodwork, Metalwork, Technical Drawing and so forth, which are offered through DE.

- Following Moore and Kearsley (1996: 182 - 184) and Holmberg (1985(c): 103 - 121) the determination of quality assessment and quality control are among the most important tasks of
administration. Administration, while accepting the fundamental supposition that each participant in the totality of the DE process has a role to play in assuring quality, nonetheless, is ultimately responsible for measuring that quality. Consequently, administration will be responsible for the protocol, development of appraisal instruments and so forth.

With regard to strategic policy planning it is recommended that the Directorate of Teacher Education and Culture in KZN considers the establishment of an INSET section in its organization and decision-making structure. The specific responsibility to be delegated to this section would be to consider as a matter of on-going policy the strategic planning and provision of both non-award bearing as well as award bearing INSET in a proactive manner.

This would incorporate, in addition to other possible strategies as discussed in Chapter Two on INSET, the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. This section could also formulate a relevant vision and mission for the advancement of teacher education, goals and objectives. They could correlate aspirations of educators with currently available resources. They could prioritize those goals which can be achieved with high quality within the constraints of the budget.

The Directorate of Education in KZN in this way could be enabled to track emerging alternatives in collaboration with DE providers and project future resources and financial requirements for the provision of DE for teacher education more competently. Budget decisions about priorities and resource allocations for cost-effective provision of DE, which in many respects proves to be a veritable incubus for planners of education, could then be taken on a scientific basis rather than on an ad hoc, haphazard fashion as is the current practice.
It is virtually an axiomatic proposition that the lifeblood of any DE institution is the staff who are appointed to run it. Moore and Thompson (1997: 40) endorse this viewpoint indicating that the success or failure of DE courses and programmes depends to a large extent on the skill and commitment of the teachers and facilitators who are responsible for directing the educational experiences of the learners. However, as Koul (1984: 43; see also, SAIDE, 1995(a): 53 - 54) observes, DE programmes are often based on an untenable assumption that the educators trained for conventional education will, ipso facto, be competent and effective DE teachers.

Consequently, as Schlosser and Anderson (1994: 34; see also, Houdek, 1990: 3 - 9; Dillon and Walsh, 1992: 5 - 21) urge a number of poignant issues concerning DE teachers must be addressed. It is understandable that while the primary goal of educating students has not changed the methods of DE instruction require a new vision, especially in KZN. It is of the utmost importance that in the province, as DE is still considered a relatively new field of work, those entering the field need specialist training (Jenkins, 1993: 317). Thus, it is recommended, that it is both an impelling and germinal consideration, that it be declared mandatory for the DE provider upon recruiting staff, to supervise and train such staff in the DE system. Such training, according to Perraton (1991: 26 - 27; see also, Coldevin, 1990: 116; Lamacraft, 1975: 42 - 59) may be job-embedded, job-related, non-formal short courses or even award bearing DE courses. This will ensure efficient and effective provision of DE.

Experience indicates that the general practice, particularly at colleges of education providing DE, is to appoint staff with the necessary administrative experience in the administration. Similarly, lecturing staff with appropriate academic and professional qualifications are appointed pertaining to a specific discipline. These members of staff, both administrative and professional, have no specific qualifications in DE.
Fraser (1993: 30) maintains that in the South African context the majority of DE institutions model their teaching policy as a simulation of traditional contact teaching. This is the outcome of the fact that most of the tutors employed by these institutions are themselves the products of contact teaching. Perhaps their only experience of DE in the South African national context may have been that they acquired their administrative, academic or professional qualifications through a DE institution, such as, for example, UNISA, Vista University or one of the colleges of education or for-profit institutions providing DE.

It is recommended that all members of staff, regardless of their hierarchical position or role function in the DE institutions providing courses leading to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, be required themselves to acquire requisite qualifications in DE. Possibly, one could go even further to suggest that for permanent appointments to such posts at a DE institution this recommendation should be made a condition of service.

This imperative must include, as indicated above, even those members of staff such as:

- Lecturers who teach or tutor courses
- Course developers, subject experts, instructional designers, editors of study guides
- Media specialists and technicians
- Programme directors, course managers and learning centre coordinators
- Clerical and administrative staff responsible for the total gamut of administrative functions such as registration, examinations,
enrolment, despatch and so on

- Heads of departments
- Rectorate of the institutions

This obligatory qualification will invariably lead to a more diligent appreciation of the value of DE. It will also help to establish a thorough understanding of the needs of DE learners. Further, staff who have the required qualifications in DE will also be knowledgeable of the complexities and difficulties that DE students experience. They would thus be empathic towards DE learners and, in terms of their expertise, in a much better position to apply themselves more assiduously and conscientiously in addressing the solicitudes of such DE learners.

Figure 7.4 below provides a compendium of the possible areas of training for those involved in the provision of DE:
FIGURE 7.4 TRAINING MODEL: FUNCTIONS, SKILLS AND TRAINING NEEDS FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS</th>
<th>STAGE 1 BASIC EXPERTISE</th>
<th>STAGE 2 EDUCATIONAL APPLICATION</th>
<th>STAGE 3 DISTANCE EDUCATION APPLICATION</th>
<th>STAGE 4 SPECIALIZED APPLICATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Planners, Managers, Administrators</td>
<td>Management or Administration</td>
<td>Educational Administration</td>
<td>Distance Education Systems</td>
<td>Personal Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Course Designers</td>
<td>Subject knowledge</td>
<td>Curriculum Design &amp; Materials Development</td>
<td>Design of Self-instructional Materials</td>
<td>Teaching own subject at a Distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Academic &amp; Writers</td>
<td>Copy Editing &amp; Design</td>
<td>Editing &amp; Design of Educational Materials</td>
<td>Editing Self-Instructional Materials</td>
<td>Specialist text design skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Editors &amp; Instructional Designers</td>
<td>Media Production</td>
<td>Production of Educational Programmes</td>
<td>Multi-media Education</td>
<td>Production for Subject Specialisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Media Producers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tutors &amp; Counsellors</td>
<td>Subject Knowledge</td>
<td>Teacher Training &amp; Adult Education</td>
<td>Teaching at a Distance</td>
<td>Discipline related teaching techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Researchers</td>
<td>Research Techniques</td>
<td>Research in Education</td>
<td>Research in Distance Education</td>
<td>Specialist Skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Jenkins (1993: 320)
It is important to note that DE now enjoys parity of esteem in a total educational scenario globally. Consequently, only persons who have a conscientious commitment to DE and are willing to upgrade and improve their qualifications in this field should be employed in the DE providing institutions.

The education and training of staff at DE providing institutions could be either in-house or made available outside the DE institution. With respect to the in-house training modes and strategies there could be an informal route or a formal route.

The informal route for in-house education and training could follow peer attachments by way of an inexperienced person working in partnership with an experienced person. The latter could act as the mentor of the former. Further, a new member of staff could spend a short period of time in different departments to acquire job-embedded and job-related experience.

With respect to in-house formal education and training, INSET strategies such as seminars, workshops and short courses ranging from a few hours to several weeks could be organized. Moreover, staff could engage in self-study utilizing specially prepared training packages. A further strategy could be acquisition of professional and academic qualifications in the field of DE either through full time, face-to-face, contact tuition or through DE. In this case, as noted in Chapter Four, the UKOU, AU and IGNOU provide a Master of Education degree in Distance Education. In South Africa, as already indicated, UNISA has taken the lead in providing a Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Such formal training must inevitably lead to the provision of quality DE.

With respect to training modes and strategies incorporating outside provision again the routes could be either informal or formal. In the case of the informal route, fellowships could be arranged whereby staff could spend time at another institution working in collaboration with a peer doing a similar job. Alternatively, a consultant could be delegated the task of providing the necessary education and training at the DE
providing institution. Another plan could be the organization of study tours to DE institutions for the purpose of bilateral co-operation and educational borrowing.

The formal organization for outside education and training in the field of DE could be, \textit{inter alia}, the following:

\begin{itemize}
  \item organized training courses such as conferences, workshops, colloquia and short courses
  \item study for professional and academic qualifications by full time attendance at another institution
  \item study for professional and academic qualifications through DE at various institutions as mentioned above
\end{itemize}

It is important to remember that these training modes and strategies are in no way mutually exclusive. However, for the provision of quality DE an institution should deem it essential to provide a plethora of different education and training opportunities for all members of staff.

The INSET courses could be organized in a manifold manner with respect to time schedules: periodically or on a regular basis. Access to and the nature and scope of the planning of such INSET could vary depending, for example, on the tenure contract of the staff. Thus, different strategies could be employed for those members of staff who are part time, on a short term contract or full time permanent employees of the DE institution. In the final analysis, it is crucial for the attainment of quality, that the DE providing institution galvanizes the INSET programme for its staff in such a manner that a coherent, long term development plan is manifested (Jenkins, 1993: 323; see also, Lewis, 1998: 23 - 32; Robinson, 1998: 33 - 44; Randell and Bitzer, 1998: 137 - 147; Kember, 1998: 171 - 181; Haigh, 1998: 182 - 192; Yates, 1998: 275 - 325).
7.2.2.7  FUTURE RESEARCH

As indicated in Chapter One this research is deemed to be the harbinger for further research in designated aspects of DE relevant to the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN. Much empirical research in terms of both quantitative analyses and qualitative, descriptive evaluations using case studies, ethnographic studies and so forth has been conducted in sundry aspects of DE especially in developed countries. In contradistinction, little or no such research has been undertaken in South Africa and particularly in KZN involving teacher education. It will, therefore, be appreciated, understandably, that at this stage in KZN, much research in the field of DE, per se, still has to be done. What may appear as commonplace with respect to DE in developed countries in this regard may be deemed to be unique and most relevant in this province. Further, this study, concerned primarily with the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, could well be regarded as a start towards the consideration of radically new perspectives for research in the field of DE for the future. For now, the numerous paradigms for the various components of the provision of DE and the ramifications thereof extant in developed countries could well serve as useful prototypes for research in KZN.

Thus, the need for further research in pivotal areas of DE, unequivocally, is urgent. The following considerations are deemed to be expedient as a point of departure:

- Issues related to media and technology usage in the provision of DE specifically for teacher education in KZN.

The literature on media and technology in DE is vast, varied and growing. As illustrated in figure 1.1 the use of media and technology reinforces the concept of the third generation of DE.
The suggestion of an ACTIONS model propounded by Bates (1995(a): 1 - 18; 33 - 60; 1993: 178; see also, Rao, 1997: 2; Moore and Kearsley, 1996: 78) could well constitute the framework for research in media and technology for DE provision for teacher education in KZN. The pertinent areas are:

- **A - Access** - How accessible is a particular technology for learners? How flexible is it for a particular target group?

- **C - Costs** - What is the cost structure of each technology? What is the unit cost per learner?

- **T - Teaching and Learning** - What kinds of learning are needed? What instructional approaches are needed? What instructional approaches will best meet these needs? What are the best technologies for supporting this teaching and learning?

- **I - Interactivity and User-Friendliness** - What kind of interaction does this technology enable? How easy is it to use?

- **O - Organizational Issues** - What are the organizational issues and requirements and the barriers to be removed before this technology can be used successfully? What changes in organization need to be made?

- **N - Novelty** - How new is this technology?

- **S - Speed** - How quickly can courses be mounted with this technology? How quickly can materials be changed?

Moreover, for KZN particularly it is further recommended that research could commence with the media and technology illustrated in figure 7.5 below:
FIGURE 7.5 MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY IN DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR THE PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
Other recommended areas of research which are considered critical primarily for provision of quality DE for teacher education in KZN are:

1. A study of the factors causing drop-outs, stagnates and wastage in DE.
2. An evaluation of the teacher education courses provided through DE and their relevance for education in KZN.
3. The role and position of teachers as learners in open and distance learning.
4. Frameworks and models for improving the student support and counselling in KZN for teachers enrolled for DE courses in KZN.
5. Analysis of the issues concerning pacing relevant to the teachers enrolled for DE courses in KZN.
6. Consideration of the theory and practice of DE for effective open and distance learning as applicable to teachers in KZN.
7. Analysis of the cost-effectiveness and cost-efficiency of DE provided for teachers in the province.
8. Considerations relevant to issues related to management and promotion of quality open and distance learning in KZN.
9. Investigation into the consortium approach for collaboration, partnerships and alliances among DE providers in KZN.
10. INSET for staff of DE providers.
The establishment of study centres and their impact for teachers enrolled for DE teacher education programmes.

Creating the future for teacher education by the development of a new education paradigm and vision through open and distance learning in KZN.

