



Report on the National Review of Academic and Professional Programmes in Education

HE Monitor No. 11

August 2010

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of Academic and Professional
Programmes in Education*

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Dedication

This report is dedicated to the memory of
Prem Naidoo, Wally Morrow and Ben Parker.

Acronyms

ACE	Advanced Certificate in Education
AUT	Advisory Council for Universities and Technikons
BEd	Bachelor of Education
CfCE	Centre for Creative Education
CHE	Council on Higher Education
COTE	Committee on Teacher Education Policy
CPDE	Continuing Professional Development of Educators
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
CUT	Central University of Technology
DoE	Department of Education
DUT	Durban University of Technology
ETQA	Education and Training Quality Assurance Body
ELM	Education Leadership and Management
FET	Further Education and Training band
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
GET	General Education and Training band
HAI	Historically Advantaged Institutions
HDI	Historically Disadvantaged Institutions
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
IPET	Initial Professional Education of Teachers
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MEd	Master of Education
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NFTE	National Framework for Teacher Education Policy
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NPHE	National Plan for Higher Education
NSE	Norms and Standards for Educators
NWU	North-West University
PDE	Provincial Department of Education
PGCE	Post Graduate Certificate in Education
PQM	Programme and Qualification Mix
QA	Quality Assurance
REQV	Relative Equivalent Qualification Value
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
RU	Rhodes University
SACE	South African Council of Educators
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SER	Self-Evaluation Reports
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
UCT	University of Cape Town
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UFS	University of the Free State
UJ	University of Johannesburg
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UoT	University of Technology
UL	University of Limpopo
UNISA	University of South Africa
UP	University of Pretoria
US	University of Stellenbosch
UV	University of Venda
UWC	University of the Western Cape
UZ	University of Zululand
VUT	Vaal University of Technology
WITS	University of the Witwatersrand
WSU	Walter Sisulu University

Foreword

The National Review of Academic and Professional Programmes in Education constitutes the second process of system-wide accreditation of higher education programmes in a selected disciplinary area undertaken by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education (CHE). This National Review started in 2005 with a focus on the MEd and finished in 2007 having covered selected BEd, PGCE and ACE programmes offered at public and private higher education institutions in South Africa.

In choosing the area of education, and in particular, professional qualifications in education as the focus of this review, the HEQC took into account the fundamental role that basic education and the national schooling system have in the development of a democratic society. It also took into account the responsibility that higher education institutions have in this regard given their role in the training of teachers both in pre-service and in service situations. The selection of the specific type of qualifications to be accredited took into account the size of the enrolments as well as the strategic importance attached to mathematics and science in the broader developmental goals of the country.

Reasons for choosing the MEd (ELM) included not only the large number of enrolments in this area but also the complexity of the variants of specialisations that could be broadly clustered under the Education Leadership and Management descriptor. For the ACE, it was decided to focus on the field of Mathematics Education and, as in the broad interpretation that was applied to the ELM field, this came to include all the variants in the ACE relating to Mathematics Education, including Mathematics Literacy. Where institutions did not offer the ACE in Mathematics Education or have a graduate cohort in such a programme, an alternative field was chosen for review. A preferred area selected for review was the field of Science, Mathematics and Technology Education. In choosing specialisations in relation to the BEd and the PGCE, it was decided to review Foundation Phase programmes and the Further Education and Training band respectively. In this way the Review could provide insights into the quality of training received by teachers responsible for the entry and exit phases of the schooling process.

The Review resulted in decisions on the accreditation status of 80 programmes being made. For this to be possible, it was necessary to develop evaluative criteria which took into account the specific nature and purpose of the four qualifications under review, without departing from HEQC existing criteria for accreditation. A process of consultation and collaboration between the HEQC and experts in the different specialisations facilitated the undertaking of a daunting task in terms of both the mobilisation of human resources and the putting in place of operational and logistic capabilities to bring successfully the process to completion. None of this would have been possible without the commitment and support of the academics in the field and the openness of the deans of education to the process. The type of relationship built between the Deans Forum and the HEQC staff in charge of the Review was a good example of a partnership

between the quality assurance agency and institutions in order to improve quality of provision.

This report is the last stage of the Review; it provides an analytical perspective of the outcomes of the accreditation process and a reflection on the meaning of the accreditation results from the perspective of the quality of teacher education offered at system level. The analysis as well as the reflections presented in this report are based on a variety of sources of information: the self-evaluation reports prepared by institutions in relation to each of the programmes under review; the final accreditation reports which reflect the views of the academic peers and the final accreditation decision of the HEQC Board; and a variety of quantitative information, some obtained through the Higher Education Management Information System of the Department of Education and some provided by the institutions themselves.

The accreditation process can have one of four outcomes depending on the extent to which a programme meets minimum standards of quality in relation to the full set of criteria developed for each programme:

Assessment	Outcome
Exceeds minimum standards: All minimum standards specified in the criteria are met and, in addition, examples of good practice and innovation are identified in relation to several criteria.	Accredited
Complies with minimum standards: All minimum standards specified in the criteria are met.	Accredited
Needs improvement: Not all minimum standards specified in the criteria are met. Problems/weaknesses can be addressed in a short period of time.	Accredited (with conditions)
Does not meet minimum standards: Does not meet the majority of minimum standards specified in the criteria.	Withdrawal of Accreditation

In finalising the decision-making process the HEQC Board took due cognisance of the strategic importance of the provision of teacher education nationally and took, in consultation with the Department of Education, a developmental view in those cases in which the closing down of programmes will have a serious impact in the training of teachers in certain provinces. Thus, the HEQC Board added to the above-mentioned outcomes of accreditation another one: programmes at risk of having their accreditation withdrawn. Programmes in this category were provided with special support to meet the accreditation conditions set by the HEQC, and the progress made in this regard has been constantly monitored by the National Reviews Directorate and communicated to the HEQC regularly. We believe that this approach combined in a strategic manner the accountability and developmental aspects of quality assurance.

The analysis presented in this report is based on the accreditation outcomes decided on by the HEQC Board at the end of the Review. Subsequent changes in the accreditation status of institutions through their engagement with the conditions imposed by the HEQC Board are not taken into account in the analysis. In this regard, the reader must note that almost all programmes that participated in this review have by now achieved full accreditation, and that therefore the information about specific programmes contained in this report is historical.

The external review of the HEQC, which took place in 2008, identified National Reviews as an area of strength of the HEQC and as a quality assurance methodology that had a direct impact on the improvement on the quality of provision. While I do not doubt that this is also the case with the review of teacher education programmes, the policy, systemic and societal challenges

confronting teacher education in the country make the role of quality assurance in this area a modest one and require the HEQC Board and its secretariat to reflect carefully on the manner in which academics, institutions, the quality agency, government and society interact with each other in the area of teacher education.

The work done in the preparation and undertaking of this National Review has been enormous. I would like to thank Kirti Menon and Theo Bhengu, who, as senior staff members of the HEQC secretariat, had as their responsibility the organisation and support of this process. Their dedication, commitment and hard work sustained an exceedingly difficult and demanding process. Prof. Crain Soudien kindly agreed to lead the writing of this report and brought to it his experience in the field as well as his intellectual integrity, and supreme patience and tolerance in responding to queries on the report. I would like to thank him, Kirti Menon, and the team of academics responsible for this report for the work that went into making sense of programme level data at a macro-level. All the academics involved in the review process as expert evaluators, as the writers of institutional self-evaluations, as interviewees during site visits, as report writers and critical readers have shown once more that quality assurance can go beyond compliance and enter into the academic discourse as far as they, the academics, are an active part of it.

The publication of this report was delayed for a number of technical reasons. However, this delay has not meant that the insights gained through this National Review have not been shared already with academic colleagues and, particularly, with the Department of Education.

The currency of the report's findings and their relevance, despite its delayed publication, is a sign of the persistency of the difficulties faced by the country in the area of basic education. It also highlights the complex relationship between higher education institutions' conceptualisation of teacher education and the understanding and experiences of the teaching profession operating among policymakers, government, unions, the broad public and the teachers themselves.

Few areas in education are as complex and as deeply political and, therefore, as open to contestation as teacher education. We hope that the insights provided by this report, which in no way cover the universe of teacher education, can be the beginning of a conversation among specialists but also a conversation among specialists and other stakeholders of education whose voices and concerns need to be heard.

Finally, this report has been dedicated to three academic-activists of teacher education who from different angles and within different areas of expertise dedicated their lives to the democratisation of education in its more profound and substantive sense. The untimely deaths of Prem Naidoo, Wally Morrow and Ben Parker have been as great a loss to the field of education as they have been to their families and friends.

Dr Lis Lange

Executive Director

Higher Education Quality Committee

March 2010

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This report is the product of the work and time many academics have given freely over the last four years. They cannot, of course, be held responsible for the way in which it has come together here, but their role in clarifying and determining the criteria that were used to conduct the evaluations, the meetings in which they participated to develop the portfolios, the extensive periods of time they gave to visits to institutions, and the meetings they attended to review the accreditation outcomes constitute an important contribution to the field of teacher education and education in general.

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Ms Jennifer Maloi: Project Administrator

Ms Rinda Smit: Secretary

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CHAPTER ONE

Overview of the Report and the National Review

1.1 Introduction

This report is an overview of the findings of the National Review of Academic and Professional Programmes in education conducted by the HEQC between 2005 and 2007. It addresses the broad community of education, the Faculties and Schools of Education, the universities, the state and the general public. It describes the state of the provision of teacher education in four programmes, the Master's in Education (MEd), the Bachelor of Education (BEd), the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) and the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE), and, in order to account to the broad field of education, assesses how far they are meeting the quality assurance requirements stipulated in the accreditation criteria and minimum standards established by the HEQC.

The report was compiled using several sources of information and data. The most important were the self-evaluation reports¹ written by the institutions themselves, using criteria provided by the HEQC, and the reports of the review panels that visited the institutions. Additional quantitative information was sourced from HEMIS data.

1.2 Rationale for the National Review of teacher education

Upon completing the review of the Master's in Business Administration (see CHE, 2004d), the HEQC turned its attention to teacher education because it was concerned about the persistent problems in education, the critical role of the field in fulfilling the country's education needs and the relevance of teacher education training as an integral component of higher education.

There were strategic reasons for the choice of the four programmes for review. The MEd Review focused on Education Leadership and Management (ELM) because of the many different varieties of this programme in the country and the large numbers of students enrolled in them.² More master's degree students enrol in this specialisation than in any others, making it an obvious area for review.³ The ACE Review focused on Mathematics Education and all its variations, including Mathematics Literacy, because of the government emphasis on the importance of mathematics

1 Guidelines were issued by the HEQC to institutions suggesting how the process of self-evaluation against the criteria could be worked into a narrative format.

2 Against a background of his work on the Ministerial Committee for Teacher Education, Morrow (2007:6) notes that 'literally thousands of "educators" are signed up for Advanced Certificates, Honours degrees and even Master's degrees in the field of educational management. Indeed in some cases the offering of education management programmes has proved to be a lifeline for faculties of education in the face of declining numbers of recruits for initial teacher education programmes'.

3 National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE), 2001, Section 4.7.1.

for economic and social development and because of the apartheid legacy issues affecting the supply and demand of mathematics teachers. The BEd Review focused on Foundation Phase programmes and the PGCE Review on the Further Education and Training (FET) band – these enabled the HEQC to assess how well teachers were being prepared for the entry and exit phases of the schooling process.

The MEd programmes were reviewed first, in 2005, and this experience led the HEQC to decide that the rest of the programmes to be reviewed must have produced at least one cohort of graduates. In March 2006, the HEQC Board approved a proposal submitted by the National Reviews Directorate to stagger the Review over a two-year period, since there were so many programmes to be evaluated. Institutions that had not undergone restructuring or mergers were evaluated in 2006, and those that had been affected by these developments were evaluated in 2007, along with institutions that had asked for site visits to be deferred.

1.3 The National Review process

The first step in the Review was consultation with Faculties and Schools of Education. Faculty members helped to structure the framework for the Review. The HEQC's 19 generic accreditation criteria and minimum standards were adapted for the MEd, BEd, PGCE and ACE and additional minimum standards were developed to fit the requirements of distance education programmes, since the National Reviews Directorate thought it important to cover the different modes of delivery. The Review procedure and the composition of the panels were decided on by a process of collective inquiry, thus obviating individual bias.

The Review went through three stages:

- 1) The institution wrote a self-evaluation report (SER), assessing its status against the agreed-upon criteria.
- 2) The site was visited by a panel of peers and experts who interviewed the institutions' management, academic staff, students and alumni, and examined documentation presented by the institution. On the basis of the SER and the evidence gathered during the site visit the panel then made recommendations for the accreditation status of each programme to a specialist Accreditation Committee. These recommendations were brought together in a draft report, which was submitted to institutions for comment. The comments were considered and included in a final draft report, which was submitted to the HEQC Board for it to make final decisions on the accreditation status of the programmes.
- 3) The quality of the programmes was analysed in a final report based on the results of the re-accreditation process.

The sources the HEQC evaluator panels used to support their judgements were:

- responses in the SER portfolio to the criteria;
- information and documentation submitted as part of the SER portfolio;
- documents provided during site visits (copies of theses, examiners' reports, policies, minutes, organograms, review reports, etc.);
- observations of infrastructure, such as lecture venues; and
- interviews with staff, students, management and alumni, and any other stakeholders who took part in the site visit.

Panel members were required to exercise their professional judgement, to apply the criteria sensitively, to be careful not to take a formulaic approach to programme accreditation, and to keep in mind the varying institutional contexts of the higher education institutions they visited.

The following categories were used to classify the judgements for each criterion:

- *Commend.* Fully meets all the minimum standards specified in the criterion and in addition good practices and innovation are identified in relation to the criterion.
- *Meets minimum standards.* Meets minimum standards as specified in the criterion.
- *Needs improvement.* Does not meet all the minimum standards specified in the criterion. Problems and weaknesses can be addressed in a short period of time.
- *Does not comply.* Does not meet the majority of the minimum standards specified in the criterion.

1.4 The analytical approach of the report

The analysis in this report was done using the final accreditation reports signed off by the HEQC Board. The report does not take into account developments that occurred after the institutions were presented with the outcomes of the accreditation process. For example, it does not deal with their Improvement Plans.⁴ It is therefore a ‘snapshot’ of the institutions’ profiles on conclusion of the Review at the end of 2007. At the time of publication of this report their status may have changed.

The broad analytic approach was to use the HEQC criteria to make sense of how institutions were interpreting their responsibility for developing their programmes. The criteria were therefore grouped into those that relate to design and those that relate to issues such as compliance with national legislation and policy.

1.5 The interpretive framework of the report

To bring together the findings of the Review, the HEQC Secretariat had to develop a framework for interpreting the review panels’ findings. While it was clear that the empirical findings were important in their own right, and are indeed the central source of reference in describing the state of the field, less clear was how the data from the reviews should be interpreted.

The HEQC’s own quality assurance principles, *fitness of purpose*, *fitness for purpose* and *transformation*, were central in guiding the thinking of the academics involved in the Review and were used for the exposition and analysis in this report. Key questions that the report addresses are those of the fitness of and for purpose of teacher education programmes in South Africa. On the matter of *fitness of purpose*, the report considers whether the training offered by the reviewed programmes is appropriate for the specific conditions of teaching and learning in South Africa. When it comes to *fitness for purpose*, the question is whether they are providing training that is presented at the appropriate level and with the requisite degree of support, resourcing and organisation. It is a central aim of the analysis in this report to establish whether the programmes are conceptualised, designed and implemented with these purposes in mind.

In highlighting fitness of and for purpose, the report deliberately subsumes transformation under these headings. It argues that programmes that are ‘fit’ for the South African context must also show that they can deal with the challenges of transformation, in particular the problems of the country’s apartheid legacy that persist in the poor performance of the country’s schools –

4 Based on the results of the assessment of their programmes, institutions were required to submit Improvement Plans that explained how they were going to address the different areas of weakness identified during the review. The National Reviews Directorate has been monitoring not only the development but the implementation of these Improvement Plans, based on expert analyses of the plans and progress reports. Based on this the Directorate has been making recommendations to the HEQC Board to change the accreditation status of the different programmes as they met minimum standards in all criteria.

problems whose origins are socioeconomic in nature but also still racial. The reviewers therefore had to be sensitive to the ways this legacy presents itself.

At the institutional level, the HEQC assesses an institution's fitness of purpose on the basis of its ability to respond to national goals, priorities and targets, and its fitness for purpose on whether the institution is delivering on the goals and objectives specified in its mission in relation to the three core functions of higher education.

With respect to 'fitness of purpose', teacher education has characteristics that are quite distinct from those of other similar fields, such as management training. While both are broadly educational and are presented at an advanced level, their aims are different. A qualification in education is conferred upon the attainment of an advanced level of study in the field. In the case of the ELM, for example, this means demonstrating a thorough grasp of how to integrate theory and practice: being able to inform one's practice with theory, and understanding how practice might change theory. Reflection about practice is therefore the central characteristic of a good ELM and widely agreed to be a key generic feature of this programme. Indeed, it is among the critical outcomes most institutions envisage for their programmes.

These outcomes, according to the HEQC's definition of fitness of purpose, are encapsulated in the goals, priorities and targets of qualifications established by the country's national policies, such as its national qualifications framework, and the extent to which the qualification meets the level appropriate to these goals, priorities and targets. These in turn find their provenance in the broader international experience, and they constitute the generic fitness of purpose value mandated by the HEQC. They are extrapolated into the specific domain of teacher education and distilled into the HEQC's detailed criteria for the specific programmes.

As mentioned in Section 1.3 above, the criteria needed to be applied with sensitivity to and understanding of local context. One cannot expect an ELM programme developed in one institution to be replicated with equal success in another where the circumstances are different. The 'fitness for the local purpose' of an ELM or an ACE in Mathematics Education or a PGCE depends on the additional qualities and characteristics that make it a good programme – it must be designed and operationalised so as to be relevant and appropriate. The HEQC's definition of fitness for purpose draws attention to the quality assurance mandates of *specific* institutions – the *localisation* of the programme must be acknowledged when assessing its quality in the South African context.

Finally, it is important to emphasise that the concepts of fitness of and fitness for purpose are interrelated. The Review emphasised 'fitness' as a holistic quality in which national and institutional do not stand apart from each other. The design of a programme, therefore, should not be rigidly separated from the issues of context. In this report the criteria are approached in holistic terms. Nevertheless, as mentioned in Section 1.4 above, the criteria were grouped into those that emphasise *design* – Criteria 2 (Programme Design), 5 (Teaching and Learning), 6 (Programme Coordination) and 7 and 8 (Supervision and Assessment), and those that emphasise *relevance and appropriateness* – Criteria 1 (Context), 3 (Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection), 4 (Staffing) and 9 (Student Retention and Throughput). It has to be understood in relation to these criteria, that the four programmes evaluated in this review have specific requirements in relation to the criteria looking into design, and relevance and appropriateness. This meant that a specific set of criteria and minimum standards for each programme type were developed by regionally-based groups of specialists. The criteria for the different programmes are provided in Appendix 1.

1.6 The limitations of the report

The report presents the state of certain selected education programmes – it is not a comprehensive review of every programme at every level of teacher education provision. Furthermore, it cannot extrapolate beyond what was contained in the SERs and panel reports. Accreditation exercises as they are carried out in South Africa do not engage with actual practice. Their deliberations depend ultimately on documentary and, within limits, oral evidence. They are therefore not comprehensive. Although this report advances arguments and propositions in crucial areas of education quality, the nature of the exercise did not allow for looking at programmes and specific interesting cases in depth. The report attempts to be sensitive to the inherent distinct dynamics of each programme and takes into account its broad structure, but making definite pronouncements about the problems experienced by different programmes is neither part of the brief nor possible given the nature of the accreditation process. The ACE is a special case in point. It is possibly the most critical qualification under review in this overview, given its central effect on the scale of improvement sought by the education system. It was beyond the scope of this accreditation exercise to address all the tensions of a qualification in which the simultaneous demands of access to higher education, re-skilling and up-skilling have to be accommodated and resolved. The Review is thus only a partial overview of the field of education. It is nevertheless an important reflection of what the field looks like in terms of the quality of provision.

It is important to note the specific challenge that the state of educational data in the country poses to an analysis such as the one proposed in this report. While HEMIS (the Higher Education Management Information System) is considerably more advanced than anything the sector has had access to before, there remains a difficulty with the qualification and programme level data. The HEMIS data has been used extensively in this report. It provides the most up-to-date and reliable aggregate information on enrolments, registrations and graduation rates in the country. It is constructed around information fields developed by the Department of Education (DoE), specifically as an administrative and management information tool. It is meant to provide the DoE, as the major funder of education provision, with the basic data with which to determine per capita input (registrations) and output (graduations) costs and values on an equitable basis for the higher education system.

Valuable though HEMIS is, it does not provide consistently disaggregated data for specific fields of study, such as the ACE in Mathematics Literacy. There is, for example, inconsistency in the titles of qualifications that institutions provide to the DoE. Similarly, in relation to demographic information, this report therefore cannot be as precise as it would like about the specific areas of study examined by the Review. Institutions did provide demographic data in their SERs, and it is used on occasion, but they presented it in their own distinct ways, and were guided by differing interpretations of terms such as ‘Full-time Equivalents’, ‘headcount’, ‘registration’, ‘success rate’, ‘graduation rate’ and ‘throughput’. Illustrative as this data was on occasion, its incommensurability meant that it could not be used for aggregate purposes. A further complication was that the Review coincided with the 2003–2007 mergers and incorporations. Institutions going through these processes had difficulty reporting on key categories of information during this period.

Despite these limitations, the report writers are satisfied that this report presents an accurate and carefully thought-through picture and analysis of the quality of provision in the programmes assessed during the HEQC National Review.

CHAPTER TWO

The History of Teacher Training and Recent Policy Developments

2.1 Introduction

The year 2007 marked 170 years of teacher training provision in the southern Africa region. The first institution was established at Genadendal in the Cape Colony in 1839. The significance of recounting the history of teacher training and education for the report is large. It provides, firstly, a description of the kinds of qualifications that have evolved in and for teacher education in South Africa and places into perspective the nature and purpose of the country's current qualifications. What these qualifications were for, their purpose, and how these purposes have changed is important to understand. The second reason for including this history is the contextualisation of the present that it provides. It brings into perspective the issues that have arisen in South African teacher education, especially those relating to racial discrimination.

The discussion begins with a brief history of the evolution of teacher education and training initiatives and then focuses on the important changes introduced in the contemporary period, i.e. from 1994 to the present. The history of teacher training and education has a considerable bearing on this report. This chapter describes the kinds of teaching qualifications that have evolved in South Africa and explains their purposes, puts the current qualifications into perspective, and discusses some of the problems of teacher education in this country, especially those relating to racial discrimination. It first offers a brief history of the evolution of teacher education and training initiatives and then focuses on the important changes introduced in the contemporary period, from 1994 to the present day.

2.2 Teacher education in South Africa in the pre-democracy era

Teacher training in South Africa had its origins in a mission station established by the Moravian Missionary Society in 1737 at Baviaanskloof (Kallaway, 1984:48). Its purpose was to provide instruction in language and religious education and the rudiments of agriculture (Behr & MacMillan, 1971:361). The Moravians were expelled in 1738. When the British took over the Cape in 1795 the mission station was taken under the protection of the new government, who gave permission for missionaries outside of the Dutch Reformed Church to enter the country (Behr & MacMillan, 1971). As a result of these developments the Moravians returned, and in 1806 the name of the mission station was changed to Genadendal ('valley of grace') and by the early decades of the 19th century it had become an important educational centre. In 1837, an institution was established at Genadendal for training Khoikhoi assistants to help with the teaching of the children in the mission schools of the Society.

This early initiative is important to recall given that it took place in the black community. However, while teacher training began among the subordinate peoples of the Cape, it was the schools that served white children that showed the most important outlines of the practices for

training teachers that would come to dominate in the country (Horrell, 1965). These schools were staffed largely by imported teachers who used the older pupils, known as monitors, to help with the younger ones. Where schools were established by the missions, they too, for the most part, used the monitor system (Behr, 1978).

In 1839, a Department of Education was created in the Cape under the control of a Superintendent-General of Public Education who was directly answerable to the government. A pupil-teacher system was introduced in some measure in 1842 and extended in 1858. The pupil teachers, who were required to have attained a 'satisfactory standard' in the three R's, spent five (later three) years assisting in the infant classes. Each afternoon the teacher gave them an hour's instruction in English, Dutch, reading, writing, arithmetic and school management. During this same period, between 1842 and 1860, an institution was established in Cape Town to 'provide white students with more advanced instruction in English and classical literature, mental philosophy, abstract and physical science' (Behr, 1978:208). An Elementary Teacher's Diploma examination was introduced in 1874. In 1894 the minimum educational qualification for entrants to the course was set at Standard IV, and five years later at Standard V. This pupil-teacher system was used in some coloured schools too (Pells, 1938; Behr 1978).

Teacher training expanded rapidly in the late 19th and early 20th centuries in the wake of the proliferation of schools around the country and the expansion of education provision in the African community. In 1878, the Dutch Reformed Church opened a state-aided Normal College in Cape Town, to train white teachers for the secondary departments of schools, and the Education Department created the Middle Class Certificate, later called the Teacher's Second Class Certificate (T2) for which the Normal College students could prepare. Pells (1938:37) writes that 'most of the work was of the standard now done by the upper classes of high schools. Indeed, the bulk of the pupils never qualified as teachers, but attended the Normal College to prepare for the Matriculation examination'. In 1893, two institutions for training white elementary teachers were founded in Cape Town and Wellington, and three years later a third was established, in Grahamstown.

The Battswood School for training coloured teachers was opened in 1891 by the Nederduitse Gereformeerde Mission Church in Wynberg (Horrell, 1965). By 1935, according to Behr (1978), 236 coloured students had qualified as teachers. Their training had essentially consisted of a six-year course after Standard IV, of which three years were devoted to academic and religious studies and the remainder to practical training. As Welch (2002) points out, there were no dedicated teacher training institutions for Africans: for them, 'secondary teaching was teacher education'.

The formation of Union in 1910 had important consequences for teacher training. The South Africa Act 1909 (Government Printer, Pretoria, 1910) divided education into two broad categories:

- a) higher education, which would be under the control of the central government; and
- b) education (other than higher education), which would be the responsibility of the provinces.

However, the stipulations of the Act, as a prelude to debates that continue today about who has jurisdiction over teacher education, did not define 'higher education' adequately. Two weeks after the Union of South Africa had been established, the Minister of Education called a conference of Directors of Education to interpret the term 'higher education'. While teacher training was declared to be a facet of higher education, it was resolved that teacher training colleges would remain *pro tem* under the Provincial Education Departments (Report of the Under-Secretary of Education for the Year Ending 31 December 1910, U.G. 12/1911:1-2, in Rose & Tunmer 1975:281). Two years later, a firm decision was taken to place them under the provinces (Rose & Tunmer, 1975). Malherbe (1925) states that by the early 1920s a deep schism had developed between higher education and the state on the question of teacher education in South Africa.

Nevertheless, the number of colleges expanded rapidly in the country. By 1930 there were 30, with a total enrolment that grew to 3,540 students by 1935 (Kallaway, 2008).

An important development in the history of the field was the coming into power of the National Party in 1948 on the basis of its policy of apartheid. The policy sought the rigid separation of people in the country according to race (Christie & Collins, 1984:160). One of the effects of apartheid was to introduce new and separate educational institutions for black people, including teacher training colleges. The number of these fluctuated until the late 1980s, when the number increased dramatically (to 111), because of the apartheid and homeland policy. An audit of teacher training colleges carried out by Edupoll in 1996 revealed that 93 were offering contact teaching (Jaff et al., 1996). By the end of the 1980s, there were 18 colleges for whites, with eight in the Cape, seven in the Transvaal, two in Natal and one in the Orange Free State. The Department of Coloured Affairs, later to fall under the jurisdiction of the House of Representatives, administered 16 colleges, with all but two located in the Cape and six in Cape Town itself. There were two colleges for people classified Indian. In the complex bureaucracy established for Africans, there were 13 colleges administered by the Department of Bantu Education, later to become the Department of Education and Training. In the 'homelands' there were 17 colleges in Lebowa (with 8,616 students in 1990), one in KwaNdebele (with 789 students), two in KaNgwane, 11 in Bophuthatswana (with 5,466 students in 1992), five in QwaQwa (with 1,985 students), four in Venda (with 1,437 students in 1984); five in the Ciskei, 16 in the Transkei (with 8,140 students in 1992); three in Gazankulu (with 1,987 students in 1992); and 14 in KwaZulu-Natal (Kallaway, 2008).¹

While the number of colleges expanded during the apartheid era, all the universities continued to offer teacher training. The difference between the offerings of the colleges and those of the universities was essentially the teachers' qualifications. The universities, including the new post-1959 apartheid-era institutions, such as the 'bush universities' and new Afrikaans institutions, such as the Rand Afrikaans University and the University of Port Elizabeth, offered either:

- the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) (later to become the Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) (HDE (PG))), offered upon completion of a major in a discipline that prepared the students for school subject teaching; or
- the four-year integrated professional/academic qualification of Bachelor of Arts/Science (Education) (BA (Ed)), Bachelor of Pedagogics (B Paed) or the Bachelor of Primary Education (B Prim Ed).²

Universities such as the University of the Western Cape offered admission to students without a matriculation exemption to a non-degree Higher Education Diploma.

University and college qualifications differed markedly in emphasis. Universities believed their qualifications equipped students to teach with a strong knowledge base. The colleges, on the other hand, were sceptical of the universities' academic emphasis and insisted that induction into the profession depended on sustained practice.

This major difference notwithstanding, it is important also to note how strongly arrangements differed within the broader college system itself. Up until the era of democracy it remained possible for students in the black education sector to qualify as teachers with Standard 8 school-leaving certificates. By contrast, this system had by then long been abolished in the white sector, where students were required to have matriculated (not necessarily with what was known as an Exemption Certificate, which entitled a student to enter a university to study for a degree). At the height of the apartheid era, therefore, the qualifications of teachers in African schools in

1 See Appendix 13, which shows the spatial distribution of colleges before 1994.

2 These qualifications should not be confused with the four-year BEd degree introduced in 2000.

particular, but also in coloured schools, were poor. The following statement from a 1979 report by the Taylor Commission of Enquiry into Education, established by the homeland government of the Transkei, is illustrative of the problems in the homeland education system:

With all the physical facilities available, teacher supply in Transkei leaves much to be desired in both quality and quantity of the teaching force. For instance, of the 11,931 primary school teachers in service in 1977, only 749 (6.3%) had matriculation or an equivalent qualification; 11,182 (93.7%) had qualifications lower than matric. Of the 1,193 post-primary teachers, only 280 (23.5%) had bachelor's degrees or higher qualifications, 60.4% had a senior certificate and 16.1% had a junior certificate. (Horrell, 1980:257)

2.3 Changes in teacher education in the era of democracy

By 1994 the system of teacher education was in considerable difficulties. It needed to confront these, and find a way to provide efficient and cost-effective quality teacher education.

The new government introduced fundamental changes, including major modifications to both the governance and curricula of teacher education. There were important shifts in qualification structures and their requirements, prompted partly by the need to achieve equity and efficiency in teacher education and partly by the need to prepare teachers to implement the new school curriculum. Structurally the system underwent major changes: the former 102 public teacher training colleges, 20 universities and 15 technikons that offered teacher education qualifications in the early 1990s were reduced to just 23 institutions. This drastic reduction had, and continues to have, implications for teacher supply and demand, taking place as it did in the context of the downscaling of the teaching corps through the new government's rationalisation policy, which sought to redeploy personnel from areas where there was an excess of teachers, to others where there were shortages, in accordance with teacher–pupil ratios set by government.

The effects of these reforms were manifold. While the rationalisation process addressed problems of inefficiency in the sector, they precipitated new difficulties. Many newly qualified teachers could not find employment as posts in schools were being closed. In the teaching community itself, there was a decline in the prestige and, predictably, the attractiveness of teaching as a profession. This decline manifested itself in the significantly lower numbers of young people choosing teaching as a profession, with real consequences for institutions' enrolments. It is against this background that the HEQC Review of professional and academic programmes in education took place.

Taking this background into account, the rest of this chapter elaborates on the following issues, which are crucial to understanding the state of teacher education today: teacher education at the beginning of the era of democracy; higher education reform; the implications of the merged higher education institutional landscape for teacher education; the impact of teacher utilisation, rationalisation and redeployment on the teaching profession; and developments in teacher education, supply and demand after the mergers.

2.4 Teacher education at the beginning of the era of democracy

One of the first policy initiatives undertaken by the new government was the presentation of a White Paper on Education and Training in 1995 that highlighted the need for an audit of teacher supply, demand, utilisation and costs, and of teacher education, in order to evaluate the situation and suggest policy options. The first comprehensive National Teacher Education Audit was therefore carried out in 1995 (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). This played an important role in the decision-making and direction of policy for teacher education over the subsequent years and gave direction to the changes that were introduced. Some of the key points to emerge from what became popularly known as 'The Audit' are summarised below.

- The sector had 281 different institutions providing some form of teacher training. These ranged from state colleges to distance education providers, NGOs and private for-profit colleges, many of which had been established and managed on the basis of racial classification, under the control of the various Departments of Education.
- There were approximately 104 state-funded and run contact colleges of education.
- There were 36 universities and technikons that also offered teacher education training and education.
- There were 129,614 students in the teacher education sector engaged in distance education of some sort.
- The colleges differed considerably in terms of quality and infrastructure and facilities.
- The dominant college approach to teacher training was authoritarian and content centred, with little integration of theory and practice. Quality was judged to be generally poor.
- Colleges of education were not cost effective institutions.
- Most of the distance- education providers were not providing good quality education. In 1994 there were at least 480,000 students engaged in some form of teacher education. The annual output of new teachers at the time was 26,000. The annual combined output of the 20 universities involved in teacher education was 7,240 newly qualified teachers and that of the technikons only 1,847. The focus of both universities and technikons was on pre-service training, with little focus on in-service teacher education.

Hofmeyr & Hall (1995) also suggested that for the remainder of the 1990s teacher demand would be further increased by over-enrolment in some educational phases. Factors contributing to increased demand for teachers included the fact that school enrolment was growing at a rate of 3.8 per cent per year, and the expectation that the phased introduction of compulsory education in South Africa would increase the rate of enrolment over the next few years. The Audit showed that a substantial proportion of teachers (36%) were underqualified or unqualified and that this would have significant implications for the demand for teacher education and training, particularly for in-service teacher education upgrading programmes. At the time, 36% of all teachers were upgrading their qualifications, with most focused on upgrading an M+2 (matriculation plus a two-year teacher's diploma) to an M+3 qualification but also some who were studying towards M+4 or M+5 qualifications. On the other hand, demand for teachers was curtailed by limited provincial Department of Education budgets and budget allocations to teaching posts. A factor complicating the teacher supply and demand was that the annual output of 26,000 newly-qualified teachers was unevenly spread across provinces. In some provinces supply did not match demand: some had an excess of teachers and some a shortage. The result was that in some provinces some newly-qualified teachers were not able to find employment – a situation exacerbated by an already existing pool of unemployed teachers. The annual average rate of attrition from the teaching profession at the time was 6%. South Africa also had a serious backlog in the construction of classrooms with the result that there was a shortage of classrooms, increasing the pupil-to-teacher ratios and reducing demand (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995).

The Audit's modelling for projections of future teacher supply and demand drew on a number of variables: attrition rates, likely enrolment rates, hiring policies, and desirable pupil-to-teacher ratios, which Hofmeyr and Hall identified as 40:1 primary and 35:1 secondary, and 35:1 primary and 30:1 secondary in their first and second modelled scenarios respectively. On the basis of this modelling, they concluded that there would be a gradual decrease in the demand for primary school teachers and an increase in the demand for secondary school teachers. In both scenarios, however, they suggested that there would be an initial surplus of teachers in the system. In a breakdown of teacher supply and demand by province between 1995 and 2004, the modelling predicted that, despite deficits in some areas, the majority of provinces would experience a surplus of teachers. Hofmeyr and Hall therefore concluded that South Africa would

have sufficient or surplus teachers in the subsequent years, with the qualification that there would be a need for a greater focus on secondary school teacher training. The biggest problems facing teacher education in South Africa, they emphasised, were:

- the poor quality of teacher education programmes;
- the fact that the teacher education system was not cost effective; and
- the fact that policies for the supply, utilisation and development of teachers were driven by the wrong incentives.

These problems made it necessary to start restructuring the country's teacher education system. Hofmeyr and Hall made a number of observations and suggestions (which later had an influence on a task team set up by the CHE to look at the size and shape of higher education). They pointed out that the colleges were not cost effective primarily because their size and low staff–student ratios made the unit costs of training teachers very high, that there was significant ‘wastage of resources’ because of high failure rates, and that many students who qualified at contact colleges did not enter the teaching profession. They noted that the colleges had ‘expressed a strong desire to become part of the higher education sector and to be regarded as national rather than provincial institutions’ and recommended that the situation of the colleges should be reviewed and finalised (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995:52).

This Audit fed into the work of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE), which was appointed in 1995. The 1996 NCHE report recommended that colleges of education should be incorporated into universities, arguing that this would address the concerns raised in The Audit, and achieve gains in efficiency and equity. The rationale for this recommendation was that this would be a way of achieving a single coordinated system. However, the Ministry of Education, in the Green Paper on the Transformation of Higher Education (1996), argued that the situation was too complex for a single model to be selected at that time because the provinces were in the process of rationalising colleges of education and the input of the National Committee on Further Education was still pending.

In fact, the incorporation of the colleges of education was not driven by the 1995 White Paper's reference to mergers, or by The Audit and its findings with respect to cost effectiveness and quality – the key imperative was the Constitution, as the White Paper made clear:

In terms of the constitutional provision that tertiary education is an exclusive national competence (Schedule 4 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Act No. 108 of 1996), the Minister is advised that all higher education colleges fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. They will be planned, governed and funded as part of the single coordinated higher education system. (DoE, 1995)

At a provincial level the reaction to the CHE task team's ‘framework document’ was swift, as provinces, still in control of colleges of education at the time, closed colleges and rationalised the sector internally. At the beginning of 2000, the number of colleges around the country had been reduced from approximately 120 with 80,000 students to 50 with 15,000 students (CHE 2000/2001, cited in Jansen, 2003). By the end of that year, the number had been further reduced to 25 colleges with 10,000 students, and 5,000 students registered at two distance learning colleges. Jansen observes that the incorporation process proceeded very differently at different institutions and produced different results. He also points out that, contrary to the National Working Group's findings, the colleges of education had not necessarily been successfully incorporated into universities by the beginning of 2001 but that the process in fact continued throughout 2001 and into 2002 (Jansen, 2003).