7.3 **EPILOGUE**

According to the national Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, large parts of the education system in South Africa are seriously dysfunctional. Each level of the system is apparently characterized by a crisis of such magnitude that in its totality it amounts to a national emergency (Momberg, 1999: 6; see also, Stuart, 1999: 8; *Sunday Times*, 1999-08-01). Some may argue that the present national Minister of Education inherited a bureaucratic hydra fraught with decay and division as the legacy of apartheid and the deadly baggage of his predecessors in office. Be that as it may, as Pretorius (1999: 2) reports, for the first time there was a real acknowledgement that despite the best policies in the world, education in South Africa is in a shambles.

The Minister also announced nine priorities for the improvement of the status quo in education in South Africa and the numerous steps that he intends to take in order to accomplish the goals that he set with respect to such priorities. Among these is the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers through the broadening of the subject knowledge of teachers. In addition, the provision of INSET for teachers is also to be provided, *inter alia*, to enable them to implement outcomes-based education and Curriculum 2005 (Stuart, 1999: 8; see also, Pretorius, 1999: 2; Momberg, 1999: 6).
The situation in KZN is a reflection of the national scenario with respect to the crisis in education. Consequently, among the strategies to be utilized for enhancing the quality of the delivery of education at the chalkface is the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers. This research, therefore, may be considered to be timely. Indeed, the metaphorical reference by Bernier (1995: 35) could be adapted to assert incisively, that the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in the Province of KZN 'is an idea whose time has come'. The comment by Bates (1988(b): 19), in the late 1980s, that DE is no longer on trial becomes more profound at this period. It is meeting the real needs of education in the modern world and as such can be a successful and relevant strategy for teacher education.

As we approach the new millennium, DE education is being regarded as having evolved into the third generation with the emphasis on different technologies which overcome the problem of physical distance between learners and teachers at the DE providing institutions. KZN needs to appreciate the advantages of such a development. The educational authorities must, as a matter of maintaining continued growth in education in terms of global parameters, initiate efforts to promote the understanding of modern techniques in DE while taking into account the local constraints. Ljosa (1993: 37) passionately advocates that this momentum in promoting state-of-the-art DE for the future must be constantly monitored to achieve the ultimate vision of high quality education. In the light of this counsel, DE as an important component of INSET for teachers empowering them to upgrade and improve their qualifications becomes even more critical.

Indeed, Moon (1998: 1) succinctly enunciates the crux of the global trend with respect to teacher education, namely, that:

'Teacher education across the world is undergoing significant rethinking and reform. Most, if not all, countries have teacher education at the forefront of national policies.'
Internationally, the Zeitgeist with respect to teacher education is that the bricks and mortar institutions responsible for teacher education to serve the needs of the twentieth century will inevitably be deemed anachronistic in the new millennium. This is excruciatingly relevant to South Africa and the KZN as frequent reference is made to the obsolete methodologies in teacher education and the malaise that is characterizing the teaching profession. The strident demand, then, for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers, directed towards meeting the challenges of the future as both dexterous and sagacious professionals as well as competent and versatile educators, is to be incessantly sustained.

Another perspective is for the DE providers in KZN to consider as a matter of urgent priority the new generation conceptualization of open and distance learning in consonance with the global aspirations and dimensions. The DE providing institutions in the province must become a functional constituent of the broader educational landscape. Only then will they be able to significantly ameliorate the process of access and opportunity that teachers in the province will have for dignified, relevant and high quality professional development.

With regards to access and opportunity, perhaps the promulgation of legislation establishing the NQF and SAQA are distinct milestones in the history of education in South Africa. These pieces of legislation will ensure that educational systems in the country will increasingly co-exist in greater terms of equality than before. For open and distance learning and particularly for teacher education, the possibilities of greater flexibility are made real. The observation by Reddy (1993 : 248) is, thus, most appropriate now:

'It is said that there was a time when, if a student wanted to learn, he had to go to Aristotle. Today, we have the means of bringing Aristotle to the student.'
In terms of this construct of open and distance learning then, teachers would be empowered to learn when they want, where they want, what they need and in a format appropriate to them. Perhaps the concept of open learning in the nomenclature of the recently established principal provider of DE for teacher education in KZN, SACOL, is a commendable presage and beginning in this regard.

Again, it is important to remember that in the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers due recognition should be given to the suggestion by Garrison (1989: 8; see also, Daniel, 1993: 55; Harry et al., 1993: 1 - 3) that we must not be limited by narrow visions of the field shaped by only what has gone before. The providers of DE for teacher education in KZN need to prognosticate possible futures and, if considered politic, monumental paradigmatic shifts, to ensure that teachers are optimally qualified to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

Perraton (1993(a)(3): 399) asserts that educational innovations are tender seedlings. Some may shrivel because of inadequate resources while others may become consumed by the glowing torch of over-optimism. Still others may grow rapidly and luxuriously only to collapse as other enterprises and projects gain precedence with regard to allocation of resources. This imagery is both perceptive and ingenuously harmonious with the realities of educational initiatives particularly in KZN to date.

However, it is fervently hoped that this research and the recommendations for the provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of the qualifications of teachers in KZN, conceived as tender seedlings, will germinate rapidly and gloriously without collapsing. There are imaginative and exciting possibilities for education in this regard.

It is essential to look at the past and the experiences of others in a positive sense and consider the achievements attained. At the same time it is critical to build upon the monads of such phenomena for the sake of progress.
Thus, it behoves the educational authorities in KZN to become alert of the global trends in DE and create a living laboratory of educational innovations for teacher education by identifying the opportunities existing presently and extending them for teachers in the province. At the same time teachers must not hesitate to grasp the nettle of the future by engaging enthusiastically and conscientiously in their INSET. The provision of DE for the upgrading and improvement of their qualifications is undoubtedly a key factor in the new generation of teacher education and a pivotal element of such INSET. In such provision the Province of KZN can create new horizons for education and the society at large for the new millennium.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

PRIMARY SOURCES

Amalgamation of Distance Education Colleges in Kwazulu-Natal: Final Reports and Recommendations of the Task Team and Main Committee as Amended following the Meeting of College and Departmental Representatives, 18 March 1998.


Correspondence: E Steyn, Department of Management Information, Vista University - Professor D R Bagwandeen, 22 June 1999, Re: Statistics for D. Ed. Thesis.

Correspondence: Dr D R J van Rensburg - Professor D R Bagwandeen, 1999-03-24, Re: Enrolment Figures for Courses at the South African College for Teacher Education.

Correspondence : Department of Education - Professor D R Bagwandeen, 22 August 1996. Project on Norms and Standards for Distance Education.


Correspondence : Mr H J Visser, Acting Head : Bureau for Management Information, University of South Africa - Professor D R Bagwandeen, 1999-09-10, Re : Enrolment Figures for Courses, Faculty of Education, Statistics for D.Ed. Thesis.

Department of Education : Minutes of a Meeting of Committee on Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) : 24 November 1995. Working Committee : Distance Education and INSET. Magister Building, 123 Schoeman Street, Pretoria.

Department of Education : Minutes of Workshop on Norms and Standards for Distance Education held on 8 July 1996 at Magister Building, 123 Schoeman Street, Pretoria.

Department of Education : Minutes of Meeting of Research Group on Norms and Standards for Distance Education held on 1 August 1996 at Magister Building, 123 Schoeman Street, Pretoria.

Department of Education : Minutes of Meeting of Planning Group on Norms and Standards for Distance Education held on 12 August 1996 at Magister Building, 123 Schoeman Street, Pretoria.

Department of Education : Minutes of Meeting with Student Organisations on Norms and Standards for Distance Education held on 10 September 1996 at Magister Building, 123 Schoeman Street, Pretoria.

In-put [sic] Address by Dr S Z Mbokazi, Director, Teacher Education, KZN. Distance Teacher Education Providers in KZN : The Way Forward, 1996-12-03.

Minutes of a Meeting called by Dr S Z Mbokazi Re : Distance Teacher Education Providers in KZN : The Way Forward : 1996-12-03.

Minutes of a Meeting Re : Provision of INSET and Distance Teacher Education in KZN held at Edgewood College on 7 March 1997.
Minutes of a Meeting of the Committee of College and Departmental Representatives concerned with the Rationalisation of Distance Education Colleges held at Edgewood College on Monday 23 June 1997.

Minutes of the First Meeting of the Executive Committee of Council of the Springfield College of Education (SCE) held on 22 August 1997, at the SCE, Durban.

Natal College of Education (NCE) Statement by the Acting Rector, Natal College of Education. SACTE Document Relating to a Model for a Single Distance Education College of Teacher Education. 1998-08-03.

Report of the Sub-Committee on INSET / Distance Education at Colleges in KwaZulu-Natal on the Rationalisation of Distance Education Colleges. Report for the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture Directorate: Teacher Education, 1997-06-03.

SECONDARY SOURCES

Abbott L et al. 1993 Video Conferencing and Distance Learning. University of Ulster, Ulster.


Abrioux DAM X 1992 Distance Teaching at Athabasca University. In: Mugridge I (Ed) Perspectives on Distance Education: Distance Education in Single and Dual Mode Universities. Papers Presented to a Symposium on Reforms in Higher Education in New Delhi, India, August, 1992. The Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver.


Adekanmbi G 1993 Transformation in Distance Education: In Search of a Paradigm. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century. Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Aderinoye R A 1995 Teacher Training by Distance: The Nigerian Experience. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Adiseshiah M S 1990 The Concepts and Forms of Distance Education. In: Borah S (Ed) Distance Education. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Akoojee M S A 1994 A Critical Analysis of Teaching Practice as a Component of the Initial Teacher Education Programme at a College of


Altrichter H et al. 1991(1) Windows: Research and Evaluation on a Distance Education Course. Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria; University of South Australia, Underdale, South Australia.

Altrichter H et al. 1991(2) Introduction: Distance Education, Evaluation and Action Research. In: Altrichter H et al. Windows: Research and Evaluation on a Distance Education Course. Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria; University of South Australia, Underdale, South Australia.

Amundsen C 1993 The Evolution of Theory in Distance Education. In: Keegan D (Ed) Theoretical Principles of Distance Education. Routledge, London and New York.


Ansere J K 1982 The Inevitability of Distance Education in Africa. In: Daniel J S et al. (Eds) *Learning at a Distance: A World Perspective.* Athabasca University/International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.

Ansu-Kyeremeh K 1991 Distance Education in a Developing Context: Ghana. In: Evans T and King B *Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education.* Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Armstrong J D and Store R E 1983 (Eds) *Evaluation in Distance Teaching.* James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland.


Athabasca University 1992(b) *The Athabasca University Advantage: Canada’s Open University*. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1996 *Athabasca University: Canada’s Open University. Annual Report 1997 - 98 Extracts*. Public Affairs, Athabasca University,
Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(a) **Athabasca University : Canada's Open University.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(b) **Athabasca University : Canada's Open University Calendar 99-00.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(c) **Bridging the Distance.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(d) **Master of Distance Education.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(e) **Nursing : Advanced Graduate Diploma in Community Nursing Practice.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(f) **The Bachelor of Nursing Program.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(g) **Nursing : University Certificate in Home Health Nursing.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(h) **Professional Accounting Education: Independent Study 1999.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(i) **Bachelor of Arts : Psychology.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(j) **Bachelor of Arts : University Diploma in Arts.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(k) **Bachelor of Professional Arts : Criminal Justice.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(l) **Bachelor of Professional Studies : Communication Studies.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(m) **Bachelor of Science : Human Science.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Athabasca University 1999(n) **Bachelor of Science in Computing and Information Systems.** Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Bachelor of Science: Post Diploma. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Bachelor of Administration Degree: Post Diploma. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

University Certificate: Career Development. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Bachelor of Administration Degree: Post Diploma. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

University Diploma: Inclusive Education. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

University Certificate: Counselling Women. Athabasca University, Athabasca.

Graduate Management Programs. Centre for Innovative Management, Athabasca University, Athabasca.


Quality in Distance Education. ASPESA Forum 91. Papers Presented at the Tenth Biennial Forum of the Australian and South Pacific External Studies Association (ASPESA) held at Charles Sturt University, Mitchell Campus, Bathurst, New South Wales. 15-19 July 1991. ASPESA, Lismore Heights, New South Wales.


The Delivery of TAFE Distance Education in Australia: Review of the Literature, Analysis of Current Practices and Recommendations for Development. TAFE National Centre for Research and Development, Adelaide.

Correspondence Education in the Light of a Number of Contemporary Teaching Models. Liber Hermods, Malmö.


Bååth J A 1982(a) Theoretical Models for Planning Correspondence Courses. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Bååth J A 1982(b) Distance students' learning - empirical findings and theoretical deliberations. In: *Distance Education*, 3(1):6-27.


Bacsich P 1987 Computer Conferencing in Distance Education. In: Jones A et al. (Eds) *The Computer Revolution in Education: New Technologies for Distance Education*. The Harvester Press, Sussex; St. Martin’s Press,


Bagwandeen D R 1995(b) *Springfield: A Provider of Distance Education for Teachers in Kwazulu-Natal.* Paper Presented at the Committee of College of Education Rectors of South Africa (CCERSA) Conference: Sharing and
Comparing the Challenges of Teacher Education through Distance Education. Held at Natal College of Education, 2 - 4 May 1995.

Bagwandeepen D R 1995(c) Role of the Springfield College of Education as a Provider of Distance Education for Upgrading the Qualifications of Teachers in Kwazulu-Natal. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices : Quality in Open and Distance Education. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Bagwandeepen D R 1995(d) Report on 17th World Conference for Distance Education of the International Council for Distance Education (ICDE) Held in Birmingham 26 June - 30 June 1995 and visit to the Sidney Stringer School and Community College, Coventry, United Kingdom. Springfield College of Education, Durban.


Bagwandeepen D R 1996(c) Norms and Standards for Distance Education : Some Suggestions for the Planning Group. Paper Presented at a meeting at Department of Education, Pretoria, on 1 August 1996.

Bagwandeepen D R 1996(d) In-service Education and Training (INSET) for Teachers : The Bedrock of Quality Education. Springfield College of Education, Durban.


Bagwandeepen D R 1997(b) Report on the 18th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education held at The Pennsylvania

Bagwande D R 1997(c) Formal, Award-Bearing In-Service Education and Training (INSET) through Distance Education for Educators in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. In: International Council for Distance Education (ICDE) The New Learning Environment: A Global Perspective. ICDE and The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.


Bagwande D R 1999 Assuring Quality in the Designing and Development of Study Guides for Distance Education (DE) Courses. University of the North (Qwa-Qwa Campus) (UNIQWA), Phuthaditjhaba.


Bansal R K 1991 Teaching of English in the Distance Education System. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Bates A W 1984(b)(1) (Ed) *The Role of Technology in Distance Education.* Croom Helm, London and Sydney; St. Martin's Press, New York.

Bates A W 1984(b)(2) The Growth of Technology in Distance Education. In: Bates A W (Ed) *The Role of Technology in Distance Education.* Croom Helm, London and Sydney; St. Martin's Press, New York.


Bates A W 1987 Media in Distance Education. In: UNESCO *Higher Level Distance Education: Perspectives for International Cooperation and New Developments in Technology.* UNESCO Deakin University Co-publication, Victoria.


Bates A W 1988(b) *Experiences from the British Open University and Pointers to the Future.* Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Washington, D.C.


Bates A W 1990(Ed) *Media and Technology in European Distance Education.* Proceedings of the EADTU Workshop on Media, Methods and Technology. European Association of Distance Teaching Universities, Heerlen. Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes.

Bates A 1993 Technology for Distance Education: A Ten Year Prospective. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) Distance Education: New Perspectives. Routledge, London and New York.

Bates A W (Tony) 1995(a) Technology, Open Learning and Distance Education. Routledge, London and New York.


Bates A W 1996 The Impact of Technology in Internationalizing Distance Education. In: Thompson M M (Ed) Internationalism in Distance Education: A Vision for Higher Education. American Center for the Study of Distance Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

Bates A et al. 1973 Teaching by Correspondence in the Open University. The Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes.

Beaudoin M F 1986 Distance learning does work. In: Education Digest, 51: 56-57.


Benson R 1993 Qualitative Evaluation as a Means of Determining Educational Quality. In: Nunan T (Ed) Distance Education Futures: Selected Papers from the 11th Biennial Forum of the Australian and South Pacific

Benson R et al. 1991 Achieving Quality in Distance Education. In: Atkinson R et al. (Eds) Quality in Distance Education. ASPESA Forum 91. Papers Presented at the Tenth Biennial Forum of the Australian and South Pacific External Studies Association (ASPESA) held at Charles Sturt University, Mitchell Campus, Bathurst, New South Wales. 15-19 July 1991. ASPESA, Lismore Heights, New South Wales.


Bhat V D 1990 Educational Technology in Distance Education. In: Borah S (Ed) Distance Education. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Black E J 1992 Faculty support for university distance education. In: Journal of Distance Education, 7(2):5-29.


Bopape T and Roman M 1997 Support Through Correspondence Communication. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) Support Services in Distance Education. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Borah S 1990 (Ed) Distance Education. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Bottomley J and Calvert J 1994 Dimensions of Value: Estimating the Benefits of Higher and Distance Education Programmes. In: Dhanarajan G et al. (Eds) Economics of Distance Education: Recent Experience. Open Learning Institute Press, Hong Kong.
Bottomley J et al. 1995 The Status of Open and Distance Education in a Mass Higher Education System. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Brookbank C R 1984 *Audio Teleconferencing in Distance Education*. Occasional Paper No. 10. Institute of Public Affairs, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Canada.

Brophy J 1989 *College of Preceptors: Distance Learning Scheme*. Course Book for Methods of Teaching. College of Preceptors, United Kingdom.


Bureau for Management Information 1999(a) *Statistics D.Ed. Thesis. Enrolled Students according to Qualifications: 1998 and 1999 Faculty of*
Education. Bureau for Management Information, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Bureau for Management Information 1999(b) Enrolled Students according to Qualifications and Provinces: 1999 Faculty of Education. Monday, 1999 August, 23. Bureau for Management Information, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Bureau for University Teaching Team 1997 Materials Design for Distance Education: Strategies and Reflections. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual C. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Burpee P and Wilson B 1995 Professional Development: What Teachers Want and Universities Provide - A Canadian Perspective. In: Sewart D (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Education.* Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Byrne T C 1989 *Athabasca University: The Evolution of Distance Education.* The University of Calgary Press, Calgary, Alberta.

Cahill B 1985 (Ed) *Distance Education in Asia and the Pacific.* Bulletin of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. No. 26, December 1985. UNESCO, Bangkok.


Calder J 1994(a) Course Feedback : its Cost and Benefits; Its Limitations and Potential. In : Dhanarajan G et al. (Eds) *Economics of Distance Education : Recent Experience.* Open Learning Institute Press, Hong Kong.


Calvert J 1990 Research and Development in Distance Education. In : Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Calvert J 1992 Deakin University. In : Mugridge I (Ed) *Perspectives on Distance Education: Distance Education in Single and Dual Mode Universities.* Papers Presented to a Symposium on Reforms in Higher Education in New Delhi, India, August, 1992. The Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver.

Campbell-Thrane L 1954 (Ed) Correspondence Education Moves to the Year 2000: Proceedings of the First National Invitational Forum on Correspondence Education. The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Campion M 1990 Post-Fordism and Research in Distance Education. In: Evans T (Ed) Research in Distance Education 1. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Campion M G 1991 Critical Essay on Educational Technology in Distance Education. In: Evans T and King B Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Canadian Association for Distance Education (CADE) 1997 CADE/ACED Virtual Conference. CADE, Ottawa.


Castro A S et al. 1985 An Australian Casebook of Study Centres in Distance Education. The Distance Education Unit, Deakin University, Victoria.


Chacón F J 1995 Modelling Research in Distance Education. In : Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices : Quality in Open and Distance Education. Volume I. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Chander N J 1991(b) Distance Education: Some Conceptual and Policy Considerations. In: Khan I (Ed) Distance Education: Some Readings. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Chary V 1984 The Role of Correspondence Programmes in Teacher Education. In: Parmaji S (Ed) Distance Education. Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi.


Chib S S 1991 Distance Education in India: Some Issues and Challenges. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Childs G B 1966 Review of Research in Correspondence Study. In: Wedemeyer C A (Ed) *The Brandenburg Memorial Essays on Correspondence Instruction - II*. The University of Wisconsin, University Extension, Madison, Wisconsin.


Chivore B R S 1992 Pre-Service Teacher Education at a Distance: The Case of Zimbabwe. In: Murphy P and Zhiri A (Eds) *Distance Education in Anglophone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training*. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Chow C et al. 1987 *Educational Technology's Major Success Story: A Review of Similarities, Differences, and Lessons Learned in Selected International Distance Learning Institutions.* Presentation made at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, February 24 - March 1, Atlanta, Georgia.


Chung F 1990 Strategies for Developing Distance Education. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Clarke R F 1970 The Role of Radio and Television in Correspondence Education. In: Edström L O et al. (Eds) *Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in some Developing Countries.* Almqvist and Wiksell/The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Stockholm.


Coastline Community College 1995 *Annual Report on Distance Education Activities.* Submitted to the Board of Trustees, Coast Community College District. Coastline Community College, Fountain Valley, California.


Coldevin G 1988(b) Patterns of Distance Education for In-service Training of Third World Teachers. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9-16 August 1988.* International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.

Coldevin G 1990 Teacher Training through Distance Education: A Regional Update of Africa and Asia. In : Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Coldeway D O 1982 Recent Research in Distance Learning. In : Daniel J S et al. (Eds) *Learning at a Distance: A World Perspective.* Athabasca University/International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.

Coldeway D O 1988 Methodological issues in distance educational research. In: *The American Journal of Distance Education,* 2(3) : 45 - 54.


Coldeway D O 1992 Concepts of Experimental Inquiry in Distance Education: "A Systems Perspective". In : Burge E J et al. *International Perspectives on Distance Education Research.* Papers Presented at the Preconference


College for Open Learning Southern Africa (COLSA) 1998 Marketing Document
1998 School of Education. COLSA, Weltevreden Park.


College of Education of South Africa (CESA) 1993 Yearbook. CESA, Pretoria.


Cookson P S 1990 The Recruitment and Retention Practice Model of Initial and Continuing Participation in Distance Education. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) Distance Education: Development and Access. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Crawford G and Spronk B 1995 Graduate Degrees at a Distance: Issues in Planning and Delivery. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton
Keynes.


Croft M et al. 1990 (Eds) Distance Education: Development and Access. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Curran C 1990 Factors Affecting the Costs of Media in Distance Education. In: Bates A W (Ed) Media and Technology in European Distance Education. Proceedings of the EADTU Workshop on Media, Methods and Technology. European Association of Distance Teaching Universities, Heerlen. Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes.

Curran C and Murphy P 1992 Distance Education at the Second-Level and for Teacher Education in Six African Countries. In: Murphy P and Zhiri A (Eds) *Distance Education in Anglphone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training*. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.


Daniel J S 1988 Distance Education and National Development. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education. Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9-16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.

Daniel J 1989(a) Interaction and Independence: How is the Mixture Changing? In: Tait A (Ed) *Interaction and Independence; Student Support in Distance Education and Open Learning*. An International Conference Presented by the International Council for Distance Education and The British Open University Regional Academic Services, September 19th to 22nd,


Daniel J S 1990 Distance Education and Developing Countries. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) Distance Education: Development and Access. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Daniel J S 1992(b) Didactic Conversations about Prosperity, Politics and Peace. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Daniel J S 1993 A Duty for Distance Education in the 1990s. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) Distance Education: New Perspectives. Routledge, London and New York.


Daniel J 1995(b) What has the Open University achieved in 25 years? In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Daniel J S and Marquis C 1979 Interaction and independence: getting the mixture right. In: Teaching at a Distance, 15:29-44.


Datt R 1982 Problems of Distance Education in Developing Countries. In: Daniel J S et al. (Eds) *Learning at a Distance : A World Perspective*. Athabasca University/International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.

Datt R 1989 Development of Correspondence Courses in India - A Survey - cum - Stocktaking. In: Khan I (Ed) *Teaching at a Distance: Some Papers on Distance Education*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Datt R 1990 Distance Education - Policies and Strategies (A Case Study of India). In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Datt R 1991 Planning and Management of Distance Education in India. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Datt R 1993 Distance Education in the Developing World - A Case Study of India. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) *Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century*. Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Dawjee R and Selikow T A 1997 Providing Learner Support through Electronic Media. In : Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) *Support Services in Distance Education*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Dekkers J and Cuskelley E 1990 *The Establishment and Use of Electronic Mail for Distance Education.* University College of Central Queensland, Queensland.