The incorporation of colleges into universities affected teacher education in a number of ways (Becker, 2003; Van der Westhuizen, 2004). Many staff were not re-employed. Some were absorbed into the Provincial Departments of Education, but many were lost to the teacher training sector

(Jansen, 2003). The effects on the curriculum were marked. Mfusi (2004), in a case study on the incorporation of the South African College of Teacher Education (SACTE) into the University of South Africa (UNISA), explores some examples of what happened to teacher education curricula as a result of the incorporation. She states that the university lecturers accepted and used some of the college materials and courses, but that although consultants and curriculum committees attempted to ease the process and integrate the two institutions' curricula, the reality was that the college's programmes were largely mapped onto the existing university ones. While this allowed students to move from the college programmes into the university programmes effectively, 'some valuable college material and programmes were lost because the UNISA staff were not eager to even look at it' (Mfusi, 2004:102). Her analysis suggests that this reluctance was related to the power relationships between the staff of the university and the incorporated college.

In December 2000, a government notice was published (No. 1383, 15 December 2000), which served as the Ministerial Declaration of Colleges of Education as Subdivisions of Universities and Technikons. At the same time, an agreement was signed with the employees of college staff regulating their absorption into the relevant Provincial Departments of Education or the institutions into which the colleges had been incorporated. The process was to be facilitated by the Joint Education Trust (Jansen, 2003).

The above description of the landscape explains the fragmentation of teacher education provision in South Africa and how it came about, and its implications are central for the Review. Sayed's characterisation of apartheid education as a 'system of systems' (Sayed, 2002, 2004) is helpful in conceptualising the nature of the structure inherited in 1994, which reproduced itself ideologically and politically and at an administrative and governance level. It also suggests, however, that in the post-apartheid period of change in teacher education the government had to develop strategies to dismantle both individual systems and the broader system and its inherent inequalities. The dismantling of the legislative and structural framework that cemented the system was inevitable and also required the careful managing of the myriad complex and often contradictory forces that reproduced it and the inequalities it had been designed to perpetuate. As the discussion on the following page of the post-1994 period shows, such a process is by its very nature fraught with daunting challenges, many of them the unintended consequences of implementation within a fragmented and divided system.

2.5 Higher education reform

As the discussion above makes clear, the higher education system was in a state of flux in the early 1990s. Jansen (2002) observes that government policy making with regard to higher education in the mid-1990s was broadly characterised by the 'optimism of massification', based largely on the predictions of the NCHE. The NCHE's report, 'An overview of a new policy framework for higher education' (1996), identified deficiencies and opportunities in the existing system and proposed a way forward for higher education. Central to its recommendations was the proposal that South Africa should seek to establish a single, coordinated national system of higher education premised on a programme-based definition of higher education (NCHE, 1996). The NCHE was very clear that the South African higher education system, while focusing on the dual objectives of economic growth and social development, should be structured so as to cater for the significant increase in the numbers seeking to enter higher education and should be designed to promote access (NCHE, 1996). As part of a single coordinated system, the NCHE envisaged the incorporation of nursing, education, agriculture, technology and other colleges into universities and technikons (NCHE, 1996).

The NCHE report was followed by the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (1996), which confirmed the value of a programme-based approach to higher education and the necessity for a single, coordinated national system, and the Education White Paper 3, A

Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997). Jansen (2002) suggests that both Papers were informed by the NCHE's predictions of massification and therefore aimed at expanding the higher education system and increasing access. They were followed by the Higher Education Act (1997), which began to lay the foundations for an integrated, single higher education system braced for significant expansion.

However, as Jansen (2002) points out, the expected massification did not happen. There was some expansion in mostly formerly white higher education institutions, which were already positioned to expand their market share in the mid-1990s, but beyond that growth was limited (Jansen, 2003). In 1997, for example, there were 21,000 fewer students than had been predicted by the NCHE report, and by 1999 there were 140,000 fewer. The impact also varied depending on the type of institution with enrolment decreasing at formerly black institutions while increasing at some formerly white institutions – a trend that has been ascribed to black students choosing to attend better resourced formerly white institutions (Jansen, 2003).

The initial focus on massification gradually gave way to what Jansen terms 'merger thinking'. Jansen points out that the NCHE report and other documents related to higher education only occasionally mentioned and generally underplayed the idea of institutional mergers in the mid-1990s, except in relation to colleges of education (Jansen, 2002). Instead, the general focus was on institutional differentiation and in the college sector on merging colleges to create new institutions. Jansen observes that the first substantial mention of mergers in higher education was in Kader Asmal's 'Call to Action' announcement in July 1999. A CHE task team was directed to develop a concrete set of proposals for the restructuring of the higher education landscape, and in 2000 it recommended that institutions should be differentiated according to the type of degree they offered, and mentioned some possible new combinations of institutions.

In 2001, in response to the task team's report, the Minister of Education released the National Plan for Higher Education and appointed a National Working Group to advise him on appropriate restructuring, including mergers (Jansen, 2002). The December 2001 report of the National Working Group recommended reducing the number of higher education institutions from 36 to 21. On the basis of these recommendations, the Minister took a set of finalised proposals for the restructuring of higher education, including the merging of various institutions, to Parliament for approval in April of 2002, where they were approved. This move led to the restructuring and rearrangement of the higher education landscape in South Africa that resulted in the merger of several institutions, and incorporations and creation of institutions with multi-site campuses.

2.6 Implications of the merged higher education institutional landscape for teacher education

It is important to recognise how incorporations and mergers affected the higher education landscape in South Africa. In the course of conducting the Review, it became apparent that the changes taking place in the system were affecting many institutions, often negatively. Site visits produced very real and tangible evidence that staff in many institutions were grappling with problems emanating directly from the restructuring of higher education. Many policies and posts were in transition, leaving compliance with regulatory statutory frameworks in a correspondingly 'interim' situation. Faculties had been restructured, and posts 'frozen', which had a direct impact on the quality of the programmes covered in the Review. As one of the many consequences of reconfiguration, several Schools of Education had instituted 'pipeline' arrangements for students in programmes from mergers or incorporation partners, while working with new or reconfigured programmes.

The most significant aspect of the structural reform of teacher education was the closure of colleges of education and their incorporation into universities. Welch and Gultig (2002) note

several concerns about the practical effects of this process. According to the 1995 Audit, South Africa at that time had the physical facilities to produce sufficient new teachers to meet or exceed demand in the following few years (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). Welch and Gultig observe that the rationalisation significantly decreased the number of teacher education providers and they note Vinjevold's reference to a 'dramatic decline in student teachers in pre-service programmes: from 70,731 in 1994 to 10,153 in 2000' (Welch & Gultig, 2002:10). Welch and Gultig point out that this decline most dramatically affected the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape, which already had too few teachers. They argue that the decline was, at least in part, related to the closure of colleges of education and their incorporation into universities (Welch & Gultig, 2002).

Part of the logic of a smaller higher education system, and particularly the idea of reducing the number of teacher education providers, was that a smaller system would be easier to manage. Welch and Gultig (2002) argue, however, that this outcome was not achieved, because the higher education institutions reacted differently to their role as the providers of all of the country's teacher education. Many, moreover, viewed teacher education as the 'stepchild' of higher education rather than as a high priority academic field in its own right. This situation was exacerbated, Welch and Gultig (2002) argue, by a funding formula for subsidising higher education, which did not prioritise teacher education (placing it in the lowest possible category, below social sciences and commerce) and which provided more incentives to full-time, contact education than to distance and part-time study.

2.7 The impact of teacher utilisation, rationalisation and redeployment on the teaching profession

An additional important concern raised by Welch and Gultig was the decreased access to teacher education that resulted from the closure of colleges of education, particularly in terms of the geographical spread of teacher training institutions. Formerly, teacher education institutions were spread across the country, including some in remote rural areas. However, the incorporation of colleges of education, with the accompanying closure of many, meant that teacher education providers were now concentrated in the richest provinces. (Welch & Gultig, 2002)

Welch and Gultig cite Crouch's analysis of teacher supply and demand in South Africa, which suggests that South Africa would require approximately 30,000 new teachers over the following decade, with the demand unevenly spread across provinces and school phases. As has been highlighted above, this was problematic given the dramatic decline in the number of students registering in teacher education programmes, which could, according to Welch and Gultig, be partly ascribed to the closure of colleges of education and the consequent decreasing access to teacher education (2002). Welch and Gultig argue that expanding the teacher education system would, however, require 'marketing the teaching profession to a public which considers teaching to have limited career prospects' (2002:17). They argue that the image of teaching had been tarnished by the redeployment and rationalisation of teaching, which created the impression that South Africa had too many teachers and that the demand by private and public sector employees for specifically black graduates was likely to further decrease supply by luring qualified black teachers away from teaching (Welch & Gultig, 2002).

Other factors also affected the public image and attractiveness of teaching for young people entering higher education. Welch and Gultig (2003) suggest that the changes in the philosophical approach to education in South Africa had created a new conception of the role and identity of a teacher. This was largely driven by the publication, as discussed above, of the Department of Education's Norms and Standards for Educators (2000), which conceptualised educators as playing seven roles in the school – learning mediator; interpreter and designer of learning programmes; leader, administrator and manager; scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;

assessor; community, citizenship and pastoral role; and the overarching role into which all other roles are integrated, learning area and phase specialist (DoE, 2000). This document also emphasised the very important focus on applied competence or the ability to use knowledge and skills in an authentic context, and the need to assess applied competence in determining the success of teacher education programmes (DoE, 2000). The focus on integrated and applied competence had implications for the teacher education sector because it required the integration of theory and practice and a focus on ongoing, as well as initial, teacher education and on the classroom as the site of learning – in contrast to some of the more theoretical approaches that had previously been common (Welch & Gultig, 2003).

It has been suggested that this reconceptualisation of the identity of the teacher constituted an important step toward the professionalisation of teaching, increasing the autonomy and professional accountability of teachers and allowing for creativity and innovation. In support of this, Parker and Adler (2005) argue that the move from a college-based system to a university one could have a positive effect on teacher education, in line with this shift towards seeing teachers as independent, knowledge-producing professionals, and also on the teacher education sector itself. They argue that the repositioning of teacher education as part of the higher education system, and particularly as offered by higher education providers, would allow teacher educators to be involved not only in training teachers but also in creating and defining official knowledge in teacher education and creating ‘conditions for the emergence of new productive ... teacher identities which in turn can influence the quality and practice of ... education’ (Parker & Adler, 2005:61). This view is echoed by Sayed (2004:256), who suggests that the shift from college to university teacher education ‘has been motivated not only on the ground of comparative cost ... but also signals a belief that what is required in teacher education is a strong focus on subject/ learning area content knowledge and a research culture’.

Parker and Adler (2005) caution, however, that these gains were rendered vulnerable by the increased pressure on teacher educators to focus on research and publication instead of on improving the curriculum.

2.8 Developments in teacher education, supply and demand after the mergers

In 2006, there were 386,595 teachers employed by the Department of Education in South Africa (DoE, 2006:8). The Educator Supply and Demand report (cited in DoE, 2006) suggests (as do other studies) that the country will experience teacher shortages in the next few years. The report points out that there is an overall misalignment between supply and demand in terms of specific education phases and subject areas, with shortages being acute in Mathematics, Science and Technology, Arts and Languages and in the Foundation and Intermediate phase. It expresses concern about the lack of new teachers qualified to teach in African languages at foundation phase level. It observes that there has been a significant decline in the number of student teachers enrolled in teacher education (as also noted by the Wits Education Policy Unit, 2005), but observes that the trend began to reverse with 6,000 new teachers expected to graduate in 2006 (DoE, 2006).

It is against this backdrop that this report will in the next chapters focus on the description and analysis of the outcomes of the accreditation reviews themselves. Important in looking at these outcomes, therefore, is understanding the context in which the institutions find themselves.

CHAPTER THREE

The State of the Master's Degree in Education Leadership and Management

3.1 Introduction

The National Teacher Education Review for re-accreditation purposes started in 2005 by reviewing the structured Master's in Education (MEd) Education Leadership and Management (ELM) programmes. This chapter focuses on the outcomes of this part of the Review. It first describes the background against which the sector is set. It provides statistics on enrolments in the sector, discusses the evolution of the MEd ELM, and analyses its main features, so as to put into perspective the development of ELM programmes in South Africa. Thereafter the chapter analyses the findings in terms of the HEQC's criteria that were developed for this programme.

The main finding of the Review in relation to these programmes was that institutions struggle to balance the needs of their students in terms of theoretical and practical knowledge. This tension between theory and practice, as the other programme reviews for the ACE and the PGCE and BEd also revealed, is a particular challenge in education. However, it took an acute form in the Master's in ELM. Given that ELM programmes were relatively new in the country, in contrast to programmes such as the PGCE which had existed in one form or another from the very beginning of teacher education as a site of practice, it became clear in the process of collating and synthesising the outcomes of the panels' reports that the theory–practice divide constituted a major difficulty for institutions.

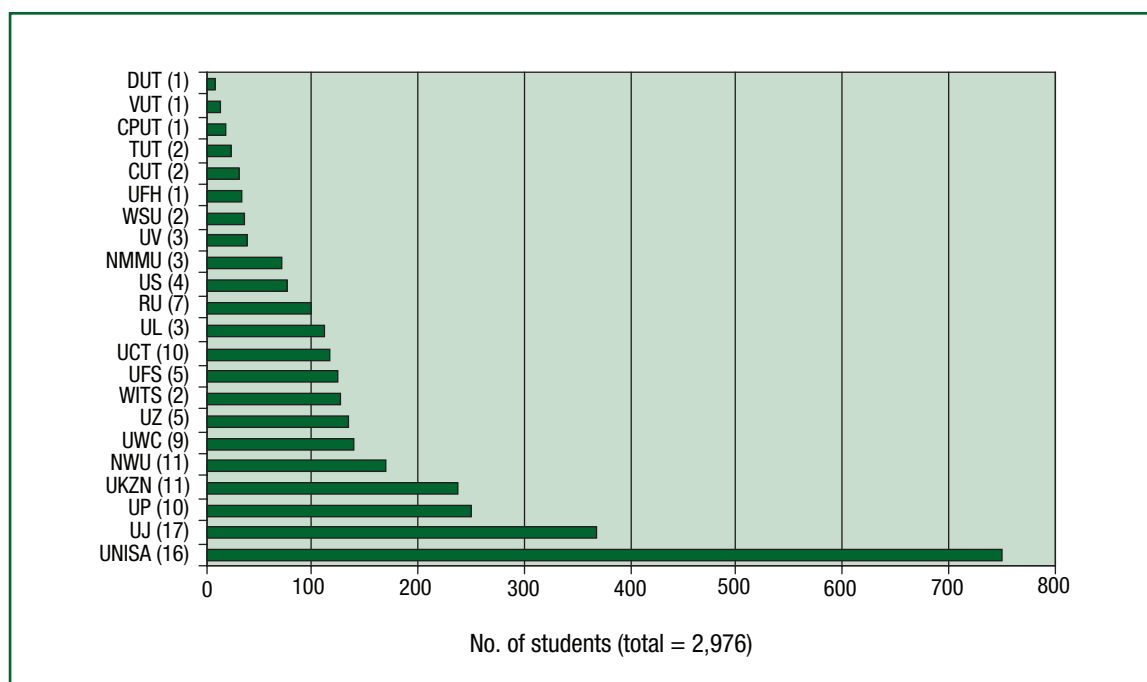
3.1.1 The state of the Med ELM programmes in 2005

Seventeen programmes were reviewed – and of these six were at universities of technology, seven at merged universities and four at comprehensive universities. Many of the programmes were relatively new. Twelve of the institutions were in various stages of post-incorporation of colleges, were going through or had recently completed mergers, or had incorporated campuses of the former Vista University.¹ These challenges notwithstanding, the ELM programmes, as the SERs showed, were areas of growth for all the institutions.

Figure 3.1 shows the headcount enrolments in all the MEd programmes in 2005 and the number of specialisations the institutions were offering. The figures exclude students registered for the MPhil and for one or two modules in education in other master's degrees. They also exclude student numbers in 'pipeline' programmes, i.e. programmes being phased out. Of the 2,976 students registered in all the MEd programmes at this date, the six universities of technology had the lowest number and UNISA by far the highest, with approximately one quarter. Of the total MEd enrolments in the country in 2005, 28.4% were in the broad field of ELM. Figure 3.2 shows that there were 987 students enrolled in the programmes that were reviewed for this exercise.

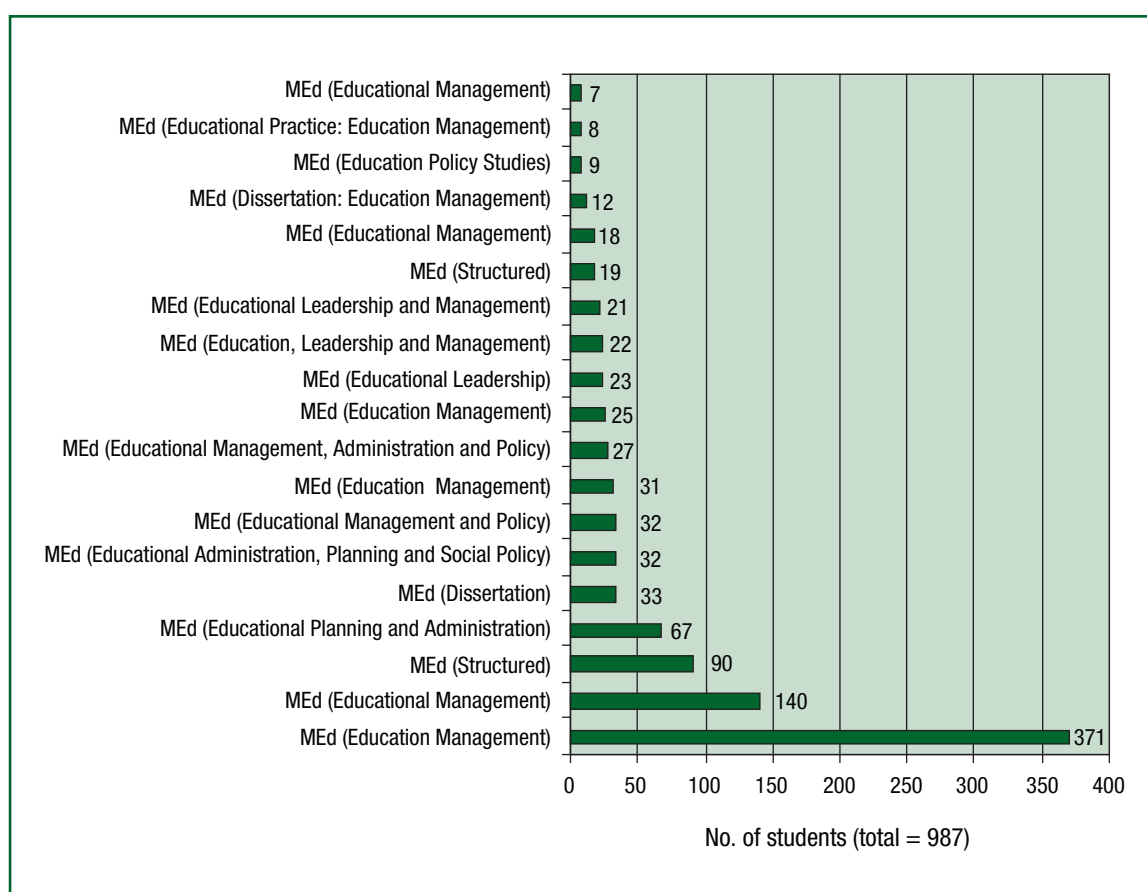
1 Three of the 19 were former technikons. Categories of historical 'advantage' and 'disadvantage' are not easily applicable because of the mergers and incorporations.

Figure 3.1: 2005 unaudited MEd enrolments per institution



Source: Data provided by the institutions in their self-evaluation reports (SERs) and submitted to the HEQC in 2005. The numbers of specialisations offered by the institutions are shown in brackets.

Figure 3.2: Student enrolments in MEd programmes reviewed



3.1.2 The evolution of the MEd ELM

A number of changes in South Africa in the 1980s significantly affected the structure of higher degrees in South African universities. Among these was a move away from the thesis-only MEd to the structured degree that is now in use in most institutions. Two factors precipitated this development. The first was the demand for high-level research capacity in education and particularly so in policy development. The country was going through the early phases of a transition that was to become official with the ascent to power of the African National Congress in 1994, and thus did not have the capacity to analyse the education system and develop the kinds of policies needed to deal with the problems bequeathed to it by apartheid. The crisis in which the education system found itself, moreover, required people with ‘legitimacy’ to lead it, especially after 1994. Policy and management master’s degrees in education therefore presented themselves as the appropriate route to take and the emphasis to choose for Faculties and Schools of Education. The second factor, linked to the first, was the realisation that building the high-level capacity that was required would necessitate a significant change in the approach to preparing students.

The MEd that emerged in South Africa was essentially based on the United Kingdom, rather than the United States, model. The UK model had a significant research dimension. It was developed and codified in the South African system and was heavily influenced by:

- the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF);
- the Department of Education’s Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE); and
- the HEQC accreditation requirements for qualifications.

The SAQA stipulations and the NQF pegged the MEd at what was described as Level 8. The basic requirements for a qualification at this level are available in SAQA’s level descriptors documents (SAQA Level Descriptors). As can be seen, the emphasis was placed on the attainment of advanced levels of specialist knowledge, the ability of a student to apply appropriate methods and techniques to complex theoretical and practical problems, and, critically, the ability to operate independently and autonomously. This framework enabled the field to determine the formal level at which its learning outcomes ought to be pitched. The expression ‘Level 8’ came to have a specific meaning for those working in higher education. They derived from it a set of instant rubrics with which to work, under headings such as ‘scope’, ‘knowledge literacy’ and so on. The content of these, however, was sufficiently open-ended to allow a range of interpretations, including simply formal compliance.

The NSE (DoE, 2000) requirements for qualifications came to play a similar role in regulating how a recognised master’s degree by coursework ought to be structured. They also made provision for the Postgraduate Diploma to constitute the coursework component of the MEd. They stipulated that the degree should consist of 240 credit points. Interestingly, the prescription that a structured MEd that could be recognised for research support purposes should consist of 50% coursework and 50% research came from a decision by the National Research Foundation.

The HEQC requirements for the accreditation of programmes, including specific rules for what a programme ought to consist of, were the final formality that shaped the MEd.

The factors that these three sets of formal requirements introduced into the environment in which the degree was developing came to be used in very different ways by different institutions. All institutions fulfilled these requirements, but they did so in ways that reflected the different routes by which they had come to the MEd.

While some universities, such as the University of Pretoria, had departments teaching Education Management as early as 1978, most of the new MEd degrees in this specialisation, or their variations, such as Education Policy and Leadership, first appeared in the mid-1990s. The earliest

MEd in management was introduced by the University of Natal during the mid-1980s. This two-year part-time programme, described in the University's SER as being 'very academically orientated', was replaced in the late 1980s by a specialised MEd in Education Management that later evolved through relationships with the Universities of Bristol and Leicester in the early 1990s. Another university that was influenced by an overseas model in this early period of the structured master's degree was the University of Durban-Westville, whose Faculty of Education established a link with the University of South Carolina in the US in the early 1990s that led to a much more modular approach to the MEd (UKZN SER, 2005:105).

During the mid-1990s, when Education Management and a range of cognate fields of study were coming to prominence, a number of universities established programmes of this kind: Education Management, Education Leadership, Education Policy and Administration, and so on. The leadership of the Universities of Durban-Westville and Natal (Durban) was critical. The University of Cape Town had a structured master's degree in mid-1980s (UCT SER, 2005:1), as did some other universities, and established an MEd in Educational Administration, Planning and Social Policy in 1993. Rhodes University established an MEd in Education Leadership and Management in 1994 (RU SER, 2005:6) and the North-West University (formerly the University of the North-West) did the same in 1995 (NWU SER, 2005: i). By the end of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s, most universities had similar programmes on offer. The former technikons began to enter this field in the early 2000s, with the Cape Peninsula University of Technology beginning its programme in 2002 (CPUT SER, 2005:10) and the Central University of Technology in 2003 (CUT SER, 2005:6). However, unlike other higher education institutions, the former technikon master's programmes were designed by curriculum design teams, based on the convenor system.² The qualification thus developed adhered closely in terms of time, courses and outcomes to the requirements of an MTech degree.

The ELM took shape during this 1990s growth period as a two-part master's degree. The first part was coursework, covering the basics of education and management, and the second was research, giving the student an opportunity to investigate an important question in the field of education in South Africa. Two kinds of structure developed, described as tightly framed and loosely framed. The former was more common. In this tight ELM frame, students were required to have a Management or a Leadership module in their programme and to do the majority of their remaining modules in related areas of study, such as Strategic Management, Financial Management and Education Policy. In the looser frame, modules such as Education Management were offered, and were sometimes even compulsory, but they were accompanied by a range of elective modules, which were less directly related to Education Management, such as Multicultural Studies and Curriculum Studies. Students studying in this looser frame could choose electives leading to a qualification that was not clearly an ELM one.

3.2 The findings of the Review

Fourteen programmes received full accreditation and one accreditation with conditions. Six of these received full accreditation at the end of the site visits, while eight were initially classified under 'accreditation with conditions'. Four programmes had their accreditation withdrawn, and four said they intended to withdraw their MEd offerings in ELM and were 'teaching-out' their programmes. Table 3.1 summarises the accreditation decisions. At the time of writing there was an additional programme not included in the table still awaiting a final report from the HEQC.

2 A designated lead institution had responsibility for specifying and constructing a programme which was then implemented by all the other institutions.

Table 3.1: Accreditation status

Name of institution	Name of programme	Site of delivery	Accreditation decision
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	MEd Structured	Mowbray	Full accreditation <i>(report due by 30 June 2008)</i>
Central University of Technology	MEd Educational Management	Bloemfontein	Accreditation withdrawn
Durban University of Technology	MTech Education	Indumiso Campus, Pietermaritzburg	The institution is teaching out this programme
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	MEd Educational Management	Summerstrand	Full accreditation
North-West University (Potchefstroom)	MEd Educational Practice: Education Management	Potchefstroom	No accreditation
North-West University (Mafikeng)	MEd Education Management	Mafikeng	Full accreditation <i>(report on all conditions due by 30 April 2008)</i>
Rhodes University	MEd Educational Leadership and Management	Grahamstown and Namibia	Full accreditation
Tshwane University of Technology	MTech in Education	Pretoria	The institution is teaching out this programme
University of Cape Town	MEd Educational Administration, Planning and Social Policy	Rondebosch	Full accreditation
University of Fort Hare	MEd by dissertation	East London and Alice	Full accreditation <i>(report due by March 2008)</i>
University of Free State	MEd Education Management	Bloemfontein	Accreditation withdrawn
University of Johannesburg	MEd Educational Management	Kingsway Campus	Full accreditation
University of KwaZulu-Natal	MEd Education Leadership (Management)	Durban and Pietermaritzburg	Full accreditation
University of Limpopo	MEd Educational Management	Limpopo	Accreditation withdrawn
University of Pretoria	MEd Educational Leadership	Pretoria	Full accreditation
University of South Africa	MEd Education Management	Pretoria	Full accreditation <i>(report due by 30 June 2008)</i>
University of Stellenbosch	MEd Educational Policy Studies	Stellenbosch	Full accreditation
University of the Western Cape	MEd Education Management, Administration and Policy	Bellville	Full accreditation
University of the Witwatersrand	MEd General Coursework	Johannesburg	Full accreditation
University of Venda	MEd Education Management	Thohoyandou	Continuation of conditional accreditation

(continued)

Name of institution	Name of programme	Site of delivery	Accreditation decision
University of Zululand	MEd Educational Management	KwaDlangezwa	The institution is teaching out this programme
Vaal University of Technology	MEd by dissertation	Vanderbijlpark	The institution is teaching out this programme
Walter Sisulu University of Technology	MEd Educational Management and Policy	Mthatha Campus	Full accreditation (<i>report due by 30 June 2008</i>)

Note:

- 4 additional MEd programmes were selected for review by the HEQC (2 in 2007, and 2 in 2008).
- 7 of the 14 programmes achieved Full Accreditation in the initial 2006 review exercise. A further 7 programmes subsequently met the conditions for Full Accreditation and have moved into this category.

3.2.1 Summary of findings per criterion

This section provides a macro-analysis of the findings of the review of the MEd ELM based on the HEQC's four rating categories: 'commend', 'meets minimum standards', 'needs improvement', and 'does not comply'. The distribution of these ratings per criterion is shown in Table 3.2. It should be noted that the total of the ratings for each criterion is 17, not 19, which is the number of institutions that were initially included in the accreditation process. This is because the four 'teach-out' institutions are not included in this report and two separate reviews were undertaken at one institution.

Table 3.2: Distribution of ratings per criterion

Rating per criterion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Commend	1	0	0	1	1	2	2	1	7	1	1
Meets minimum standards	6	6	11	9	8	6	8	7	8	7	5
Needs improvement	9	9	5	7	3	8	5	7	2	2	7
Does not comply	1	2	1	0	3 2 n/a	1	1 1 n/a	2	0	4 3 n/a	1 3 n/a

As explained in Chapter 1, Section 1.4, the criteria can be grouped into two categories, those that emphasise *design* and those that emphasise *relevance*. It is significant for the purposes of this section of the Review that the largest number of 'needs improvement' and 'does not comply' ratings were related to Criterion 1, which focuses on compliance with national policy and frameworks, and Criteria 2, 5 and 6, which focus on various aspects of the design of the programme. The criterion for which the largest number of 'commend' and 'meets minimum standards' ratings were made was Criterion 9, Infrastructure and Library Resources.

Figure 3.3 shows the distribution of the conditions that were attached to each of the criteria. Two features stand out. Firstly, the criterion associated with the greatest number of conditions for accreditation is Criterion 1, the institutional context in which programmes were being offered, confirming what Table 3.2 shows: that the largest number of 'needs improvement' and 'does not comply' ratings were because of weaknesses in this criterion. It was clear that the changes that were taking place in the sector, particularly the mergers and the incorporations, constituted a real challenge to institutions. Having to harmonise their different institutional policies and bring

them up to a level of compliance with the new regulatory framework of SAQA and the DoE was a difficult task.

Secondly, a large number of conditions were attached to the cluster of criteria relating to programme design, teaching and learning, and the research profile of the unit offering the master’s degree. These were mainly Criterion 2, which focuses specifically on design, but also Criterion 5, Teaching and Learning, Criterion 6, Research, and Criteria 7 and 8, which relate to Supervision and Assessment. The reason why these criteria are clustered together is that the manner in which a programme is constructed, its conceptual principles and objectives, have an impact on how the programme is taught and experienced by students. Similarly, the manner in which research is understood and incorporated into the programme depicts its orientation towards theory or practice. Finally, how a programme is conceptualised has a major influence on the manner its outputs and outcomes are monitored and assessed.

Figure 3.3: Analysis of conditions per criterion

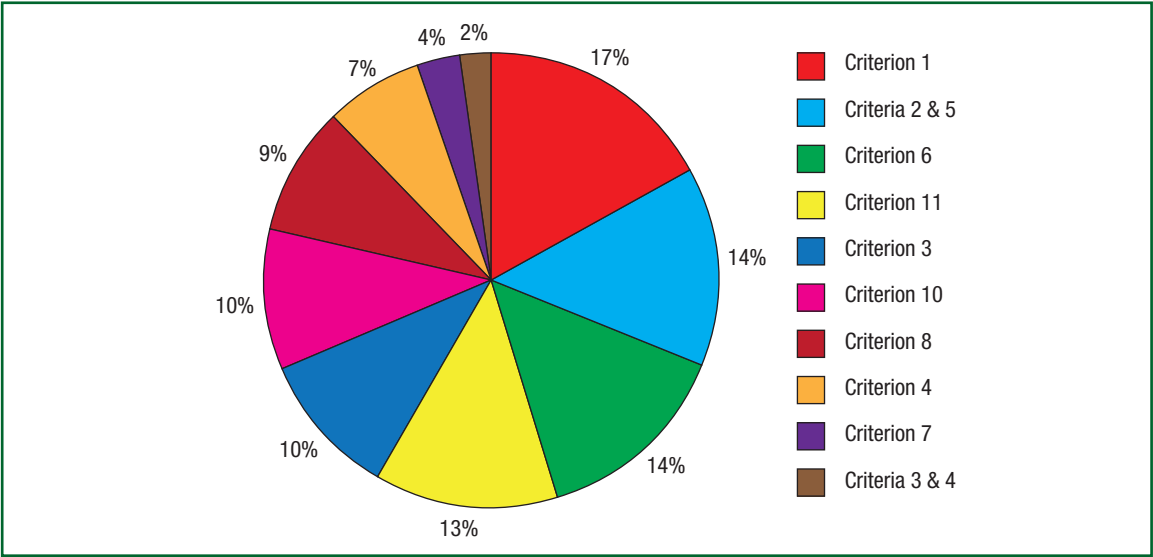
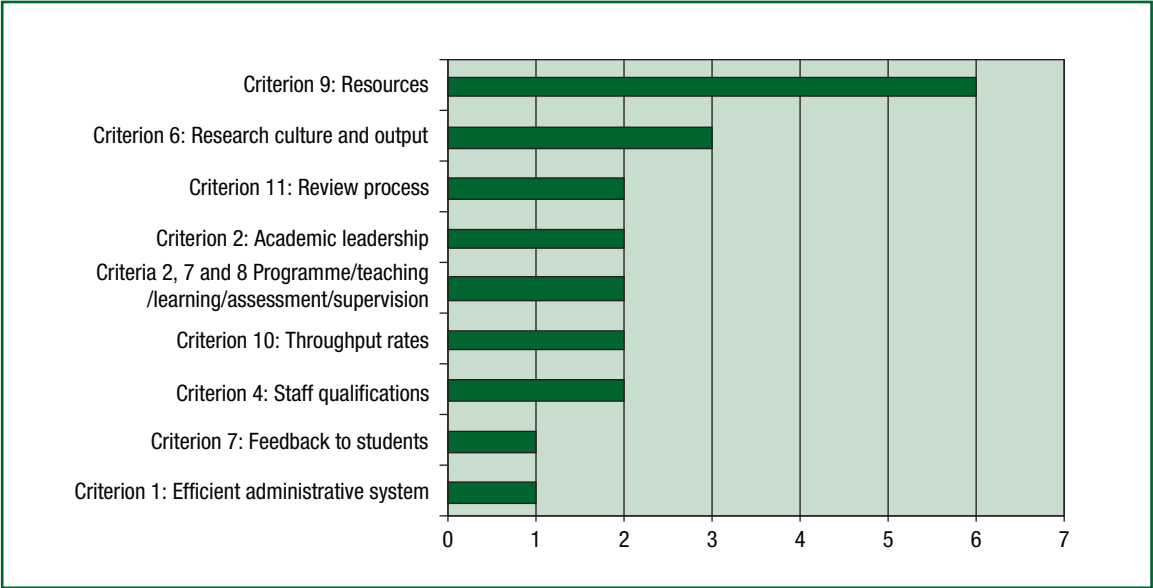


Figure 3.4: Analysis of commendations



There is some interesting correspondence between the ratings given to certain criteria. Significantly, in programmes where Criterion 1 had one ‘commend’ there were none for Criterion 2. In addition, for the one ‘does not comply’ awarded in Criterion 1, two such awards were made for Criterion 2. As mentioned above, moreover, the profiles of ratings for Criteria 5, 6, 7 and 8, Teaching and Learning, Research, Supervision and Student Assessment, showed related weaknesses: the second highest number of ‘does not comply’ ratings were recorded for Criterion 5, Teaching and Learning, and the second highest number of ‘needs improvement’ ratings (eight) was recorded for Criterion 6, Research. Taken together, Criteria 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8 all relate to design, and it is here, the evidence suggests, that the challenge of how to construct a good ELM programme was most obvious. In this regard it is noteworthy that there is marked discrepancy between institutions’ self-evaluation ratings and the HEQC panels’ ratings for each of the criteria.

Table 3.3 uses the following weighting scale to illustrate this point: 3 for ‘commend’, 2 for ‘meets minimum standards’, 1 for ‘needs improvement’, and 0 for ‘does not comply’. It shows, for each criterion, the average rating out of 3 the institutions gave themselves and the average rating the HEQC panels gave them, and the difference between these ratings. Particularly interesting is the large number of ‘commend’ that institutions awarded themselves and how often these ratings were adjusted downwards by peer reviewers. The largest differences were in the area of criteria related to design.

Table 3.3: Rating per criterion

SERs										
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.5	1.5	1.5
HEQC										
1.4	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.2	1.2
Difference										
0.8	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.3

3.2.2 Major challenges

Some distinct trends emerge from the ratings described above. They show that while institutions were performing relatively well in terms of the minimum standards for physical infrastructure, they were doing less well when it came to the way their programmes were constructed and how they affected outputs such as research productivity and student throughput.

The challenge of how to construct a programme was evident at two levels, credit structure and curriculum design. As regards the curriculum, there were differences in the programmes’ SAQA levels, modules, and sequencing and progression requirements.

Credit structure

The credit structure of the MEd programmes varied significantly. Institutions had different ideas about how many credits and contact hours were appropriate for the ELM programme. An earlier stipulation for the MEd was that the degree should consist of 180 credits (1,800 notional learning hours), but new policy for all master’s programmes was tending towards 240 credits (2,400 notional learning hours). One faculty expressed the opinion that, as it was ‘wishful thinking to get a sensible answer from anyone in this country on the number of credit points’, programme developers specified any number that made them compliant with policy. Although this particular institution’s calendar specified 180 credits for the MEd, they ‘thought of their programme’ as comprising 240 credits. Another institution made 120 credits into 240 by changing the number but not the curriculum to match, and yet another simply converted 120 MTech credits to 240

MEd credits. While most programmes thus specified 240 credits for two years of part-time study, one of them required two years of full-time study or four years of part-time study. Given the growing standardisation of credits allocated to modules, most institutions required their students to complete four modules of 30 credits each. Some institutions, however, redistributed the sub-value of 120 credits into modules of different weights, breaking up a 30-credit unit, for example, into modules bearing either 20 or 10 credits. At least one institution required students to do a compulsory course, their research methods module, for non-credit purposes.