Delling R M 1991 Distance Education as a Multi-Dimensional System of Communication and Production. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) *Research into Distance Education*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Department of Education (DOE) 1996(a) *A Distance Education Quality Standards Framework for South Africa.* A Discussion Document prepared by The Directorate: Distance Education, Media and Technological Services. DOE, Pretoria.


Department of Education (DOE) 1996(g) *Norms and Standards for Distance Education, 1 August 1996.* DOE, Pretoria.

Department of Education (DOE) 1996(h) *Norms and Standards for Distance Education, 11 October 1996.* DOE, Pretoria.


Department of Education (DOE) 1998 *Norms and Standards for Educators.*
Technical Committee on the Revision of Norms and Standards for Educators, DOE, Pretoria.


Deshmukh K G 1990 Genesis and the Growth of Distance Education. In: Borah S (Ed) *Distance Education.* Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


De Vocht C and Henderikx P 1993 (Eds) *Flexible Responses in Higher Education : Strategies and Scenarios for the Use of Open and Distance Education in Mainstream Higher Education.* Studiecentrum Open Hoger Onderwijs (St Oho), Brussels.

Dewal O S 1992 Two-Way Communication: From Correspondence to Distance Education. In: Orner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg.* Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Dhanarajan G et al. 1994 (Eds) *Economics of Distance Education : Recent Experience.* Open Learning Institute Press, Hong Kong.

Dilley L and Roman A 1997 (Eds) *Support Services in Distance Education.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Dilley L and Roman A 1998 (Eds) *Support Services in Distance Education.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual B. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Dillon C L and Gunawardena C N 1995 A Framework for the Evaluation of Telecommunications-Based Distance Education. In: Sewart D (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning.* Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Dodd J 1981 *The Credibility of Distance Education.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Dove L A 1986 *Teachers and Teacher Education in Developing Countries*. Croom Helm, London.


Du Preez A and Goodwin-Davey A 1999 Case Study 17 : Vista University : Focus on VUDEC : Vista University Distance Education Campus. In : University of South Africa (UNISA) *Resource Book : Case Studies. Open Distance Learning. Design and Development : Distance Education Materials*. UNISA, Faculty of Education, Pretoria.


Ediger M 1984 Correspondence Education. In : Parmaji S (Ed) *Distance Education*. Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi.
Edström L O 1970  What is Correspondence Education? In: Edström L et al. (Eds) *Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in some Developing Countries.* Almqvist and Wiksell/The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Stockholm.

Edström L O 1973 Assistance to Correspondence Education in Africa. In: Kabwasa A and Kaunda M M (Eds) *Correspondence Education in Africa.* Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Boston.

Edström L O et al. 1970 (Eds) *Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in some Developing Countries.* Almqvist and Wiksell/The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Stockholm.

Education Information Centre et al. (n.d.) *Understanding the National Qualifications Framework.* Education Information Centre et al., Johannesburg.


Edwards R 1995 Different discourses, discourses of difference: globalisation, distance education and open learning. In: *Distance Education*, 16 (2) : 241-255.

El-Bushra J 1973 *Correspondence Teaching at University.* International Extension College, Cambridge.

Elliot S 1990 *Distance Education Systems.* Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.


England R 1991 *A Survey of State-level Involvement in Distance Education at the Elementary and Secondary Levels.* The American Center for the Study of Distance Education, The Pennsylvania State University College of
Education, University Park, Pennsylvania.


Erdos R 1970 The History and Development of Correspondence Education. In: Edström L O et al. (Eds) *Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in some Developing Countries*. Almqvist and Wiksell/The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Stockholm.


Escotet M A 1992 Information and Formation: The Change of Paradigm in University Distance Learning. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Evans T 1990(1) (Ed) *Research in Distance Education 1*. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Evans T 1990(2) Putting Theory into Place: Developing a Theory-based Comparative Research Project in Distance Education. In : Evans T (Ed) *Research in Distance Education 1*. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Evans T 1991(1) An Epistemological Orientation to Critical Reflection in Distance Education. In : Evans T and King B *Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education*. Deakin University Press, Geelong,
Evans T 1991(2) Distance Education in Developing Nations: Introduction. In: Evans T and King B Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.

Evans T 1991(3) Introduction: Technology in Distance Education. In: Evans T and King B Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.

Evans T 1995 Globalisation, post-Fordism and open and distance education. In: Distance Education, 16(2) : 256-269.

Evans T and King B 1991 Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Evans T and Nation D 1989(b)(3) Critical Reflections in Distance Education. In: Evans T and Nation D (Eds) Critical Reflections on Distance Education. The Falmer Press, London.

Evans T and Nation D 1991 Distance Education and Teachers' Professional Development. In: Hughes P (Ed) Teachers' Professional Development. The Australian Council for Educational Research Ltd. (ACER), Hawthorn,


Evans T and Nation D 1993(b)(1) (Eds) *Reforming Open and Distance Education: Critical Reflections from Practice*. Kogan Page, London.

Evans T and Nation D 1993(b)(2) Introduction: Reformations in Open and Distance Education. In: Evans T and Nation D (Eds) *Reforming Open and Distance Education: Critical Reflections from Practice*. Kogan Page, London.

Evans T and Nation D 1993(b)(3) Educational Technologies: Reforming Open and Distance Education. In : Evans T and Nation D (Eds) *Reforming Open and Distance Education: Critical Reflections from Practice*. Kogan Page, London.


Eysell E 1997 Dialogue through Correspondence. In: Sached Trust et al. Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Farnes N 1976 Distance teaching for developing countries. In: Teaching at a Distance, (5):34-39.


Flinck R 1978 Correspondence Education Combined with Systematic Telephone Tutoring. Hermods, Malmö.


Fraser W J and Hugo A J 1996 Distance learners' perceptions of the tutorial packages and course work policies at different distance education (DE) institutions in South Africa. In: Educare, 25(1 and 2): 29-46.

Freysen J 1987 The Potential of Sound Cassettes in Distance Education. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) Media and Technology in Distance Education. Distance Education in Southern Africa: Preparing for the 21st Century. 18 - 21 May 1987. Conference Papers, Volume 3.1. UNISA, Pretoria.

Fuller R G 1984 Videodiscs. In: Bates A W (Ed) The Role of Technology in Distance Education. Croom Helm, London and Canberra; St. Martin's
Press, New York.

Gachuhi D and Matiru B 1989 (Eds) *Handbook for Designing and Writing Distance Education Materials*. University of Nairobi, Faculty of External Studies, Department of Distance Studies and German Foundation for International Development Education, Science and Documentation Centre, Bonn.


Garbers J G 1992 Address delivered by the Director-General of National Education, Dr J G Garbers, at the pilot conference of *The South African Institute for Distance Education* held at the World Trade Centre, Kempton Park on 7 September 1992. The 1992 Launching Conference of the South African Institute for Distance Education. 7 - 9 September 1992.


Garrison D R 1985(b) *Research Paradigms in Adult Education: Philosophical Differences and Complementary Methodologies*. Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Washington, D.C.


Garrison D R 1993(a) Multifunction Microcomputer Enhanced Audio Teleconferencing: Moving into the Third Generation of Distance Education. In : Harry K et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : New Perspectives.* Routledge, London and New York.

Garrison D R 1993(b) Quality and Access in Distance Education : Theoretical Considerations. In : Keegan D (Ed) *Theoretical Principles of Distance Education.* Routledge, London and New York.


Geoffrey D 1990 Broadcasting Developments and Distance Education. In: Timmers S (Ed) Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.


Giltrow D 1989 Distance Education. President's Library. Vol. 1 No. 1. Association for Educational Communication and Technology (AECT), Washington, D.C.
Glatter R et al. 1971 *Study by Correspondence: An Enquiry into Correspondence Study for Examinations for Degrees and Other Advanced Qualifications*. Longmans, London.


Goodwin-Davey A 1997(1) Issues in Distance Education. In : Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Goodwin-Davey A 1997(2) Discovering some of the Issues. In : Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Goodwin-Davey A 1997(3) Issues for DE in South Africa. In : Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Gough E 1983 Conference dinner address - New Horizons in Distance Education. In : Armstrong J D and Store R E (Eds) *Evaluation in Distance Teaching*. James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland.

Gough E 1984 Towards a Philosophy of Distance Education. In: Smith K (Ed) *Diversity Down Under: In Distance Education*. Darling Downs Institute
Press, Toowoomba, Queensland.

Gough J E 1980 *The Use of Study Centres in Four Distance Education Systems*. Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.


Grace M 1990 Hermeneutic Theory in Research in Distance Education. In : Evans T (Ed) *Research in Distance Education 1*. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Graff K 1982 Correspondence Instruction in the History of the Western World. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.


Greagg L 1985 *Teleconferencing in Distance Education: Literature Survey.* Victorian TAFE Off-Campus Network, Melbourne, Victoria.


Gultig J 1992 *Educating Teachers for a "New" South Africa : What Role Can Distance Education Play?* Paper Presented at the Launching Conference of the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) 7 - 9 September 1992, World Trade Centre. The Part that Distance Learning can play in addressing Educational Needs for the new South Africa. SAIDE, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.


Guri-Rozenblit S 1989 Intensive Tutorials and Special Frameworks for Teachers Studying at the Open University of Israel. In : Tait A (Ed) *Interaction and Independence; Student Support in Distance Education and Open*


Guy R 1990 Research and Distance Education in the Third World Cultural Contexts. In: Evans T (Ed) Research in Distance Education 1. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Guy R 1991 Distance Education and the Developing World: Colonisation, Collaboration and Control. In: Evans T and King B (Eds) Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Harley G S 1992 *Position Paper: Distance Education in South Africa: Higher Education.* Paper Presented at the Launching Conference of the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) 7-9 September 1992, World Trade Centre. The Part that Distance Learning can play in addressing Educational Needs for the new South Africa. SAIDE, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.


Harris B M 1980 *Improving Staff Performance Through In-service Education.* Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston.

Harris D 1987 *Openness and Closure in Distance Education.* The Falmer Press, London.

Harris D 1991 Towards A Critical Educational Technology in Distance Education. In : Evans T and King B *Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education.* Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Harris W J A and Williams J D S 1977 *A Handbook on Distance Education.* Department of Adult and Higher Education, The University of Manchester, Manchester.


Harry K 1990(a) The International Centre for Distance Learning. In: *Educational Media International*, 27(2) : 115 - 188.

Harry K 1990(b) The Open University, United Kingdom. In: Koul B N and Jenkins J (Eds) *Distance Education: A Spectrum of Case Studies*. Kogan Page in association with the International Extension College, London.


Harry K 1992(b) The Development of Information and Documentation Work in Distance Education. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Hartshorne K B 1985 *The In-service Education and Training of Teachers*. Report of the INSET Sub-Committee of the Work Committee: Teacher
Education. Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), Pretoria.


Hatar A 1987 Distance Education for Developing Countries: An Examination of Learners' Preferences in Guyana. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Ohio, Ohio.


Hawkridge D G 1973(a) The Open University in the Third World. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Hawkridge D G 1973(b) The Open University's Role in a Democracy. The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Hawkridge D 1995 The Big Bang Theory in Distance Education. In : Lockwood F (Ed) Open and Distance Learning Today. Routledge, London and New York.


Heese M 1997(a)(1) Discovering the Issues of Course Design and Development in DE. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) *Design and Development of Distance Education Materials*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual A. UNISA, Pretoria.

Heese M 1997(a)(2) Information and Communication Technologies: Guidelines for Planning and Integration. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) *Design and Development of Distance Education Materials*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual A. UNISA, Pretoria.

Heese M 1997(a)(3) Team Approaches to Course Development. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) *Design and Development of Distance Education Materials*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual A. UNISA, Pretoria.


Heese M and Mackintosh W 1998  
**Design and Development of Distance Education Materials.** Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Heese M and Van Zyl H 1997 Team Approaches in Developing DE Materials.  
In: Bureau for University Teaching Team **Materials Design for Distance Education: Strategies and Reflections.** Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual C. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Henderson E S 1977 The growth of in-service education and training in the U.K.  

Henderson E S 1978  
**The Evaluation of In-service Teacher Training.** Croom Helm, London.

Henderson E S 1979 The concept of school-focussed in-service education and training.  

Henderson E S 1984 Introduction : Theoretical Perspectives on Adult Education.  


Hendricks N 1997 The Assessment Interface.  
In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) **Support Services in Distance Education.** Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Henning E 1994 In-service education for unqualified teachers : suggestions for an alternative model.  

Henri F 1988 Distance education and computer-assisted communication.  

Henri F and Kaye A 1993 Problems of Distance Education.  
In: Harry K et al. (Eds) **Distance Education: New Perspectives.** Routledge, London and New York.
Herbst C C 1987 The telephone at UNISA. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) Media and Technology in Distance Education. Distance Education in Southern Africa: Preparing for the 21st Century. 18 - 21 May 1987. Conference Papers, Volume 3.1. UNISA, Pretoria.


Holmberg B 1982(a) *Distance Education: A Short Handbook*. Liber Hermods, Malmö.

Holmberg B 1982(b) *Recent Research into Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1982(c) *Recent Research into Distance Education II*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1982(d) Distance Study in Educational Theory and Practice. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen. See also, *Aspects of Educational Technology*, XIII, Educational Technology Twenty Years on, 1979, 72-77.

Holmberg B 1982(e) The Development of Correspondence Education - An International Concern: The Knute O. Broady Lecture. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1982(f) (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.
Holmberg B 1983(1) The Concept of Distance Education. In: Sewart D et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: International Perspectives*. Croom Helm, London and Canberra; St. Martin's Press, New York.

Holmberg B 1983(2) Guided Didactic Conversation in Distance Education. In: Sewart D et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: International Perspectives*. Croom Helm, London and Canberra; St. Martin's Press, New York.


Holmberg B 1985(c) *Status and Trends of Distance Education*. Lector Publishing, Lund.


Holmberg B 1986(b) *Growth and Structure of Distance Education*. Croom Helm, London.


Holmberg B 1988(a) Is Distance Education a Mode of Education in its Own Right or is it a Substitute for Conventional Education? In : Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education : Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.

Holmberg B 1988(b) *Essentials of Distance Education*. Course Unit 1. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1988(c) *Essentials of Distance Education*. Course Unit 2. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität,
Holmberg B 1988(d) *Essentials of Distance Education*. Course Unit 3. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1988(e) *Essentials of Distance Education*. Course Unit 4. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1988(f) *Essentials of Distance Education*. Course Unit 5. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.


Holmberg B 1989(b) (Ed) *Mediated Communication as a Component of Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Holmberg B 1989(c) The concept, basic character and development potentials of distance education. In: *Distance Education*, 10(1): 127 - 134.


Holmberg B 1989(g) 4: Further to the question of whether distance education is a discipline. In: *Journal of Distance Education*, 4(1): 62-64.

Holmberg B 1990(a) On Research Principles. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.
Holmberg B 1990(b) The Role of Media in Distance Education as a Key Academic Issue. In: Bates A W (Ed) Media and Technology in European Distance Education. Proceedings of the EADTU Workshop on Media, Methods and Technology. European Association of Distance Teaching Universities, Heerlen. Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes.

Holmberg B 1991(a)(1) The Feasibility of a Predictive Theory of Distance Education: What are we allowed to expect? In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Holmberg B 1991(a)(2) Educational Theory and its Application to Distance Education. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Holmberg B 1991(a)(3) Distance Education as Communication: The Impact of Research and the Requirements of Practitioners. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Holmberg B 1991(b) On the Character, Application and Potentials of Distance Education. In: Khan I (Ed) Distance Education: Some Readings. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Holmberg B 1993 Key Issues in Distance Education: An Academic Viewpoint. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) Distance Education: New Perspectives. Routledge, London and New York.


Holmberg B and Ortner G E 1991 (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Holmes B 1992(b) Trends in Comparative Education. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) Comparative Education Vol 1: An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education. UNISA, Pretoria.


Houdek E 1990 Managing Distance Education Courses. University of Illinois, Urbana - Champaign.


Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) 1987 *Distance Teaching in Education and Training in the RSA.* HSRC Education Research Programme No. 9. HSRC, Pretoria.


International Centre for Distance Learning (ICDL) 1995 *Mega-Universities of the World: The Top Ten.* The Open University and the International Council for Distance Education, Milton Keynes.


Jakupec V 1991 *Esoteric and Exoteric Concepts of Quality in Distance Education*. In: Atkinson R et al. (Eds) *Quality in Distance Education*. ASPESA Forum 91. Papers Presented at the Tenth Biennial Forum of the Australian and South Pacific External Studies Association (ASPESA) held at Charles Sturt University, Mitchell Campus, Bathurst, New South Wales. 15 - 19 July 1991. ASPESA, Lismore Heights, New South Wales.


Jegede O 1993 A Distance Education Research Agenda : A Survey of Expert Opinions from Developed and Developing Countries. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) *Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century.* Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Jenkins E R 1989 *The Personal Circumstances and Expectations of Teachers studying at Vista University.* Mimeograph, Vista University, Pretoria.


Jenkins J 1990 Dogma, Ritual and Reality in Distance Education : Re-evaluating the Process of Materials Development. In : Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Jenkins J 1993 Strategies for Collaborative Staff Training in Distance Education. In : Harry K et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : New Perspectives*. Routledge, London and New York.

Jennings Z D 1990 *Innovation in Tertiary Education in the Caribbean : Distance Teaching in the Faculty of Education at the University of The West Indies.* Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries, The Hague.


John M 1991 *Africa: A Survey of Distance Education 1991*. International Centre For Distance Learning (ICDL) and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Milton Keynes.


Joint Education Trust (JET) 1995(a) The National Teacher Education Audit: NGO Sector. JET, Johannesburg.

Joint Education Trust (JET) 1995(b) Profiles of NGOs involved in Teacher Development. Addendum to the National Teacher Education Audit: NGO Sector. JET, Johannesburg.

Jones A 1984 Computer Assisted Learning in Distance Education. In: Bates A W (Ed) The Role of Technology in Distance Education. Croom Helm, London and Sydney; St. Martin’s Press, New York.


Kaye A 1977 How can other countries learn from the Open University? (Educational Imperialism or International Co-operation?) In: *Teaching at a Distance*, (8): 34 - 38.


Keegan D J 1980(a) *On the Nature of Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), ZIFF Papiere 33. Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.


Keegan D J 1982(b) From Delhi to Vancouver: Trends in Distance Education. In: Daniel J S et al. (Eds) *Learning at a Distance: A World Perspective*. Athabasca University/International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.
Keegan D 1983(a) *Six Distance Education Theorists*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.


Keegan D J 1983(b)(2) Theories of Distance Education. In: Sewart D et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: International Perspectives*. Croom Helm, London and Canberra; St. Martin's Press, New York.


Keegan D 1990(b) A Theory for Distance Education. In: Moore M G (Ed) *Contemporary Issues in American Distance Education*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.

Keegan D 1991 The Study of Distance Education: Terminology, Definition and the Field of Study. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) *Research into Distance Education*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Keegan D 1992 The Theoretical Underpinnings of Distance Education. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Kember D and Murphy D 1992 *Tutoring Distance Education and Open Learning Courses*. Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australia Inc., Campbelltown, New South Wales.

Khan A W 1990 Training Needs for the Use of Communication Technology in Distance Education in India. In: Timmers S (Ed) *Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education*. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre (AMIC), Singapore.

Khan I 1989 (Ed) *Teaching at a Distance: Some Papers on Distance Education*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Khan I 1990 Teaching of English in Distance Education. In: Borah S (Ed) *Distance Education*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Khan I 1991(1) (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Khan I 1991(2) Faculty Development in Distance Education. In : Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.
Khan I 1991(3) Teaching of English Literature to Undergraduate Distant Learners. In: Khan I (Ed) Distance Education: Some Readings. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


King B 1991 Introduction: Access and Equity in Distance Education. In: Evans T and King B Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Kinyanjui P E 1992 The Organization of Teacher Training at a Distance with Particular Reference to Kenya. In: Murphy P and Zhir I A (Eds) Distance Education in Anglophone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Kinyanjui P 1996 Recent Developments in African Distance Education. In: Thompson M M (Ed) Internationalism in Distance Education: A Vision for Higher Education. American Center for the Study of Distance Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.


Koul B N 1984 Need for Professional Training in Distance Education. In: Parmaji S (Ed) *Distance Education*. Sterling Publishers, Private Limited, New Delhi.


Koul B N 1992 Development and Delivery of Distance Education: The Case of Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi, India. In: Mugridge I (Ed) *Perspectives on Distance Education: Distance Education in
Single and Dual Mode Universities. Papers Presented to a Symposium on Reforms in Higher Education in New Delhi, India, August, 1992. The Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver.


Koul B N et al. 1987 (Eds) Studies in Distance Education. Association of Indian Universities, New Delhi; Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi.


Kuhn M E 1998 Individual and Group Support for Distance Learners. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) Support Services in Distance Education. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual B. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Kuhn M E and Bussack B 1997 Concepts and Roles in Support Services in Distance Education. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) Support Services in Distance Education. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Kuhn M E and Williams P 1997 Does Learner Support Make a Difference? In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) Support Services in Distance Education. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture (KZNDEC) 1996 KZNDEC Newsletter, KZNDEC, Ulundi.

Laaser W 1986 Some didactic aspects of audio-cassettes in distance education: In: Distance Education, 7(1):143-152.

Laaser W 1995 Some Problems to Implement Distance Education in Developing Countries. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Landsberg E and Burden A 1998 Quality Education for All: Overcoming Barriers to Learning and Development. Summary of Report of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee for Education Support Services (NCESS) Tutorial Letter : To all students in the Faculty of Education. University of South Africa (UNISA). Faculty of Education, Pretoria.


Larsson H 1992 Börje Holmberg: Scholar, Teacher and Gentleman. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Lassa P 1983(3) The Teacher In-service Education Programme (TISEP) and the National Teachers’ Institute (NTI). In: Greenland J (Ed) *The In-service Training of Primary School Teachers in English-speaking Africa*. Macmillan, London.


Lefranc R 1982  Cost efficiency of university teaching systems at a distance. In: 

Lefranc R 1983  The evolution of distance teaching in higher education : from 
correspondence to the new technologies. In : *Educational Media 
International*, 1 : 8 - 11.

Lefranc R 1990  The use of sound cassettes in the French system of higher 
education at a distance. In : *Educational Media International*, 27(4): 220 -
224.

*One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning.* 
Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and the Open 
University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Le Roux A I 1987  The Use of Audio-cassettes in Distance Education. In : 
University of South Africa (UNISA) *Media and Technology in Distance 
Education. Distance Education in Southern Africa : Preparing for the 
UNISA, Pretoria.

Lewis R 1980  *Counselling in Open Learning : A Case Study.* National 
Extension College, Cambridge.

Lewis R 1984 (Ed) *Open Learning in Action : Case Studies. Open Learning 

Lewis R 1988 Staff Development in Conventional Institutions Moving towards Open 
Learning. In : Latchem C and Lockwood F (Eds) *Staff Development in 
Open and Flexible Learning.* Routledge, London and New York.

Lewis R and Paine N 1986  *How to Find and Adapt Materials and Select Media. 
Open Learning Guide 8.* Council for Educational Technology (CET), 
London.

Li F G W 1990  Speeding up the Development in China by Distance Education. 
In : Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : Development and Access.* 
International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Liebenberg B J 1988(Ed) *Professor Theo van Wijk.* University of South Africa, 
Pretoria.

Ligate N E 1995 Technologies and Effective Distance Learning in Developing Countries. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Ljosa E 1991 Distance Education in the Society of the Future: From Partial Understanding to Conceptual Frameworks. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Ljosa E 1993 Understanding Distance Education. In: Keegan D (Ed) Theoretical Principles of Distance Education. Routledge, London and New York.


Lubisi C et al. 1997(a) (Eds) *Understanding Outcomes-based Education: Knowledge, Curriculum and Assessment in South Africa: A Reader*. South African Institute for Distance Education and the National Department of Education, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.


Mackintosh W G 1997(a)(1) Towards a Theory of Distance Education. In: Mackintosh W G et al. Open and Distance Learning. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mackintosh W G 1997(a)(2) Describing Distance Education. In: Mackintosh W G et al. Open and Distance Learning. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mackintosh W G 1997(a)(3) Theoretical Positions in Distance Education. In: Mackintosh W G et al. Open and Distance Learning. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Mackintosh W G 1997(a)(6) Issues in Open and Distance Learning. In : Mackintosh W G et al. *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mackintosh W G 1997(b)(1) Distance Education : Implications for Textual Design. In : Bureau for University Teaching Team *Materials Design for Distance Education : Strategies and Reflections*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual C. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Mackintosh W G 1997(b)(3) Distance Education Instructional Devices. In : Bureau for University Teaching Team *Materials Design for Distance Education: Strategies and Reflections*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual C. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mackintosh W G 1997(b)(4) Distance Education Typography. In : Bureau for University Teaching Team *Materials Design for Distance Education : Strategies and Reflections*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual C. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Mackintosh W G et al. 1997 *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mählick L and Temu E B 1989 *Distance Versus College Trained Primary School Teachers: A Case Study from Tanzania*. International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris.