Although it might be argued that the actual number of credits is a mere technical issue, differing interpretations and practices have the potential to subvert the South African NQF which, like all NQFs, is intended to regularise levels of curriculum demand and duration of study and make them transparent. The relationship between credits, the cognitive demands in terms of the purpose of a qualification and the level of the programme remains highly problematic.

Another dimension of this problem was the variation in hours allocated to modules. There was little uniformity: the hours varied from 15 to 30 per module, with variations of 17, 21, 24 and 26 all occurring. One institution allocated 50 hours to its core module and 10 to what it described as electives. The number of modules for the taught-course component of the degree was generally standardised at four (with each valued at 30 credits). One institution did double the number of modules and correctly half the credit value it attached to them, but allocated 24 hours of teaching time to these modules, effectively doubling other institutions' teaching time. It is important to acknowledge too, that courses were delivered in variable time blocks, with some courses being offered weekly, others during weekends, and some as a concentrated block.

Quality of the curriculum and the research component

Weaknesses were evident in a number of curricula in terms of the levels at which the modules were offered. At a few institutions, as the SERs showed, it was unclear what the differences were between management courses offered at the honours and the master's levels. At one institution, a student commented that the master's appeared to be a repeat of the honours. The problem of levels was most evident in the approach taken to research by different institutions. There was unevenness across institutions in respect of what faculty members believed to be appropriate master's level research. It is significant, as Figures 3.2 and 3.4 show, that research was second in the rank order of conditions that units were required to meet, while being, by contrast, the area in which the second highest number of 'commend' ratings was made. This indicates wide extremes in the ELM community's understanding of the work they thought appropriate for the ELM. The problem of the differing emphases on the research expected in the MEd is related to the lack of sufficient research expertise of the academic staff attached to many of these programmes. It was clear during the Review that almost all faculties were aware of this problem – virtually all had intentions and plans to increase their research activity. In a number of institutions with newly incorporated college staff, the challenge of producing research was acknowledged.³

It is important to consider how institutions understood research. All those in the 'needs improvement' category were able to describe the research incentives their institutions offered. Funding appeared to be available at all of them. It was apparent that faculty members in these institutions were completing doctorates. All the institutions, however, were struggling to institute a research impetus. One SER commented: 'This is an area that is seen as a shortcoming in the faculty. This is due to a number of reasons: heavy workloads, low staff morale, lack of time for research due to continuous teaching throughout the year.'

3 It should be noted, however, that the HEQC accepts that significant measurable improvements in research and equity profiles are indeed long-term projects. Accreditation conditions stipulated by the Board thus relate to planning and progress towards achieving these targets.

Those institutions that claimed they were meeting minimum standards, the majority, provided a range of justifications for why they placed themselves in this category. Of these eleven institutions, it was evident that at least seven were not meeting the national benchmark of one output per annum. An important feature of these SERs was the emphasis placed on the procedures and the mechanisms for research support to which the institutions had access. A number drew attention to what they expected of their students and to the accountability measures that were in place to make research possible. Many felt that they were doing as well as could be expected. (Institutions' own understandings of what constitutes a good research environment and good practice should, however, be treated with caution.) It is encouraging to note that the institutions with higher research outputs showed a strong awareness that they were not doing enough, and many of these were putting in place mechanisms to deal with their shortcomings.

Of the four institutions that gave themselves 'commendations', at least one had this rating adjusted to 'meets minimum standards'. The important point about this group, like the ones in the 'meets minimum standards' category that demonstrated a capacity for self-critique, was the degree to which they were able to describe their strengths and weaknesses. Each was able to recognise the character of its institution and the location of its academic unit within it and what this location was able to provide and not provide. In each case it was evident that the institution had clear and directed policies on research and on mechanisms for rewarding research and building staff capacity. Much more important was that each of the institutions had a strong internal debate going about research. One institution put it like this: 'our priority ... [is] to nurture a culture of enquiry and openness, firstly between ourselves, about our own work and its effects, and then as a result in our deliberations with students who pass through our department.' Another addressed the future: 'a key aspect of research support and development is ensuring the identification, support and retention of future generation of researchers, and drawing of the full range of intellectual talent available through achieving a more representative demographic profile.'

If just one feature were to be selected as making the difference between the institutions with weak research cultures and those with strong ones, irrespective of how they rated themselves, it would be the presence of a strong internal language of research. While there is evidence of individuals making large contributions to the output of their institutions, in the strong institutions there is almost invariably an awareness of an institutional identity, with groups of people working on common projects. The less research-active institutions, by contrast, appear to have a much more tenuous relationship to these institutional missions. The way they position themselves in relation to their mission statements is revealing: firstly, there is an attitude of compliance, and, secondly, an underdeveloped understanding of what constitutes a research project.

Research dissertations

The challenges of the level of research were most evident in panel reviews of the mini dissertation. Interestingly, these findings are analogous to the MBA Review findings (CHE, 2004). The MEd research dissertation, like the MBA research report, is narrowly focused and related to the student's work context, in keeping with the concept of 'thesis of limited scope'. Analyses of dissertations on site revealed that these were most frequently case studies of the students' work context, an approach which tended to provide an inadequate grounding in research design, methods and academic writing. Academics involved in PhD programmes confirmed that MEd students who progressed to a PhD required much additional assistance.

The adequacy of research methods courses was a specific difficulty in four programmes. Research training for students, although relatively generic to all MEd programmes, was frequently compartmentalised within specialisations. In some cases, this appeared to be a reflection of strong boundaries between departments and specialisations. In others, the nature of research methodology was underpinned by views on the appropriate professional-academic balance

in the programme. Thus in some cases research methodology was built into the specialised management coursework on the basis of a claimed symbiotic relationship, and in at least one case there was no research training at all, as it was claimed that research preparation took place in the BEd (Hons) degree.

Given the architecture of the coursework master's, these findings about the MEd ELM programmes could probably be generalised to other MEd coursework programmes.

The policy and regulatory context

A major challenge for the MEd programmes was the significant degree to which contextual factors impinged on and influenced the decisions of those most directly responsible for the design of programmes. The necessary restructuring of teacher education resulted in the 'proliferation of "regulatory" bodies and the multiplicity of role-players and stakeholders represented on these bodies' (Parker, 2003:17). While the NSE brought new direction on the curriculum front, residual uncertainties about the relationship between teacher education and broader higher education policy and regulation meant that education faculties carried out extensive realignment and reconfiguration exercises within a policy terrain beset by many uncertainties, chief among which was the policy vacuum in relation to the lack of implementation of the New Academic Policy and the uncertainties surrounding the implementation of the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF). Institutions were unclear about the future status of many of their programmes. The MEd, moreover, constituted a particular difficulty, sitting as it did in a somewhat anomalous position relative to other master's degrees. The merger and incorporation processes also made it difficult for institutions to navigate their way through institutional practices and regulations and satisfy the needs of competing cultures.

Student throughput and success

Related to the above problem was the difficulty institutions experienced in achieving their targets for throughput and student success. There was general concern across units about student throughput, especially when it came to completion of the dissertation. Institutions responses varied. A small number of institutions chose to phase out the Postgraduate Diploma in Education,⁴ despite its usefulness as a way of giving a qualification to those students who were able to manage the coursework element of their programmes but not the research. The reasons for phasing out the PGDE were, however, often not academic or related to students' best interests, but financial. New regulations promulgated by the Department of Education placed qualifications in different CESM (Classification of Educational Subject Matter) categories. In terms of these categories, the thesis-only master's degree attracted a higher subsidy than the taught-course master's. Some institutions changed their ELM programmes into full master's by thesis only qualifications, even while some of them retained their coursework. Other institutions took more proactive steps to help students produce acceptable dissertations: improved supervision and, in at least one case, employing an editor to help them 'write up' their research.⁵ Reducing the expected scope of dissertations, for example by making it a 'mini dissertation' carrying a reduced number of credits, was another strategy.

3.3 Synthesis of major issues

This section discusses the major issues the SERs revealed. It was clear firstly that institutions had difficulty developing 'commendable' ELM programmes. They also found it difficult to meet the compliance requirements for the ELM. It is important, however, to note that the shifting

4 A qualification awarded for completing the coursework component only of an MEd.

5 This led to concern on the part of the review panel about the relative absence of 'student voice' in dissertations.

structural landscape of the higher education sector made it difficult for them to comply and this is evident in the wide range of conditions that were attached to the re-accreditation of programmes. Problems such as ‘lack of institutional support’ and ‘strategic non-alignment’ feature with some regularity. Criterion 1 was responsible for the highest number of conditions in the Review. The issues that prompted the attachment of these conditions ranged from the technical, such as inadequate registration of a qualification with SAQA, to the academic, such as lack of clarity with respect to the visibility of the programme in the institution’s internal planning processes. However, it can be argued that challenges of programme design were much more critical in influencing the HEQC’s accreditation decisions. This is discussed in more detail below.

3.3.1 The challenge of design

Table 3.1 brings together the criteria relating to design, as explained in Section 3.2.1 above, where the point was made about the impact of design (Criterion 2) on the criteria relating to Teaching and Learning, Research, Supervision and Assessment. As the table suggests, design, especially Criterion 2, posed large challenges for programmes. Not a single programme in the country was placed in the ‘commend’ category and only six were adjudged to be ‘meeting minimum standards’. Nine programmes were rated in ‘need of improvement’ and two ‘did not comply’. What is important about this table is the general consistency of the ratings for these criteria. For example, nine programmes were rated ‘needs improvement’ in Criterion 2 (Design), and there were similar ratings for Criterion 6 (Research) and Criterion 8 (Assessment). The significance of these patterns is explored in the section below.

Table 3.4: Summary of distribution of awards in design

Ratings	Criterion 2	Criterion 5	Criterion 6	Criterion 7	Criterion 8
Commend	0	1	2	2	1
Meets minimum standards	6	8	6	8	7
Needs improvements	9	3	8	5	7
Does not comply	2	3 2 n/a	1	1 1 n/a	2

Overview of ratings for programme design

Much of the difficulty experienced in designing the ELM master’s was because the MEd was a new programme for many institutions. It was evident that many were experimenting with ways the MEd could be structured and offered. In the models reviewed for this exercise there existed tightly structured approaches with little elective opportunity, loosely coupled programmes, and one that had shifted to dissertation-only. As Figure 3.2 shows, there was considerable variation in the programmes’ descriptors suggesting that there is no consensual, homogeneous model of a generic MEd in ELM. The programmes reviewed were based on a variety of organising principles, so it was not surprising that their designs were also varied.

The general design of the ELM master’s degree is a two-part structure. In most institutions the first part is coursework and the second is an extended research study, presented as a thesis of limited scope or a mini dissertation. Successful completion of the first part generally entitles a student to graduate with a postgraduate diploma (PGDE) or to proceed to the second part, the research-based part.

The issues of design that are pertinent for this overview are: the clarity with which the programme structure and purpose are stated (minimum standard i), the balance between the advanced study of ELM and the development of research competence in that field (minimum standard iv), the

attainment of an appropriate balance between theory and practice (minimum standard vi), and the coherence of the programme (minimum standard vii).⁶

A typical curriculum was made up of two parts: the first made up of four or five modules and the second consisting of a research report or minor dissertation, or a thesis of limited scope. How the modules were offered differed from one institution to the next. At some institutions they consisted of a tightly prescribed package offering little choice, while at others there was a wide choice with minimal integration. Whether the range of offerings was limited and tightly prescribed or wide and relatively loosely prescribed, in most programmes two basic courses were included: an ELM or ELM-related course and a research methods course. In most programmes these two courses were compulsory.

The different approaches evident in the Review were motivated by considerations of capacity in institutions, questions of when the best time would be to teach students who were often part-time, and, crucially, by the state's funding formula, which favoured dissertation-only master's degrees over coursework-based ones. A notable influence, as mentioned earlier, was the NSE policy, which appeared to steer programmes in the direction of policy compliance rather than scholarly curriculum development. Consequently, a sector emerged that varied considerably when it came to what the institutions put in a programme and how they delivered it. The observation can be made that a strong 'community of practice' had not yet come into being. As Lave and Wenger (1991:98) argue: 'A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge'.

Although this discussion foregrounds the degree of variation in design approaches, it is also necessary to understand the dominant trends in approaches to the ELM that emerged and what lay behind these. The Review looked at a number of ways of classifying these trends. One way was to consider the historically advantaged/disadvantaged institutional divide. Another was to consider institutions by type – comprehensive universities compared with merged ones, and so on. It became clear, however, that there was no easy correlation between the outcomes of the accreditation Review and historical 'advantage' and 'disadvantage' or between the different kinds of institutions in the sector. This discussion therefore uses the four rating categories, commend; meets minimum standards; needs improvement; and does not comply, that emerged in the Review to analyse the common features of programmes in each of these categories.

Analysis of the programmes' objectives (see Appendix 6) shows that they all had fairly similar aims. The concepts and ideas supporting the programmes appeared to be relatively stable – they recognised the significance of the programmes' advanced level orientation and the need to balance the theoretical and the practical. Themes that recurred were:

- building advanced knowledge (appears in eight programmes);
- building independent capacity (appears three times);
- building applied competence (appears five times);
- critical reflection (appears three times); and
- synthesising academic/theoretical and practical knowledge (appears eleven times);

Indicative in these commonalities, and in a sense serving to give the field its essential character, were the simultaneous objectives of building theoretical and practical capacity. This pervaded the language and approach of all the institutions in the Review. However, in seeking to manage the tension between the academic and professional objectives of a coursework MEd, the general tendency was to de-emphasise the academic. Staff often argued that this academic/professional

6 A full list of the criteria for the MEd and their relevant minimum standards is available from the CHE website: <http://www.che.ac.za>

tension was spurious. It was clear that institutions worked in a space in which neither theory nor practice could operate or be cultivated independently. Those that received full accreditation recognised this difficulty and sought to construct for themselves overarching paradigms that were able to cover and explain the tensions between theory and practice in the context of the MEd. Those that were provisionally accredited or had their accreditation withdrawn, were aware of the problems found in integrating theory and practice but appeared to have difficulty in understanding where the boundaries between theory and practice fell and how the two could be distinguished from one another.

A key point in this discussion is to recognise that the field has its own specific discursive vocabulary and set of theoretical issues. While, it needs to be said, the articulation of its vocabulary and issues remains weak, it is to the credit of the field that it can present itself in relatively coherent terms. This indicates, minimally, the presence of a relatively stable discourse in the field. There remains, however, the question of how the recognition of the MEd in ELM as an academic discourse is conceptualised as academic practice that can be articulated, stabilised into concepts and, critically, mediated as a body of knowledge. Despite presenting themselves in the language of the field of ELM, as the Review found, programmes were very different in practice and of decidedly varying quality in terms of their coherence, levels of integration, internal differentiation and articulation. Keeping this in mind, the following sections attempt to explain what distinguished the six programmes that ‘met minimum standards’ in the area of design, and what the nine that were ‘in need of improvement’ had in common with each other, and what was wrong with the four that ‘did not comply’.

3.4 Programmes meeting minimum standards

A central minimum standard in Criterion 2 for understanding the challenge of design is minimum standard vi, which requires that programme design be based on an appropriate balance of theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge and skills. This, alongside of minimum standards i, iv, v and vii – which are concerned, respectively, with the questions of applied competence, the degree to which a programme reflects an appropriate balance between the advanced study of a particular field and the development of research competence, the production of student research in a specialised field, and the academic coherence of the programme – specifies the central design challenge that programmes faced in their conceptualisation of what they were seeking to achieve. The rest of the minimum standards in this criterion are concerned with the organisation and implementation of the different elements of programme design specified earlier. Balancing the conceptual and the applied, i.e. the theoretical and the practical, elements is crucial in developing an ELM master’s level programme.

There were important similarities between the six programmes that were deemed to have met minimum standards. They were all effectively coordinated, though some more so than others. One programme, offered by a team of two lecturers, manifested a particularly high level of coordination. Their *form* was similar in the following respects:

- They all complied with the SAQA requirements. They all had a mini dissertation or a research report, counting 50% of the final mark, as a component of their qualifications.
- Importantly, they all had some form of research component, whether for credit or non-credit purposes. The conditions attached to the component varied, with it being described in some instances as ‘core’ and compulsory, and in others as ‘fundamental’ or ‘foundational’. The institutions used it in different ways. In most instances it was offered as a technical module, as an introduction to either qualitative or quantitative methods or both, while in some it was integrated into the disciplinary frame of ELM and taught as part of ELM theory. The number of contact hours allocated to it also varied.

- All but one of the programmes, as is to be expected, had a management course as a core component. Management, in a number of guises, featured in the titles of a variety of different course modules.

Beyond these similarities of form, the *conceptualisation* of the programmes was marked by two orientations, one that emphasised the theoretical and one that emphasised the professional or the practical. It was clear that arriving at a clear sense of how the demands of the practical could be balanced with those of the theoretical constituted a major and ongoing question for the academics involved. Important to note, in assessing this category, is that no programme took a pure form: all contained elements of the practical and the theoretical. What distinguished them was the bias towards one or the other, with the majority in the ‘meets minimum standard’ category projecting their programmes as deliberately academic, while a small number placed more emphasis on the professional. However, whether the emphasis was on the academic or the professional, all in this category attempted to ground their programmes in the theoretical issues of the wider education system.

Programmes with a practical bias

In the category of programmes that were deemed to have met minimum standards for design and coordination, most tended towards the theoretical. There was, however, one programme that chose to emphasise the requirement of applied competence, and another that indicated a leaning in this direction of the practical. It is important of course to understand that these two programmes were not only practical, but had embedded within their practical focus the understanding that theory best manifested itself in practice.

The programme in this category that best exemplified this trend was tightly conceptualised as what was referred to in the institution’s SER as a ‘circle model’. (While all the other programmes invoked Education Management as a unifying framework for what they did, in practice, their components were frequently disparate and unconnected.) The design of this programme was based on the principle that the internal and external environments of ELM constituted a coherent whole and required, for analytic purposes, to be approached as such. The programme, as a consequence, was not formally modularised and was presented as a single ELM course with sections containing what would have appeared in distinct modules in other programmes. The coherence of the programme was strengthened by a strong sense of vertical articulation that was made practically possible because only two staff taught the programme, one dealing with what was described as the practical and professional component of the programme, and the other with the academic.⁷ The purpose of the design was to hold together the personal and the professional in a single offering. This was an explicit objective of the programme. The conceptual framework holding the programme together was thus the belief that an integrated and articulated programme that was tightly sequenced was the best way to achieve the central objective of developing insightful and skilled practitioners. The programme designers believed that since the problems confronting a high-level ELM practitioner are complex and multi-layered, the programme must provide a learning experience to match.

An important observation to make about this programme is that its coherence emanated from a deliberate modelling of professional practice. Emphasis was laid on the *form* of the appropriate high-level practitioner’s practice. In the process, there was a tendency for the professional dimensions of the ELM programme to overshadow the theoretical. While there was a deliberate academic overlay to the programme, the academic input did not appear to be inserted strongly into the tightly scripted sequence of learning experiences the student went through.

⁷ The question that this raises is whether, conversely, a large number of disparate modules taught by different academics may be a disadvantage.

A point of departure in the other programme in this category, indicating its position in relation to the first minimum standard for the design criterion, namely the statement of its objectives, was a general commitment to ‘developing reflective practitioners’. Strikingly, however, as the panel reports made clear, its explanation of what was meant by ‘the reflective practitioner’ was either vaguely articulated or could only be articulated in pragmatic terms. It was unclear *how* the design of the programme would help students learn to reflect, and particularly how the rationale for the combination of modules would achieve this objective. The emphasis, as a result, was on an under-articulated theoretical approach. While the two programmes in this category strongly promoted reflection as a focus of one of their modules, the panel was concerned about the relationship between the modules and hence their integration and modes of sequencing.

Programmes with a theoretical orientation

The majority of the programmes that met minimum standards had a more academic than practical or professional orientation.

Interestingly, each of the programmes in this category deliberately presented itself as operating in the domain of applied competency in ELM but foregrounded the specialised and advanced nature of the knowledge in ELM that was required at the master’s level. The following extracts from SERs reflect this:

- ‘The primary objective of this course is to produce graduates who have an interest in the process of change in education and who are able to both understand and apply policy with respect to this change.’
- ‘[The purpose of the programme] is to develop specialised managerial expertise in terms of theory, techniques ... [for students] to qualify as specialist education management practitioners.’
- ‘[Students] should be able to make independent analyses of political issues related to curriculum formation, including education, education governance, school administration and management ...’
- ‘... understanding of theoretical issues impacting on education in general and their specialist areas in particular.’

The programmes in this category emphasised the academic nature of the programmes and the modules. Unlike the two practically oriented programmes described above, programme designers in the theoretical category sought to present what they and their students were doing as contributing to the ‘scholarship’ of ELM. Recognising the demands of the practical, the designers of one programme deliberately undertook an assessment of where their target audience was coming from and based their goals on the deliberate objective of extending and deepening the professional competence of their students. Knowledge and expertise were presented as key elements of what they were doing and as constituting the focus of the activities of the programmes.

It is important to emphasise that in this group of programmes there was a consonance between what the programme leaders described and what was evident in the material provided to panel members. Panel reports on these programmes explicitly drew attention to the kind of and quality of the readings provided to the students. One institution also made available detailed information leaflets explaining the purposes of the programme and how the programme design sought to inculcate in students a critical appropriation of knowledge. This was evident also in the academic orientation given to assessment instruments. Most of the programmes in this category sought to explain how the readings provided were intended to be used and how the assessments they had developed would enhance the academic objectives of the programme. The curriculum design in one programme, for example, described its assessment requirements for the modules as opportunities for students to practise the skills of critical thinking and research. The essays that

were prescribed and made available for the panels to review privileged an academic orientation over the practical. In one such programme, students expressed concern during the panel visit that their course of study was too academic and that it did not sufficiently engage with ‘doing’, but the programme designers insisted that what it was doing was producing researchers and the development of an academic community in the field of ELM.

General issues of concern in the ‘meets minimum standards’ category of programmes

The question that arises here is how cogently the programmes under review address the challenges of the education system in South Africa. How well do they understand the crisis in education, and how do they aim to deal with it, as most of them state in their objectives, thus addressing the first minimum standard about applied competence? How does the design of the different modules and their position in the overall curriculum respond to the crisis in the schools? Keeping these questions in mind, the discussion that follows evaluates the coursework part of the MEd, while recognising that a great deal more debate and thought is necessary, and acknowledging that the Review’s criteria and minimum standards did not ask directly about the relevance of the programmes’ materials to their context. The discussion focuses primarily on the degree to which relevance and appropriateness can be discerned in the pedagogically focused minimum standards in the criteria. Minimum standard ii, for example, in Criterion 2, which is concerned with teaching and learning methods, modes of delivery and learning materials ‘cater(ing) for the learning needs of the target student intake’, would seem to capture, most appropriately, the point about relevance. The discussion looks at how institutions that met minimum standards fared in this regard.

Generally, the panel reports focusing on minimum standard ii in the design criterion, that is Criterion 2, did not provide expansive commentary on relevance and appropriateness. It was evident that the six programmes that met minimum standards for Criterion 2, understood the contexts the students came from. One institution was clear that the student entering the programme ‘typically struggled’ and designed its programme to take their learning circumstances into account. The reviewers also commented on the appropriateness of the texts for the students in this programme. Another programme in this category described itself as covering ‘macro as well as micro issues from education’ (SER). An important feature pertaining to relevance and appropriateness was noted in the offerings of one institution, which the review panel described thus: ‘the organising principles underpinning the conceptualisation of the programme included: (a) an understanding of the increasing demand for skills and reflective practice among school leaders; (b) the need for a contextualised approach to leadership and management’ (SER). This institution’s modules were described at some length in the panel report, which emphasised how systematically the institution sought to ‘examin(e) international perspectives and theories and practices of management’ for the purpose of understanding how these related to the South African debates.

Reasonable degrees of coherence were attained by the other programmes in this category. A persistent weakness, however, was that the logic behind the sequencing of modules in the programmes was unclear. In one programme coherence was provided by the programme convenor managing each student’s learning programme rigorously. The review panel, however, found even this programme insufficiently explicit in its course materials about what it sought to achieve. This was a weakness at a number of institutions where the coherence of the programme was embodied in the leadership of an individual who had the task of holding the programme together. In these programmes the purpose of the programme and its focus were not made sufficiently explicit.

As suggested in the discussion above, although programmes in this category manifested elements of coherence, they were generally poorly integrated. None of them – and this is a matter worthy of further investigation – was tightly integrated. Part of the difficulty, in many instances, was caused by the need for programmes to offer a wide range of module choice, to give students the

opportunity to choose a direction for themselves. There appeared, however, to be an insufficient sense of how modules could be integrated to constitute specialisations or pathways that students could follow. In any event, none of the programmes offered such a wide range of modules that they should have presented programme coordinators with real difficulty. In reality, however, only two programmes, within the limited choice students had, sought to combine their offerings in such a way that distinct professional and career streams were possible. In these programmes, for example, students were advised to do particular pairings of modules that were interdependent and that could offer them the possibility of a specialisation in the broad ELM field. All the other programmes appeared to be more flexible and less explicit about the relationship between modules and the possibility of producing distinct professional or academic outcomes.

It appeared to make little real difference whether a module was described as ‘foundational’ or ‘elective’, and few of the programmes explained explicitly how their modules were related to one another or how they could be combined.

None of the programmes made clear in their materials how these differentiations worked or explained that students needed to progress through the programme in a way that required the completion of a particular body of knowledge in ELM before they could profitably move on to the next. Instead, whether a module was foundational or elective appeared to hold little distinguishing value.

Almost predictably, given the above discussion about integration and differentiation, the rules of articulation in the programmes were seldom made explicit. None of the programmes explicitly addressed combination and the ways in which modules related to one another.

Relationship of design to teaching and learning, research and supervision

The discussion above has focused on Criterion 2. However, as has already been made clear in this chapter, Criteria 5, 6, 7 (Teaching and Learning, Research, and Supervision) also had a significant bearing on questions of design, as did Criterion 8 (Assessment). Critically, however, as was evident in a few instances in the review exercise, faring well in Criterion 6 did not mean that institutions were necessarily delivering well-conceptualised programmes. Conversely, producing adequate design formats and approaches to their programmes did not mean that institutions’ research strategies and accomplishments were equally satisfactory. In fact, three institutions in the group that met minimum standards for design (Criterion 2) were awarded ‘needs improvement’ ratings for Criterion 6 in the first round of visits. There were few institutions in the Review where research translated into good design.

The caveats above notwithstanding how institutions performed in their teaching and learning responsibilities, and the way they managed their supervision and assessment tasks was positively related to the design of their programmes.

Design clearly impinged on the delivery of programmes, i.e. the teaching and learning. While all the programmes used a range of pedagogical methods in their modules, a few favoured the seminar model, where students were required to make class presentations. Particular difficulties arose in programmes that had design weaknesses in the combination and sequencing of their modules. There was one extreme example, reflecting a lack of awareness of the challenges of combination and articulation, where timetables had not been adequately designed, so that electives and even core or fundamental modules clashed with one another. More often the weaknesses were in sequencing and pacing, with the consequence that students often struggled to manage their workloads satisfactorily. Heavy workloads were a frequent result of inadequate programme design.

In many of the programmes that met minimum standards for design there appeared to be satisfactory arrangements for developing and approving research proposals. Problems arose, however, once the student began the research process itself. In a few instances the difficulties were

the result of there being too many students and too few supervisors. One institution prioritised the return of timeous feedback to the students, but there was a price to pay for this efficiency – the staff could do very little research.

Strikingly, all the institutions that met minimum standards for design performed satisfactorily when it came to assessment. While there were questions about the quality of the external examining process at a few institutions, and about the value of open-book examinations, most institutions benefited from having well-defined arrangements for assessment. Firstly, most institutions in this category saw assessment as a formative opportunity and allowed students, especially when longer assignments were set, to submit drafts on which they could improve. Secondly, most of them, although it was not clear from the SERs of two institutions that this was indeed the case, required students to write essays in which an argument was developed. The length of these assignments varied from 4,000 to 8,000 words. At least two institutions, in addition to their other forms of assessment for the qualification, had adopted a model common in the US, where a capping assessment (called the Comprehensive Examination) was done at the end of the coursework component. All the institutions submitted scripts to an external examination process.

3.5 Programmes in need of improvement

In the initial review process, 9 institutions out of the 17 were rated ‘in need of improvement’ for Criterion 2. What this means is that while the majority of institutions were ultimately found to be sufficiently competent to continue offering their programmes, more than half of them were found to be in need of improvement in the most crucial facet of their programmes, design.

Unlike those programmes that fell into the ‘meets minimum standards’ category for Criterion 2, where it was difficult to extrapolate consistent features in the programmes that made them satisfactory, in the programmes that were deemed to be in need of improvement there were consistent problems of coherence, integration, differentiation and articulation.

The design weaknesses

Virtually all the programmes rated ‘in need of improvement’ were weak when it came to the essential theory–practice tension characteristic of the ELM. None of the programmes was able to engage and resolve the tension between theory and practice satisfactorily, with the result that they invariably focused on the practical and in the process found it difficult to meet the basic requirements of a master’s (Level 8) programme.

The major weakness of many of these programmes was that they lacked a conceptual framework for educational management; in other words, the issue that the programme was intended to address was not set out in theoretical terms. Instead of beginning with insights from the field, such as a sociological understanding of the place of educational management that could show how educational management is specific to, for example, health management, most of programmes’ frameworks were based on practical difficulties managers experience in the workplaces. In place, therefore, of an organising idea or theme or focus that would determine the character of the programme, they variously described themselves in fairly general terms as being a ‘hands-on’ programme, or a ‘Christian’ programme, or a programme ‘for practitioners’, or a programme ‘for leaders’. At one institution, for instance, the programme had evolved out of extensive consultation with local principals. Commendable as this engagement with the field of practice was, it did not sufficiently foreground the primary objectives of the field as an *academic* site, and instead placed the needs of the practitioners as the key issue to be addressed. The outcome of these developments was that the logic behind the construction of the programmes was weak, with the result that both students and staff, in some institutions, had difficulty explaining what their programmes were all about. Some institutions had members of staff speaking at cross-

purposes and producing programmes in which academic standards, parity of module offerings and knowledge hierarchies were distinctly arbitrary.

Coming on top of these intellectual challenges, the restructuring of the higher education sector served to compound the institutions' problems. At one university, for example, while particular courses were crafted carefully and supported by current and relevant reading material, the absorption of another campus required the unit to adjust what it was doing. The range of courses that came to constitute the programme as a result of this process was, as the panel visiting that institution observed, not sufficiently coherent to make up a programme.

The weak coherence of the programmes was further demonstrated by a fairly general difficulty in dealing with the requirement to integrate courses or modules so that they were related. Of the institutions that did not meet the minimum standards for programme design, none had strong logics of integration at work. In one case, an institution assembled a range of what appeared to be stand-alone sub-modules under one course descriptor. These sub-modules drew from the disciplines of research methods on the one hand and financial management on the other. How these different components could be integrated was not adequately explained.

Similarly, a major weakness of almost all these programmes was their lack of academic depth. The programmes were generally poorly conceived, with some students commenting, on occasion, that the work they were doing in the master's was little different to what they had done in the BEd (Hons) year.

Where programmes were of poor quality, this was manifested most clearly in relation to questions of theoretical rigour and depth. The problem with these programmes began with the uneven quality of prescribed readings. While a number of programmes offered intellectually credible modules with course outlines and pedagogical approaches that indicated an intention to develop deep understanding, many, often at the very same institutions, would have other modules that were insufficiently attentive to the issues being taught and learnt as academic problems. Popular management discourses, for example, often bearing catchy titles such as 'Ten Imperatives', appeared in a number of course outlines. Modules such as these in sub-areas of the field such as Financial Management or Leadership and Change Management often used popular texts that belonged to the motivational speaking rather than academic domain. Useful as points of reference as these texts might have been, they came to be used as macro-analytical sources with little capacity to engage with and explain the complexity of the context of South Africa. Even in those modules that had stronger reading lists, an awareness of the need for a grounded theory of management was hard to find. On occasion, towards reaching for this ideal, concepts such as '*ubuntu* management' were offered but, unfortunately, seldom sufficiently elaborated to make their theoretical and analytic capacity clear.

While the problems in these programmes began with the readings, they persisted in the pedagogical approaches used to address the problems that the students would be required to deal with. Many programmes put practical problems in front of students and asked them questions such as, 'What would you do in these circumstances?' While these questions were useful, the next cognitive level up, where they were required to reflect on the conceptual utility of the methodologies and practices that were being presented to them, was largely absent from the programmes. Compounding the problems and illustrating the problems of the sub-field of ELM, many of the practical problems differed little from those that students would have had to address in earlier stages of their ELM studies, such as the BEd (Hons) level.

A further problem, and one that is clearly a challenge to how the field of management understands progression from 'induction' to 'mastery', was found in the 'foundation' management courses, particularly those with modules that had law, financial management and financial accounting as

their disciplinary core. Module designers had difficulty determining the level at which they should pitch their introductory courses. What constituted ‘foundational’ and what ‘advanced’, and how modules at these levels should look, was not clearly explained. Panellists, themselves often not experts in these areas, frequently commented on the elementary standard of the information that was being presented, with one commenting that a particular model ‘sits uncomfortably in the master’s pack’ because it failed to open up conceptual questions. Several times the comment was made that programmes operated from inadequate knowledge bases. A consequence of this, frequently, was that very little could actually be expected of students in terms of their levels of cognitive engagement with the study matter. Recall-type strategies were common. While the instructions for tasks and assignments asked for comprehension and synthesis, they seldom expected higher-level analysis from the students. The effects of these approaches were seen in the mini dissertations that students produced. In a significant number of institutions in this group, these dissertations exhibited the following recurring weaknesses:

They were formulaic in terms of research problems and research designs.

- 1) Repeated use was made of standardised research instruments.
- 2) There was no theoretical problem.
- 3) The knowledge base was inadequate.
- 4) There was a preoccupation with unproblematised and often stereotyped problems, such as ‘teenage pregnancy’.
- 5) There was no awareness of knowledge hierarchies.

Given the problems described in this section, it is not surprising that the articulation of modules presented itself as a difficulty for institutions. A number of panel reports observed that the rules of combination for the modules were unclear, making comments such as: ‘not obvious’, ‘it is not clear what the logic behind the modules is’, ‘sequencing rules are unclear’, ‘current logic not coherent’, and ‘no sequencing built into what students could register for’. Practically, this often meant that students could decide for themselves when they would do particular modules, and the order did not seem to matter.

Relationship of design to teaching and learning, research, supervision and assessment

Poor programme design featured prominently in the ‘needs improvement’ category, having effects on Teaching and Learning, Research, Supervision and Assessment (Criteria 5, 6, 7 and 8). Here the relationship between Criteria 2 and these ‘design-related’ criteria was particularly clear. The ratings and recommendations given to these programmes suggest not only a correspondence between poorly designed programmes and aspects of programme delivery and assessment but also that the consequences of poor design affected these functions much more uniformly in this category.

Evidence of weak teaching and learning appeared as the following kinds of difficulties:

- 1) Marked inconsistencies between modules in terms of the standards of teaching.
- 2) Inadequate reading lists.
- 3) cursorily developed learning materials.
- 4) Inadequate course outlines.
- 5) Inadequate assessment of students’ learning needs.
- 6) Overloaded student schedules.
- 7) Inadequate institutional policies for teaching and learning.

Units whose programmes were found to have design problems were not necessarily found wanting in terms of the research conducted by academics, but their students had poor research skills.

Supervision (Criterion 7) was also uneven in most of the institutions. The institutions that struggled to produce research cultures tended to have poor supervisors and therefore not very

accomplished postgraduate students. The standard of the research proposals was unsatisfactory, supervision practices were inadequate, and supervision duties often devolved upon a small number of staff members.

The panellists frequently drew attention to what appeared to be systematic difficulties with Assessment (Criterion 8), such as:

- 1) Tasks set at low standards.
- 2) Inadequate academic feedback to students.
- 3) Poor external examination processes.
- 4) The appointment of inadequate external examiners.
- 5) Low cognitive level of assessment.

Programmes classified as in need of improvement also found it difficult to meet the requirement of relevance. When this was taken into account, the final programme design failed to meet minimum academic standards. One institution, for example, had developed a programme whose *raison d'être* was based directly on the context in which the programme was located. The institution identified the problem of quality as being one of poor leadership and so constructed a programme that addressed principals and school leaders directly. It had consulted with leaders and effectively offered them what they wanted. But the standard of the offerings and low academic expectations compromised this good intention and rendered the relevance of the programme questionable. Examples such as this are evidence of the conceptual difficulties programme coordinators face in combining local relevance and responsiveness with intellectual coherence and appropriate academic standards.

Another weakness in this category of institutions was offering modules that had little to do with ELM. The provenance of these modules appeared to depend on who the members of faculty were and what their academic interests were. While some of these modules were certainly intellectually credible, there were many more that appeared to have been inadequately thought through. In some cases this was evident in the use of the correct vocabulary without the corresponding conceptual underpinnings, and in others in the conceptual and theoretical narrowness of a design based explicitly on a dogmatic approach to Christian belief.

Because of these problems, the programmes in this category tended to produce similar kinds of outcomes when it came to Teaching and Learning and Research:

- 1) Theories were used schematically in programmes, producing a deep conformity.
- 2) Student research work was often based on templates, which resulted in mini dissertations or research reports that appeared thin, with similar tables, the same narrow list of key consequences for the research, predetermined variables and concluding comments with the identical structure.
- 3) Approaches to problems appeared to take technicist forms.
- 4) External examiners were used in a schematic way with little substantial feedback required.
- 5) While guidelines existed for preparing and checking proposals, these were often merely checklists.
- 6) Procedures for approving research proposals were poorly specified.

3.6 Programmes that had their accreditation withdrawn

Three institutions had their accreditation to offer this programme withdrawn. The reasons for the withdrawal were not all and entirely related to programme design, though it did feature highly in assessments of their overall intellectual credibility. Two of the three were understaffed, with student–faculty ratios in the order of 70:1. All three performed distinctly poorly with

respect to key criteria, such as 2, 5 and 8 (Programme Design, Teaching and Learning, and Assessment). At one institution, the minor dissertation only counted for 25% of the final mark for the programme. The complexity of these problems deserves a fuller formulation.

‘Fitness of purpose’ constituted a major challenge for institutions in this category, with all of the programmes manifesting real difficulties in understanding both at what level to pitch their offerings and what they should look like. As with the other MEd ELM programmes, the theory-practice tension was poorly managed. ELM was conceived narrowly, with one programme uncritically adopting the ideas and practices of an approach called Invitational Management and, at the same time, Total Quality Management. The appropriateness of these for the field of education did not appear to have been given serious consideration. In addition, insufficiently conceptualised as these programmes were, they also sometimes took their vocabulary from school-based outcomes-based education, uncritically appropriating terms such as ‘learning outcomes’, ‘resource-based teaching’, ‘continuous assessment’, and so on. The essential character of a master’s programme – that of high-level engagement with concepts and practices – was, as a consequence, very unevenly present.

Only one of the three programmes in this category was deemed to have any degree of coherence. This programme was described by the panel that reviewed it as being rooted in Organisational Theory and a legal framework. Leadership and Management were deliberately foregrounded in the range of courses it offered.

The other two programmes were distinctly weaker in terms of their conceptualisation. The reviewers described one as showing ‘no evidence of deliberate conceptualisation’, the other was said to manifest ‘no indication of a conceptual framework underpinning the programme’. There was a weak rationale for the establishment of this programme and this showed in opinions expressed about it at the host institution.

The first programme described above as showing no evidence of deliberate conceptualisation consisted of some modules that related to ELM but these were constructed in complete isolation from one another.

The major problem in all three programmes was their undifferentiated character. In all three panel reports there were repeated comments such as the following:

‘NQF level ... has been compromised’;

‘Not commensurate with NQF level 8’;

‘Weak ... in relation to NQF level 8 requirements’;

‘Weakness is that the Learning Management content is essentially that of an Honours module’;

‘Level of readings not at master’s level’; and

‘There is a lack of attention to reading, thinking and particularly writing skills’.

In all three programmes, the kinds of skills that were taught appeared to be below even the level of an honours programme. In one programme, for example, students were asked simply to reproduce the key ideas of the programme. About another of the programmes, the panel made the point that the approach appeared to be technicist, and that the programme designers did not know the theory of the field and were unaware of current debates.

The consistent problem in this group of programmes was their weak internal and external articulation, particularly the former, which emphasises the challenges of integration described above, and the consistently poor sequencing of their modules.

Relationship of design to teaching and learning, research and supervision

In one of the programmes that had its accreditation withdrawn there appeared to be no relationship between the learning materials and the stated outcomes of the programme, and

its assessment approaches were prescriptive and at an inappropriate ‘true/false’ level. In the second programme in this group it appeared that no significant use was being made of journal articles. The texts that were used in some modules were dated and contained content that was unproblematised and seemed more appropriate to an ACE programme. The third programme used what was described as ‘blended learning’, but the students had very little actual contact with their lecturers.

While some of the programmes in this group fulfilled elements of the requirement of relevance, none was able to fulfil the requirement of appropriateness. Although the programmes used the required ELM language, the review panels found they were not being taught at the appropriate master’s level – in two programmes the modules did not appear to differ significantly from those offered at honours level. In one programme the panel explicitly indicated that the NQF Level 8 requirement had not been reached. The learning experience that was designed for the students was also inadequate. As mentioned in the previous section, in one programme students were required to work through their learning material in an outcomes-based fashion, which gave them little opportunity to engage critically with texts. In a number of modules in one programme, students were essentially required to reproduce key ideas. In another programme, none of the materials prescribed was current. The major text for one module was 20 years old, its content was not problematised and little evidence was provided or available to show that students should work with journal articles.

In assessing the group of programmes in this category it is clear that the central difficulty confronting the programme leaders was determining what an appropriate master’s level programme ought to look like. While some parts of the programmes were taught in the appropriate ELM vocabulary, it was presented in a manner that did not sufficiently meet the requirements of a Level 8 qualification.

3.7 Conclusion

In reviewing ELM programmes at the master’s level in South Africa it is hard to avoid the conclusion that the state of the field is distinctly uneven. Some programmes meet the criteria well and others distinctly less so. While most programmes were able to satisfy the criteria sufficiently for them to be accredited, it cannot be said with conviction that the field is operating optimally. These concluding remarks therefore aim to move beyond discussion of the Review itself and identify issues that have the potential to move the focus of the Review from one of *accountability* to *improvement and development*.

The most important point to make about the MEd National Review concerns the curriculum. No programmes in the country achieved a ‘commend’ rating for their design. Immediately after the reviews were undertaken, only six programmes were deemed to be performing satisfactorily, and nine were classified as being ‘in need of improvement.’

One of the major difficulties in the country is managing the academic-professional or theory-practice tension. None of the programmes appears to have developed a model that is able to hold practice and theory, simultaneously, to high levels of rigour. The most coherent programme in the country, it was found, lacked conceptual sophistication. Some of the leading theoretical programmes, while operating at high levels of sophistication, were unable to reproduce this in their approach to practice. While it would require a great deal more interrogation to arrive at unambiguous conclusions, this finding suggests that the ELM’s objective of producing high-level reflective practitioners is some distance off. The country is producing students who are either familiar with the theoretical arguments of ELM or who are good technical functionaries but not advanced and informed ELM practitioners. The programmes currently available in South Africa are not optimal for producing practitioners of this kind.

This conclusion is hardly surprising, given that the field of ELM in many parts of the world is in a similar condition. Using the literature of the field as an index of what its leading scholars and commentators are thinking about, it is clear that ELM has not been able to offer a framework for the field for the issues of theory and practice. The field is populated in South Africa, as it is elsewhere in the world, by scholars who have migrated into it from other disciplines and sites of practice. The effect of having such a disparate group of scholars operating in it means that their orientations to ELM are decidedly eclectic and range from narrow managerialist and financial accounting perspectives to those emanating from an orientation to philosophy. Having people in the field who have entered it directly from a management background (a relatively small number) is not any kind of advantage either, because their approach is similarly handicapped by a limited grasp of the specificity of the field of education. Management for them is a generic field of practice that can be applied, with little adjustment, to very different sites of practice.

The Review demonstrates that the field has struggled to manage the tension between the theoretical and the practical. Significant examples are programmes where coordinators work so closely with either practitioners in the field or with Provincial Departments of Education that they develop their offerings in direct response to these demands, producing programmes that are often instrumental in nature that could be offered as short courses rather than full programmes.

One suggestion on the basis of this finding is that capacity building is necessary at the level of both curriculum development and research productivity. The former applies particularly to units that remain wedded to a former ‘given’ curriculum, and to units intent on achieving policy compliance with little if any reference to scholarship relevant to MEd programmes in Education Management.

A point relevant to capacity building arises from anecdotal evidence suggesting one very positive unintended consequence of the review process. That consequence has its origins in the principle of inclusivity in the composition of review teams for site visits. South African universities have historically been characterised by ‘insularity and self referentiality’ (Bundy, 2006:9). So, too, has teacher education. A national survey of the literature on teacher education leads Parker and Deacon (2005) to conclude that the most productive communities of practice in terms of postgraduate dissertations and research productions are small, consisting mostly of two or three academics – often colleagues in the same institution, but linked to national and international networks – working with a number of postgraduate students. Muller (2006) links weakness of standards in teacher education to weakness of community.

An unintended consequence of the Review has been the formation of an embryonic teacher educator community. This, more than any other outcome of the Review, holds promise for improvement and development – provided the community is sustained and strengthened. This argument has resonance from the perspective of Lave and Wenger’s influential work cited earlier in this chapter. In these authors’ view, a flourishing community of practice has an understanding and commitment to an overall purpose that shapes its practice, it has a sense of shared values, and it has a substantive agreement on what kind of practice may be defined as ‘competent’. The learning of practitioners implies induction into such a community:

As an aspect of social practice, learning involves the whole person; it implies not only a relation to specific activities, but a relation to social communities – it implies becoming a full participant, a member, a kind of person ... [this] implies becoming a different person with respect to the possibilities enabled by these systems of relations. (Lave & Wenger, 1991:53)

CHAPTER FOUR

The State of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) Programme in South Africa

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the HEQC's evaluation of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in 2006–2007. The PGCE is a postgraduate generalist educator's qualification that 'caps' an undergraduate qualification. It aims to consolidate subject knowledge and develop appropriate pedagogical content knowledge, foster prospective teachers' self-reflexivity and self-understanding, convey an understanding of teaching as a profession, and nurture commitment to the profession's ideals.

The PGCE programme has a long history in South Africa. Its predecessors were the Secondary Teachers Certificate (STC), the University Education Diploma (UED), the Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD) and the Higher Diploma in Education (HDE). The STC was first offered in 1929 by the University of Cape Town, Rhodes University and Stellenbosch University. The STC became the STD, or in some cases, such as at the old University of Natal and Rhodes University, the UED, and in the late 1970s it became the HDE.

Traditionally, the role of the PGCE (and its antecedents) has been to produce secondary school teachers – in current terms, Senior Phase (General Education and Training – GET) and Further Education and Training (FET) teachers. It continues to play this role, but some PGCE programmes also produce Intermediate Phase teachers (for example, at the University of Cape Town) for the GET and there are now specialist BEd programmes for the FET (for example, at the University of Pretoria). The current version of this long-standing qualification received its name 'Postgraduate Certificate in Education' when the Norms and Standards for Educators national policy for teacher education was gazetted in 2000.

The PGCE programme, like all other teacher education programmes, has been subjected to several changes over the past 15 years. In the 1970s and 1980s its predecessor, the HDE, was thriving, with some residential institutions producing up to 300 PGCE students per annum. However, in the 1990s enrolments in HDE programmes declined for two main reasons: the teacher cutbacks of the mid-1990s created the impression that there was an oversupply of teachers in South Africa, and the removal of state bursaries for teacher education programmes took away an incentive to study to become a teacher, and in many cases the very means. Current PGCE student enrolments reflect these developments, although there is evidence of recent enrolments increasing with the introduction of the Funza Lushaka state bursaries. Another development that affected the PGCE programme was the introduction of the outcomes-based National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in 1996, which required that programmes be reconfigured into level descriptors, outcomes, assessment criteria, and so on. The PGCE is at

Level 6 of the NQF, the same level as three-year degree programmes and the four-year Bachelor of Education (BEd) qualification. According to the Norms and Standards for Education, the PGCE is a one-year full-time qualification with a minimum credit value of 120.

From the point of view of their institutional histories, the 22 PGCE programmes included in the HEQC National Review fall into two fairly distinct categories: those with a long history and those recently established. The first group evolved from programmes with a similar purpose, whereas the newer programmes were established at institutions that decided to respond explicitly to the perceived need for the qualification in South Africa given the shortage of qualified teachers. At merged institutions the PGCE was usually offered at one of the merging partners and accepted as part of the new institution's offerings of programmes. Where it was offered at universities of technology, it had been developed within the technikon convenor system (where one technikon would take responsibility for designing the programme they would all offer) that characterised curriculum development in this sector of the higher education system.

This chapter is organised into ten sections. Section 4.2, which follows, sets out some PGCE statistics. Section 4.3 considers some of the programme's aims, and its problems; Section 4.4 describes the programmes in the National Review and outlines the reviewing process, criteria and outcomes; Section 4.5 looks at some broad trends in the findings; Section 4.6 compares the HEIs' self-evaluation ratings with HEQC Board ratings; Section 4.7 examines the design of PGCE programmes; Section 4.8 looks at what is expected of the PGCE in South Africa and how well the institutions are fulfilling these expectations; Section 4.9 discusses what is being achieved or not achieved by some types of PGCEs; and Section 4.10 concludes.

4.2 PGCE programmes in figures (2003 to 2006)

This section analyses the profile of headcount enrolments and graduations in the PGCE at various HEIs, to give an idea of the size and distribution of the programme in the country. It offers a quantitative perspective on all PGCE programmes offered nationally, including details about enrolments according to institution, race, gender and mode of delivery, and various graduation statistics over the period 2003–2006.

Table 4.1 shows that PGCE headcount enrolments have increased from 2,711 in 2003 to 4,498 in 2006. The reasons for this increase include the establishment of PGCE programmes at universities of technology and the availability of bursaries and loans. The largest numbers of enrolments are at UNISA and the North-West University (distance mode) and, with a few exceptions, most traditional universities have seen an increase in enrolments in this programme. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 and Figure 4.1 show the demographic profile of enrolments from 2003 to 2006. It is noteworthy that the percentage of African students increased from about 25% of the enrolments in 2003 to 44.4% in 2006, and that while white student enrolments are no longer the majority (about 60% in 2003), they are still marginally the largest group (44.7% in 2006). Throughout the period, women students predominate over men, which probably indicates the pervasiveness of the image of women as teachers. The age statistics show that PGCE students are usually young graduates, some of whom may already be practicing teachers. Table 3.4 shows an important characteristic of the PGCE – the majority of the enrolments are in distance learning programmes. However, the proportion of enrolments in distance programmes (averaging approximately 60% from 2003 to 2006) was reduced by a marked increase in enrolments in contact programmes during this period.

Table 4.1: Headcount enrolments per programme (2003–2006)

Institution	2003	2004	2005	2006
CPUT	0	62	89	91
UCT	68	84	87	67
CUT	0	0	43	94
UFH	34	52	91	79
UFS	95	165	122	131
UJ	116	160	125	145
UKZN	107	130	179	152
UL	16	8	37	38
NMMU	28	45	42	39
NWU	223	293	360	556
UP	41	43	39	53
RU	58	48	36	53
UNISA	1,720	1,948	2,143	2,530
US	81	102	85	84
TUT	0	32	43	89
VUT	0	0	17	32
UWC	86	93	70	65
WITS	38	38	42	47
UZ	0	137	210	153
Grand total	2,711	3,340	3,860	4,498

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Table 4.2: Headcount enrolments according to race (2003–2006)

Year	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
2003	676 (24.9%)	120 (4.4%)	274 (10.1)	1,641 (60.6%)	2,711
2004	1,029 (29.9%)	158 (4.6%)	298 (8.7%)	1,952 (56.8%)	3,437
2005	1,475 (38.2%)	152 (3.9%)	304 (7.9%)	1,926 (49.9%)	3,857
2006	1,994 (44.4%)	160 (3.6%)	329 (7.3%)	2,008 (44.7%)	4,491

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Table 4.3: Headcount enrolments according to gender (2003–2006)

Year	Female	Male	Total
2003	2,009 (74.1%)	702 (25.9%)	2,711
2004	2,473 (72%)	964 (28%)	3,437
2005	2,737 (71%)	1,120 (29%)	3,857
2006	3,109 (69.2%)	1,382 (30.8%)	4,491

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Figure 4.1: PGCE enrolments by age (2003–2006)

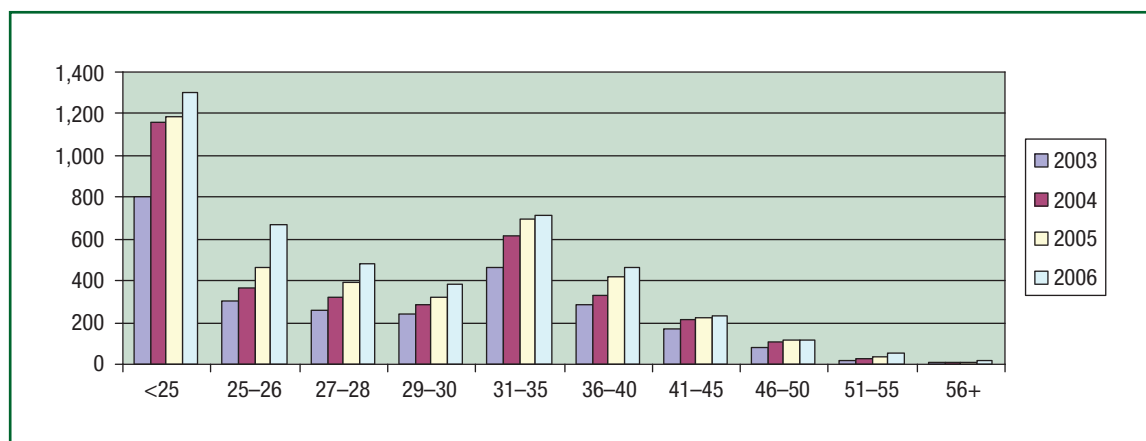


Table 4.4: Headcount enrolments according to mode of delivery (2003–2006)

Year	Contact	Distance	Total
2003	911 (33.6%)	1,720 (66.4%)	2,711
2004	1,489 (43.3%)	1,948 (56.7%)	3,437
2005	1,714 (44.4%)	2,143 (55.6%)	3,857
2006	1,961 (43.7%)	2,530 (56.3%)	4491

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

The next set of statistics shows the outputs of the PGCE. The average graduation rate for all students from 2003 to 2006 is 46.5% (see Table 4.5). However, when enrolments are disaggregated on the basis of mode of delivery the picture changes significantly (see Table 4.6 and Figure 4.2). The average graduation rate over the four-year period for students studying at residential contact HEIs is 73.6% (see Table 4.6), while UNISA's is 28.3%. Moreover, since some residential HEIs have students studying part-time and through learnerships, the graduation rate for full-time residential students is presumably higher than 73.6%. UNISA's relatively low graduation rate can be attributed to the fact that students study part-time and rarely register for all modules in a given year, so can therefore be enrolled for several years before graduating. Table 4.7 shows that graduation rates vary across race groups, with white rates generally better than black. However, given the significance of the mode of delivery in the graduation rates, a finer analysis would be needed to establish clear patterns of graduation for different groups of students. Female and male graduation rates do not differ significantly (see Table 4.8) and, consistent with enrolment figures for age, most PGCE graduates are under 25 (see Figure 4.3).

Table 4.5: PGCE graduation rates expressed as a percentage (2003–2006)

Year	Headcount enrolments	Number of graduates	Graduation rates
2003	2,711	1,178	43.4%
2004	3,437	1,755	51%
2005	3,857	1,771	45.9%
2006	4,491	2,049	45.6%

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Table 4.6: Graduation rates according to mode of delivery (2003–2006)

Year	Headcount enrolments		Number of graduates		Graduation rate	
	Contact	Distance	Contact	Distance	Contact	Distance
2003	911	1,720	735	443	80.7%	25.8%
2004	1,489	1,948	1,128	627	75.6%	32.2%
2005	1,714	2143	1,163	608	67.8%	28.4%
2006	1,961	2,530	1,374	675	70.1%	26.7%

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Figure 4.2: PGCE enrolments and graduates by mode of delivery (2003–2006)



Table 4.7: Graduation rates according to race (2003–2006)

Year	Graduation rates per population group			
	African	Coloured	Indian	White
2003	32.5%	57.5%	32.5%	48.8%
2004	44.3%	51.3%	43%	55.7%
2005	37.7%	50%	39.5%	52.9%
2006	41.8%	52.3%	38.3%	49.9%

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Table 4.8: Graduation rates according to gender (2003–2006)

Year	Headcount enrolments		Number of graduates		Graduation rate	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
2003	2,009	702	904	274	45%	39%
2004	2,473	964	1,311	442	53%	45.9%
2005	2,737	1,120	1,264	507	46.2%	45.3%
2006	3,109	1,382	1,473	572	47.4%	41.4%

Note: These statistics are not necessarily those of the programmes reviewed and exclude Hebron College, University of Venda and Walter Sisulu University.

Figure 4.3: PGCE graduation rates by age (2003–2006)

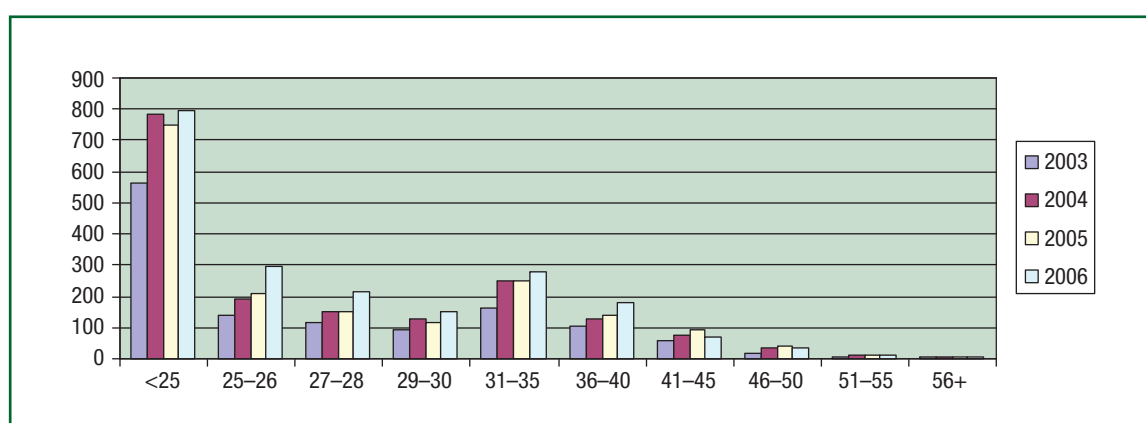


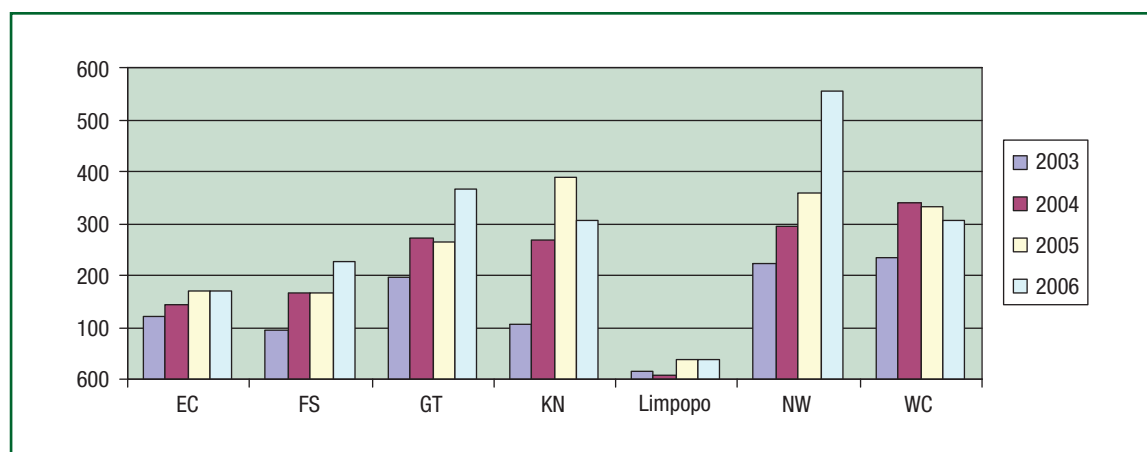
Table 4.9 and Figure 4.4 show the geographic distribution of PGCE programmes and enrolments. The programmes are offered mainly by HEIs in urban centres and more than half are in Gauteng and the Western Cape. Because the PGCE remains the programme that produces the majority of teachers for the FET band, the current geographical location of the PGCE programmes could have negative implications for the supply of teachers to rural high schools. The majority of enrolments in 2006 were in the North West, followed by KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and the Western Cape.

Table 4.9: Distribution of PGCE programmes according to province

Province	Universities	Universities of technology	Local private providers
Eastern Cape	4	0	0
Free State	1	1	0
Gauteng	3	2	1
KwaZulu-Natal	2	0	0
Limpopo	2	0	0
North West	1	0	0
Western Cape	3	1	0
Total	17	4	1

Note: This table excludes UNISA

Figure 4.4: PGCE enrolments by province (2003–2006)



Note: Figures for the North West include enrolments in programmes offered outside the province through study centres.

4.3. Some aims and problems of the PGCE

At the turn of the century, a comprehensive review of teacher education programmes (including PGCE-type programmes) in the US revealed three characteristics of good pre-service teacher education programmes: conceptual coherence; purposeful, integrated field experiences; and attention to teachers as learners. Feiman-Nemser (2001:1023) says of the first characteristic that:

A conceptual framework is the ‘cornerstone’ of a coherent programme (Howey, 1990). It provides a guiding vision of the kind of teacher the program is trying to prepare. It offers a view of learning, the role of the teacher, and the mission of schooling in a democracy. It provides a set of understandings about learning to teach. More than rhetoric, the values and ideas that make up a program’s mission and conceptual framework inform the design and sequencing of courses and field experiences. They may get translated into specific outcomes of courses, themes or core abilities. They shape curriculum, culture, pedagogy and assessment practices.

The second characteristic, purposeful design and use of field experiences (work-based learning, i.e. the teaching practice), is vital to PGCE programmes. Feiman-Nemser (2001:1024) states:

Teacher candidates need opportunities to test the theories, use the knowledge, see and try out the practices advocated by the academy. They also need opportunities to investigate problems and analyse situations that arise in the field. Recent reform proposals call for teacher candidates to spend extended periods of time in professional development schools, internships, and other clinical sites. The real challenge for teacher educators is to see that prospective teachers not only have appropriate and extended field experiences but they learn desirable lessons from them.

The third characteristic, seeing teachers as learners, implies that the PGCE provides students with a foundation for continuing professional development and that, while the PGCE curriculum must prepare them for the current school system and National Curriculum Statement, it must go further and give them the grounding and skills to adapt to changes in policy and circumstances. On this topic Feiman-Nemser (2001:1025) states:

Exemplary pre-service programmes support continuity in pre-service students’ learning by providing a dynamic culture and a coherent curriculum, by monitoring students’ personal responses to new ideas and experiences, and by offering an appropriate mixture of support and challenge in response to students’ changing knowledge, skills, and beliefs.

The first characteristic, conceptual coherence, is the foundation of a good PGCE programme. It is the underlying ‘guiding vision’, the logic that connects all aspects of the programme: curriculum, teaching and learning, and assessment. It establishes a strong connection between the taught modules and the work-based learning. A good PGCE programme produces students who have a broad-based understanding of education and teaching as social practices, who are able to engage critically with a variety of curriculum frameworks and can see beyond the strictures of particular national regulatory frameworks.

In South Africa, the PGCE also aims to prepare teachers to respond to the challenges of a developing country and its historical legacies. It is expected to supply all South African secondary schools and FET colleges with competent teachers. The PGCE therefore aims to help students cultivate a practical understanding of teaching and learning in a diverse range of South African schools, in the areas of educational theory, phase and subject specialisation, policy and practice. It aims to develop them into good, active South African citizens with the appropriate attitudes and skills to educate a variety of learners in a variety of contexts. It is expected to produce teachers who have an in-depth knowledge of current national regulatory frameworks and their underlying principles and philosophies. They need to be familiar with the Norms and Standards for Teacher Educators (2000), the National Curriculum Statement for the FET and its assessment guidelines, and other policy documents of this kind. And since the PGCE gives the graduate a licence to teach for life, it must also provide a basis for ongoing professional development.

The nature of the qualification, however, presents particular challenges. Firstly, students entering the programme are assumed to have acquired the appropriate level and content knowledge in the bachelor’s degree. In PGCE programmes that prepare teachers for the FET band, this sometimes presents difficulties as a student’s undergraduate academic majors in relevant subjects are no guarantee of sufficient disciplinary knowledge as a basis for building pedagogical content knowledge. Secondly, because the PGCE is a one-year professional qualification, programme designers are under pressure to cram as much as possible into the programme in order to develop students into competent novice practitioners in the very limited time available. As was pointed out at one institution during the Review, with nine to ten weeks of teaching practice, only 22 weeks are available for taught modules, i.e. 270 hours. A typical PGCE programme could therefore comprise some 10 to 15 modules shoehorned into an intensive programme. This inevitably leads to the danger of fragmentation and makes programme coherence difficult to attain. Thirdly, at the operational level, since the staff who teach ‘subject methods’ and sometimes also organise the teaching practice are often part-timers or from outside the faculty, it is difficult to achieve the coordination necessary to foster a common understanding of the philosophy of the programme and so achieve a unity of purpose across all staff.

International literature identifies the following typical weaknesses of conventional pre-service (including PGCE-type) programmes and practices:

- They are made up of separate modules taught by individual academics in different departments that rarely connect to one another and build on one another’s achievements.
- They lack organising themes, and have no shared standards, clear goals for student learning, or framework to guide programme design and student assessment.
- The relationship between taught modules and work-based learning is weak.
- The programme is fragmented, the pedagogy is weak, and there is no articulation with modules of the students’ first degree.
- The students’ subject knowledge is poor – they often cannot explain basic concepts of the discipline in which they majored.
- The lectures are either too abstract to challenge deeply held beliefs or too superficial to foster deep understanding. (For further detail see Feiman-Nemser, 2001.)

As the rest of this chapter reveals, South African PGCEs are not immune to many of these problems.

4.4 PGCE programmes in the National Review

4.4.1 Facts and figures

Of the 22 programmes included in the Review, 21 were offered by public higher education institutions (17 universities and 4 universities of technology), 20 of these being residential and one a distance education institution, and one was offered by a private provider, a distance education institution (see Table 4.10). Of these 22 PGCEs, the public distance education institution (UNISA) had the programme with the largest number of students, and the private distance institution had one of the smallest programmes.

Table 4.10: Number and type of providers offering PGCE programmes

Public higher education institutions		Private higher education institutions	
Residential	Distance	Residential	Distance
20	1	0	1

Two features of providers stand out here. First, private providers do not play an important role in the delivery of the PGCE programme. The private provider in this Review had less than one per cent of all PGCE students enrolled in the 22 programmes reviewed. One reason for PGCE programmes being located predominantly in public higher education institutions, and in particular in universities, is that this qualification ‘caps’ a first degree. Public universities offer a wide range of bachelor’s degrees (fewer in the private HEIs and universities of technology) that feed PGCE programmes, and the tendency is for PGCE students to enrol at the HEIs where they completed their bachelor’s degree. Other features of the PGCE may serve as disincentives to private institutions, all to do with the resources required to offer this programme. The PGCE is an inherently labour-intensive programme, with academic staff having to supervise students’ work-based learning on a one-to-one basis. In addition, these work-based arrangements place heavy demands on administrative systems, which also have to manage relatively large numbers of part-time staff. Moreover, and perhaps most crucially, the range of subject-methods courses in a PGCE programme demands a wide range of expertise across disciplines and school subjects that few, if any, private institutions are likely to have.

Second, it is apparent that the great majority of PGCE programmes in the Review (20 of the 22) were being offered by residential institutions to full-time students in contact mode. It is true that a number of these residential institutions were also offering a variant of their full-time programme to full-time teachers on a part-time basis and through learnerships funded by either the provincial government or the ETDP-SETA. Nevertheless, in terms of numbers there is no doubt that distance is the dominant mode of delivery for the PGCE, and so the largest provider of teachers in South Africa is UNISA.

4.4.2 Phase specialisation and enrolments

In selecting PGCE programmes for the Review, the HEQC Board decided to focus on those specialising in the FET phase. The rationale for this decision was to get a clear picture of the initial phase of schooling (the Foundation Phase in reviewing the BED) and the exit level (the FET in reviewing the PGCE). In practice, some institutions offering the PGCE focus exclusively on a single phase, such as the FET, and others combine it with other phase specialisations. The specialisations in the 22 programmes reviewed were as follows:

PGCE (FET)	12
PGCE (Senior/FET)	8
PGCE (Intermediate/Senior/FET)	1
PGCE (GET/FET)	1

Total enrolment in the 22 programmes at the time they were reviewed was 3,361 students – the bulk of the students enrolled for PGCEs nationally. There are two prominent features of the distribution of students across these programmes. First, UNISA enrolments accounted for 1,935 (57.6%) of these 3,361 students. Available statistics unfortunately did not make it possible to disaggregate UNISA students into finer categories and identify how many were registered not for the whole qualification but for only one or more modules. Second, with the exception of UNISA, PGCE FET enrolments across individual institutions are low. Only two of the other 21 programmes had an enrolment figure that exceeded 100, these being the University of the Free State, Bloemfontein (134) and the North-West University (107). The median enrolment figure of these 21 institutions was 63, and the average 68.

4.4.3 Purposes of PGCE programmes

Unlike other higher education programmes, the general purpose of the PGCE is established through national policy. The qualification has been developed as a response to a perceived national need – the shortage of trained teachers. This said, with very few exceptions, as will be seen, PGCE FET programmes were comfortably embedded in their institutional settings. In terms of explicit purpose, PGCEs can be classified into two groups, ‘structurally coherent’ and ‘pragmatic’, on the basis of statements from self-evaluation portfolios.

The aim of the ‘structurally coherent’ programmes was to develop a curriculum that would give expression and form to perceived national needs and imperatives. Importantly, however, the way to achieve this aim was to build the programme on a firm foundation of teacher education scholarship. The best example of this kind of PGCE was one that had deliberately set out to completely overhaul a PGCE grounded in Fundamental Pedagogics. In practice, as the Review came to show, programmes functioning in this way were almost without exception managed and inspired by a senior academic with a good record of scholarship in the field, and who emerged as an intellectual and operational ‘champion’ of the PGCE rather than just its technical co-coordinator.

Programmes classified as ‘pragmatic’ were not unstructured and arbitrary: their purposes were technically in alignment with national policy, but in their specifics they were more concerned to respond to circumstances arising from recent institutional histories. In the case of former technikons, this meant continuing with programmes of an ‘applied’ nature, with the intention of providing a strongly career focused and professionally oriented PGCE. In the case of institutions merged with former colleges of education or technikons, or both, this approach was also influenced by a sometimes acknowledged existence of less stringent admission requirements. One such self-evaluation acknowledged that the programme’s purpose was shaped by staff competence and availability, lessons learned from the strengths and weaknesses of programmes phased out by the merger, and the needs and demands of the market or the student profile.

In the case of these ‘pragmatic’ PGCEs, the Review showed that in practice the purpose of a ‘career-focused’ programme was typically unsupported by any form of research into the market. In fact, such programmes seemed to be structured on the basis of the characteristics of a particular cohort enrolled for the PGCE. Because these characteristics will only be known post facto, a feature of ‘pragmatic’ programmes was the difficulty the programme coordinator faced in finding and arranging suitable content pedagogical (‘subject method’) support for various subject specialisations.

4.4.4 Overall re-accreditation outcomes

Table 4.11 shows the overall re-accreditation outcomes per institution, Table 4.12 explains how the re-accreditation decisions were reached, and Table 4.13 summarises the re-accreditation decisions taken by the HEQC Board.

Table 4.11: Overall re-accreditation outcomes per institution

Institution	Programme	Site of delivery	Outcome
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	PGCE (FET)	Mowbray	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)
Central University of Technology	PGCE (FET)	Bloemfontein, Welkom	Accreditation with conditions
Hebron Theological College	PGCE (Intermediate, Senior and FET)	Benoni	No accreditation
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	PGCE (FET)	South Campus, Port Elizabeth	Accreditation with conditions
North-West University	PGCE (Senior and FET)	Potchefstroom	Accreditation with conditions
Rhodes University	PGCE (Senior/FET)	Grahamstown	Full accreditation
Stellenbosch University	PGCE (FET/GET)	Stellenbosch	Full accreditation
Tshwane University of Technology	PGCE (FET)	Pretoria and Soshanguve	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)
University of Cape Town	PGCE (Senior & FET)	Cape Town	Full accreditation
University of Fort Hare	PGCE (Senior and FET)	Alice	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)
University of Johannesburg	PGCE (FET)	Auckland Park, Kingsway Campus	Accreditation with conditions
University of KwaZulu-Natal	PGCE (FET)	Edgewood	Full accreditation
University of Limpopo	PGCE	Turfloop	Accreditation with conditions
University of Pretoria	PGCE (FET)	Groenkloof	Full accreditation
University of South Africa	PGCE (Senior and FET)	Pretoria	Accreditation with conditions
University of the Free State	PGCE (FET)	Bloemfontein	Accreditation with conditions
University of the Western Cape	PGCE (FET)	Bellville	Full accreditation
University of Venda	PGCE	Thohoyandou	Accreditation with conditions
University of Witwatersrand	PGCE (Senior and FET Phase)	Parktown	Full accreditation
University of Zululand	PGCE (FET)	KwaDlangezwa	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)
Vaal University of Technology	PGCE (Senior and FET)	Vanderbijlpark	No accreditation
Walter Sisulu University	PGCE (FET)	Mthatha	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)

Table 4.12: Key to re-accreditation decisions

Decision	Description
Full accreditation	The programme meets the minimum critical standards specified
Accreditation with conditions	The critical minimum standards that relate to Programme Design, Teaching and Learning, and Assessment (2, 5 and 7) are met. However, the programme has some weaknesses in relation to the remaining criteria, which can be addressed within a six-month period.
Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)	Not all the critical minimum standards that relate to Programme Design, Teaching and Learning, and Assessment (2, 5 and 7) are met. Moreover, the programme has weaknesses in relation to the remaining criteria, which could affect the overall quality of teaching and learning. Improvement plan to be submitted in 90 days.
No accreditation	The programme has weaknesses in relation to criteria 1, 2, 5, 6 and 7. These weaknesses compromise the conceptualisation, design, structure and delivery of the programme as a higher education programme. The weaknesses cannot be remedied within a period of 12 months.

Table 4.13: Re-accreditation summary of PGCE programmes reviewed in 2006–2007

Number of programmes	Full accreditation	Accreditation with conditions	Accreditation with conditions (programme on notice)	No accreditation
22	7	8	5	2

Two observations can be made by looking at Table 3.11. First, quality varies markedly from programme to programme. The HEQC criteria are sufficiently broad to include all aspects of programmes within their institutional contexts. The seven programmes granted Full Accreditation may justifiably be viewed as high-quality programmes. At the other end of the spectrum are the seven programmes with weaknesses so fundamental that they were either ‘on notice of withdrawal of accreditation’ or had their accreditation withdrawn. Almost two-thirds of the 22 PGCEs reviewed are clustered into the extreme ends of accreditation outcomes. This has important implications for the analysis of the quality of provision.