Mangena T 1997 Meeting the Needs of the Learner. In: Sached Trust et al. *Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Mani G 1988 Attitudes of External Faculty towards Distance Education. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9-16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.

Mani G 1990 Problems Unique to Distance Education. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Marais P G 1992 Welcoming speech by the Minister of National Education, Mr P G Marais, at the Inaugural Conference of *The South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE)* 7-9 September 1992, World Trade Centre. The Part that Distance Learning can play in addressing Educational needs for the new South Africa. SAIDE, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.

Maree A 1987 The Role of Radio and Television in Distance Education. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) *Media and Technology in Distance Education. Distance Education in Southern Africa: Preparing for the 21st Century*. 18 - 21 May 1987. Conference Papers, Volume 3.1. UNISA, Pretoria.


Mark M 1990 The Differentiation of Institutional Structures and Effectiveness in Distance Education Programs. In: *Moore M G (Ed) Contemporary Issues*
in American Distance Education. Pergamon Press, Oxford.


Marland P W et al. 1992 Learning from Text: Glimpses Inside the Minds of Distance Learners. James Cook University of North Queensland, Townsville.


Mason R 1988(b) The Use of Computer-mediated Communication for Distance Education at the Open University, 1988. Centre for Information Technology in Education, Report No. 56. Institute of Educational Technology, Open University, Milton Keynes.


Mason R 1995 Synchronous and Asynchronous Media for Distance Teaching. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Mathot G 1983 The Lesotho In-service Education for Teachers Programme (LIET). In: Greenland J (Ed) The In-service Training of Primary School...


May B F 1995 Key Issues Confronting this Conference. Address delivered at Distance Education Conference of the Committee of College of Education Rectors of South Africa (CCERSA) Conference: Sharing and Comparing the Challenges of Teacher Education through Distance Education. Held at Natal College of Education, 2 - 4 May 1995.


McFarlane L 1987 The Training of Teachers by Means of Teletuition: The Audio Cassette and Teaching Practice. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) Media and Technology in Distance Education. Distance Education in...


McIntosh N E 1972 Research for a New Institution: The Open University. Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Washington, D.C.


McLaughlin M W and Marsh D 1978 Staff development and school change. In: Teachers College Record, 80(1): 69-94.


Meed J 1976 The Use of Radio in Open University Course Design. Institute of Educational Technology, Open University, Milton Keynes.


Minnis J R 1985 Ethnography, case study, grounded theory, and distance education research. In: Distance Education, 6 (2):189-198.


Misra L 1990 Concept of Distance Education and its Relevance to India. In: Borah S (Ed) Distance Education. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Mitchell I 1992 Guided Didactic Conversation: The Use of Holmberg's Concept in Higher Education. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Modra H M 1991 On the Possibility of Dialogue in Distance Education: A Dialogue. In: Evans T and King B Beyond the Text: Contemporary Writing on Distance Education. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Moore G A B 1987 *Distance Education in Thailand: The STOU Story*. Presentation made at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, February 24 - March 1, Atlanta, Georgia.


Moore M 1983(b) The Individual Adult Learner. In: Tight M (Ed) *Education for Adults. Volume 1: Adult Learning and Education*. Croom Helm in
association with The Open University, London.


Moore M 1987(a) Concept and Practice of Distance Education. In: Klevins C (Ed) *Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education. International - Illiteracy*. Klevens Publications Inc., Los Angeles. [Cover spine indicates Chster Klevens].


Moore M G 1988 Trends and Issues in American Distance Education. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9-16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Moore M G 1990(a)(2) Introduction: Background and Overview of Contemporary American Distance Education. In: Moore M G (Ed) *Contemporary Issues in American Distance Education*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.


Moran L 1990(a) Deakin University, Australia. In: Koul B N and Jenkins J (Eds) *Distance Education : A Spectrum of Case Studies.* Kogan Page in association with the International Extension College, London.

Moran L 1990(b) Distance Education as a Tool of State Policy. In : Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education : Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Moran L 1991 *A Social History Approach to Research in Distance Education.* Deakin University, Geelong; University of South Australia, Underdale.


Morgan A 1990 Whatever Happened to the Silent Scientific Revolution? Research, Theory and Practice in Distance Education. In : Evans T (Ed) *Research in Distance Education 1.* Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.

Morgan A 1991(a) Classroom Processes : A Case Study of Course Production. In: Altrichter H et al. *Windows : Research and Evaluation on a Distance Education Course.* Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria; University of South Australia, Underdale, South Australia.

Morgan A 1991(b) *Research into Student Learning in Distance Education.* Deakin University, Geelong; University of South Australia, Underdale.

Morgan A 1991(c) *Case Study Research in Distance Education.* Deakin University, Geelong; University of South Australia, Underdale.


Mugridge I 1992 (Ed) *Perspectives on Distance Education: Distance Education in Single and Dual Mode Universities*. Papers Presented to a Symposium on Reforms in Higher Education in New Delhi, India, August, 1992. The Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver.

Mugridge I and Kaufman D 1986 (Eds) *Distance Education in Canada*. Croom Helm, Beckenham.


Müller K et al. 1985 Teaching at a distance - reflections on the relationship between discipline-based and general teaching theories. In : *Distance Education*, 6(1) : 91 - 101.


Murphy K L 1988 The Integration of Teleconferencing in Distance Education. In : *Epistolodidaktika*, 1 : 59 - 67.

Murphy P and Zhiri A 1992(1) (Eds) *Distance Education in Anglophone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training*. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Murphy P and Zhiri A 1992(2) Distance Education: The Way Forward. In: Murphy P and Zhiri A (Eds) *Distance Education in Anglophone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training*. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Murray M A 1990 *The Role of Technology in Distance Education*. Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton.


Nashif A M 1982 Distance Education for the In-service Training of Teachers. In: Daniel J S et al. (Eds) *Learning at a Distance: A World Perspective*. Athabasca University / International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.


Nation D 1990 Reporting Research in Distance Education. In: Evans T (Ed) *Research in Distance Education 1*. Institute of Distance Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.


National Association of Distance Education Organisations of South Africa (NADEOSA) 1996(a) *Report of the Launch of the National Association of Distance Education Organisations of South Africa (NADEOSA)*. NADEOSA, Johannesburg.

National Association of Distance Education Organisations of South Africa (NADEOSA) 1996(b) *Constitution of the National Association of Distance Education Organizations [sic] in South Africa (NADEOSA) (As adopted by the Founding Meeting on 2 August 1996)*. NADEOSA, Johannesburg.


Newell C and Walker J 1991 Disability and Distance Education in Australia. In: Evans T and King B *Beyond the Text : Contemporary Writing on Distance Education*. Deakin University Press, Geelong, Victoria.


Noah H J 1984 Focus on Comparative Education : the use and abuse of Comparative Education. In : *Comparative Education Review, 28*(4): 550-
Northcott P 1984 Correspondence Education in Australia. In: Parmaji S (Ed) *Distance Education*. Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi.


Nunan 1993(3) The Quality of Distance Education: What does it mean and how can it be judged? In: Nunan T (Ed) *Distance Education Futures: Selected Papers from the 11th Biennial Forum of the Australian and South Pacific External Studies Association*. 21 - 23 July 1993. University of South Australia, Adelaide.


Odumbe J O 1992 The Role of Distance Education in Teacher Education in Selected Developing Countries. In: International Extension College *World Education Crisis: Roles for Distance Education*. 20 - 24 September

Odumbe J O 1995 Application of Technology to Distance Education in the Developing Countries: Kenya Case. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and the Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Office of Development Research 1984 Communications and Information Technologies and Distance Education in Canada. Canadian Commission for UNESCO, TV Ontario, Toronto.


Open Learning Association of South Africa (OLASA) 1995 Correspondence: Invitation to join OLASA, July 1995, Cape Town.

Open University, The 1987 A Great British Asset. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1990 Operations in the Open University. The Open University, Milton Keynes.
Open University, The 1991 *Review of the Open University.* Conducted by the Department of Education and Science and The Open University. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1992(a) *Report of the Vice-Chancellor.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Open University, The 1992/3 *Open Opportunities.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(a) *Open University Statistics 1991 Students, Staff and Finance.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(b) *Postgraduate Certificate in Education Prospectus for Courses starting in 1994.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(c) *Postgraduate Certificate in Education: Course Handbook for Partner Schools.* The Open University, School of Education, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(d) *An Introduction to the University: Fact Sheet Number 1.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(e) *Regional Services: Fact Sheet Number 3.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(f) *MA in Education Prospectus 1994.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(g) *Studying with the Open University 1993/4.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(h)(1) *Professional Development in Education 1993/4.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1993(h)(2) *Professional Development in Education.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.
Open University, The 1993(i) *Open Opportunities 1993/4*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Open University, The 1994(b) *Research Degree Prospectus 1994/95*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1995(a) *Studying with The Open University 1995/6*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Open University, The 1995(c) *Undergraduate Courses 1996*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1995(d) *Prospectus: BA and BSc Degrees for Study beginning in February 1996*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1995(e) *Entering Teaching: Advice for Open University Undergraduates and Graduates who are Considering the OU PGCE as a Route of Entry to teaching in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (including suitable Open University Degree Profiles)*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Open University, The 1995(f) *Open Opportunities 1995/96*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Open University, The 1999 *Courses, Diplomas and BA/BSc Degrees 1999-2000*. The Open University, Milton Keynes.

O’Rourke J et al. 1995 Distance Education in Canada, 1995. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Ortner G E 1992 Distance Education as Individual and Social Interchange. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Ortner G E et al. 1992 (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Ostendorf V A 1989 What Every Principal, Teacher and School Board Member Should Know About Distance Education. Virginia A Ostendorf, Inc., Littleton, Colorado.

Otieno J E 1988 Distance Education and National Development: The Case of the External Degree Programme of the University of Nairobi, Kenya. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Pacey L 1993 Strategic Planning and Open Learning: Turkey Tails and Frogs. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century. Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.


Pandit P N 1989 Use of Audio-visual Materials for Teaching English Through Distance Education - An IGNOU Case Study. In: Khan I (Ed) *Teaching at a Distance: Some Papers on Distance Education*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Pandit P N 1995 Developing a Programme for Training School Teachers of English at a Distance. In: Sewart D (Ed) *Open World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Parer M S 1989 (Ed) *Development, Design and Distance Education*. Centre for Distance Learning, Gippsland Institute, Churchill, Victoria.


Parer M S and Benson R 1988 *Professional Preparation and Staff Development for Academics Working in Distance Education*. Centre for Distance Learning, Gippsland Institute, Churchill, Victoria.


Parmaji S 1984(Ed) *Distance Education*. Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi.

Passornsiri N 1990 STOU in its First Decade. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Pathak A 1990 Media in Distance Education. In: Borah S (Ed) *Distance Education*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Paul R 1986(a) Athabasca University. In: Mugridge I and Kaufman D (Eds) *Distance Education in Canada*. Croom Helm, Beckenham.


Paul R 1987 Staff Development Needs for Universities: Mainstream and Distance Education. In: Smith P and Kelly M (Eds) *Distance Education and the Mainstream: Convergence in Education*. Croom Helm, London.


Paul R 1990 *Open Learning and Open Management: Leadership and Integrity in Distance Education*. Kogan Page, London; Nichols Publishing, New York.


Pelton J N 1990 Technology and Education: Friend or Foe? In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Peñalver L M 1990 Distance Education: A Strategy for Development. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access.* International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Peoples D L 1984 Some of the World’s Greatest Home Study Courses Still are on the Shelf. In: Campbell-Thrane L (Ed) *Correspondence Education Moves to the Year 2000: Proceedings of the First National Invitational Forum on Correspondence Education.* The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.


Perraton H 1974 Is there a teacher in the system? In: *Teaching at a Distance,* 1:55-60.


Perraton H 1982 A Theory for Distance Education. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education.* Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.

Perraton H 1983(a) A Theory for Distance Education. In: Stewart D et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: International Perspectives.* Croom Helm, London and Canberra; St. Martin's Press, New York.


Perraton H 1984(b) *Training Teachers at a Distance*. Commonwealth Secretariat, London.


Perraton H 1992 A Review of Distance Education. In: Murphy P and Zhiri A (Eds) *Distance Education in Anglophone Africa: Experience with Secondary Education and Teacher Training*. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.


Perraton H 1993(b) National Development and International Cooperation in Distance Education in Commonwealth Africa. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: New Perspectives*. Routledge, London and New York.