Second, there is a marked correlation of re-accreditation outcomes with institutional type. The four universities of technology present the weakest set of accreditation outcomes: one achieved accreditation with conditions, two were on notice of withdrawal of accreditation, and the accreditation of the other was withdrawn. Among the institutions previously classified as ‘historically disadvantaged’ there was one full accreditation (University of the Western Cape), which in itself defies the analytical usefulness of old classification; two accreditations with conditions (University of Limpopo, University of Venda); and three notices of withdrawal of accreditation (University of Fort Hare, University of Zululand, Walter Sisulu University).

The complexity and permutations of merged universities and mergers with incorporations would require an extremely detailed and nuanced analysis to be meaningful, but as a generalisation it may be observed that merged universities did not fare well in the re-accreditation outcomes. The University of KwaZulu-Natal’s PGCE is an interesting example of a programme that obtained full accreditation despite the demands of the merger. The ‘historically advantaged’ institutions fared best, with Rhodes University, Stellenbosch University, the University of Cape Town, the University of Pretoria and the University of the Witwatersrand all achieving full accreditation.

4.4.5 Re-accreditation outcomes and ratings for individual criteria

(See Appendix 1 for the criteria and the minimum standards for each criterion.)

As the essential focus of this report is the PGCE across all programmes, and not outcomes per institutional type, this section now discusses a summary of HEQC Board outcomes for individual criteria alongside overall re-accreditation outcomes, as shown in Table 4.14. Institutions are not named in this table because its purpose is to provide a basis for analysing the conditions that were set for the PGCE programmes to attain accreditation. Institutions are thus grouped in clusters on the basis of overall re-accreditation outcomes.

Table 4.14: Summary of PGCE re-accreditation outcomes per criterion

Overall outcome	Outcomes per criterion									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	C	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	C	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	C	C	MMS
Full accred.	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS
Conditional	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS	C	MMS	NI
Conditional	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	MMS
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS & NI*	MMS	C	MMS	MMS
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	NI	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	MMI& NI *	MMS
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	NI	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI
Conditional	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS	C	MMS	MMS
On notice	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI	NI	MMS	DNC	NI
On notice	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	MMS	NI
On notice	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI
On notice	MMS	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS
On notice	NI	NI	MMS	NI	NI	NI	NI	MMS	NI	NI
No accred.	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	N/A **	NI	NI	N/A **	N/A **
No accred.	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI	MMS	MMS	NI	NI
TOTAL MMS Commends	17	9 (1C)	21	18	13 (1C)	9 (1C)	15	20 (5C)	16 (4C)	13
TOTAL NI/DNC	5	13	1	4	9	13	7	2	6 (1) DNC	8

* Split rating for different sites or mode of delivery

** Not applicable, graduate cohort pending

Note: MMS = meets minimum standards; C = commended; NI = needs improvement; DNC = does not comply

A rank ordering of the individual criteria for which programmes were judged to have achieved minimum standards shows the four heading the list as:

Criterion 3 (Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection)	21
Criterion 8 (Infrastructure and Library Resources)	20
Criterion 4 (Staffing)	18
Criterion 1 (National, Institutional and Unit Context)	17

It is notable that the criteria against which more programmes met minimum standards are all those based on *input* or enabling factors in the form of physical and human resources, including institutional policies and infrastructure, administrative systems and forms of communication. The necessary enabling material factors for offering high quality PGCEs thus do not appear to be the major problem in a review in which only a third of the programmes, 7 out of 22, were granted full accreditation.

The next criterion against which a substantial number of programmes were found to meet minimum standards was:

Criterion 9 (Student Retention and Throughput)	16
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This can be considered an *output* criterion. It is, in addition, arguably the most elusive of all criteria in terms of its ability to generate inferences about quality: programmes that may be pitched at too low an academic level may have outstanding throughput rates. (Graduation rates have been presented above, in Section 4.2.)

The criteria against which institutions failed to meet minimum standards were as follows:

Criterion 2 (Programme Design)	13
Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning)	13
Criterion 5 (Teaching and Learning)	9
Criterion 10 (Programme Review)	8
Criterion 7 (Student Assessment)	7

These criteria are all central to *programme practices*. It seems quite clear from the figures provided above that while most programmes met minimum standards for inputs or enabling factors, a very large number of programmes did not meet minimum standards in areas that are essential to the quality of the programme. This organisation of criteria provides the structure for further discussion on programme strengths and weaknesses in the following sections. Data for this discussion is also drawn from the summaries of conditions and commendations in Appendices 2 and 3.

4.5 Broad trends based on ratings and conditions

(See Appendices 2 and 3 for tables of criteria, conditions and commendations.)

4.5.1 The criteria against which minimum standards were mainly achieved

Criterion 8 (Infrastructure and Library Resources)

Only two institutions did not achieve the minimum standards for this criterion. The panels stipulated that they must meet these standards. The conditions they did not meet were to do with library holdings and physical infrastructure. For example, the buildings at one of these institutions were reported to be in such a poor condition that they posed a safety hazard. At the other 20 institutions (about 90%) the lecture venues, library facilities and holdings, computer

laboratories and so on were adequately provided, resourced and maintained. This is also the criterion for which HEIs were granted the highest number of ‘commendations’ (five HEIs received these, (see Appendix 2) for reasons that included libraries and IT facilities).

Favourable or unfavourable ratings for Infrastructure and Library Resources did not, however, affect the final accreditation outcome. For example, of the five institutions that received commendations for this criterion, three did not receive full accreditation. Conversely, although only two institutions failed to meet the minimum standards for this criterion, only seven received full accreditation.

Criterion 4 (Staffing)

Staffing, as an important input or enabling factor for quality, merits particular attention. Generally, the PGCE staff comprises core academic staff, full-time support staff and part-time contract staff who, typically, support students in the work-based learning programme and, in some cases, offer subject methodologies. Some HEIs recruit practicing teachers while others recruit staff from other faculties at their own institutions. This situation creates some problems for PGCE programmes. South African labour law gives contract staff the right to permanency once they have been employed for a certain number of years. Part-time staff are often unable to attend staff and planning meetings, which aggravates the problem of fragmentation of programmes. But despite these difficulties, and others, indications are that PGCE programmes were adequately staffed, and that staff members had relevant and recognised qualifications. In the case of the four institutions (about 20%) that did not meet the required minimum standard for the Staffing criterion, the HEQC Board’s 15 conditions were headed by the stipulations to improve the workload distribution, so no staff would be overburdened, and to encourage staff research activity (see Criterion 4, Appendix 1).

There were other areas where PGCE programmes were not meeting the criteria for Staffing, such as lack of staff diversity, particularly in historically white universities where equity targets are not being met.

As with Infrastructure and Library Resources, the failure of two thirds of the PGCEs (15 of the 22) to achieve full accreditation is not to be blamed primarily on staffing problems. This picture of a generally satisfactory staffing situation is reinforced by what was a widespread feature of on-site interviews with students: the number of unsolicited comments they made about the dedication of the staff, many of whom they saw as excellent role models.

Criterion 1 (National, Institutional and Unit Context)

It was significant that all the PGCEs reviewed had appropriate institutional policies for all aspects of their programmes: Quality Assurance systems, policies for selecting students and appointing staff, and procedures for approving, resourcing and reviewing programmes and approving assessments. And in the case of resources (the usual suspect or scapegoat where quality is poor), it is notable that shortcomings with respect to Criterion 1 were largely technical issues to do with matters such as the registration of students. In only two cases was there a problem of PGCEs not being adequately resourced or supported by their own institutions. So although it was not possible in this study (given the available data) to ascertain the institutional bases and formulae being used to fund the PGCE programmes, it is a fair generalisation to say that PGCE programmes are adequately funded *by their own institutions*. The most pervasive but least visible negative aspect of resourcing is the state funding formula for teacher education and the indirect effect it has on the support that institutions can provide for students on teaching practice. There was scarcely a site visit where this formula was not lamented by programme coordinators and academic staff. However, the Review found its effects most evident in the aspect of Criterion 6, concerned with work-based learning.

4.5.2 The criteria against which minimum standards were mainly not achieved

As stated in Section 4.4.5, the criteria against which programmes were rated most poorly were 2 (Programme Design), 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning), 5 (Teaching and Learning), 10 (Programme Review) and 7 (Student Assessment). Concomitantly, these major areas of programme weakness are also those where the programmes had the largest number of conditions (except for Criterion 10), as Figure 4.5 shows.

Figure 4.5: Proportion of conditions per criterion

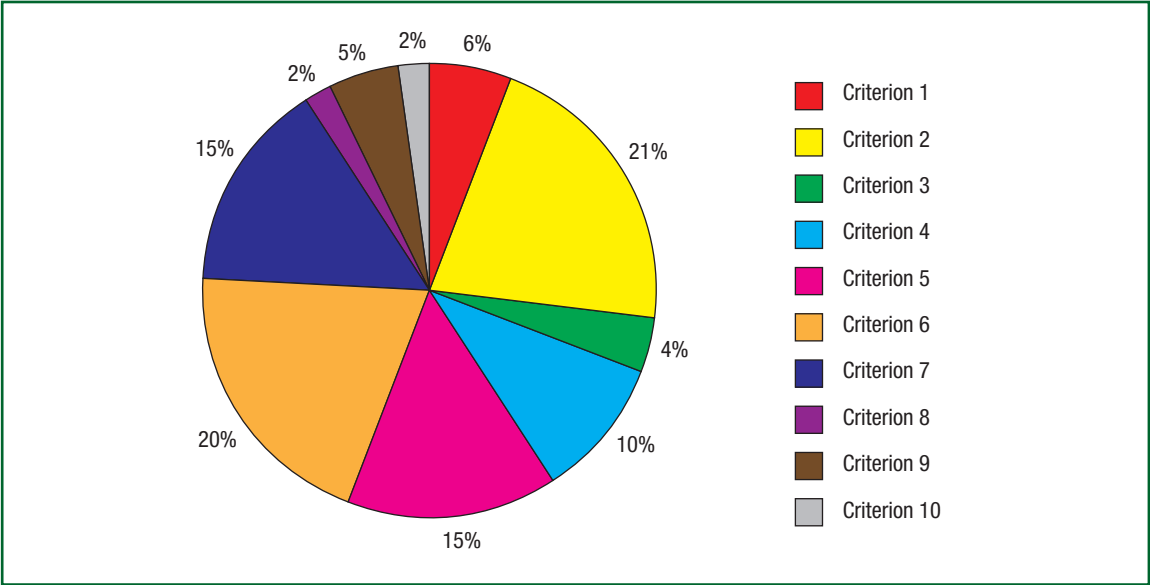


Table 4.15: Institution’s self-evaluation

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1
2.05	2.18	2.09	1.91	2.09	2.09	2.05	2.55	1.91	2.00

Table 4.16: HEQC Board evaluation

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1
1.86	1.41	1.86	1.82	1.64	1.41	1.68	2.23	1.91	1.68

Criterion 10 (Programme Review) is not discussed here, as it feeds directly into Criterion 2 (Programme Design). Figure 4.5 shows that the largest number (40%) of conditions set for programmes were clustered around Criteria 2 and 6, which are to do with programme design and coordination (including work-based learning), while Criteria 5 and 7 (Teaching and Learning, and Student Assessment) make up a further 30% of the conditions.

It should be noted that where programmes did not satisfy Criteria 2 and 6 their weaknesses were not technical issues (outcomes and credit points specified for the programme, and technical aspects of programme coordination) but fundamental defects of curriculum purpose and coherence that meant the programme would need to be completely redesigned. Many of the conditions for Criterion 2 required that a programme be redesigned and recurriculated. Of the 22 programmes reviewed, 11 required both redesign and recurriculation, and a further 6 required recurriculation. The fact that some programmes were commended for good design emphasises the point made in Section 4.4.4 above about the extreme variation in quality across the 22 PGCEs reviewed. Appendix 1 shows that the weaknesses in Criterion 6 were to do with the teaching practice component, and in particular the induction and training of mentors. It is notable that the conditions for Criterion 2 also included improvement of the teaching practice in five cases.

What is significant about Criteria 2 (Programme Design), 5 (Teaching and Learning), 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning) and 7 (Student Assessment) is that they represent the four elements of practice through which PGCE students are given an introduction to, preparation for and induction into teaching. These are therefore the criteria that have the most direct bearing on the quality and competence of the students who enter our schools as fully qualified teachers.

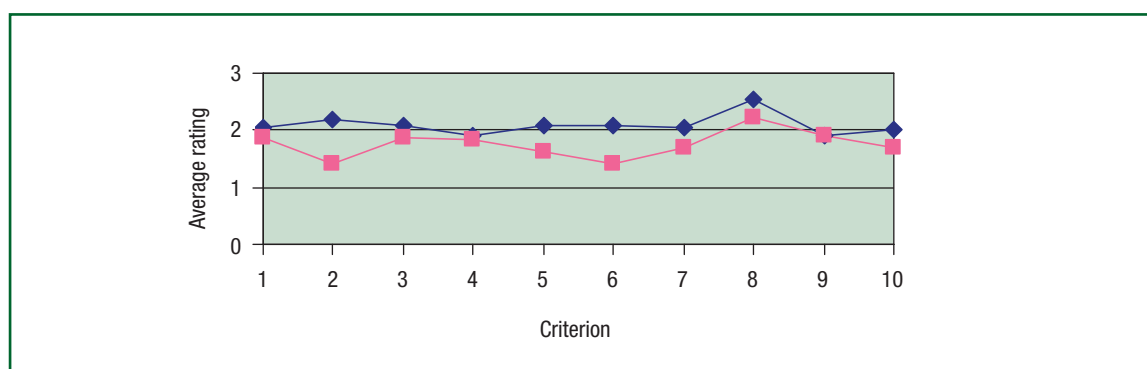
As mentioned above, Programme Design, and Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning made up 40% of the conditions, and Teaching and Learning and Student Assessment a further 30%. Thus about 70% of the conditions concerned the four elements of practice most central to the development of competent teachers. The Review shows that, of the 22 PGCE programmes assessed, 13 did not meet the HEQC minimum standards in Programme Design and Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, nine did not meet the standards in Teaching and Learning, and seven did not meet them in Student Assessment. It is thus clear that a large proportion of the PGCEs are not providing the basics of a good quality teacher qualification.

The major weaknesses in Criteria 5, 6 and 7 (Teaching and Learning, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, and Student Assessment) are all contingent on Criterion 2 (Programme Design). This is discussed in more detail in Section 4.7 below, following the discussion of how HEI self-evaluations compared with the HEQC Board's evaluations.

4.6 A comparison of HEIs' self-evaluation ratings with HEQC Board ratings

This comparison was done by coding the different HEQC ratings as follows: C = 3, MMS = 2, NI = 1, DNC = 0 (see Table 4.14). An analysis of the difference between the institutions' self-assessment and the HEQC Board's re-accreditation criteria and final assessment reveals a marked difference between the way the institutions see their programmes and the way the external evaluators see them (see Tables 4.15 and 4.16 and Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6: Gap between the two evaluations (PGCE average evaluations)



Note: Lower line (pink squares) shows the HEQC Board's average ratings; upper line (blue diamonds) shows the HEIs' average self-ratings.

Figure 4.6 reveals the most significant challenge to programme improvement to emerge from the National Review. It shows complete convergence of views only in respect of Criterion 9 (Throughput Rates – one of the few criteria for which it is possible to base judgements on objective statistics); for the other criteria, it shows HEI self-ratings consistently higher than those of the external evaluators. The criteria where institutions were weakest (2, 5, 6 and 7, as explained in Section 4.5.2 above) were the very ones where institutions seemed unable to recognise weakness. Those institutions that received full accreditation had the narrowest gap

between their own ratings and the HEQC's, while those that did not receive accreditation, or were put on notice of withdrawal of accreditation, had the widest. It is not clear why some institutions found it difficult to assess their own programmes critically, but the evaluating panels agreed that lack of critical reflection was common at many of the institutions assessed, as one panel report indicates:

Although the criteria and minimum standards were used as the basic structure for the report, there was no clear indication in the SER [self-evaluation report] when a specific minimum standard was being addressed, and it was often difficult to determine which particular minimum standard was under discussion at any time. The report did not reveal any substantial critical reflection with regard to the strengths and weaknesses of the programme. ... The reflection was not done very effectively. No analysis of [the programme's] strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats was provided at the end of each criterion.

4.7 The centrality of programme design

4.7.1 The broad structure of PGCE programmes

Most PGCE programmes in South Africa are based on the conventional three-part model: two lecture courses (Educational Studies and Teaching Methods) and the Teaching Practice. Some HEIs have a fourth module, Professional Studies, but at most institutions this is part of Educational Studies.

At some institutions, Educational Studies consists of foundations modules, such as Philosophy of Education, Psychology of Education, and History of Education; at others it includes some extra modules such as Educational Management, and Diversity and Inclusivity. Some institutions, however, have abandoned the traditional foundation modules and their Educational Studies module consists of an alternative set of modules such as:

- a) Classroom Management
- b) Human Development and Learning, Approaches to Teaching, Life Skills Orientations and Special Needs Education
- c) Outcomes-based Education, Educational Theory and Multicultural Education
- d) Environmental Education, Assessment and Classroom (Action) Research

The universities of technology have a very different model of PGCE, as they were based on the convenor system (see Section 4.1). At these institutions a generic Education IV module is offered, presumably the equivalent of Education IV in the former BTech qualification.

In most programmes there is a predominance of academic modules – only the teaching practice is done in schools. However, a hybrid is emerging at some institutions: Educational Studies modules are taught at the university but Teaching Methods is taught in schools, along with the Teaching Practice. Other programmes that might be classified as hybrids are those offered to part-time students through learnerships or block release programmes. In these cases, students attend Educational Studies modules at the university. There is no evidence of a completely practice-based model in the South African teacher education system, despite the introduction of learnerships funded by either provincial governments or the ETDP-SETA.

These marked differences in structural design did not, however, have any bearing on the outcomes of the re-accreditation. The reasons for the strengths and weaknesses of PGCE programme design identified by the Review lie elsewhere. These are discussed in the next section, which considers how appropriate the various designs are for ensuring good quality programmes and achieving the aims of the qualification, as outlined in Section 4.3.

4.7.2 The design of PGCE programmes

To sum up the points made by the international literature, as discussed in Section 4.3, good PGCE programmes are expected to:

- 1) have conceptual coherence;
- 2) have a strong link between taught modules and work-based learning;
- 3) be designed to encourage and develop critical reflection and self-reflexivity;
- 4) constitute students as learners positioned to engage fruitfully in continuing professional development and to adapt to changes in curricula and new trends in education; and
- 5) give students a broad understanding of education as a practice and competence as novice practitioners.

When each PGCE programme was mapped against elements 1 to 4 of this list, a remarkably consistent picture emerged: with only two insignificant variations, the same nine programmes that achieved a ‘meets minimum standards’ rating for Criterion 2 (Programme Design) also met all of these indicators of quality.

The fifth element is the definitive rationale for the PGCE as a programme leading to a professional qualification. Achieving this also calls for a unity of theory and practice, which is the means through which the definitive aim of competence as a teacher is developed. Because norms for teaching practice – for example, the duration of teaching – are not specified in the Norms and Standards for Teacher Educators as in previous regulatory frameworks, the HEQC could not impose any such norms as minimum standards. The panels therefore had to base their expectations and judgements about teaching practice on minimum standards beyond national statutory frameworks, and this report draws these standards from the literature.

The literature highlights the central importance of teaching practice in teacher education programmes. It is an important rite of passage in a teacher’s career and is remembered by in-service teachers as a significant milestone (Graham, 2006:1118). The success of a teacher education programme therefore hinges to a large extent on the quality of this experience. Quick and Siebörger (2005:1) mention the following five factors that make a qualitative difference to teaching practice: how much, the relationship between schools and the university, mentoring and supervision, teaching ability (subject area knowledge, relationship with learners and professionalism), and the value added by schools. These factors broadly frame the following discussion.

The duration of the teaching practice varied widely among the PGCE programmes reviewed. In rank order, the following were the numbers of weeks devoted to teaching practice: 14 (+ 1 week of observation), 14, 11, 11, 11, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 9, 9, 8, 8, 6, 6, 6, 5 and 2 (+ 10 days of observation). The panels even found variation across campuses of the same HEI.

The literature suggests that an extended period of time is essential if the teaching practice is to be a worthwhile learning experience (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Quick & Siebörger, 2005; Sands & Goodwin, 2005; Graham, 2006). The danger of too short field experiences is that they might reinforce technical-rational approaches to teaching and reduce complex decisions to what Dewey (1904) referred to as a ‘series of generic technical maneuvers’ (Graham, 2006:1119). Extended teaching practice sessions of course do not guarantee that these sessions might not have technical-rational approaches. If teaching practice sessions are to teach students to observe, interpret and reflect on classroom events and their contexts, then extended periods of time need to be spent in schools. The question is how much time? There is no rule of thumb, but Dreyer (1998) suggests that in PGCE-type programmes that teaching practice should be at least eight weeks (25% of the 32 weeks), while Quick and Siebörger (2005) suggest it should be longer.

Although length of time is certainly no guarantee of quality, there would seem to be a minimum effective length. If the yardstick of 25% is used, then most of the programmes reviewed would meet this criterion, but the six that had teaching practice periods of only five or six weeks would not enable students to make conceptual and practical connections between field experiences and taught modules, and those that had only two weeks would enable students to gain little more than a very rudimentary practical understanding of teaching and learning.

A further problem is that all but two PGCE programmes provide teaching practice in just one school. This suggests that most PGCE students are not given the opportunity to ‘cultivate a practical understanding of teaching and learning in a diverse range of South African schools’(see Section 4.3).

A good relationship between schools and the university, with shared responsibility for teacher professional development, is vital if the teaching practice is to be a worthwhile learning experience integrated with the taught modules. However, the Review showed that there are not many solid partnerships between schools and universities in South Africa. Although there were some quite good informal understandings between schools and universities, in most instances there were no formal agreements. In a number of cases students choose their own schools for teaching practice, and where students live far from the university it is difficult to establish a partnership with the schools. In one case where the relationship between the HEI and schools was reasonably solid, the philosophy of transforming practice could not be sustained during teaching practice sessions and the tendency was for student teachers to succumb to technical-rational approaches. In international teacher education research there is growing interest in the relationship between schools and universities, but the topic remains under-researched in South Africa. It should be made a priority.

Good quality mentorship and supervision are evidence of a solid relationship between a university and a school. There should be a well-functioning mentorship programme in which academics and mentor teachers share a common vision for teacher professional development. Again, the Review showed that mentorship is weak in South African PGCEs. Very few have effective mentorship programmes though some have started to establish them. In cases where students choose their own schools and live far from the university, mentor teachers are not familiar with PGCE programmes, how students should be assessed, and so on. International studies show that mentor teachers generally do not understand their role in helping students learn to teach, which is a complex process (Graham, 2006:1119). Among the elements which distinguished the quality of PGCE programmes, one that is highlighted is giving attention to *teachers as learners*. Mentor teachers have a crucial role to play in nurturing and scaffolding such learning but not enough attention is given to this in South African PGCE programmes. Without adequate induction into the role of a mentor, the guidance offered by school mentors lapses into ‘tips’ about ‘what works in this school’, often in contradiction to the aims of the programme (Penny & Harley, 1995a,b; Penny et al., 1996).

Supervision practices also vary among programmes and visits to schools vary in number from one to six visits per student. Once again, in instances where students choose their own schools and lecturers have to travel long distances, the quality of supervision is compromised. Broad guidelines for how schools should be selected for teaching practice may be required. For example, school placement can be arranged by universities in collaboration with district offices and schools.

Since data on student teaching ability in the various programmes was beyond the scope of the Review, this report is unable to comment meaningfully on this matter. There is, however, no doubt that hands-on experience and quality time spent in schools is vital to any teacher education programme and no amount of lectures can replace this. The school experience also

helps students to understand the dialectical relationships between theory (i.e. policy) and practice. At one institution the teaching methods were taught by teachers in local schools, which indicates the value that schools can add. However, this value depends on the strength of the relationship between the university and the school, and an effective mentorship programme.

In concluding this section on teaching practice, it may be observed that of the nine PGCEs that achieved minimum standards for Criterion 6, the duration of work-based learning varied between 9 and 14 weeks. Importantly, though, these experiences took place within a context of adequately developed university–school relationships, supported by mentors who understood the work-based programme and faculty aims, and further supported and monitored by faculty staff. In the case of the 13 programmes that did not meet minimum standards, relevant conditions set by the HEQC included redesigning the whole of the work-based learning aspect of the programme, improving the system for identifying mentors, increasing the period of placements, and so on. In three cases, the HEQC Board stipulated that the programmes must assign credit points to teaching practice. This demonstrates the limitations that these programmes face in producing competent novice teachers.

4.8 What is expected of the PGCE in South Africa?

Over and above its general purposes, the PGCE in South Africa is expected to respond to local conditions. For example:

- to provide teachers who are representative of South African demographics;
- to offer students intellectual and experiential exposure to the breadth of education contexts and challenges in South Africa; and
- to make students familiar with the current curriculum framework (National Curriculum Statement), and the seven roles of the educator (listed in the Norms and Standards for Educators) that must be built into the programme.

Enrolments reflecting the demographics of South Africa

Although statistics on the demography of student intake were not provided in 8 of the 22 self-evaluation portfolios, an analysis of the distribution of enrolments in terms of race and gender was undertaken on the basis of data made available at the time of the Review.

The analysis reveals that it is in fact the fully accredited programmes that show up most poorly in terms of the demographic representivity of their student intakes. Figures were not available for UWC, but of the other fully accredited PGCEs it was only on the Edgewood campus of UKZN (Durban) that African students were the largest single group. At RU, US, UCT, UKZN (PMB), UP and WITS the percentage intake of white students was 79, 92, 78, 45, 94 and 65 respectively. The fact that relatively few students from racial groups other than whites were studying at universities with fully accredited PGCEs raises important questions about equity.

As formerly black universities have intakes that reflect historical continuity, several did not provide demographic statistics but simply noted that their intake was almost entirely African. While this intake pattern is closer to actual demography, there is no demographic diversity in the student intake that would allow these teachers to move with ease across different schools in the country.

Although no conditions were set by the HEQC Board for improving the diversity of student intake, perhaps because HEQC panels were reluctant to impose conditions for issues over which institutions have very limited control, few programmes came close to representative demographic intakes. The HEQC Board set only one condition in this regard (under Criterion 9, Student Retention and Throughput: ‘Promote diversity’). However, all the HEIs reviewed had explicit policies to promote diversity of student intake.

Intellectual and experiential exposure to the breadth of education contexts and challenges in South Africa

In only two of the PGCEs, including those nine that achieved minimum standards for Programme Design, was student placement in different types of schools a deliberate faculty policy. Again, no conditions were set with respect to this particular issue, but in one case of a fully accredited PGCE the panel recommended that ‘the programme curriculum designers need to establish strategies to ensure wider exposure of students to teaching across a diversity of schooling contexts (e.g. urban, rural, well-resourced, under-resourced, multilingual, multicultural, etc.) (Criterion 6)’. Under Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning), a condition for four programmes was ‘Improved communication with schools’, but in each case this condition was based on the requirement that students should not select their own schools for teaching practice, i.e. this condition was not linked to students conducting teaching practice in diverse schools. When it came to ‘experiential exposure’, all the fully accredited programmes were exposing students to the breadth of educational contexts in South Africa in as far as the programme design encouraged them to think critically and to develop an understanding of the importance of contexts for teachers’ practice.

Familiarity with current curriculum frameworks, and the seven roles of the educator built into the programme

These two expectations of the PGCE are grouped together here as they are both part of the same question: Is the PGCE programme conceptualised within the national policy framework, and is it designed to promote students’ understanding of this framework and their competence to apply its requirements and those of the national curriculum?

An analysis of PGCE design shows that all 22 programmes – without exception – were informed by national policy. It is of course correct that they should be in accord with national policy, but the crux of the issue here is that they interpreted this requirement *in significantly different ways*. A common feature of the 13 programmes that did not achieve minimum standards for Criterion 2 (Programme Design) was that their curricula were sourced *exclusively* from national policy documents, whereas the nine programmes that did achieve minimum standards for this criterion (one with a ‘commend’ rating) sourced theirs from theory of teacher education as well as conceptualising them within policy framework. This significant difference in conceptual approach to curriculum design has profound implications that are addressed in Section 4.9 below. In brief, the chief difference is that the 13 programmes’ exclusive compliance with national policy impairs their effectiveness in preparing good teachers whereas the nine programmes’ response to national policy is underpinned by a programme design informed by the elements that define a good quality PGCE.

4.9 Curriculum typologies of programmes achieving and not achieving minimum standards for programme design

Design features of the programmes that achieved minimum standards

The self-evaluation reports and the HEQC reports show that the designs of the fully accredited PGCEs corresponded to international ideas of a well-designed PGCE. A common feature of these programmes was their theoretical foundation in what might be broadly termed the ‘personal growth’ model of teacher education, a model well represented in the literature from the time of Britzman’s (1991) study, which introduced the teacher’s biography to teacher education. Others, such as Zeichner (1998), have built the model on the principles of personal and professional identity. Day (1995: 110) captures the model when he says: ‘I have learned that what I am as a person should not and cannot always be entirely separated from what I am as a professional. The one is nested in the other’.

It is important to note that the HEQC panellists were not necessarily themselves adherents of the ‘personal growth’ or ‘reflective practitioner’ models of teacher education. What mattered was not so much the *specific model* the curriculum was based on as that it should be based on a *synthesis* of the various elements that constitute a good PGCE programme (an understanding of the importance of contexts; learning theories; a coherent and purposeful fusion of theory and practice; subject knowledge pedagogies; and so on). Integration and coherence are particularly critical in a one-year programme like the PGCE. One of the self-evaluation portfolios alluded to this in its time-frame analysis: nine or ten weeks of Teaching Practice leaves 22 weeks (270 hours) for contact teaching. Critical choices must be made with regard to what is included in the curriculum and what is left out. And the elements that are included must be coherent if the preparation for a career in teaching is to be purposeful.

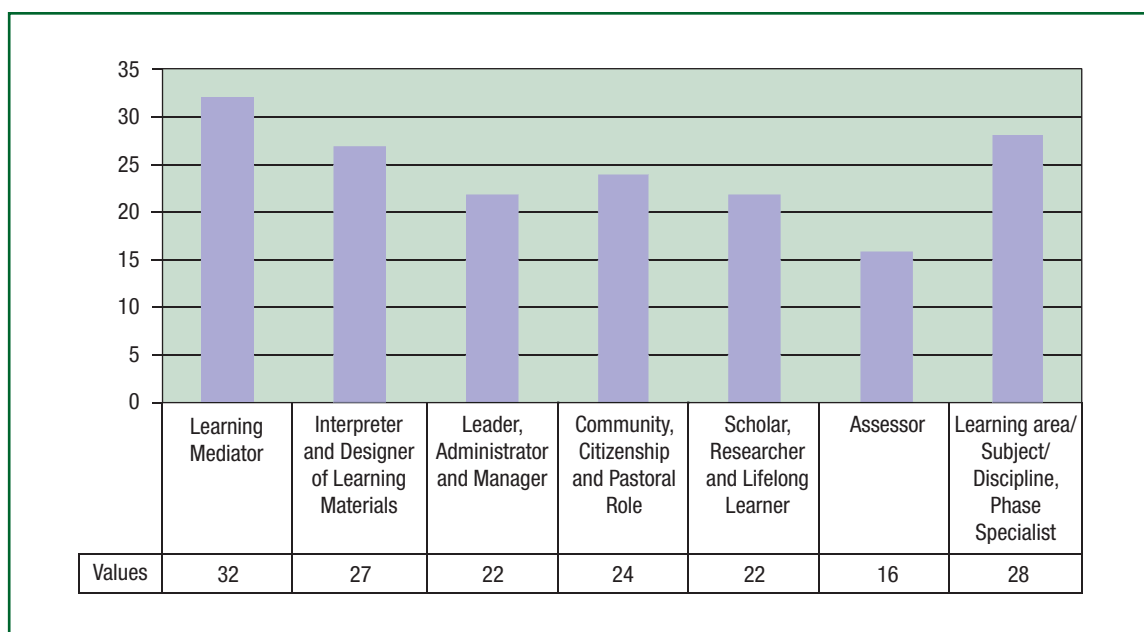
It is noteworthy that, although the designs of nine programmes that achieved minimum standards for Criterion 2 were grounded in a solid educational theory and conceptualised as coherent, integrated programmes, this conceptualisation took place *within the framework of existing South African curriculum policy*. Apart from meeting the imperatives of diversity and equity, these programmes were preparing students for teaching as a career, and for continuing professional development, and to take their place in South African schools and meet the demands of present curriculum policy. This is in stark contrast to the 13 programmes whose designs focused so strongly – in some cases exclusively – on preparing students for the present curriculum regime that their career in teaching could be severely compromised.

Design features of the programmes that did not achieve minimum standards

With their singular focus on preparing students to teach outcomes-based education in a model that replicates the Norms and Standards rather than using this policy in the generative manner intended by policy, the design of these programmes relies on the reiteration of policy documents without a clear curriculum that would show how these outcomes are to be achieved. In fact, the designs that did not achieve minimum standards did not present a curriculum in the accepted sense of the word. The well-intentioned aim of serving national policy – perhaps in keeping with new-found patriotism and respect for the state – has led to a rigid compliance with policy. A curriculum based solely on policy documents has no conceptual basis that would cohere with the various structural elements of a PGCE, and it fails to understand contexts. It can therefore only train teachers to teach in the present context and within the present curriculum framework – a poor preparation for a career, given that the PGCE provides a licence to teach for life. Ironically, such rigid compliance with the Norms and Standards without regard for the purpose of the programme itself undermines one of the seven roles of the teacher: the teacher as scholar, researcher and lifelong learner.

The problem is not that these programmes reiterate and mirror policy with fidelity: all programmes must obviously be framed within policy. The problem is that in varying degrees these programmes *do little more than reiterate policy*. This is best illustrated by the example shown in Figure 4.7, taken from one self-evaluation portfolio. This example highlights the fragmented and technicist assumptions underlying programmes that are designed with no integrating theoretical foundation. This curriculum is no more than a mirror of the Norms and Standards, with each role being allocated an arithmetical weighting. Whether it is even practically possible to treat the seven roles as mutually exclusive is a different question, but this does illustrate the radically different world views behind the programmes that achieved the minimum standards for design and those that did not.

Figure 4.7: Manifestation of educator roles in PGCE coursework modules



One self-evaluation report explained that, after considering several options (since the clustering of outcomes can be done in many ways), the programme committee had decided to align some modules directly to the seven educator roles. This formed the basic structure of this institution's PGCE, with some additional modules intended to achieve the purpose of the qualification and satisfy the requirements of the Norms and Standards for Educators.

Although this kind of rigid policy compliance was relatively stable across the programmes that did not meet the minimum standards for Criterion 2, there were two notable exceptions. One was an institution where the PGCE curriculum was simply an amalgam of modules offered by 'inherited', semi-autonomous departmental structures, and the other was one where, although nominally aligned with policy, the curriculum was underpinned by theology rather than teacher education.

The important differences between the programmes that achieved minimum standards for programme design and those that did not are summarised in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Key differences between programmes achieving and not achieving minimum standards for programme design

Design and other characteristic features of curriculum	Programmes not achieving minimum standards	Programmes achieving minimum standards
Orientation to programme design	Curriculum sourced exclusively from policy documents.	Curriculum sourced in theory of teacher education and conceptualised within policy framework.
Use of theory	Prescriptive in informing practice. Absence of theoretical underpinning in curriculum which has no conceptual binding force.	Theory informs decision making. Presence of theoretical underpinning to bind the programme.

(continued)

Design and other characteristic features of curriculum	Programmes not achieving minimum standards	Programmes achieving minimum standards
Self-evaluation description of curriculum	Limited or purely technical coverage. (In one case, description of Programme Design occupies 35 pages comprised entirely of columns showing credit points, SAQA credits, outcomes.)	Expansive and detailed descriptions of design and design principles.
Curriculum	Atomistic. Curriculum specification is frequently a paraphrasing of statements in policy documents.	Integrated – curriculum components are integrated. The overall curriculum is coherent.
Curriculum focus	Strong focus on social relations of teaching; the teacher must accept pedagogy and social relations (e.g. facilitator, group work) derived from the 7 N&S roles and OBE.	Strong focus on knowledge: students must be exposed to disciplinary, professional and self-knowledge in order to be able to exercise judgement.
Academic level of PGCE	Tends to be lower than NQF 7.	Appropriate to NQF Level 7.
Assessment	Assessment is of individual modules. (Absence of integrating principles leads to absence of integrating assessment exercise.)	Modules may be assessed individually, but curriculum includes one major assessment exercise that integrates different modules and components.
(Implicit) image of student in programme design	Student cast in deficit mode: students' self-knowledge is of no real consequence in the programme; students must accept the OBE paradigm and 'learner centred' pedagogy.	Programme design is rooted in a model of the teacher as an active agent making professional judgements on the basis of self- and professional knowledge.
Programme design develops students' awareness and understanding of the social context of teaching	Incidental, at best.	Consistently – context is an underlying theme in programme design and in theory of how students learn and practise teaching.

4.10 Conclusion

The PGCE qualification has a long history, with several predecessor qualifications. The mid- to late-1990s, following teacher cutbacks, saw a drop in PGCE enrolments nationally. However, from 2003 to 2006 there was a steady growth in enrolments from 2711 to 4491 and, importantly, a significant growth in African enrolments, from 676 to 1994. The increase in the number of African students might be attributed to the introduction of national bursary and loan schemes, such as the National Students Financial Aid Scheme. The introduction of the Funza Lushaka bursary in 2007 promises to further increase PGCE enrolments, but at the time of writing nothing conclusive can be reported. However, there is a concern about the number of graduates produced by PGCE programmes nationally, largely because more than 50% are enrolled part-time in a distance-education programme. In 2006, only 2,049 PGCE students graduated. Of these, almost 50% were white, the majority of whom are very unlikely to teach in township schools and deep rural areas. The upshot of current enrolment and graduation statistics might be a shortage in the general supply of teachers to the FET band and specifically a shortage in the supply of African teachers for the FET band.