Perraton H 1994 Comparative Cost of Distance Teaching in Higher Education: Scale and Quality. In: Dhanarajan G et al. (Eds) *Economics of Distance Education*
Education: Recent Experience. Open Learning Institute Press, Hong Kong.


Peters O 1991 Towards a Better Understanding of Distance Education: Analysing Designations and Catchwords. In: Holmberg B and Ortner G E (Eds) Research into Distance Education. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Peters O 1992 Distance Education: A Revolutionary Concept. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Peters O 1993(a) Distance Education in a Postindustrial Society. In: Keegan D (Ed) Theoretical Principles of Distance Education. Routledge, London and New York.

Peters O 1993(b) Understanding Distance Education. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) Distance Education: New Perspectives. Routledge, London and New York.


Peters O 1994(2) Distance Education and Industrial Production: A Comparative Interpretation in Outline (1967). In: Keegan D (Ed) Otto Peters on Distance Education: The Industrialization of Teaching and Learning. Routledge, London and New York.


Peters O 1994(5) The Concept of the Fernuniversität (1985) In : Keegan D (Ed) Otto Peters on Distance Education : The Industrialization of Teaching


Polu S 1997 Distance Education Research in India. In: International Council for Distance Education (ICDE) A New Learning Environment: A Global Perspective. ICDE and The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.


Powell R et al. 1989 Recent research activities at Athabasca University. In:  *Research in Distance Education,* 1(2):9-12.

Power D J 1990  The Use of Audio in Distance Education. In : Timmers S (Ed)  *Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education.* Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.


Psacharopoulos G 1990  Comparative Education : From theory to practice, or are you A:"NEO:* or B:"IST? In :  *Comparative Education Review,* 34(3) : 369-380.

Psacharopoulos G 1990  Comparative Education : From theory to practice, or are you A:"NEO:* or B:"IST? In : University of South Africa (UNISA)  *Comparative Education Vol 1 : An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education.* UNISA, Pretoria.


Raggatt P and Harry K 1987 (Eds) *Trends in Distance Higher Education. Part 1.* The Open University, Milton Keynes.

Rajan S I 1990 Importance of Distance Education in India. In: Borah S (Ed) *Distance Education.* Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Randell C and Bitzer E 1998 Staff Development in Support of Effective Student Learning in South African Distance Education. In: Latchem C and Lockwood F (Eds) *Staff Development in Open and Flexible Learning.* Routledge, London and New York.


Rao R S 1984 Pre-Service Education of Teachers through Correspondence. In: Parmaji S (Ed) *Distance Education.* Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi.

Rashid M 1992 *Distance Education: Concepts and Methods.* National Book Foundation, Islamabad.
Rath R S 1991 Planning and Organisation of Correspondence Education Institute as an Entity in the Broader Framework of the University. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Rathore H C S 1993 *Management of Distance Education in India*. Ashish Publishing House, New Delhi.

Rawson-Jones K 1982 Some Trends in Distance Education. In: Holmberg B (Ed) *Selected Papers on Distance Education*. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen. See also, *Epistolodidaktika*, 1974, 1:61-68.

Rayner S A 1949 *Correspondence Education in Australia and New Zealand*. Melbourne University Press, Carlton, Victoria.


Reddy G R 1987 Distance Education: What, Why and How? In: Koul B N et al. (Eds) *Studies in Distance Education*. Association of Indian Universities, New Delhi; Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi.


Reddy G R 1990 Distance Education: Planning for the Future. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Rekkedal T 1991 The Telephone as a Medium for Instruction and Guidance in Distance Education. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Rekkedal T 1992 Computer Mediated Communication in Distance Education. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.


Rekkedal T and Paulsen M F 1991 Computer Conferencing in Distance Education: Status and Trends. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings*. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.


Research Institute for Education Planning (RIEP) 1995 *An Overview of Departmental In-service Teacher Education in South Africa*. Report for National Teacher Education Audit Consortium. RIEP, Faculty of Education, University of the Orange Free State, Bloemfontein.

Reushle S E 1995 Design considerations and features in the development of hypermedia courseware. In: *Distance Education*, 16(1): 141 - 156.


Roberts D 1989 (Ed) *New Challenges in Distance Education*. Occasional Papers Number Seven. Division of External Studies, Riverina-Murray Institute of Higher Education, Wagga Wagga and Albury.


Robinson B and Wali H 1992 *Distance Education for Teacher Education*. Discussion Paper Presented at the Launching Conference of the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE), 7 - 9 September 1992, World Trade Centre. The Part that Distance Learning can Play in Addressing Educational Needs for the New South Africa. SAIDE, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.

Roman A 1997  Teaching and Learning Through Print. In : Sached Trust et al. *Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Rowley T D and Porterfield S L 1993 Can telecommunications help rural areas overcome obstacles to development? In : Rural Development Perspectives, 8(2) : 2 - 6.


Rudduck J 1981 Making the Most of the Short In-service Course. Methuen Educational, London.


Rumble G 1982 The Open University of the United Kingdom: An Evaluation of an Innovative Experience in the Democratisation of Higher Education. Distance Education Research Group, The Open University, Milton Keynes.


Rumble G 1986(a) The Planning and Management of Distance Education. Croom Helm, London and Sydney.
Rumble G 1986(b) *Costing Distance Education*. Commonwealth Secretariat, London.


Rumble G 1988(b) Economics in Distance Education: Time for a Change of Direction? In: Stewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Rumble G 1990 Tomorrow's Education and Training: The Challenge for Distance Education. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) *Distance Education: Development and Access*. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Rumble G 1992(c) Explanation, Theory and Practice in Distance Education. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) *Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg*. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.
Rumble G 1993 The Economics of Mass Distance Education. In: Harry K et al. (Eds) Distance Education: New Perspectives. Routledge, London and New York.


Russell T L 1992 Television’s indelible impact on distance education: what we should have learned from comparative research. In: Research in Distance Education, 4(4): 2 - 4.


Saba F 1996 From Development Communication to Systems Thinking: A Post-Modern Analysis of Distance Education in the International Arena. In: Thompson M M (Ed) Internationalism in Distance Education: A Vision for Higher Education. American Center for the Study of Distance Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.


Sached Trust et al. 1997(a) *Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Sached Trust et al. 1997(b) *Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Sauvé L 1993 What's Behind the Development of a Course on the Concept of Distance Education? In: Keegan D (Ed) *Theoretical Principles of Distance Education.* Routledge, London and New York.

Schlosser C A and Anderson M L 1994 *Distance Education: Review of the Literature.* Association for Educational Communications and Technology, Washington, D.C.


Schrum L 1991 *Distance Education: A Primer for Administrators*. Volume 35, Number 1. Oregon School Study Council, Eugene, Oregon.


Scriven B 1991(b) Distance education and open learning - implications for professional development and retraining. In: *Distance Education*, 12(2):297-305.

Scriven B et al. 1993 (Eds) *Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century*. Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.


Sehoole T et al. 1995(a) National Teacher Education Audit: University Sectoral Report. Education Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape, Bellville.

Sehoole T et al. 1995(b) National Teacher Education Audit: Technikon Sector. Education Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape, Bellville.

Sewart D 1978 Continuity of Concern for Students in a System of Learning at a Distance. Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung (ZIFF), Fernuniversität, Gesamthochschule, Hagen.


Sewart D 1981 Distance teaching: a contradiction in terms? In: Teaching at a Distance, 19:8-18.


Sewart D 1987 Staff Development Needs in Distance Education and Campus-based Education: Are they so different? In: Smith P and Kelly M (Eds) Distance Education and the Mainstream: Convergence in Education. Croom Helm, London.

Sewart D 1990 Preface. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) Distance Education: Development and Access. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.

Sewart D 1992 Mass Higher Education: Where are We Going? In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.
Sewart D 1993 Foreword. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) *Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century*. Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Sewart D 1995(a) (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Sewart D 1995(b) (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Sewart D 1995(c) (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Supplementary Papers. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Sewart D and Daniel J S 1988 *Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988*. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Shale D 1990 Toward a Reconceptualization of Distance Education. In: Moore M G (Ed) *Contemporary Issues in American Distance Education*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.


Short J 1974 Teaching by telephone : the problems of teaching without the visual channel. In : Teaching at a Distance, (1) : 61 - 67.

Siaciwena R M C 1988 Distance Education and National Development : The Zambian Case. In : Sewart D and Daniel J S Developing Distance Education : Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Singh B 1982 Distance Education in Developing Countries: The Need for Central Planning. In: Daniel J S et al. (Eds) Learning at a Distance: A World Perspective. Athabasca University/International Council for Correspondence Education, Edmonton.

Singh B 1987 Student Support Services. In: Koul B N et al. (Eds) Studies in Distance Education. Association of Indian Universities, New Delhi; Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi.


Sinha B K 1991 Modern Communication Technology in Distance Education. In: Khan I (Ed) Distance Education: Some Readings. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Sjøvoll J 1988 Distance Education in the Education of Teachers. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S Developing Distance Education: Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9 - 16 August 1988. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.


Smith K 1984 (Ed) Diversity Down Under: In Distance Education. Darling Downs Institute Press, Toowoomba, Queensland.

Smith K 1989 Overseas Correspondence Education Models. In: Khan I (Ed) Teaching at a Distance: Some Papers on Distance Education. Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Smith K 1990 Distance Education: Touching with Technology. In: Timmers S (Ed) Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.


and Canberra; St. Martin's Press, New York.


Sonnekus I 1997 The Learner Perspective. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) Support Services in Distance Education. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

South African College for Open Learning (SACOL) 1999(a) 1999 Prospectus. SACOL, Dormerton, Durban.


South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) (n.d.) Distance Education for Practising Teachers: Circular. SACTE, Pretoria.


South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) 1998(d) Submission of Existing Qualifications for Interim Registration. SACTE, Pretoria.


South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) 1999(c) *Yearbook: Further Diploma in Education (FDE).* SACTE, Pretoria.

South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) 1999(d) *Further Diploma in Education (FDE) Abridged Subject Syllabi: Annexure to FDE Yearbook.* SACTE, Pretoria.


South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (The) 1992 *Teachers and Distance Education Working Group Report.* The Launching Conference of SAIDE, 7 - 9 September 1992, World Trade Centre. The Part that Distance Learning can Play in Addressing Educational Needs for the New South Africa. SAIDE, Braamfontein, Johannesburg.


South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (The) 1995(a) *Open Learning and Distance Education in South Africa.* Report of An International Commission, January-April, 1994. Macmillan, Manzini.

South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (The) 1995(b) *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa: Report for the National Audit.* April-November 1995. SAIDE, Johannesburg.

South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (The) 1999 The Design and Delivery of Teacher Development Programmes using Distance Education - Research into the WITS FDE (English Language Teaching). In: *OLTDE (Open Learning Through Distance Education)*, 5(1): 20 - 21.


Springfield College of Education (SCE) 1997 *Prospectus: Pre-service and In-service.* SCE, Durban.
Springfield College of Education (SCE) 1998 *Prospectus: Pre-service and In-service*. SCE, Durban.


Stahmer A et al. 1990 Development in Telecommunication Technology for Distance Education with Reference to Developing Countries. In: Timmers S (Ed) *Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education*. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.


of the Orange Free State, Bloemfontein.


Suttie M 1995  Designing for Democracy: Academic Librarians and Postgraduates in Distance Education in South Africa after Apartheid.  In:  Sewart D (Ed)  *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning.*  Volume 1.  International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Tait A 1993 (Ed) *Quality Assurance in Open and Distance Learning: European and International Perspectives*. Open University, Cambridge.


Takwale R 1987 Dimensions and Extensions of Distance and Open Educational Systems. In: Koul B N et al. (Eds) *Studies in Distance Education*. Association of Indian Universities, New Delhi; Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi.

Takwale R G 1995 *IGNOU 2001*. In: Sewart D (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Supplementary Papers. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Taylor J C and White V J 1985 Why Distance Education? In : Cahill B (Ed) *Distance Education in Asia and the Pacific.* Bulletin of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. No. 26, December 1985. UNESCO, Bangkok.


Testa S and Lestang G 1993 Distance Education and Development. In: Scriven B et al. (Eds) *Distance Education for the Twenty-First Century.* Selected Papers from the 16th World Conference of the International Council for Distance Education, Thailand, November, 1992. International Council for Distance Education, Oslo; Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.


Thomas RM 1997 The Place of Science and Mathematics Education in Development. In : Cummings W K and McGinn N F (Eds) *International Handbook of Education and Development : Preparing Schools,*

Thompson M M 1996 (Ed) Internationalism in Distance Education: A Vision for Higher Education. American Center for the Study of Distance Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

Thorpe M 1995(a) Bringing Learner Experience into Distance Education. In: Stewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Education. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Timmers S 1990(1) (Ed) Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.