The finding that more than 50% of PGCE enrolments are distance education students has several implications and also raises an important question. Firstly, the majority of UNISA PGCE students may already be practicing teachers and therefore may not supply many new

teachers to the system. Secondly, in distance-education programmes the teaching practice is likely to be compromised, because it is difficult to supervise the students effectively. Thirdly, it can be difficult to enable students to appreciate the interplay between theory and practice. So the crucial question is whether it is in fact feasible to offer good quality initial teacher programmes using the distance-education mode of delivery. The difficulties of structuring opportunities for critical reflection and self-reflexivity through critical engagement with the nexus between theory, workplace experience and personal as well as professional growth could make teaching seem a low-skill profession in which skills are simply learned through ‘on-the-job training’.

On the issue of quality, when judged against the HEQC criteria that were developed by specialist peers for use in the National Review, PGCE programmes showed extreme variation. While 7 of the 22 programmes reviewed were granted full accreditation, 7 were either not accredited or placed on notice of withdrawal of accreditation. These two extremes are largely a reflection of South Africa’s apartheid history, and they persist despite the efforts of policies and national frameworks such as the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) to set national standards for initial teacher education in South Africa. Those that received full accreditation were mainly historically advantaged HEIs, and those that received either a notice of withdrawal or were de-accredited were largely historically disadvantaged HEIs or universities of technology. As this report shows, these extremes cannot be ascribed simply to differences in material resources. The reason for the contrast is rather to be found by comparing the fully accredited HEIs’ long-standing traditions of scholarship, and their familiarity and critical engagement with state regulatory frameworks, with the other HEIs’ rigid adoption of these frameworks as curricula with little or no reference to the literature or models of teacher education. If this is what accounts for differences in quality then there appears to be no short-term solution to the problem – and generating more policies and national frameworks will not be the answer either.

A worrying finding of the Review was that serious weaknesses in the key elements of PGCEs such as Teaching and Learning and Assessment, as measured against HEQC criteria, had their source in weak programme design. Thirteen of the 22 programmes did not meet minimum standards in programme design. The same was the case with teaching practice. In the stronger programmes, students’ work-based learning took place in a context of adequately developed university–school relationships, supported by mentors who understood the aims of the teaching practice, and further supported and monitored by faculty staff. The weaker programmes lacked this context and support.

Shortcomings in the teaching practice would seem to be more amenable to improvement than the weaknesses of programme design. Although the Review found that the PGCEs were, almost without exception, adequately supported and funded by their universities, establishing and maintaining an acceptable teaching practice programme is labour intensive and requires more support from the state in the form of a more realistic funding formula. However, with Programme Design and Teaching and Learning being arguably the most important aspects of PGCE programmes, a profoundly worrying factor is that these are the two areas in which programmes performed most poorly in the Review. Moreover, the comparison of self-evaluation and HEQC ratings made it clear that it was in precisely these areas that institutions had the greatest difficulty in recognising weakness.

This report does, however, show that good quality PGCE programmes can achieve the aims of the programme as accepted internationally, and simultaneously respond to the specific context and history of South Africa’s education system. The programmes that performed poorly in the Review tended to adopt state regulatory frameworks without the necessary underpinning conceptual framework to guide pedagogy and assessment within integrated, coherent curricula. By contrast, those that achieved full accreditation ensured not only that students were familiar with regulatory frameworks, but also that their engagement with these regulatory frameworks

was informed by an underlying philosophy. There was, however, one requirement that several of the fully accredited PGCE programmes failed to satisfy: that they prepare their students for practice in diverse environments. Only two HEIs were able to provide their PGCE students with exposure to more than a single school type during practice teaching sessions.

It emerges from this Review that the key challenges facing the PGCE programmes are the following:

- to supply sufficient teachers through PGCE programmes for the FET band;
- to reduce the variation in the quality of the PGCE programmes offered nationally; and
- to deal with the problems caused by the fact that more than 50% of PGCE students are studying through a distance-education mode of delivery.

One way to improve the quality of PGCE programmes will be to build the scholarship capacity of all Faculties and Schools of Education, particularly at those HEIs that do not have long-standing scholarly traditions. It will not be possible to develop teachers into *scholars, researchers and lifelong learners* (one of the seven roles of the Norms and Standards for Educators) if the staff at these faculties and schools cannot set an example of scholarship.

In the matter of student demographics, the fact that most were trying assiduously, but with little success, to diversify their student demographics, indicates that they need more help with this task. These challenges cannot be addressed through quick-fix solutions, but require deliberation by all role players and a response that is coordinated nationally.

A number of important questions need to be addressed with respect to PGCE programmes. How will South Africa increase PGCE enrolments whilst simultaneously improving the quality of PGCE programmes? Should initial teacher education programmes be offered through distance education? What role should universities of technology play in producing PGCE students? Questions such as these require a coordinated national response.

CHAPTER FIVE

The State of the Bachelor of Education (BEd) Programme in South Africa

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the outcomes of the review of the BEd programme. The main focus of the HEQC National Review was the Foundation Phase of the General Education and Training (GET) band, i.e. the preparation of teachers for Grades R–3 (for learners aged five to eight years). There were two main reasons for this focus. Firstly, the quality of teaching and learning in this phase is critical for giving learners a firm grounding in the basic skills of literacy and numeracy and in the personal, social, emotional and ethical fundamentals of life. Secondly, there is widespread concern, given the country's demand for Foundation Phase teachers, about the low numbers of these graduates, and more particularly about their demographic and linguistic profile.

This chapter is organised into eight sections. Section 5.2 that follows outlines the purpose of the BEd programme; Section 5.3 considers the difficulties that have been experienced in meeting this purpose; Section 5.4 provides an overview of the history of the Initial Professional Education of Teachers (IPET) programmes, with a focus on the BEd, currently the only integrated qualification available for initial teacher education; Section 5.5 looks at the current national picture of the BEd, its shape and content, and the demographic profile of the students; Section 5.6 discusses the outcomes of the National Review accreditation exercise; Section 5.7 lists some challenges for the programme; and Section 5.8 concludes by offering some insights the Review findings have suggested.

5.2 The purpose of the programme

The BEd is a four-year professional degree programme whose main aim is to prepare students to teach in the formal sector of schooling. In principle, its purpose is comparable with that of four-year professional degrees in other fields, such as engineering, accountancy and social work: to prepare a graduate for employment in a specialised profession. Like these, it faces the challenge of accommodating the demands of the profession's academic and professional requirements in a single qualification. In many ways this is the central challenge confronting the BEd.

The primary regulatory framework for the BEd has been the NSE (Norms and Standards for Educators, DoE, 2000). According to the NSE, the purpose of the BEd is 'to accredit an initial qualification for educators in schools'. The degree is expected to give the student a 'strong practical and foundational competence with the reflexive competence to make judgements in a wide context' and is 'intended for candidates seeking a focused teaching degree with strong subject and educational theory competence'.

The cornerstone of the qualification policy 'is the notion of *applied competence* and its associated *assessment criteria*'. Applied competence is characterised by three interconnected competences:

practical, foundational and reflexive. Applied competence has another dimension: the ability to integrate the discrete competences that constitute each of the seven educator roles. It is important to assess competence *in a role* rather than simply competence in discrete areas. In turn, the seven roles should also be assessed in an integrated and applied manner.

A particular challenge for BEd graduates in South Africa, as elsewhere in the world, is that they are expected to assume immediate responsibility for the classroom teaching of a school phase in a range of subjects. Institutions have been puzzling for the best part of the last 100 years over what a curriculum seeking to produce this kind of graduate should look like. Most agree that it should, at minimum, reflect the generally recognised requirements of programmes of its type, as specified and suggested in national and international practice, while at the same time recognising the distinct needs of its own context.

The broad aims of qualifications of this type are the following:

1. To satisfy both academic and professional demands by *integrating the academic components* of the programme with the work-based learning, i.e. school-based teaching practice.
2. To develop students as *reflective practitioners*, i.e. to enable them to see the coherence between theory and their practice.
3. To foster both generalist and specialist professional competence by including *foundational* units (for example, academic literacy and numeracy) on which further learning is scaffolded, generically essential *core* units (theories of teaching and learning, professional ethics), and *elective* units (phase or subject specialisation, ancillary issues in education).

These general requirements take on a specific character in the context of South Africa and Foundation Phase education. Against the backdrop of the country's literacy and numeracy challenges, a good BEd programme specialising in early learning, as outlined in national and institutional documents, needs to take into account:

- the national language policy, and its implications for practice in diverse language communities;
- a knowledge of whole-child development, and the principles of early learning;
- teaching across the whole curriculum which, unlike teaching in other school phases, is in the Foundation Phase teacher's normal job description; and
- the centrality of basic literacy and numeracy development – an urgent need, given South African learners' relatively poor performance in these areas when measured against international standards.

In looking at programme purpose, the HEQC Review therefore had to assess whether the sector's institutional and resourcing arrangements were relevant to these requirements and sufficient to meet them and whether they were applied in such a way as to deliver the appropriate level of preparation for prospective teachers.

5.3 Fundamental problems in meeting programme purpose

The main constraints on the HEIs' ability to fulfil the purpose of the BEd spring from the recent history of the qualification. They are as follows:

1. Resource shortages and the persistence of apartheid inequalities in resourcing across institutions.
2. The problems of adjustment faced by professional staff formerly employed in colleges of education, almost exclusively delivering initial teacher education, who have been repositioned in the HEI sector with its additional, and often prioritised, emphases on postgraduate teaching and supervision, scholarly activity and publication.

3. The specific professional resource needs of the programme, including phase-based pedagogical content knowledge and associated methodologies, which require areas of specialisation that are different from the academic disciplines normally associated with HEI academic staffing profiles.
4. The need for recruitment strategies appropriate to the demands of South African schools, particularly to recruit a student profile that fairly represents the cultural and linguistic profile of national and regional learners.

A central factor in the recent experience of teacher education has been the incorporation of colleges of education into HEIs. This process seems not to have given sufficient consideration to the full complexity of transferring to HEIs the responsibility for delivering, for example, Foundation Phase programmes. A Foundation Phase programme brings with it distinct challenges in terms of its knowledge–practice tension and requires a range of support mechanisms and curricular resources. In respect of constraints 2 and 3 above, the result of the incorporation of former college of education staff into the HEI sector appears in many cases to be that staff working at the Foundation Phase level have found teaching loads too onerous to enable them to be both teachers and researchers.

5.4 History of initial professional education of teachers (IPET) programmes in South Africa

The training of teachers can be traced back to the initiatives of religious institutions in the 19th century. The history of IPET in the last ten years is particularly important because it reveals the major patterns and forms for qualifications of this nature being put in place. These remain formative to the present day.

During the apartheid era there were no uniform national regulations to govern IPET. The former apartheid education departments (Department of Education and Training, TED, departments falling under the HOR and HOD)¹ had separate and highly prescriptive specifications, and colleges in the former homelands did not fall under any of these authorities. These separate regulations prevailed into the 1980s. In the early 1980s the Committee on Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) was formed to govern IPET mainly in the former white institutions. Its influence was limited by the continuing legacy of apartheid education in the field of teacher training. COTEP produced a set of minimum standards that were influenced by, and informed, programmes that were offered by the formerly white universities and colleges of education. During the late 1980s and 1990s, through the influence of the Committee of College of Education Rectors of South Africa (CCERSA), this set of standards began to exert an influence, directly or indirectly, on IPET programmes across a broader spectrum of providers, as they emerged from the curricular restrictions of the past. It was not, however, until the promulgation of the NSE in 2000 that direction was given to the design of IPET programmes applicable to all providers. Some of the influence of COTEP had a bearing on the requirements established in the NSE, especially as they affected the BEd. For this reason, implementing the provisions of the NSE was arguably less demanding for curriculum planners in some institutions (those familiar with the COTEP set of IPET standards) than it was for others.

In the main, universities offered a four-year Education degree and a one-year HDE (Higher Diploma in Education – postgraduate) following a first general degree (BA, BSc, BCom) that included approved school subjects. These qualifications catered mainly for the secondary school sector. Some universities offered, in addition, a B Prim Ed degree. Technikons offered a four-year BTech (Education), a three-year National Diploma and a one-year post-qualification National

¹ House of Representatives, established to look after coloured interests, and House of Delegates, established to look after Indian interests.

Higher Diploma. However, as late as 2000 the majority of student teachers were still enrolled at the former colleges of education. The IPET was segregated in that former black colleges offered a three-year DE (Diploma in Education) while former white colleges (together with some HOR and HOD colleges and one ex-homeland institution, the Giyani College of Education) offered a four-year HDE. When these qualifications were later granted interim registration by SAQA, the DE was registered on NQF Level 5, and the HDE, together with the BA(Education), BSc(Education), BTech and HDE programmes, on NQF Level 6 – implying equivalence at the exit-level between all four-year degree and non-degree programmes.

The provision of teachers for the primary school sector was the almost exclusive responsibility of the former colleges. The now phased-out HDE (together with, in cases where it was offered, the B Prim Ed) formed the basis of the new four-year qualification, especially qualifications for primary school teachers, in terms of teaching resources and curricula. Because of this general practice in the past of universities providing training for secondary school teachers and colleges of education providing for the primary school, the traditional programme models differed for the two school sectors. Differences of opinion about the relative merits of the two approaches – what is perceived to be an *academic* approach as contrasted with a *professional* approach – have been intense.

The difference is, however, relative rather than absolute. Put simply, it represents varying degrees of emphasis in programme purpose and design on the reflexive, foundational and practical competences envisaged in the NSE. While the two sectors, university and college of education, existed, there was institutional space for the two approaches to practise side by side. The incorporation of all IPET into the HEI sector created a challenge for providers to integrate these approaches by including in programmes the best features of both. This integration of approaches has not always been easy, and it has, to a large extent, been influenced by institutional legacies and the extent to which incorporations and mergers have affected each institution. Beyond the South African context of institutional transformation, the tension between these approaches is one of the main tensions in teacher education programmes internationally. Levine (2006) explains in his report on the state of school teacher education in the US that:

We do not know whether university-based or non-university-based teacher education is superior. We don't know whether educating teachers for a profession or a craft is more effective in raising student achievement.

And he elaborates on this distinction between 'profession' and 'craft':

There is a schism [in the United States] over the hows and whens of teacher education between those who believe teaching is a profession like law or medicine, requiring a substantial amount of education before an individual can become a practitioner, and those who think teaching is a craft like journalism, which is learned principally on the job. (Levine, 2006)

It may be significant for South Africa that Levine sees the move from what he terms a 'process-based' to an outcomes-based approach to education as a contributing factor to this uncertainty about which is the more effective approach to teacher education.

The divides over whether teaching is a profession or a career, whether teacher education should be the province of schools of education or alternative providers, and whether teachers should learn their jobs before entering a classroom or in the classroom while on the job, are exacerbated by the changing expectations for schools. The shift in focus from common processes for all schools to common outcomes for all children changes the measure of success for teachers ... [O]utcome-based systems, concerned with what students learn, have a single measure of success – student achievement. (Levine, 2006)

If Levine's argument is valid for our context, then the single most important criterion for appropriateness of an IPET programme would be its effectiveness in providing graduates with the

capacity to enhance school-learner achievement. This implies a close integration between what is taught in the programme and what is practised by students during school-based classroom experience. One of the fundamental aims of the HEQC Review was therefore to evaluate the extent to which IPET (including BEd) programmes meet this general criterion in terms of design, delivery and exit-level outcomes.

The NSE includes only minimal stipulations for programme design. In the Foundation Phase, for example, the only specification is that a study of the three learning programmes for the phase – literacy, numeracy and life skills – must carry at least 240 credits, i.e. 50%. Given this unaccustomed lack of specifics, it is hardly surprising that many institutions found it difficult, or unnecessary, to make radical moves away from known design models. For institutions that incorporated colleges of education, the most familiar model, especially for primary schooling, was the former HDE. According to COTEP, the components of the HDE were the following:

Education: This involved an understanding of the nature of the child, theoretical frameworks, curriculum development, school guidance and counselling and the South African education system.

Professional studies: This had a broad scope, including teaching methods; classroom management; application to a specific school phase; teaching media; economic, environmental, computer and technology literacy; and life and social skills.

Major subjects: These were according to phase specialisation.

Communication: Normally proficiency in two official languages was required, including children's literature.

Religious education: Students were to be made aware of 'the religious dimension of life' and 'religion within a multicultural society'.

Teaching practice: The total duration was specified, for example at least 20 weeks for the Higher Diploma and at least six weeks for the HDE (postgraduate). (COTEP, 1997, paragraph 3.6.)

It is a moot point whether there was a good balance of merits and demerits in this structure for IPET. However, the NSE envisaged 'a completely new way of designing and delivering teacher education in South Africa' (DoE, 2000:12). The 'new way' is informed by the 'seven roles of the educator' and no fewer than 133 discrete 'competences' were identified (DoE, 2000:15–22). This presented a major challenge to curriculum designers, because there is a degree of ambivalence in the NSE about whether the roles and competences are ultimately generative or, by contrast, prescriptive. The NSE is, on the other hand, much less specific than COTEP about actual curriculum structure. One of the NSE's more significant effects has been to increase the regulation of programme outcomes, in the form of roles and competences, while at the same time being less specific about how a programme should be designed to achieve these outcomes. The onus for programme design rests almost entirely on the professional judgement of the provider. This judgement needs to accommodate both appropriateness of the programme to the purpose of the qualification and its responsiveness to the local needs. One of this chapter's main aims is therefore to assess how far this paradigm shift in the regulatory framework has improved IPET provision in the form of the BEd programmes, with particular emphasis on programmes for the Foundation Phase.

An additional complication in the design of BEd programmes was caused by the re-categorisation of the school sector. All former regulations for IPET qualifications were posited on an existing relationship between the school sector organisation and the phase-related specialisation of qualifications. The old relationship, which allowed for a clear distinction between the training of teachers for the primary and for the secondary school sectors, is shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: School organisation in relation to phase-related areas of specialisation (pre-2000)

School sector	Primary	Primary	Secondary	Secondary
School type	Primary	Primary	Secondary	Secondary
Grades	1–3	4–7	8–10	11–12
Qualification type	Junior primary	Senior primary	Junior secondary	Senior secondary

The new arrangement of school phases complicated this neat distinction, as it affected phase-related areas of specialisation offered in BEd programmes. The National Curriculum Statement introduced three significant issues for phase specialisation. Firstly, the Senior Phase (Grades 4–7) uncomfortably straddles the current systemic divide between ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ education. A major question is how BEd areas of phase-specialisation should address the Senior Phase (with Grade 7 located in the primary school and Grades 8–9 located in the secondary school). This affects programmes that prepare teachers for the primary and for the secondary school sector. Secondly, secondary school programmes need to prepare secondary students to teach across the differing arrangements of disciplines in both the GET learning area and the FET subjects bands. Thirdly, the NCS included the reception year of schooling (Grade R) in the Foundation Phase. Institutions have been inconsistent in their decisions whether or not to incorporate Grade R in Foundation Phase programmes. These decisions appear to have been made on the basis of available teaching resources rather than specialisation policy.

Of the 15 BEd programmes reviewed, ten institutions reported that the first intake of students was in 2001 or later. In these cases the programme would have been able to take into account the provisions of the NSE, and in a position to re-align their existing programme design and curriculum structure to the principles of the new legislation. In four instances, however, the first intake was prior to 2001 (in one case, WSU, the first intake was as long ago as 1985).² While this confirms that, at these institutions, as at most others, there was a necessary continuity between pre- and post-NSE provision, it also raises the question whether the intended ‘completely new way of designing *and delivering* teacher education in South Africa’ (DoE, 2000:12) was fully taken into account across the sector as a whole.

The incorporation of all IPET into the HEI sector also raised the question of admission requirements. The admission requirement for the former colleges of education was ‘a Senior Certificate including two official languages and three higher grade subjects, which might include the languages’. There was also provision for RPL (recognition of prior learning) admission of unqualified and underqualified teachers (COTEP, 1997: para.3.4). When, in 2000, the NSE prescribed a degree status to IPET pathways (BEd or PGCE following a degree), the HEI sector pre-requisite of matriculation endorsement became the norm. The implication was that many, indeed most, prospective entrants into IPET would be denied admission. A number of institutions resorted to the process of Senate Discretionary admission based on recognised selection tests followed by application for provisional exemption from endorsement, but this is an elaborate and costly process and has not been universally applied across the HEI sector. The extent to which this rule was applied in the former technikon sector cannot be quantified for the purposes of this report. This was one of the factors that significantly limited IPET enrolments around the time that the new programmes were registered and introduced. There are at present encouraging indications that the Funza Lushaka³ bursary system initiated by the Department of Education in 2007 will redress this decline in enrolment, although its long-term benefits have yet to be proven.

² The name of the qualification has changed from BEd (Humanities) to the BEd (FET: Humanities), but the institution’s SER (self-evaluation report) states that the curriculum has remained unchanged.

³ In 2007, 3,360 bursaries were awarded valued at R110,528,265 and in 2008, 4,974 bursaries were awarded valued at R164,466,668, estimated at rising to R180 million as claims from institutions were still being processed.

The challenge of meeting national requirements for IPET was further complicated by the publication in 2001 of *Qualifications from the Educators in Schooling SGB*. The fact that these qualifications were registered by SAQA⁴ implied that all IPET programmes would be required to comply with the provisions decided by the SGB (Standards Generating Body) as well as those set out in the NSE. The SGB specified a qualification matrix setting minimum credit allocations for fundamental, core and elective components (different from the practical, foundational and reflexive competences of the NSE) as well as a set of exit-level outcomes not directly related to the seven roles of the educator – for the BEd, nine exit-level outcomes subdivided into a total of 73 areas of competence.

One of the difficulties for curriculum designers was how to fulfil the academic and professional purpose of IPET programmes while using the resources, expertise and experience from existing programmes, and overcoming the constraints these entailed, while at the same time addressing – and being seen to address – this regulated mass of roles, competences, credit allocations and exit-level outcomes. It remains to be analysed whether the regulatory documents and roles, competences and outcomes are integrated and coherent, and a useful guideline for HEIs to use in designing programmes. The result in some cases was an overloaded curriculum. Another was the displacement of a sound theoretical framework for the programme by an artificial and mechanistic mapping of regulated imperatives onto courses, units and modules. Both of these possible results the NSE sought to eschew but, arguably, without sufficient rigour. As a consequence, the ‘new way’ of designing and delivering teacher education in South Africa, while setting exacting standards for outcomes organisation, remains intellectually opaque.

BEd curriculum designers also had to address the emphasis in the NSE on pedagogical application of knowledge to an area of specialisation. In most cases the specialist role informing BEd programmes is a school phase (Foundation Phase, Intermediate Phase, etc.). While the importance of application to a specific phase of school learning cannot be underestimated, there is a danger that the academic subject base (for example, education theory, teaching subjects) can be reduced to the point where narrow application of knowledge predominates over a broad intellectual framework on which critical, sound and reliable methodological application ought to depend. This could be particularly relevant to programmes specialising in the Foundation Phase, if the designers are influenced by a view that students specialising in teaching younger learners have less need than high school teachers do for a deep theoretical and teaching subject background.

The programmes, including the BEd, are governed by the regulatory framework described above. The NSE defines the BEd as a qualification comprising a minimum of 480 SAQA credits offered at an exit level of NQF 6. It specifies seven roles that the qualification has to address:

- learning mediator;
- interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials;
- leader, administrator and manager;
- scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- community, citizenship and pastoral role;
- assessor; and
- learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist.

While the NSE provides for a high level of focus on selected roles in advanced qualifications, it provides somewhat less discretion – different combinations and weightings – in initial qualifications like the BEd. The regulations state that school-based teaching practice is an

4 This was confirmed in the SGB document. For example, the BEd was registered by SAQA according to Notice 780 of 2001. Government Gazette, vol. 434, no. 22596, 22 August 2001.

‘essential feature that should be included in all educator programmes’, but they do not prescribe the specific competences it should develop, or the period of time that needs to be allocated to it, or in which year of study or at what point in the programme it should take place. This is left to the discretion of the provider and ‘the relevant quality assurance body’, but because there is no sectoral quality assurance body the duration and timing of the teaching practice is entirely up to the provider. As Section 5.6.10 on page 99 explains, the way these provisions are interpreted is very important to the design, delivery and quality assurance of programmes. For example, not specifying particular competences for the teaching practice can give the impression that teaching practice is, by regulation, no more than a non-credit-bearing attendance course. Such lowering of its status in the design of the programme can, in turn, give the impression that it requires little attention from academic staff in terms of contact time, assessment and quality assurance, and can reduce its importance in terms of assessment standards in the minds of students.

As this chapter makes clear, there have been considerable differences in the ways institutions have applied the NSE regulations to the design and delivery of their BEd programmes. In some cases these regulations have provided a reasonably flexible framework that needs to be adapted to sound educational theory and socio-educational context. These cases emphasise the freedom and responsibility that are assigned to the provider, and the fact that schedules of roles and competences are not meant to be a checklist against which one assesses whether a person is competent or not. In other cases, by contrast, the NSE has been construed as a tightly-regulated set of prescriptions, as a conceptual matrix in which each and every role and competence needs to be explicit, to the extent that some programmes have taken the roles and competences as their design template and as a map of their exit-level outcomes. The way this diversity of interpretation has affected the design of programmes became clear from statements made during site visits. (See Chapter Four on the PGCE programme for similar discussion.)

Against this regulatory background, the HEQC National Review developed its BEd programme criteria and minimum standards on the basis of the following description of programme purpose.

The BEd is thus an initial qualification for educators in schools. Teachers are members of a profession whose definitive aim is to enable systematic learning. To prepare prospective teachers for this comprehensive role, a BEd programme should:

- develop and consolidate both subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge;
- cultivate a practical understanding of teaching and learning in a diverse range of South African schools, in relation to educational theory, phase and/or subject specialisation, practice and policy;
- foster reflexivity and self-understanding among prospective teachers;
- nurture commitment to the ideals of the teaching profession and an understanding of teaching as a profession;
- develop the professional dispositions and self-identity of students as teachers;
- develop students as active citizens and enable them to develop the dispositions of citizenship in their learners; and
- promote and develop the dispositions and competences to organise learning among a diverse range of learners in diverse contexts.

It is assumed that students who achieve the exit-level outcomes will be competent *novice* teachers who will still need time, experience and appropriate support to develop as fully fledged extended professionals.

5.5 The BEd programme at the time of the HEQC Review

5.5.1 Headcount enrolment and graduation data

The total FTE enrolments for the period 2003–2006, according to HEMIS data provided by the Department of Education, are shown in Table 5.2. The data excludes private providers (in the case of the BEd, the Centre for Creative Education).

Table 5.2: Total BEd headcount enrolments, 2003–2006

2003	2004	2005	2006
16,677	22,163	23,610	25,721

The large increase in student numbers between 2003 and 2004 could be, at least in part, because the phasing over from an old to the new qualification was still in progress in many institutions, and the numbers represent a new BEd rather than a total IPET enrolment increase. Enrolments during the period 2004 to 2006 represent an increase of 16%. All institutions except one, UNISA, offer the BEd in contact mode.⁵ The ratio of contact to distance-mode tuition decreased from 86:14 in 2004 to 79:21 in 2007, and this change indicates an 80% increase in distance-mode tuition over these four years, and a significantly lower rate of increase (12%) in contact-mode programmes. There needs to be caution in linking the relatively high increase in distance-mode enrolment with a corresponding increase in the supply of new teachers since no data are available to distinguish beginning teachers in the distance-mode cohort from teachers who are already employed in the system.

The year-on-year increase in total enrolments needs to be compared with the number of first-time enrolments during the same period, as shown in Table 5.3. In contrast to the increase in total enrolment, during the period 2004 to 2006 first-time enrolments actually showed a decrease of 7%.

Table 5.3: Total BEd first-time headcount enrolments, 2003–2006

2003	2004	2005	2006
5,139	6,858	6,277	6,374

Given the widely acknowledged shortfall in national teacher supply in relation to demand, this pattern of decreased first-time enrolment is a matter for concern. It is not possible to say exactly how many of the first-time enrolments are in the Foundation Phase because many programmes do not include their specialisation when reporting in HEMIS. However, for those that do (about 55% of all programmes) enrolment data show that over the same period there was a similar pattern of decline in Foundation Phase enrolments.

Table 5.4 shows the breakdown of total enrolment data in terms of race and gender, using 2006 data as the benchmark (because 2006 was the most recent year covered in programme reviews), Figure 5.1 shows enrolment by race, Figure 5.2 enrolment by gender, and Figure 5.3 enrolment by race and gender.

Table 5.4: BEd headcount enrolment by race and gender, 2006

	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Female	8,058	1,219	1,255	8,298
Male	4,420	464	208	1,780
Total	12,478	1,683	1,463	10,078

⁵ Assumption based on HEMIS data. In some cases distance students at contact institutions are not reported as distance.

Figure 5.1: BEd headcount enrolments by race

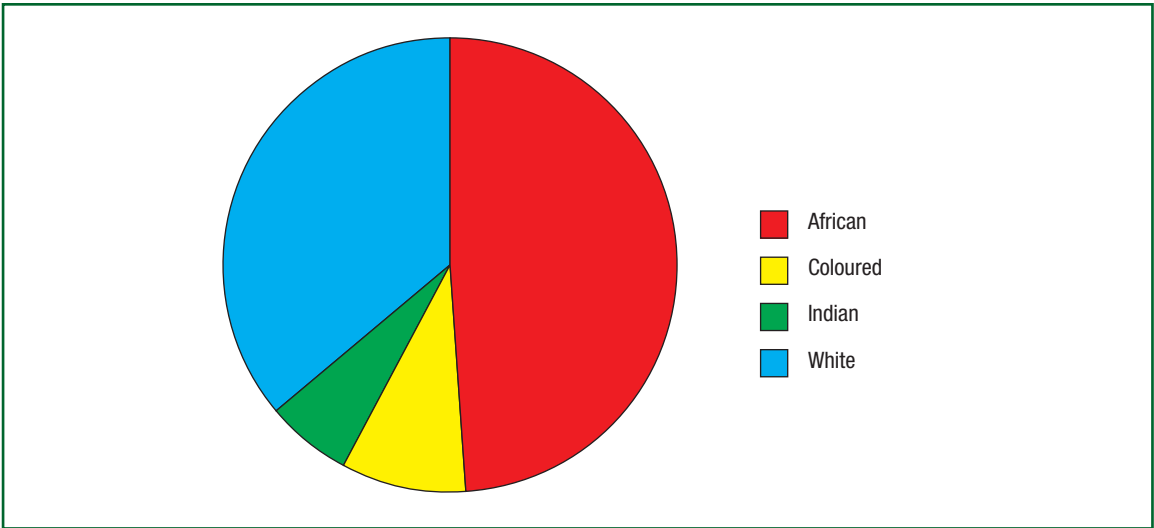


Figure 5.2: BEd headcount enrolment by gender

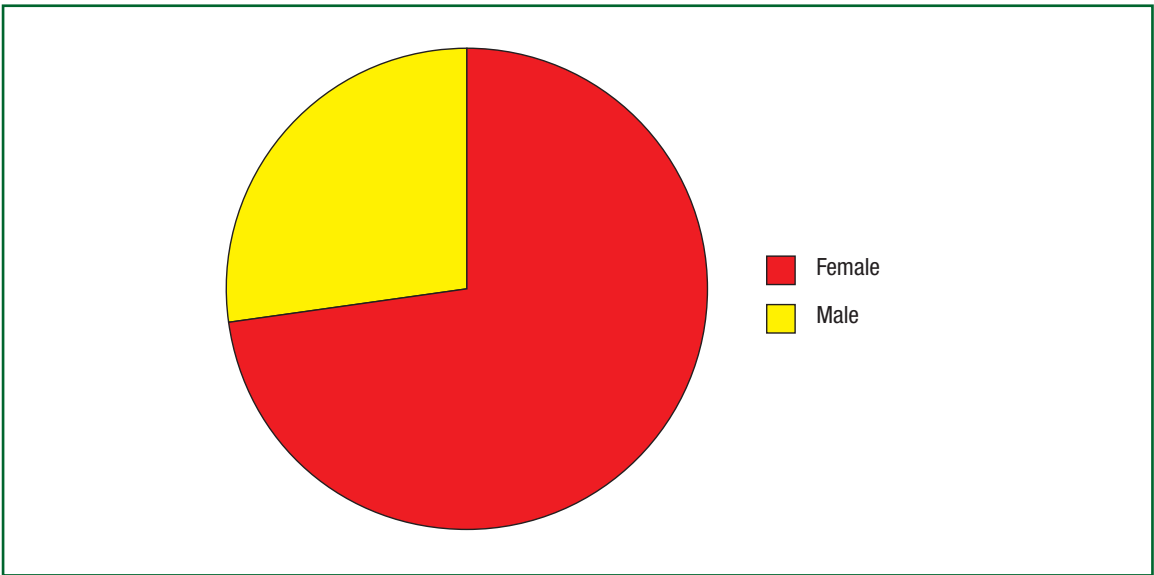
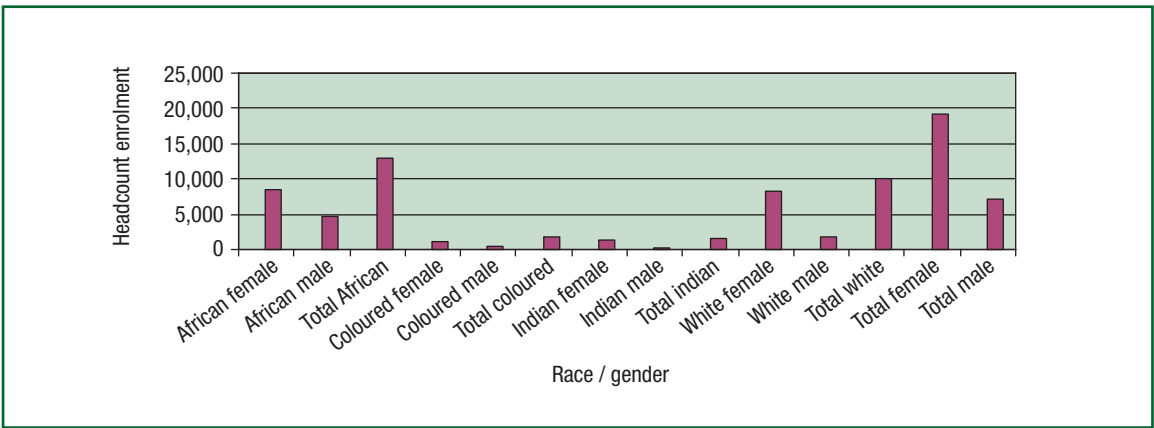


Figure 5.3: BEd headcount enrolments by race and gender, 2006



The data indicates that 49% of the total enrolment is African. This is well below the proportion of African-language learners in the school population. By contrast, enrolment of white students (40%) is well above the proportion of whites in the school population. Taking demand-side projections into account, these data are far from suggesting an over-supply for any particular

school demographic type. They suggest, rather, that achieving an enrolment profile that is capable of addressing the need for new teachers in the system (a profile that takes into account geographical distribution, school location and types, and learner needs) is a significant challenge for BEd programmes nationally, in terms of recruitment and graduation profiles.

The race and gender ratios raise an important question, which is the extent to which the teacher corps ought to represent the race and gender ratios of the national school population. Currently they do not. The 2006 BEd enrolment numbers show that 75% are female (of whom 44% are white). This is in line with the existing gender ratio in South African primary schools, but it does raise the question whether teacher–learner gender ratios of this order are wholly appropriate for all school phases, from the Foundation Phase to FET.

The figures show that there is a high female–male enrolment ratio (2.7:1) and that this high ratio is largely the result of even higher female–male ratios among Indian students (6.0:1) and white students (4.7:1). The female–male ratios are significantly lower for African students (1.8:1) and coloured students (2.6:1). The implications of these race and gender profiles should be of some importance to prospective employers, including the Provincial Education Departments. Although phase and teaching subject specialisations are the main drivers of post provision, the demographic categories would come into play if an appropriate balance between teacher and learner profiles were taken into account.

Headcount enrolments and graduation rates

Figures 5.4 to 5.6 show the relationship between BEd headcount enrolments and graduates from 2003 to 2006 in three forms: total enrolment and graduation data, by year; enrolment and graduation rates for African students; and enrolment and graduation rates by institutional type.

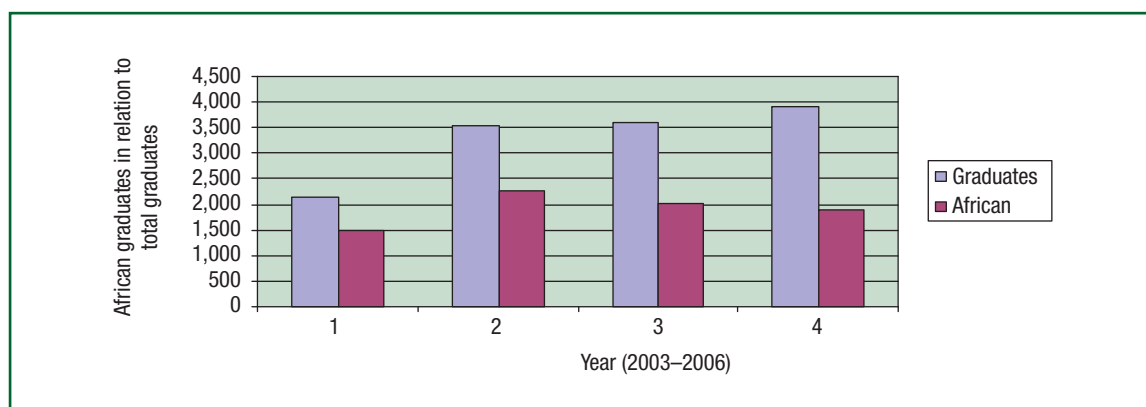
Figure 5.4: BEd enrolments and graduates: 2003–2006



The percentage of enrolled students graduating rose from 12.9% in 2003 to 15.9% in 2004, but after that declined to 14.9% in 2005 and to 12.9% in 2006. This is well below the Department of Education norm of 25% for an undergraduate degree, but that norm does not take into account fluctuations in total enrolment. A better measure of graduation rate would be a reliable cohort study, but that is not available. However, if a comparison of the 2003 first-time enrolment and the 2006 graduation numbers may be regarded as a reasonably accurate proxy for a cohort study for a four-year programme, then the resultant graduation rate for the sector of 76% is significantly in excess of the HEQC minimum standard of 66% graduating within five years. This would suggest that, whatever the weaknesses of the BEd programmes, these weaknesses are not reflected in the throughput. The more important questions are whether the graduation rates accurately reflect achievement of programme purpose, and whether standards appropriate for occupational training are being evaluated at the appropriate academic level.