Timmers S 1990(2) Print as a Medium in Distance Education. In: Timmers S (Ed) Training Needs in the Use of Media for Distance Education. Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre, Singapore.


Turnbull A J 1988 Distance Education - The Trend Setter. In: Sewart D and Daniel J S *Developing Distance Education. Papers Submitted to the 14th World Conference in Oslo, 9-16 August 1988.* International Council for Distance Education, Oslo.

Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) 1997 *Prospectus.* UCFE, Durban.

Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) 1998(a) *Prospectus.* UCFE, Durban.

Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) 1998(b) *Prospectus: Diploma in Education (Junior Primary) Programme.* UCFE, Durban.

Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) 1998(c) *Prospectus: Diploma in Education (Senior Primary) Programme.* UCFE, Durban.

Umlazi College for Further Education (UCFE) 1998(d) *Prospectus: Certificate in Education and Diploma in Education (Pre-primary) Programmes.* UCFE, Durban.


United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 1984 *Distance Education : Exemplar Training Materials.* UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), Bangkok.


University of Natal/South African College for Teacher Education (UN/SACTE) 1998 *Pamphlet : Bachelor of Education (BEd).* UN/SACTE, Pretoria.

University of Natal (UN) and South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) 1999(a) *Pamphlet : Your B Ed Degree for Career Development.* SACTE, Pretoria.

University of Natal (UN) and South African College for Teacher Education (SACTE) 1999(b) *Circular : Bachelor of Education (B Ed).* SACTE, Pretoria.


University of South Africa (UNISA) 1987(b) *The University of South Africa.* Department of Public Relations and Development, UNISA, Pretoria.


University of South Africa (UNISA) 1992 *Comparative Education Vol 1: An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education.* UNISA, Pretoria.

University of South Africa (UNISA) 1997 *Design and Development of Distance Education Materials.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 4. Study Manual A. UNISA, Pretoria.


University of South Africa (UNISA) 1998(c) *Undergraduate Information Brochure.* UNISA, Pretoria.

University of South Africa (UNISA) 1998(d) *Introducing the Acclaimed Bachelor in Business Administration and the Interim Degree Qualification in Commerce. Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences.* UNISA, Pretoria.

University of South Africa (UNISA) 1998(e) *Unit for Training and Development.* UNISA, Pretoria.

University of South Africa (UNISA) 1998(f) *Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, Undergraduate Degrees.* UNISA, Pretoria.

University of South Africa (UNISA) 1998(g) *Services and Procedures.* UNISA, Pretoria.

Ural I 1987 The Use of Satellites for Distance Education: A New Model for South Africa. In: University of South Africa (UNISA) *Media and Technology in Distance Education. Distance Education in Southern Africa: Preparing for the 21st Century. 18 - 21 May 1987. Conference Papers, Volume 3.1.* UNISA, Pretoria.


Valicha K 1991 Concept of Distance Education. In: Khan I (Ed) *Distance Education: Some Readings.* Amar Prakashan, Delhi.

Van As B S 1985 Transitional study programmes at the distance teaching University of South Africa: a continuing experiment. In: *Distance Education*, 6(2):223-234.


Van der Merwe D 1997(b) Introduction to Guidance and Counselling. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) *Support Services in Distance Education.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van der Wolk K A 1996 *The Development of an Effective Multi-media Distance Education Programme for In-service Teachers*. Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.


Van Niekerk D 1997(1) Distance Learning Systems. In: Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van Niekerk D 1997(2) Typologies of Distance Learning Systems. In: Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Van Niekerk D 1997(4) Distance Education in Africa. In: Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van Niekerk D 1997(5) Providers of Distance Education in South Africa. In: Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B.
Van Niekerk D 1997(6) Future Role of Distance Education in South Africa. In: Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van Niekerk D (M H ) and Goodwin-Davey A 1997(1) *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A 1997(2) The Practice of Distance Education. In : Van Niekerk D (M H) and Goodwin-Davey A *Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual B. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Van Wyk J N et al. 1995 Giving Students Voice : Qualitative Research on Distance Education Learners and their Experience of Text. In : Sewart D (Ed) *One World Many Voices : Quality in Open and Distance Learning*. Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Villarroel A 1992 Distance Education in Developing Countries. In: Ortner G E et al. (Eds) Distance Education as Two-Way Communication: Essays in Honour of Börje Holmberg. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main.

Vista University 1987(a) Basic Framework for Planning Distance Teaching at Vista Further Training Campus. Department of Teaching Development and Student Services, Vista University, Pretoria.

Vista University 1987(b) Guidelines and Criteria for Study Manuals and First Tutorial Letters (Further Training Campus). Department of Teaching Development and Student Services, Vista University, Pretoria.


Vista University 1998(a) Vista University Calendar 1998 Part 7. General Information and Rules for Vista University Distance Education Campus (VUDEC). Vista University, Pretoria.

Vista University 1998(b) Vista University Distance Education Campus (VUDEC) Information Brochure 1998 Distance Tuition (Certificates, Diplomas and Degrees). Vista University, Pretoria.

Vista University 1999(a) Vista University Calendar 1999 Part 7. General Information and Rules for Vista University Distance Education Campus (VUDEC). Vista University, Pretoria.
Vista University 1999(b) *Vista University Distance Education Campus (VUDEC) Information Brochure 1999 Distance Tuition (Certificates, Diplomas and Degrees).* Vista University, Pretoria.


Vosloo B 1994 Rethinking the college curriculum. In: *NEON,* 60: 4 - 5.


Waghid Y 1997(b) Frameworks of Thinking and Distance Education. In : Mackintosh W G et al. *Open and Distance Learning.* Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 1. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Wakatama M A 1983 *Correspondence Education in Central Africa: An Alternative Route to Higher Education in Developing Countries.* University Press of America, Inc., Lanham.

Wall D and Owen M 1992 (Eds) *Distance Education and Sustainable Community Development*. Canadian Circumpolar Institute with Athabasca University Press, Edmonton.

Walters C 1997 In-course Support. In: Dilley L and Roman A (Eds) *Support Services in Distance Education*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 3. Study Manual A. Sached Trust/University of South Africa, Pretoria.


Wedemeyer C A 1966(1) (Ed) *The Brandenburg Memorial Essays on Correspondence Instruction - II*. The University of Wisconsin, University Extension, Madison, Wisconsin.

Wedemeyer C A 1966(2). World Trends in Correspondence Education. In : Wedemeyer C A (Ed) *The Brandenburg Memorial Essays on Correspondence Instruction - II*. The University of Wisconsin, University Extension, Madison, Wisconsin.


Wedemeyer C A and Childs G B 1961 *New Perspectives in University Correspondence Study*. Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Chicago.


White M A 1975(a) Distinctive features of external study in Australian universities and colleges : an historical and comparative perspective. In: *Teaching at a Distance*, (2) : 14 - 20.
White M A 1975(b) National commitments and co-operation in correspondence study : an historical perspective to developments in Australia. In: Education Research and Perspective, 2(2) : 35 - 44.


White M 1982 Distance education in Australian higher education - a history. In: Distance Education, 3(2) : 255 - 278.


Wiechers M 1995(a) Managing the Transformation of the University of South Africa. In: Sewart D (Ed) One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning. Volume 1. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.


Wijeyesekera D S 1990(1) Distance Teaching of Science and Technology: A Model for a Small Developing Country. In: Croft M et al. (Eds) Distance Education: Development and Access. International Council for Distance Education, Caracas.


Willén B 1981 Distance Education at Swedish Universities : An Evaluation of the Experimental Programme and a Follow-up Study. Almqvist and Wiksell International, Stockholm.

Willén B 1983 Distance education in Swedish universities. In: Distance Education, 4(2) : 211 - 222.


Willis B 1992(a) *Effective Distance Education : A Primer for Faculty and Administrators*. University of Alaska Statewide, Fairbanks, Alaska.


Wilson H 1997 Media Patterns and Combinations. In: Sached Trust et al. *Adult Learning and Communication in Open and Distance Learning*. Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education. Course 2. Study Manual A. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Winders R 1988 *Information Technology in the Delivery of Distance Education and Training*. Peter Francis Publishers, Berrycroft, Great Britain.


Wyer D *et al.* 1995 Schooling is Where the Home is: Inclusive Approaches to Distance Education Research. In : Sewart D (Ed) *One World Many Voices: Quality in Open and Distance Learning*, Volume 2. International Council for Distance Education and The Open University, United Kingdom, Milton Keynes.

Xingfu D 1994 Economic Analysis of Radio and TV Universities Education in China. In: Dhanarajan G *et al.* (Eds) *Economics of Distance Education: Recent Experience*. Open Learning Institute Press, Hong Kong.


Young K E 1984 Correspondence Education: From the Back of the Bus to the Driver's Seat? In: Campbell-Thrane L (Eds) *Correspondence Education Moves to the Year 2000: Proceedings of the First National Invitational Forum on Correspondence Education*. The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.


Zucker H 1986 Distance Education in Rural Areas. Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Washington, D.C.

(031) 825262

Professor D R Bagwandeep
68 Newcastle Avenue
RESERVOIR HILLS
DURBAN
4091

15 April 1998

The Registrar (Academic)

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR INFORMATION FOR D.ED. RESEARCH

I am currently registered as a D.Ed. candidate at the University of South Africa. My research topic is: "A Study of the Provision of Distance Education for the Upgrading and Improvement of the Qualifications of Teachers in the Province of Kwazulu-Natal".

As part of the research a detailed comparative study of international and national provision of distance education is being undertaken.

I have chosen your institution, inter alia, as one of the providers of distance education. In order to enable me to ensure that the most current information available is presented I shall be much obliged if you will kindly provide me with the information requested below. I have waited until now to contact you as I can understand the process of registration and organization in the first quarter of the academic year are time consuming. I have already started the writing of my thesis and will require the information as a matter of urgency.
Your co-operation in forwarding the details and material requested to the address given above, by priority mail if possible, will be greatly appreciated and acknowledged in my thesis.

The information apropos your institution that will be integral to my research is as follows:

1. The current prospectus and/or publications outlining:
   1.1 mission of the institution
   1.2 vision of the institution in respect of distance education courses
   1.3 historical background of your institution.

2. The various courses on offer through distance education and summary of the nature and scope of the courses.

3. Strategies employed in developing the courses
   3.1 Departmental
   3.2 Team effort
   3.3 Individual

4. Strategies and media employed in delivery of courses
   4.1 Correspondence
   4.2 Technology and mode of technology eg audio; video; telephone; computer
   4.3 Forms of interactive two-way communication with students
   4.4 Face-to-face tuition
   4.5 Other

5. Statistics with respect to
   5.1 Total enrolment at your institution for all distance education courses
   5.2 Enrolment per course
   5.3 Percentage of drop-out rate or completion rate.

6. If your institution is providing teacher education courses:
   6.1 Courses being offered such as Education Diploma, Higher Education Diploma and Further Diploma in Education
   6.2 Undergraduate and postgraduate courses being offered
   6.3 Enrolment of students in each of these courses
   6.4 Enrolment of students in these courses for Kwazulu-Natal in particular.
Any other information concerning your institution which you may deem to be useful for the purposes of my research.

Once again I express my deep gratitude for your assistance and co-operation in supplying me with the details requested as expeditiously as possible.

Thanking you

I remain

Yours sincerely

PROFESSOR D R BAGWANDEEN
FOR ATTENTION: MR S. NADASEN
(CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALIST: TEACHER EDUCATION)

The Superintendent-General: Education
Department of Education and Culture
Private Bag X54323
DURBAN
4000

RESEARCH: RE D.ED.

I am currently registered as a D.ED. candidate in the Department of Comparative Education at the University of South Africa. Details of my topic and registration are enclosed.

My research involves teacher education in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Your kind permission is sought to contact Colleges involved with distance education courses and for the use of the relevant information for purposes of my research as per the enclosed letter to institutions.

Thanking you.

I remain,

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

PROFESSOR D.R. BAGWANDEEN
Your correspondence dated 7 May 1998 refers

Your request to contact Colleges involved with distance education courses in KwaZulu-Natal to obtain information as per your attached letter for your research, is hereby granted.

It would be appreciated if a copy of the research fundings is made available to the Department for its use.

Kindly produce this letter when approaching institutions for information.

[Signature]

DR S.Z. MBOKAZI
DIRECTOR: TEACHER EDUCATION