Historical factors call for an enquiry into how the total rate of graduation compares, during the same period, with the rate of graduation of African students. This ratio is shown in Figure 5.5.

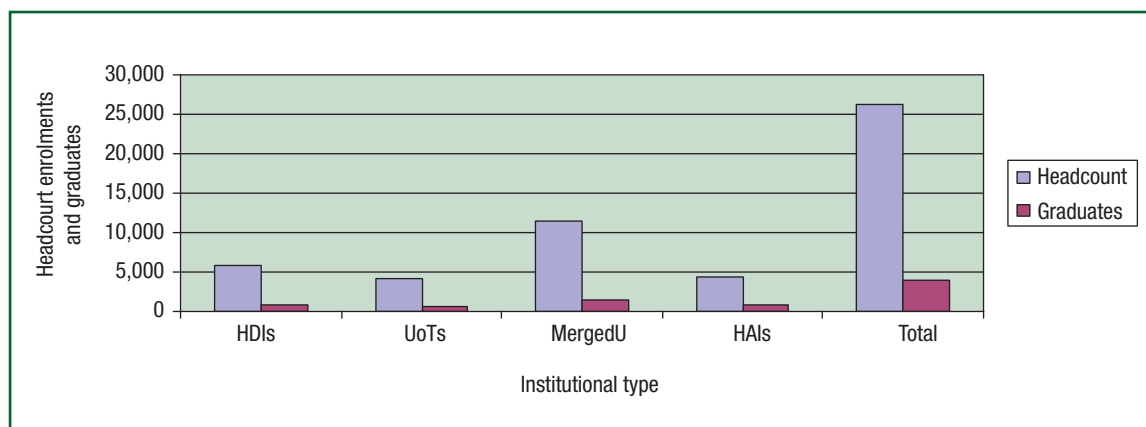
Figure 5.5: African graduates in relation to total graduates: 2003–2006



The decline in African graduates as a percentage of the total number of graduates is significantly steeper than the decline, indicated above, of the total graduates. Whereas in 2003, African graduates comprised 69.1% of the total graduate cohort, this percentage declined annually in the following three years (64.2% in 2004, 55.8% in 2005, and 48.1% in 2006).

The enrolment–graduation ratio can also be compared by institutional type, as shown in Figure 5.6. The HAI sector has the highest graduation rate (21.0%). The HDI rate is somewhat lower (16.1%), whereas UoTs and merged institutions lag by significant margins (13.1% and 13.4% respectively). Further investigation would be required to determine whether the differences are significant and, if so, what factors influence them.

Figure 5.6: Headcount enrolments and graduates by institutional type: 2006



No data exist to show how many graduates from the total cohort actually take up employment in schools, either upon graduation or at some time thereafter. Besides this problem of a lack of data to indicate the enrolment–employment ratio, the system has not yet developed effective means, via employer and school surveys, to measure the extent to which BEd graduates actually meet the needs of the school sector in terms of their capacity to deliver quality teaching and learning.

5.5.2 Distribution of BEd programmes according to province

It is difficult to get an accurate reading of the distribution of BEd students by province, for two main reasons: 1) distance-mode students (UNISA) cannot be taken into account; and 2) data for enrolment by province can serve only as an approximation of students' home province (as well as the province in which graduates will obtain employment). However, there is sufficient

unverified evidence to indicate a reasonably close correlation between province of study and home province, although there needs to be a caveat that students may study in one province to acquire employment in another. Because BEd enrolments comprise just over 85% of the combined IPET enrolment (BEd and PGCE), BEd data can provide a reasonable proxy for the regional correlation between IPET enrolment and the likely province of employment in general.

Contact-mode headcount enrolments by province, based on site of delivery, and by HEI, are shown in Figures 5.7 and 5.8.

Figure 5.7: Contact-mode headcount enrolment by province, based on site of delivery

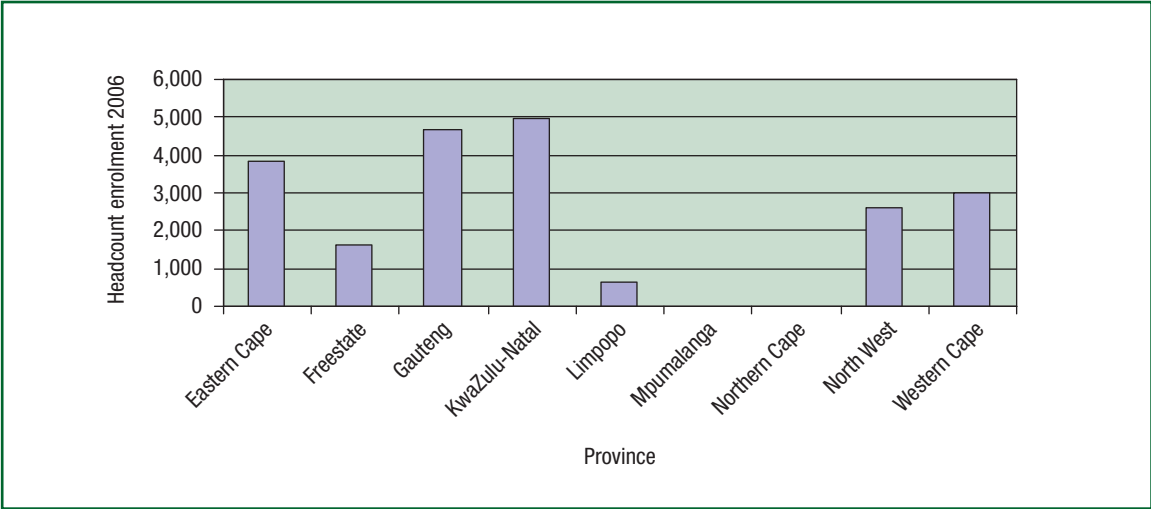
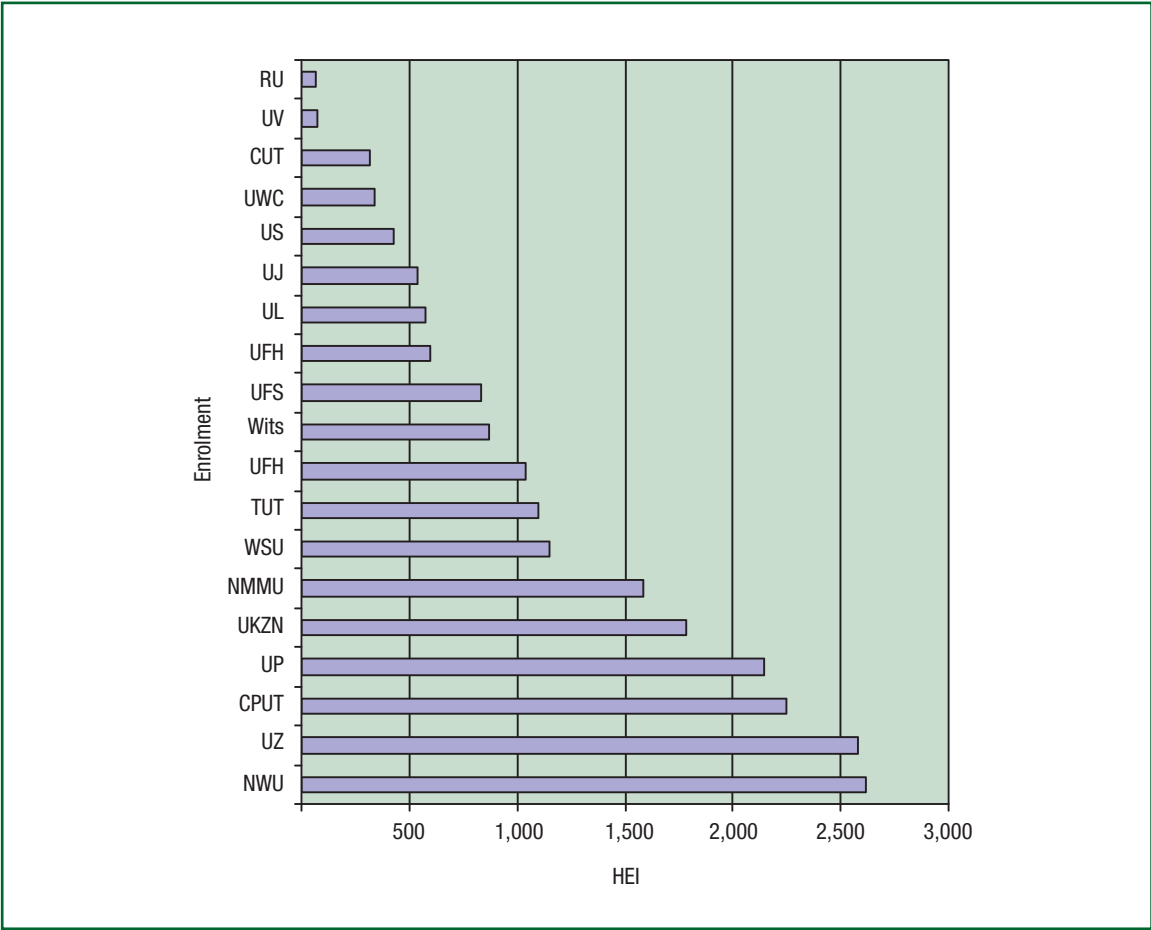


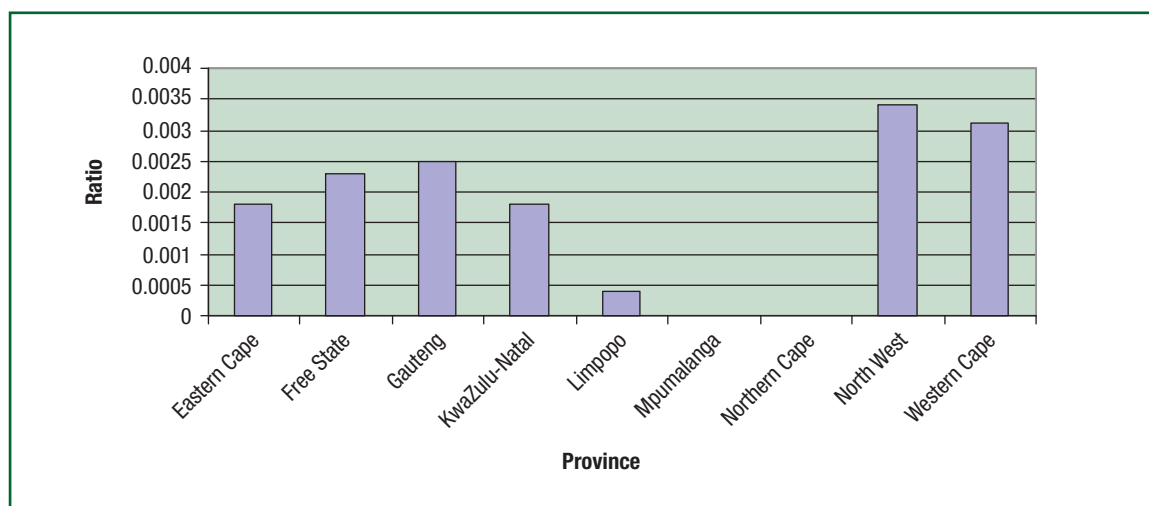
Figure 5.8: BEd contact-mode enrolments by HEI



On the basis of statistics published by the Department of Education, the BEd headcount enrolment can also be related to provincial needs, using the total school learner enrolment as a proxy for relative teacher demand. Figure 5.9 shows the ratio of 2006 BEd enrolments per province to the 2006 school population (DoE Education Statistics, 2006). Because this data is based on the site of delivery, it cannot indicate the province of likely employment. For example, there are students from Mpumalanga and Northern Cape who are enrolled in institutions located in other provinces. Because of the nil value for student enrolment in these provinces, the student–school population ratio cannot be indicated.

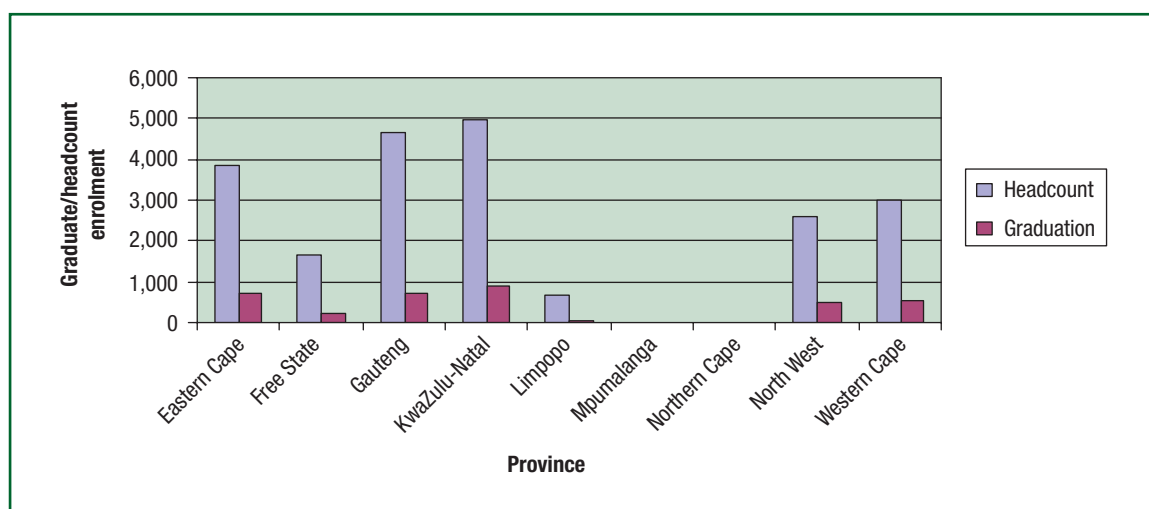
The figure shows that there is a very unequal distribution by province of student enrolments when compared with the number of learners currently in school. The shortfall is particularly acute in Limpopo (and, it appears, notwithstanding the comment above, in Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape), while the situation appears to be relatively less acute in provinces such as the North West, the Western Cape and Gauteng. At present, inadequate measures exist to address the provincial imbalances.

Figure 5.9: BEd headcount enrolments by province, as a ratio of total school learner population: 2006



The relationship between contact-mode headcount enrolments and graduation numbers by province, based on site of delivery, is shown in Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10: Contact-mode graduate numbers in relation to headcount enrolment, based on site of delivery



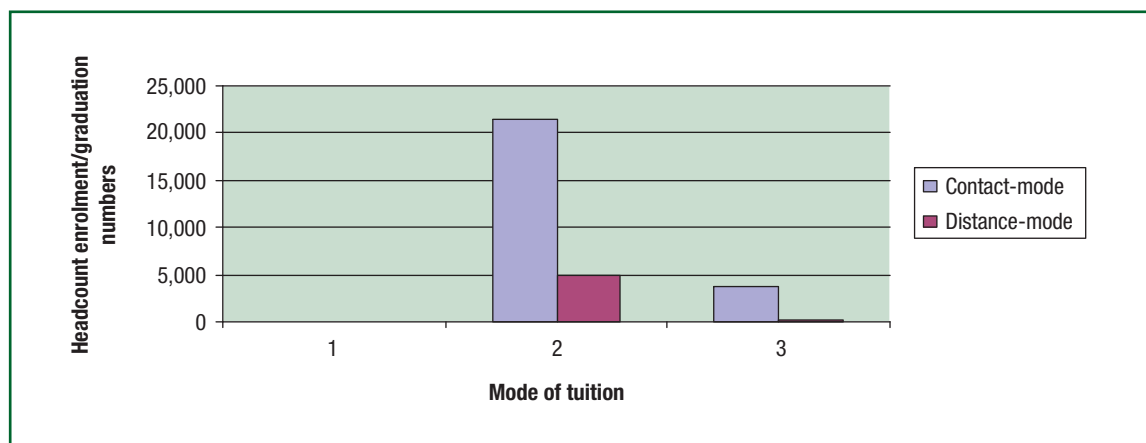
Provincial graduation rates vary considerably, as Table 5.5 shows. (Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape have no contact-mode sites of delivery included in HEMIS data.)

Table 5.5: Provincial graduation rates

Province	Rate
Eastern Cape	19.2%
Free State	12.6%
Gauteng	15.6%
KwaZulu-Natal	18.5%
Limpopo	9.3%
North West	18.5%
Western Cape	18.4%

Figure 5.11 shows the ratio of contact-mode to distance-mode headcount enrolment and graduation rates in 2006. The composite graduation rate for all contact-mode students is 17.3%, and for distance-mode students 4.6%. These figures make it clear that any evaluation of throughput rates for the BEd in the sector as a whole needs to be based on a refined differentiation between throughput expectations for contact and distance modes of study.

Figure 5.11: Contact- and distance-mode headcount enrolment and graduation number



HEMIS data does not allow for a reliable disaggregation of headcount enrolment and graduate data in terms of school phase and subject specialisation.

5.6 BEd programmes in the National Review

5.6.1 The scope of the Review

Eleven of the 15 BEd programmes that were reviewed are offered by universities, three by universities of technology, and one by a private institution (the Centre for Creative Education (CfCE), a Waldorf-oriented institution based in Cape Town). The intention of the HEQC Review was to focus on programmes specialising in the Foundation Phase. Of the 15 programmes reviewed, five were programmes specialising in school phases other than the Foundation Phase:

- Walter Sisulu University: FET Humanities
- University of Limpopo: Senior Phase/FET
- University of Johannesburg: Senior Phase
- Tshwane University of Technology: FET Economic and Management Sciences
- Durban University of Technology: FET Economic and Management Sciences

The absence of Foundation Phase programmes at these institutions indicates that the distribution

of these programmes across provinces is uneven. Table 5.6 shows the distribution of contact-mode programmes across provinces. The implications for the unevenness of provincial distribution of Foundation Phase providers becomes clear when this table is compared with the ratio of BEd enrolments to school population indicated in Figure 5.9 above.

Table 5.6: Distribution of contact-mode programmes across provinces

Province	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape
Institution	NMMU UFH	UFS	UP WITS*	UKZN UZ	–	– **	–	NWU*	US CPUT CfCE

* Not reviewed.

** The Ndebele College of Education (not reviewed) was instructed to take no new students into its programme in 2008.

Since the Review focused on the Foundation Phase, this chapter focuses on features that are specific to the ten Foundation Phase programmes, though referring to aspects of the non-Foundation Phase programmes where they may be regarded as features of a BEd programme for any school phase or subject specialisation.

From the information above it will be noted that only one university of technology (CPUT) offers a Foundation Phase programme. Two Foundation Phase programmes, offered by the North-West University and the University of the Witwatersrand, were not included in this BEd review cycle. It is significant that, prior to the introduction of the BEd from 2000 onwards, all eight universities offering a Foundation Phase specialisation had four-year integrated IPET programmes or had inherited such programmes as a result of the incorporation of colleges of education. A challenge for those institutions was the extent to which the BEd would reflect ‘a completely new way of designing teacher education in South Africa’ or would simply be a minor modification of an existing IPET programme. In cases, however, where a precursor IPET programme (B Prim Ed or HDE) was deemed to be a strong programme, the need for a radical overhaul would have been less pronounced.

5.6.2 Stated outcomes of the programmes (Foundation Phase programmes)

Institutional self-evaluation reports (SERs) described the main purpose of their programmes, usually as a response to Criterion 2 (Programme design). In most cases (all except two) where the purpose was specific to the programme, the primary purpose was described as the preparation of teachers for a particular school phase or teaching subject. These descriptions show that what one institution (CPUT) stated – that the training of novice teachers in the role of phase specialist is the ‘superordinate role into which other roles are integrated’ – is generally agreed on by all providers. Section 5.6.11 on page 100 comments on the extent to which this purpose informs the design features of programmes. Five institutions linked the preparation of phase or subject specialists with the purpose of addressing the shortage of specialists currently in the profession. The purpose of increasing the output of teachers was regarded as not only a quantitative but also a qualitative issue. Only two institutions complemented the primary purpose of their programmes with explicit reference to producing classroom practitioners who are well versed in a broader educational and professional context, and there was just one that included the personal development of the student in its stated programme purpose.

There was only one case (UFH) where the purpose of the BEd was stated as distinct from the purpose of alternative IPET routes such as the PGCE: ‘to cater for those wanting an educational focus from the outset of their studies’.

A selection of institutional descriptions of programme purpose is provided in Appendix 6.

This range of institutional statements suggests that the purpose of the programmes reviewed is to produce teachers who are primarily phase or subject specialists, rather than to equip graduates to adapt knowledge and skills to any other areas of the school or the curriculum. It also suggests that where a conceptual framework based on educational theory is included, it tends in many cases to be embedded (or assumed to be embedded) in the specialised focus. The specialisation boundaries are generally replicated in work-based learning; few Foundation Phase graduates, for example, are exposed to the challenges of teaching in the Intermediate Phase of the primary school. The same phase-specificity applies in most BEd programmes to Senior Phase and FET specialisation in the secondary school. Anecdotal evidence suggests, however, that many teachers are in fact requested, or choose, to cross these phase divisions. While persuasive arguments can be presented for phase-specific specialisation on the grounds that they represent distinct parallel phases of child development, it needs to be noted that BEd graduates are not formally prepared to cross the NCS phase (or learning area and subject) boundaries. It is also evident that the aim of producing agents of educational change and prospective educational leaders features in very few statements of programme purpose. In most cases the purpose of the BEd is deemed to be the training of efficient classroom practitioners.

The linking, in the statements of programme purpose, of phase specialisation to the need to address teacher shortages is based on the premise that the specialisations currently offered are in tune with specialised regional demand. In most provinces, however, insufficient data exists to enable either Departments of Education or provider institutions to ensure that the range and ratios of specialised supply are in fact addressing specialised demand.

5.6.3 Features of BEd programmes reviewed: Phase specialisations and enrolments

It was noted above that the number of students specialising in the Foundation Phase cannot be obtained from HEMIS. To give some sense of the actual scale of Foundation Phase enrolment, Table 5.7 shows data extracted from the institutional SERs. This data indicates that these 15 programmes had a total headcount enrolment of 6,205 students in the year of review.⁶ This means that, in effect, the Review covered programmes that serve just less than 25% of all students enrolled for this qualification.

Of the ten Foundation Phase programmes reviewed, two include an additional area of specialisation in Early Childhood Development (UNISA, UP), and three offer a dual-phase specialisation in the Foundation and Intermediate Phases (Grades R–7: UKZN, UZ, CfCE). Data submitted by institutions indicate that these ten Foundation Phase programmes had a total enrolment over the four-year period of study of 2,104 students studying in contact mode⁷ and 2,335 in distance mode (all at UNISA).

Table 5.7: Specialisations reviewed and headcount enrolments (data obtained from institutional SERs)

Institution	Specialisation	Year reported	Enrolments
CPUT (Wellington)	Foundation Phase	2006	415
DUT	FET (EMS)	2007	410
UFH (East London)	Foundation Phase	2006	82
UFS	Foundation Phase	2006	380

(continued)

⁶ Nine SERs reported enrolment data for 2006. Other enrolment data covers 2005 or 2007.

⁷ Note that this figure excludes Foundation Phase enrolments at the institutions not reviewed, namely NWU and Wits.

Institution	Specialisation	Year reported	Enrolments
UJ	Senior Phase	2006	535
UKZN	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	2006	34*
UL	Senior Phase and FET	2007	626
NMMU	Foundation Phase	2007	202
UP	Early Childhood Development and Foundation Phase	2006	618
UNISA	Early Childhood Development and Foundation Phase	2006	2,335
US	Foundation Phase	2005	295
TUT (Soshanguve)	FET (EMS)	2007	702
WSU	FET (Humanities)	2006	381
UZ	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	2005	267
CfCE	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	2006	61

*UKZN: First-year enrolments only

5.6.4 Overall re-accreditation outcomes

The outcomes of the BEd reviews are summarised in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Re-accreditation outcomes

Institution	Programme	Site of delivery	Outcome
CPUT	Foundation Phase	Wellington	Conditional accreditation
DUT	FET (EMS)	Indumiso	Conditional accreditation: on notice of withdrawal
UFH	Foundation Phase	East London	Full accreditation
UFS	Foundation Phase	Bloemfontein	Conditional accreditation
UJ	Senior Phase	Johannesburg	Full accreditation
UKZN	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	Edgewood	Full accreditation
UL	Senior Phase and FET	Polokwane	Conditional accreditation: on notice of withdrawal
NMMU	Foundation Phase	Port Elizabeth	Full accreditation
UP	Early Childhood Development and Foundation Phase	Pretoria	Full accreditation
UNISA	Early Childhood Development and Foundation Phase	Pretoria	Conditional accreditation
US	Foundation Phase	Stellenbosch	Full accreditation
TUT	FET (EMS)	Soshanguve	Conditional accreditation
WSU	FET (Humanities)	Mthatha	Conditional accreditation: on notice of withdrawal
UZ	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	KwaDlangezwa	Conditional accreditation: on notice of withdrawal
CfCE	Foundation and Intermediate Phases	Cape Town	Conditional accreditation

5.6.5 Re-accreditation summary

A summary of final decisions on the BEd programmes reviewed is shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Summary of final decisions

Decision	Number
Full accreditation	6
Conditional accreditation	5
Conditional accreditation: programme on notice of withdrawal	4

Five of the six programmes that were granted full accreditation and four of the five that were granted conditional accreditation specialise in the Foundation Phase. Only one of the four that are on notice of withdrawal is a Foundation Phase programme.

At the time of writing, institutions that were granted conditional accreditation or conditional accreditation on notice of withdrawal were still in the process of responding to the decisions of the HEQC Board, and the final status of these programmes had not yet been determined. However, the effect of withdrawal of these programmes that are on notice would be significant, for two reasons: it would affect the regional distribution and the national profile of enrolments of IPET enrolments. According to information provided in institutional self-evaluation reports (SERs), the programmes on notice of withdrawal comprise 27% of the total enrolment in programmes included in the review process. The quantitative implications of these decisions are beyond the scope of the HEQC qualitative review process, but they may be important for the planning of IPET provision.

5.6.6 Accreditation ratings for individual criteria

Tables 5.10 and 5.11 and Figures 5.12 and 5.13 compare, criterion by criterion, how the institutions rated their programme quality in their SERs with how the HEQC Review panels rated them. Figure 5.14 compares both sets of ratings in one graph.

Table 5.10: Institutions' self-evaluation ratings by HEQC criterion

Rating	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	Total
C		2	2		4	3	1	8	1	3	24
MMS	15	12	13	12	11	12	14	5	12	11	117
NI		1		3				2	2	1	9
DNC											0

Table 5.11: Review panel ratings of institutions by HEQC criterion

Rating	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	Total
C						2		2		1	5
MMS	12	7	12	11	11	5	10	10	10	7	95
NI	2	6	3	2	3	7	4	3	4	7	41
DNC	1	2		2	1	1	1		1		9

Figure 5.12: Institutions' self-evaluation ratings by HEQC criteria

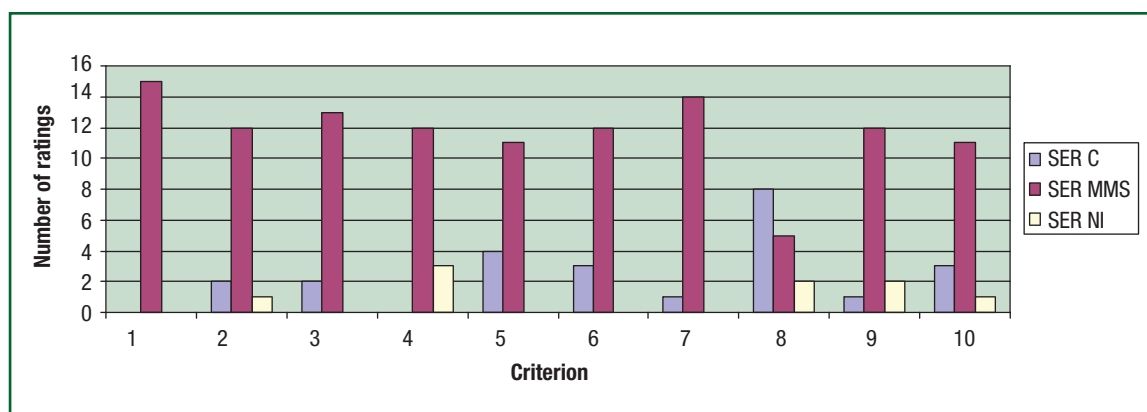


Figure 5.13: Review panel ratings of institutions by HEQC criteria

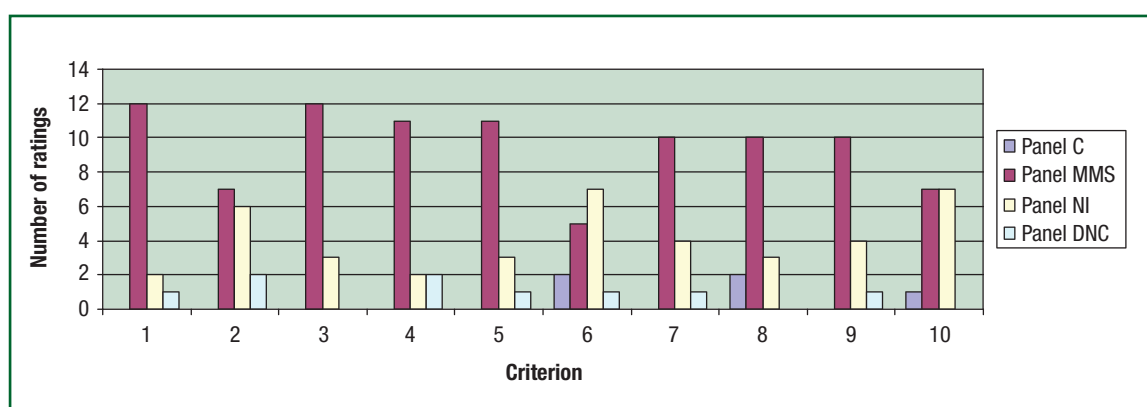
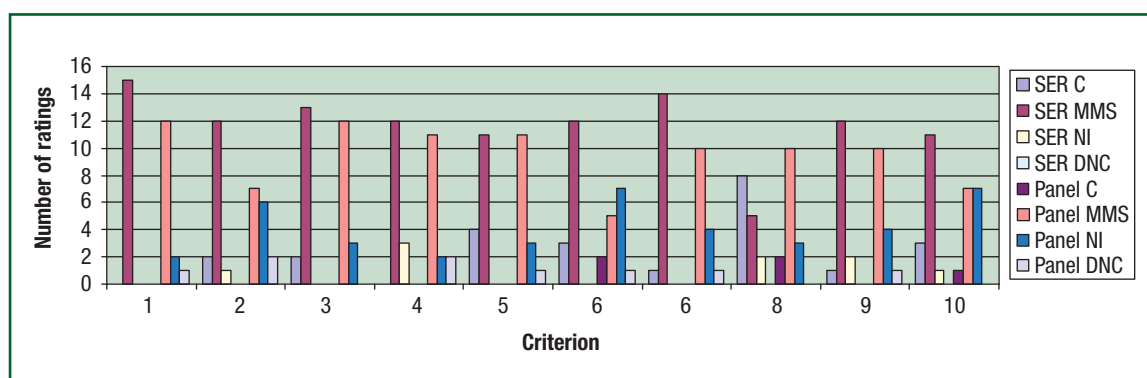


Figure 5.14: SER and panel ratings by HEQC criteria



Note: C = commend; MMS = meets minimum standards; NI = needs improvement; DNC = does not comply

It is probably not surprising that there should be a difference between self-evaluation and Review panel evaluation in the sector-wide ratings – besides being a process of quality assurance, the Review was also an exercise in compliance, and some institutions appear to have regarded compliance as the major factor. What is perhaps more significant is the scale of the difference. Whereas institutions rated themselves as needing improvement or not complying with minimum standards in terms of specific criteria in only nine instances, Review panels identified no less than 50 instances of aspects of programmes either needing improvement (NI) or not complying with the minimum standards (DNC). The difference may be at least in part because institutions find it difficult to establish, in anticipation of a sectoral standard and in isolation from other institutions, an evaluative benchmark for each minimum standard and for each criterion. The

large discrepancy between self- and panel evaluation calls into question the BEd programme teaching community's current ability to establish benchmarks of quality provision with sufficient precision. One of the intended outcomes of the Review was to establish benchmarks of quality in BEd programmes. One of the aims of this report is to contribute to the debate about what factors affect the achievement of such benchmarks.

It is significant that in self-evaluation ratings the highest number of 'Commend' ratings, a total of 8, was for Infrastructure and Library Resources (Criterion 8), which, while important, may be regarded as somewhat less crucial to the quality of programme delivery than certain other criteria. This contrasts with the limited number of commendations in areas that can be considered critical for such quality: Teaching and Learning, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, and Programme Review (Criteria 5, 6 and 10).

The Review panel 'Commend' ratings place Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning and Infrastructure and Library Resources (Criteria 6 and 8) as the ones with relatively strong features in the sector as a whole, but at a very reduced level of excellence when compared with the institutions' self-evaluations. Review panels found no instances of commendable practice in the area of Teaching and Learning (Criterion 5). (A possible reason for this is that, for contact-mode programmes with a high level of oral delivery, this criterion is probably less amenable than other criteria to out-of-class evaluation.) But perhaps of greatest concern is the fact that, based on an aggregate of NI and DNC ratings, the Review panels found that the areas of greatest weakness are Programme Design, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning and Programme Review (Criteria 2, 6 and 10 – the last-mentioned including the issue of reflection on purpose and professional relevance), with Student Assessment and Student Retention and Throughput (Criteria 7 and 9) being not far behind. These criteria are arguably at the core of appropriateness and responsiveness of the programme.

Another important factor is that most institutions, as their SERs show, regarded the Review not only as an external review but also, and perhaps more importantly, as a challenging process of self-reflection and, in some cases, as a way of mobilising re-commitment on the part of staff and students to the purpose, aims and quality of the programme under review. During the period of review, many institutions found themselves in a complex and often fraught transformational environment, often underscored by significant restructuring if not reduction of staff. There was therefore arguably more need to enhance staff morale by means of a relatively positive self-evaluation of their programme than there would have been had the Review taken place at a time of institutional and staffing stability.

The differences in the overall ratings for criteria that significantly affect formal compliance and measurable data (National, Institutional and Unit Context; Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection; Staffing; and Infrastructure and Library Resources – Criteria 1, 3, 4 and 8) are small compared with the other criteria. But the differences in ratings for the criteria that focus on the core of the programme and are central to quality provision – Criterion 2 (Programme Design), Criterion 5 (Teaching and Learning), Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-Based Learning) and Criterion 7 (Student Assessment) – are noticeably larger. These criteria are the ones most commonly identified as covering areas in need of improvement and most frequently referred to in recommendations made by the panel and the short-term and long-term conditions that panels proposed.

These differences between per-criterion ratings may give the impression that, in most cases, the physical and human resources are in place for adequate, even better-than-adequate, provision and that quality provision is compromised only by flaws in the conceptual and professional framework in which the programme is delivered.

The report will suggest that this scenario is far from being the case. Although the highest number of conditions affect design, coordination and assessment, these areas are followed quite closely by conditions that relate to staff (staff development, research output, orientation of part-time staff, provision of workload models and equity). This suggests that some significant problems are being experienced in the provision of the human resources that are needed to ensure quality.

5.6.7 The conditions set for re-accreditation

For the eight programmes subject to conditions, a combined total of 104 conditions were set. Table 5.12 shows the main review criteria to which these conditions, both short term and long term, refer.

Table 5.12: Criteria conditions

Criterion	Percentage of the total conditions set
6: Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning	23%
2: Programme Design	19%
7: Student Assessment	13%
4: Staffing	13%

The conditions may be grouped into three categories, irrespective of the criteria to which they relate or whether they are considered short term or long term. The first category is administration and communication (A), which includes registration of programmes, information about the programme in marketing materials and communication with students, and information about funding opportunities. The second is systems and management (B), particularly systems for collecting, storing and managing information, ensuring effective workload allocation, coordinating the programme, and managing work-based learning. The third is fundamental changes (C), which means changes required in programme design and curriculum, staff involvement in research and scholarly activities (a culture of research), the number of students supported in the programme, and support for ‘at-risk’ students.

Although all three categories are important, the changes required to meet the conditions in the third category are likely to take more time or need more resource allocation, or both, and to be more complex to implement than those required to meet the other conditions. There may be some argument about which category some conditions belong to, but this categorisation does make it possible to compare the type of conditions assigned to programmes. This categorisation of conditions is also based more on the degree of change needed for the institution to meet the condition than on the criteria or minimum standard that was not met initially. In this way, the analysis presented in this report looks at the expectations, the burden placed on institutions in order to meet all conditions set by the HEQC. This is useful for identifying whether some institutions were more heavily burdened than others in terms of the type of changes required. For example, one institution might be asked merely to make changes to marketing material, while another might be asked to hire new staff and redesign its curriculum. This is not to suggest that fulfilling some of the conditions is not feasible or that they are not essential, but to fulfil some of the more complex conditions might require more time and different support, and the degree of success achievable might be different.

The conditions that caused the most concern were in the area of systems and management of programmes, as Figure 5.15 shows, although the proportion in fundamental changes was also large. This suggests that, to meet the conditions set by the HEQC, the institutions will have to

make significant changes that will involve setting up new systems, redesigning the curriculum, dealing with staffing problems, and creating programmes to support ‘at risk’ students. This list highlights the critical nature of the conditions.

Figure 5.15: BEd conditions

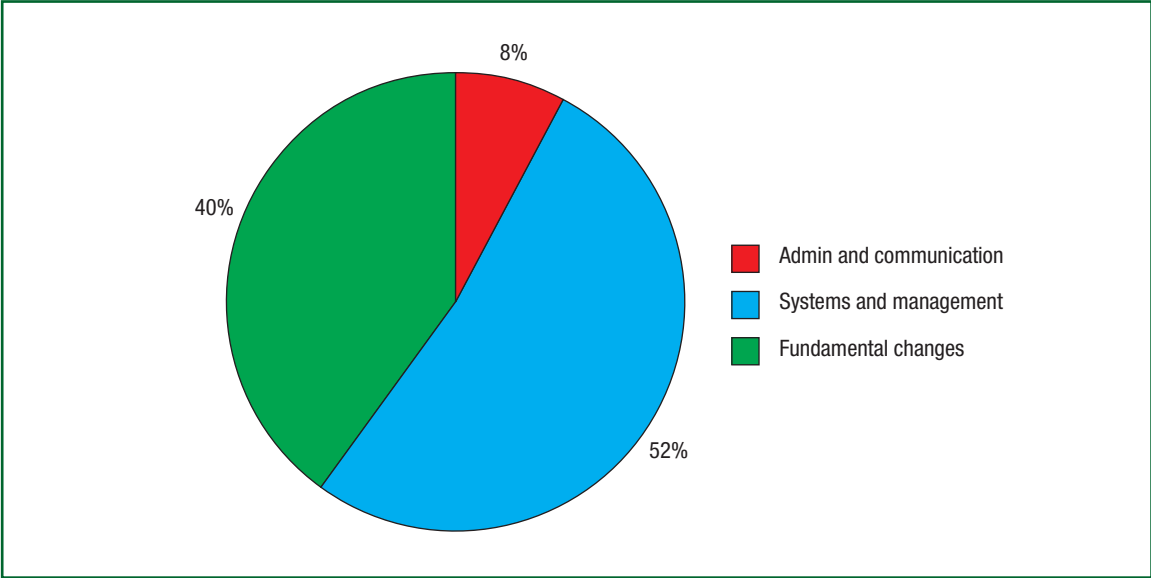
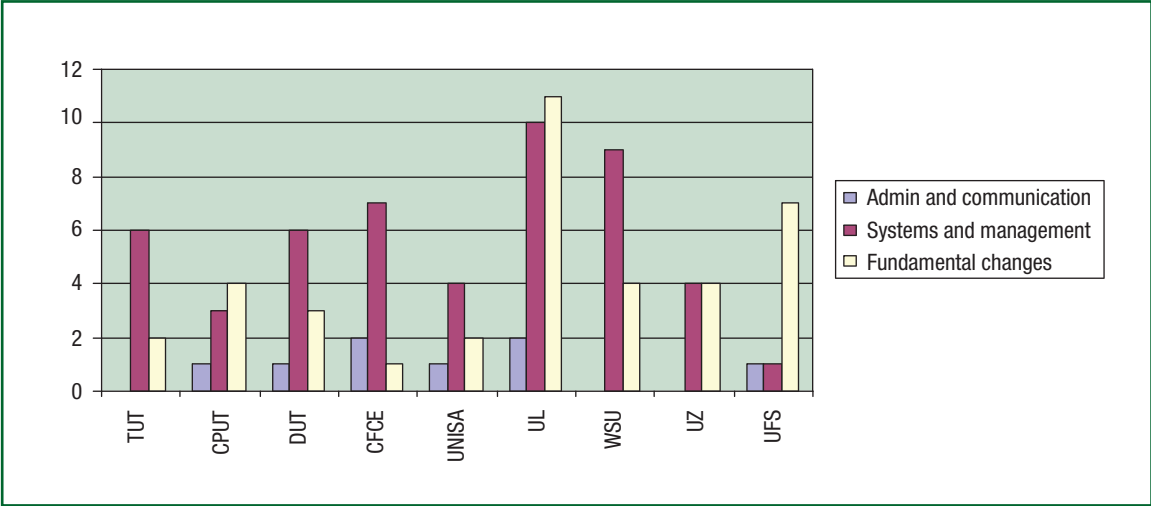


Figure 5.16 shows the institutions granted accreditation with conditions or accreditation with conditions on notice of withdrawal of accreditation. It is clear from this graph that there are huge disparities between institutions in terms of how many conditions they are asked to meet and the type of changes that will be required if they are to meet these conditions.

Figure 5.16: BEd conditions per category by institution



5.6.8 Broad trends based on ratings and conditions

The following discussion of the most significant issues arising from the National Review is arranged according to the three categories of conditions and the HEQC panel ratings by criterion as shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Broad trends

Category	Criterion	Aspects addressed
A: Administration and communication	1	The institutional context
	3	Student matters: admission, enrolment planning, recruitment, student profile, throughput and graduation rates
B: Systems and management	4	Staffing matters: programme needs, staff qualifications, teaching and research profiles, workloads, involvement in work-based learning
C: Fundamental change	2	Programme design
	6	Programme coordination
	10	Programme review
	5	The effects of programme design on teaching and learning
	7	The effects of programme design on assessment policy and practice

5.6.9 Administration and communication

Features of the national context that affect programme performance include, among others,

- the enormous change in the structural location of teacher education;
- the wave of institutional mergers and the implications of these for leadership instability in faculties and institutions more broadly and for institutional policy frameworks (e.g. financing, workloads); and
- the fact that the qualification framework for teacher education specifically and the sector more broadly is in a state of flux.

Institutional factors provide the context for features critical to the success of teacher education programmes. The restructuring of the higher education landscape has meant some years of institutional instability in merging institutions with institutional policy frameworks in various stages of completion. For a number of Faculties of Education that were restructured as a result of mergers or incorporations, the scale of resource allocation to teacher education was unclear, the workload policy was not finalised, and the provision of accurate feedback on enrolment, retention and throughput was a common problem because of institutional difficulties in managing information systems.

It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the timing of the incorporation of the colleges, coming as it did during a period of internal institutional restructuring, was in many cases not conducive to immediate engagement with the challenges of helping former college staff bridge the gap between the professional preparation of teachers that had been their primary obligation and their new obligations of HEI research and teaching. Faculties absorbed programmes and some staff in a new qualification dispensation and few institutions were in a position to give sufficient attention to providing adequate resources to help academic staff improve their qualifications and become research active. At the same time, teaching loads have been onerous and the specific resource requirements of teaching practice supervision grossly underestimated.

It appears, furthermore, that teacher education is not a resource priority in many HEIs. In some cases, inadequate resourcing for teacher education programmes was observed to have had a negative effect on programme delivery. While in some cases, the weakness of programme design is arguably more of an obstacle to effective delivery than inadequate allocation of resources, in

others the incapacity to deliver a quality programme has its origins in an institutional context that does not adequately support programme delivery.

A key institutional feature that differs from one institution to another is the role of academic disciplines other than education and curriculum/pedagogy/didactics in teacher preparation. The differences seem to be determined more by historical contexts than by clear curriculum principles. The simplest expression of the dichotomy is that the subject-specific disciplines are sometimes taught with an education focus within the Faculty of Education to teacher education students, and sometimes by sister faculties or schools where education students are taught together with non-education students. There are several cases where unresolved issues relating to the locus of curriculum responsibility have serious implications for programme quality. The centrality of subject knowledge in teacher education requires that institutional arrangements ensure the disciplinary credibility of 'academic majors' in teacher education programmes.

5.6.9.1 Admission procedures and enrolment planning

Admission requirements vary across institutions, but the general pattern of admission is that students who meet the requirements for the programme are accepted without professional screening. In many cases, the BEd programme has lower entrance requirements than other programmes, which means that weaker students are attracted to the BEd programme, some through the Senate Discretionary route, with consequent concerns being expressed by a number of institutions about the implications of this practice for pass and graduation rates.

The low-entrance requirements are necessitated by the inadequate student numbers and the drive to increase enrolment, not only to serve the interests of the profession but also to sustain this resource-intensive programme. As a result of these two institutional impulses, sometimes too few students are accepted for the BEd programme, and sometimes too many. Institutions receiving fewer applicants than they have the capacity to admit or having difficulties in recruiting applicants said that this is because there is a negative view of teaching, and one said that African students surveyed at its careers day cited poor conditions and violence in schools as a disincentive to enter the profession.

At some institutions the number of students admitted is higher than the faculty's carrying capacity, yet further growth is planned for because of institutional pressures to increase subsidy income. Students are admitted beyond capacity with 'no quotas' to limit the intake. The result is a mismatch between staffing capacity and enrolment, which causes human and physical resources to be overloaded at five institutions – all of which have been placed on notice for withdrawal of accreditation. It must be noted that these two scenarios seem to follow the profile of HAIs on one hand and HDIs on the other.

5.6.9.2 Student recruitment and the student profile

The reviews confirmed the findings of the available data: at many institutions the student population remains largely homogeneous. At five of the institutions reviewed the student profile was predominantly white female, and only 17% of the students overall at the institutions reviewed were African.

While the institutions stated their commitment to achieving a more representative student profile that would match the profession's needs and particularly to redressing racial imbalances, and were making some efforts to address the issue (in the form of recruitment in several provinces and targeted bursaries), there was not much evidence of identifiable strategies with targets and plans to recruit from diverse population groups. In the context of national policy for teaching and learning in the home language, this issue is of particular importance in the Foundation Phase. Redressing the discrepancies between IPET graduates' language competence and Foundation Phase learners' needs is a matter that requires concerted interaction between HEI providers on the one hand and national and Provincial Education Departments on the other. This interaction

needs to take into account two factors: in the case of providers, appropriate recruitment and selection strategies; in the case of employers, accurate analysis of specialised demand.

5.6.9.3 *Systems and management: staff*

- *Representivity of staff*

Generally, HEIs have not yet been able to escape the racial patterns of staffing profiles of the past, although most reported various efforts in this regard. Some were able to report modest progress, while others reported that this remains an ongoing concern. In some cases, gender inequity was also identified as a concern, among Foundation Phase staff complements in particular.

- *Staff academic qualifications*

From the information available, the pattern of qualifications of staff teaching on these programmes appears to be as follows:

1. At four institutions more than 70% of the full-time staff have qualifications at NQF Level 7 and above.
2. At three institutions between 60 and 70% of the full-time staff have qualifications at NQF Level 7 and above.
3. At two institutions less than 60% of the full-time staff have qualifications at NQF Level 7 and above.

This suggests that the level of staff qualification across the sector as a whole is generally low (the reason for this being again related to the history of teacher education and the process of its incorporation into universities) and in need of urgent attention at a number of institutions. It is crucial that institutions focus their energies on upgrading their academic staff qualifications and support this strategy with a complementary research strategy for the specific education faculty or unit.

- *Programme-specific staffing needs*

The panel reports indicate that, on the whole, the staff of BEd programmes are balanced in terms of the range of disciplinary fields, the phase or learning programme specialisations offered, the numbers of students in each, and the practical and theoretical components of the BEd. However, several institutions said it was difficult to find replacement staff with the appropriate professional and academic qualifications and experience, particularly in terms of equity.

- *Scholarly activity of staff*

It was also reported that staff teaching on the BEd generally have limited opportunity to engage in scholarly activity, research and other forms of structured inquiry. Within the sector, research engagement was generally poor and was identified as an area in need of improvement at eight institutions. It was more the exception than the rule for scholarly activity to be reported as adequate. There was only one case of a panel commendation for staff research output, although this did not translate into a 'Commend' rating for the relevant criterion as a whole.

- *Staff workloads and development opportunities*

Most institutions reported unhappiness with work allocation, with some alarming accounts of excessive workloads. Several panel reports identify this as a significant hindrance to the achievement of acceptable quality in the programme. In some of the best cases, workloads are described in terms such as 'reasonable but full'. Few institutions have formal workload policies in place.

5.6.10 Work-based learning (teaching practice)

This is a very uneven area and represents a significant challenge to quality in the sector. The professional integrity of many programmes is compromised by the poor conceptualisation and management of the work-based experience. The core of the problem is inadequate resourcing of this function within resource allocation models. Work-based learning showed a wide range of performance across institutions and was the area in which there was the greatest discrepancy between self-assessments and panel assessments. This reflects the great range of practices across institutions and the lack of a sectoral consensus regarding quality issues in work-based learning.

Eight institutions that considered their programme coordination and work-based learning practices met minimum standards or were commendable were judged by Review panels to need improvement or not to comply. This is clearly an area that requires extensive discussion in the sector. The issues that were raised can be divided into two categories: relationships with schools and school-based mentors; and the design, monitoring and assessment of teaching practice.

5.6.10.1 Minimum standards for relationships between HEIs, schools and school-based mentors

The following weaknesses were found to a greater or lesser extent across the sector:

1. Lack of clear frameworks for the responsibilities of school-based mentors.
2. Lack of common understanding of mentoring and assessment rubrics.
3. Lack of structured programmes of induction and support for school-based mentors.
4. Limited value attached to assessment by school mentors.
5. Lack of administrative support to manage the relationship with schools.

5.6.10.2 Minimum standards for design, monitoring and assessment of work-based learning

There were also a number of problems with the preparation, supervision and assessment of students doing teaching practice, the most significant being:

1. Lack of direction to ensure that students experience a range of learning environments during the course of their training; many students reproduce their own set of schooling experiences in their work-based learning.
2. At many institutions students have to identify schools and arrange their own placement, often without guidance or assistance from the institution.
3. Inadequate evaluation of the suitability of schools selected by students as sites for practical experience.
4. Lack of human resources to enable academic staff to visit students on teaching practice with sufficient frequency and duration.
5. As a result largely of a lack of human resources, generally inadequate professional supervision of students on teaching experience.
6. Lack of systems to monitor student performance over successive years of study, with appropriate attention to year-by-year progression in outcomes and assessment standards.

With regard to point 1 above, in many cases there is a tension between the need for students to experience a variety of school contexts and the tendency to select ‘convenience’ schools (where selection is largely influenced by the comfort of familiarity, transport and travel issues, and the need for effective allocation of tutor resources). This becomes a particular problem, for both students and tutors, when the experience of diverse school contexts depends on long and time-consuming journeys.

Many institutions prefer to allocate students to schools that are known to provide committed and effective mentoring. The benefit of this approach to the professional development of the student is indisputable, yet it is in some cases offset by a lack of contextual diversity in the total experience of students and tutors alike. Much of the problem results from inadequate allocation of resources. On the one hand, there is the issue of financial allocation – travel costs alone make effective and well-supervised teaching practice a relatively expensive unit in an IPET programme. On the other hand, there is the issue of staff workloads – due recognition must be given to the centrality of tutoring on teaching practice to the overall quality of the programme, while at the same time ensuring that other programmes offered by the faculty are not compromised.

5.6.11 Programme design features

Along with Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning), Criterion 2 (Programme Design) had the lowest range of panel ratings (7 MMS, 6 NI, 2 DNC). The SERs, and especially the panel reports, indicate that the greatest problems in programme design result from institutions' incapacity to meet minimum standards of internal coherence, alignment with purpose, and intellectual credibility in terms of the relationship between theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge. Taken together, these minimum standards represent the intellectual, professional and experiential features of design that ensure that a programme is of high quality, relevant, and appropriately integrated.

No institution received a 'Commend' rating or a commendatory comment for programme design. However, as Table 5.14 shows, Criterion 2 features significantly in the short-term and long-term conditions and recommendations for improvement identified by Review panels.

Table 5.14: Programme design in Review panel summary evaluations

	Programme design commended	Programme design included in short-term conditions	Programme design included in long-term conditions	Recommendations for improvement in programme design
Number	0	1	7	3

Many of the recurring strengths and weaknesses of BEd programme design were found at the three institutions referred to as X, Y and Z in Table 5.15. These three programmes were selected for comparison because all three specialise in the Foundation Phase and are taught in contact mode. Interestingly, the self-evaluation and panel ratings for Criterion 2 for these programmes cover the full range. Table 5.16 sums up the main points the SERs and panel reports made about design features and programme structure at these three institutions, and Sections 5.6.11.1 to 5.6.11.4 discuss them in more detail.

Table 5.15: Strengths and weaknesses in three programmes

Institution	X	Y	Z
SER rating	Commend	MMS	MMS
Panel rating	MMS	NI	DNC

Table 5.16: Strengths and weaknesses

Institution	X	Y	Z
Design features	<p>Developed from NSE, with focus on Foundation Phase underpinned by strong subject and educational theory</p> <p>Coherence evident</p> <p>Competence goes beyond the minimum requirements for Foundation Phase</p>	<p>Points of departure are the 7 roles of NSE and the phase specialisation</p> <p>Curriculum driven by teaching practice needs</p> <p>Rationale for the design is unclear</p> <p>Lack of coherence</p> <p>No evidence of theoretical underpinning or critical framework</p>	<p>Design based on the SGB matrix but rationale is opaque. No clear reference to NSE</p> <p>Departmental profiles predominate over programme needs</p> <p>No internal coherence, and no fitness of purpose, minimal relevance to preparation of teachers</p> <p>Little emphasis on pedagogical content knowledge</p> <p>Considerable repetition and overlap of outcomes</p>
Programme structure (numbers of phase-specific modules are approximations based on module titles)	<p>35 modules, of which 45% are phase-specific</p> <p>Teaching practice is credit-bearing: 28 weeks over all 4 years (block periods complemented with days-per-week)</p>	<p>75 modules, of which 77% are phase-specific</p> <p>Only 'preparation' for teaching practice is credit-bearing</p> <p>Teaching practice: 16 weeks over all 4 years (block periods)</p>	<p>50 modules, of which 8% are phase-specific</p> <p>Teaching practice absent from programme design and not credit-bearing: 16 weeks over all 4 years</p>
Programme coordination	<p>Bulk of programme offered and coordinated by a specialised Foundation Phase Studies Department</p>	<p>Programme offered across 5 departments in the school, with 25% of modules offered outside the School</p> <p>Departments responsible for content and Programme Director for quality</p>	<p>Programme not offered 'collaboratively'</p> <p>Various HoDs responsible for monitoring</p>
Programme review and development	<p>First curriculum (2000) has been twice modified and consolidated</p>	<p>Curriculum developed 1998–2000, replacing former B Prim Ed</p> <p>No evidence of subsequent development</p>	<p>First offered 2001</p> <p>No evidence of subsequent development</p>

5.6.11.1 Design features

Institution X demonstrates some of the most important features of stronger programmes. While being informed by and developed out of the existing regulatory framework of the NSE, it ensures that the educator roles and competences are underpinned by strong subject content and educational theory. These aspects of the programme are interlinked to ensure coherence in the programme as a whole, while intellectual, professional and experiential knowledge are integrated through a clearly reasoned design across all four years of study that ensures differentiation between and progression from foundational modules to increasingly specialised areas of knowledge. The purpose of the programme is to take students to a level of educational competence that goes beyond the immediate needs of the Foundation Phase practitioner.

The other two programmes, by contrast, do not meet the minimum standards for appropriateness, and are weak in different ways. Institution Y in effect takes the NSE (the prescribed roles and competences) as its exclusive point of departure, and the experiential needs of students to

engage in Teaching Practice as the most important basis for programme design. The result is a programme that lacks a clear rationale and coherence. Practice is weakly supported by a theoretical underpinning and critical reflection on practice and the competences that are being applied. Institution Z, on the other hand, gives little evidence of any significant links to the educator roles, and the specialist role in particular. Reliance on the SGB matrix of foundational, core and elective components fails to have any positive effect on the programme's coherence or the relevance to its purpose: the preparation of well-grounded Foundation Phase specialists. Lack of articulation between modules and integration of learning outcomes results in a programme that falls short in pedagogical content knowledge and exhibits considerable overlap and repetition.

In most cases where significant flaws have been identified in programme design, those flaws can largely be attributed to the absence of a coherent conceptual framework. Regulatory matrices often stand in for a conceptual framework. In some cases (such as Institution Y), the seven roles of the educator set out in the NSE are taken as the basic intellectual principles on which a programme is grounded. In other cases (such as Institution Z), fundamental, core and elective credit allocations are taken directly from the SGB and presented as the programme's founding principle. Even the overarching application of outcomes-based education (OBE) is taken by some staff members in one institution as the underlying 'theory' of programme design. In such cases, the design has been found to fall short of clearly representing the purpose of the programme, or it fails to meet the requisite intellectual standard of critical enquiry expected of an NQF Level 6 qualification – or it does not meet the minimum standards in both of these respects. This becomes a particular concern when students themselves deem a programme to be lacking in critical engagement and intellectual challenge. The design of a BEd programme will invariably be confronted by the 'tension', as one institution put it, of mediating between academic and professional imperatives. The manifestation of this tension in the formation of the programme is not only desirable but indeed necessary. A frequently repeated observation by Review panels, however, is that it demonstrates itself as a compromise of intellectual depth in favour of professional and experiential breadth.

This breadth often manifests itself in programmes that reveal a technicist application of the regulations that result in a large and unwieldy number of discrete modules (there is one case of a programme comprising 120 modules, and at least three in excess of 50). Apart from the strong likelihood of repetition of both content and learning outcomes, and the difficulty, with such a welter of offerings, of developing sufficient intensity in any module to allow intellectual space for critical engagement, such multi-module programmes face an additional disadvantage: it is difficult for any of the modules to satisfy the requisite NQF Level 6 descriptors that require students to attain a sound understanding of a discipline's or field's 'concepts, established principles and theories' and a capacity 'to evaluate their own learning' and 'to take the initiative to address [their own learning needs]' (Development of level descriptors for National Qualifications Framework:40).

5.6.11.2 Programme structure

An important aspect of the issue raised above, namely the relationship between a theoretical underpinning and an appropriate range and level of pedagogical content knowledge on the one hand and the practical application of skills to a specialisation area on the other, is demonstrated in the three examples chosen. In the programme offered by Institution X, approximately 45% of the modules are specialisation-specific. This proportion of phase-related specialisation is roughly similar to all BEd programmes that met minimum standards for design. The other programmes (Y and Z) have significantly different ratios of phase specialisation to theory and pedagogical content knowledge. Programme Y has a very high proportion of phase specialisation (77%) and a consequent lack of theoretical rigour and critical reflection, whereas programme Z has a markedly low proportion of phase specialisation (8%) and a consequent dearth of relevant

pedagogical content knowledge. These examples – and the point is supported by an examination of other programmes – clearly suggest that the balance of theoretical, professional and experiential knowledge in programme design is a critical measure of the programme responsiveness, and the likelihood of achieving appropriate coherence and articulation.

The three examples also show very different degrees of integration of experiential knowledge in the programmes. In programme X, school-based teaching practice is a significant credit-bearing component that stretches across all four years of the programme. In the other two cases, however, the importance of teaching practice is effectively undermined by its relative insignificance for credit allocation. In programme Y, only a site-based preparation for school practice bears credits. In programme Z, teaching practice does not appear at all as a credit-bearing part of the programme, even though four weeks of each academic year is devoted to it.

5.6.11.3 Programme coordination

At most institutions there is a close correlation between the Review panel ratings for Criterion 2 (Programme Design) and for Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning). Although Criterion 6 includes work-based learning, which is often a major factor influencing the rating, there appears to be sufficient evidence to indicate that programme design and programme coordination are interdependent.

The HEQC standards demonstrate that the programme coordinator's roles and responsibilities are demanding. When an institution decides on a conceptual shift from module to programme delivery, the role of coordination becomes explicit. At the two institutions that received a 'Commend' rating for Criterion 6, there are structures in place that enable both horizontal coordination (formal liaison with teaching staff and students) and vertical coordination (reporting to and from higher faculty decision-making bodies). These are, however, exceptions. In other cases, programme coordination is compromised by a number of limitations. In some, the roles, responsibilities and mandate of the coordinator are poorly defined. There are cases where coordination is restricted to campus, departmental or even module level. The examples of institutions X, Y and Z clearly suggest that the coherence of a programme is closely linked to its having a distinct and appropriately specialised locus of coordination. In cases Y and Z, the possibility of effective coordination of a multi-modular programme becomes questionable.

5.6.11.4 Programme review and development

The cases above suggest, furthermore, that strong programme design depends on effective systems for regular review and curriculum development. Of the three, only Institution X provided evidence on any curriculum review having taken place since the introduction of the programme. Panel reports indicate that effective programme review is closely dependent on efficient programme coordination which, in turn, is fully accountable to unit management and/or Faculty Board and/or Senate. In cases where review procedures are deemed inadequate, lines of accountability are either vaguely articulated or, if clear, are not rigorously followed. The consequence is that, even when review is conducted and Improvement Plans are drawn up, the plans remain on the level of a 'wish list' without much prospect of their being put into practice. Most cases of inadequate review are characterised by a lack of formally approved and accountable programme coordination, which is a crucial link in the chain.

Another important characteristic of programme review is that it embraces all aspects of the programme: educational studies, methodologies, teaching content subjects (which, in cases where they are offered outside of the programme unit, for example, by other faculties, can be regarded as satellite modules that are beyond the influence of core programme outcomes and standards), and teaching practice. There is, in almost all cases, little evidence that the school-based component of the programme receives an appropriate share of attention in review processes.

5.6.11.5 Effects of design on teaching and learning

The Review reports identify a close relationship between programme design on the one hand and the quality of teaching and learning on the other. A critical aspect of this relationship is the capacity of units to manage, evaluate and develop fully integrated programmes. In a number of cases there is quality control at module, course or disciplinary level but not at overarching whole-programme level. In at least one case it was noted that potentially commendable module content is not aligned with general programme outlines and outcomes. Non-alignment of units with programmatic aims was attributed, in various cases, to a lack of capacity for the management of whole programmes or to the lack of faculty policies and structures for programme monitoring and development, or to a relative lack of involvement of senior academic staff in providing intellectual support to this undergraduate programme. In some cases, as Review panels commented, it is the inherent programme design flaws that are having a negative effect on teaching and learning, rather than flaws in the module-by-module practices of teaching and learning and assessment per se.

5.6.11.6 Effects of design on assessment

In reviewing assessment, panels identified a number of cases where a cognitive demand appropriate to a NQF Level 6 qualification was not evident, either across an entire programme or in a specific category of taught units, such as the academic teaching subjects. These judgements were based on the range of assessment techniques used, the content of summative assessment, and student evaluation of the extent of intellectual challenge presented. In one case students expressed the opinion that the only reliable indicator of the academic level of a module was the *volume* of work it required. These findings clearly suggest that there is no uniform understanding or application across the sector of what constitutes the appropriate academic and intellectual level for a BEd qualification, and that weaknesses in programme design have a noticeable effect on the types and standards of assessment used to evaluate the exit-level outcomes of BEd programmes. In panel reports there were no cases where aspects of assessment practice were specifically commended, while in three cases improving the practice of assessment was listed as a short-term condition and in two cases as a long-term condition for accreditation.

Some institutions report that one of the greatest impediments to effective assessment practice is high staff–student ratios, and that this also impedes procedures for internal moderation. Where classes are very large, it is impractical to expect consistent formative assessment procedures, especially when a large number of students are ‘at risk’ and require additional support.

As ‘assessor’ is identified by the NSE as one of the seven roles of the educator, training in this role should be integral to all BEd programmes, but relatively little reference to this role appears in programme design and outcomes. There are good reasons to have the role of assessor embedded in the structure of BEd programmes, rather than requiring students to obtain it via other means.

5.6.11.7 Overview of design features

The pattern of Review panel ratings for Foundation Phase programme design is revealing, as is the way they relate to final recommendations. The only institution with a Foundation Phase programme on notice of withdrawal (and in which overwhelming problems with programme design were identified) is also the only HDI offering teacher education for the Foundation Phase. All the other seven public providers offering Foundation Phase programmes inherited, via incorporation or merger, pre-BEd four-year IPET programmes (B Prim Ed or HDE) that were regulated by the former COTEP. The legacy of the COTEP regulations persists, to a greater or lesser degree, in the design features of the new BEd programmes. However, in the three cases that received conditional accreditation, programme design was identified as the most significant area in need of improvement, and the major reason for this is a disjuncture between the theoretical grounding and critical reflection required of a university degree and the training of phase-

specialist classroom practitioners which had, in most cases prior to the NSE, been provided through diploma or higher diploma programmes. The results of the Review indicate that the strong Foundation Phase programmes have succeeded in reconciling the differences between diploma or degree outcomes and assessment standards, but also that this reconciliation is not consistent across the sector. Those deemed in most need of improvement have not yet developed an appropriate blend of intellectual, professional and experiential knowledge. This lack of knowledge integration, in particular the failure to integrate education theory with classroom practice, raises doubt about whether such programmes are capable of producing effective classroom practitioners, able to adapt to diverse contexts and to developments in curriculum policy.

The number of non-Foundation Phase programmes reviewed was too small and the programmes too diverse to indicate whether or not a similar disparity prevails in other phase and subject specialisations.

5.6.11.8 Exemplary features

Of the 15 programmes reviewed, 8 received commendations for instances of good practice. The aspect most frequently commended (cited in five instances) was the professional commitment of staff to the programme as well as to students and their professional needs. This was associated with commendations relating to the provision of student support and guidance, usually given on an informal, extra-curricular and voluntary basis. While a feature such as staff commitment may be regarded as intangible and impressionistic, its importance to a professional programme like the BEd cannot be underestimated. It should be in the nature of initial teacher education for teaching staff to act as role models to students, by demonstrating through both formal and informal means the essential attributes of a relationship between teacher and learner that fosters the main characteristics on which effective learning depends. One of these attributes is enthusiasm for the process of learning. Another is giving learners the confidence to develop their capabilities to the maximum.

The fact that staff commitment was identified so often, and so prominently, in Review panel commendations indicates that BEd programmes are, as a whole, being offered in an atmosphere of integrity that fosters the main principles embedded in the Code of Conduct of the South African Council of Educators (SACE), a code that all qualifying teachers are required to represent and personify.⁸

Staff commitment to the programme and its students was complemented (in three cases) by a commitment to the work-based component of the programme, the teaching practice. This component forms the professional core of the programme, in which the theoretical education framework, subject content knowledge, and proposed teaching and learning methodologies are tested and proven. The commendations refer to a number of aspects critical for effective teaching practice: coordination, orientation of teacher-mentors, effective communication with participating schools, and effective procedures for assessing student-teachers' competence in the classroom.

One institution was commended for its formation of a consultative teacher advisory group that was intended to help the faculty evaluate and develop the professional aspects of its programme. Another was commended for its proposal for dual-medium instruction in the BEd programme, to address more explicitly the multilingual needs of teachers in the classroom.

⁸ HEQC Criterion 1, minimum standard vi: BEd programmes are congruent with 'the professional dispositions of the SACE Code of Ethics'. In particular, appropriate professional dispositions include commitment to learners' personal development and welfare as both individuals and citizens.

5.7 Challenges

Proposed changes to the BEd

IPET programmes, including the BEd, may find new challenges and opportunities arising from recent policy developments in teacher education, together with the forthcoming re-accreditation of programmes to bring them in line with the new HEQF (Higher Education Qualifications Framework). The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (NPFTED) clearly states that the BEd is ‘the preferred standard IPET qualification to be offered by universities’ (NFTE, DoE, Pretoria 2006). It will, according to the NPFTED, remain a four-year qualification and will have an exit level at the new NQF 7. (This may well be different from other four-year professional qualifications, many of which are likely, in terms of the new HEQF, to have an exit level at NQF 8.) However, the NPFTED also suggests that the BEd may not in future be the sole route to an initial qualification, as paragraphs 39 and 40 explain:

39. An option to increase the uptake of new recruits into the classroom would be to introduce a new, three-year teaching Diploma. Within a context of institutional differentiation, universities may be allowed to offer this qualification, although students would be required to complete a fourth year before qualifying as a teacher. This could be offered in both contact and distance modes, and attract student teachers who might not meet degree entrance requirements, as well as assist those who need to start earning earlier.

40. The Ministry recognises the need to provide other routes to a teaching qualification, and the Diploma option may be considered if, despite our best efforts, the recruitment campaign based on entrance to the BEd degree fails to close the teacher supply gap.

The NPFTED makes it clear that this option may be considered in order to address the current shortage of teachers. It is possible in ‘a context of institutional differentiation’ and could result in different institutional types (universities, universities of technology) exploring different qualification routes. Should differentiation occur, the degree and the diploma routes may well find reason to re-visit the relationship in IPET programmes between theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge, with the relative emphasis on these three forms of knowledge varying slightly from case to case. Whatever variations emerge as possibilities for curriculum design, however, there should be no diminution of the core components of an IPET programme: ‘subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge and teaching skills.’

The NPFTED also envisages a range of delivery modes for the BEd that is somewhat broader than the current range. Five delivery modes are suggested:

- full or part-time contact study;
- part-time by a combination of contact and distance learning, including the option of a learnership;
- distance learning for mature first-time recruits to teaching who are in other occupations or who have not yet entered employment;
- distance learning and mentored school-based practice for first-time recruits to teaching who are employed by Provincial Departments of Educations as student teachers; and
- distance learning and mentored school-based practice for serving teachers who wish to upgrade their qualifications and to change to a phase or learning area or subject where teachers are particularly needed.

The merits and demerits of each of these options call for sustained critical enquiry on the part of academic staff involved in BEd programmes. For example, the NPFTED cautions that the fourth and fifth options listed above may be feasible ‘only where there is a guarantee of proper supervision and a suitable school placement’. This has been highlighted as a particular weakness of current work-based learning in the BEd programme. There is a clear implication

that institutional capacity to explore all five proposed delivery modes depends on a simultaneous prioritisation, in CPDE initiatives, of efficient programmes and incentives for the development of school-based mentors.

Revised norms and standards

With the NSE being replaced by the new HEQF, an opportunity exists for the development of a revised set of teacher education norms and standards that, while establishing clear exit-level outcomes, will give providers a reasonable degree of flexibility in responding to institutional missions and goals, their local educational contexts, regional demand in terms of specialisation areas, and the nature of its student cohort in terms of the need for emphasis on foundational knowledge and sustained learning support. This could have the advantage of reducing the tendency for programmes to adopt a mechanistic ‘compliance’ approach to a regulatory framework. Instead, there could be a cooperative development of a flexible programme model that could ensure adequate cross-sector specialisation targeting and resource allocation.

A flexible programme model

There is little doubt that the multi-modular structure of many programmes (structures informed, at least in part, by institutional histories, elaborate interpretations of the existing regulatory framework, and, where institutions offer more than one specialised field, the inclusion in programmes of a broad range of specialised elective modules) make them expensive to offer, because of the wide range of teaching resources required. Cooperative development of a flexible programme model should be accompanied by a careful analysis of sustainable levels of funding, in particular the current levels of subsidy that are allocated to undergraduate teacher education programmes. Such an analysis should also take into account teaching responsibilities and their impact on overall workloads with a view to ensuring that the relatively low research output of BEd teaching staff is increased, with the accompanying benefits accruing from research subsidy.

5.8 Conclusion

1. The review indicates that unevenness of quality in BEd programmes relates both to academic appropriateness and contextual responsiveness of the BEd as an IPET programme that prepares students to enter the teaching profession with an appropriate blend of theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge, and the capacity to manage learning in diverse social and educational contexts. The main areas needing improvement are essential to programme delivery: programme design, programme coordination, the coordination of work-based learning, and assessment. Unevenness in these areas, the fundamentals of a programme that has at its core a thorough integration of conceptual knowledge with professional classroom-based experience, suggests that the existing regulatory framework based on the NSE has not had the effect of establishing standards of academic appropriateness and contextual responsiveness uniformly across the sector. It suggests, furthermore, that the sectoral achievement of a benchmark for quality is not something that a national set of programme specifications, roles and outcomes is likely to achieve on its own.
2. The four BEd programmes that are on notice of withdrawal have had to contend with a number of constraining systemic factors, including institutional instability, faculty restructuring, resource constraints and high student to staff ratios – factors that are beyond the control of the teaching staff and which seriously limit effective programme delivery.
3. With some outstanding exceptions, research output by staff teaching in BEd programmes is low. There are a number of reasons for this. In some cases, staff members employed as a consequence of the incorporation of legacy colleges of education have not been adequately supported to re-align their academic profiles within a research-active culture. In many cases, teaching and assessment workloads inhibit research activity, and these workloads have not

been renegotiated to provide space and time for research projects. Incentives for research have been absent, or not adequately foregrounded. Research focused on the specific challenges of IPET is crucial for the enhancement of quality in the theoretical, practical and experiential aspects of BEd programmes.

4. In some programmes there is a tension between the theoretical and conceptual rigour expected of a professional degree and the vocation-specific training of teachers to meet the expectations of employers who focus on effective implementation of existing school curriculum policy.
5. The graduate output of BEd programmes, in terms of phase and subject specialisation, language competence, and the supply of teachers for all sectors of the school system with its diverse range of social and educational contexts, is haphazard and conditioned more by institutional histories than by employer needs. This problem, however, cannot be addressed until accurate and reliable demand-side data become available at national, provincial and regional levels.
6. The review of Foundation Phase programmes indicates a continuing and substantial shortage of graduates who are capable of teaching in African languages. This has seriously detrimental implications for the advancement of the National Language Policy, which seeks to promote the use of home language tuition in the Foundation Phase.
7. Notwithstanding the inclusion in Foundation Phase programmes of modules that focus on the phase learning programmes, few of these programmes make explicit reference in their statements of purpose to the need to address what is widely acknowledged as a national crisis in Foundation Phase literacy and numeracy development.

The State of the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) Programmes in South Africa

6.1 Introduction

The Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) brings the problems facing teacher education reform in South Africa sharply into focus. When the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) was carried out in preparation for the new democratic state in the early 1990s, its teacher education task team reported that ‘the greatest teacher education challenge lies not at the (pre-service) PRESET (but at the INSET in-service) level’ (NEPI, 1992:32). Arguably, despite almost 15 years of programme interventions on the part of the post-apartheid government and, especially, its large investment in the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), the current corps of teachers in the system has within its ranks many who continue to manifest poor subject and professional competence. A recent assessment of teacher competence in the Western Cape (see Western Cape Education Department, 2008) has shown, for example, that teachers in practice have difficulty recognising, identifying, diagnosing and responding to their learners’ most common learning problems. While these assessments were of course not able to assess the teachers by making them take the tests they set the learners, the suggestion is that their levels of competence are not significantly above those of their learners. This is particularly the case in numeracy.

INSET work is at the best of times challenging. The problems begin with the texts on teacher development (see Dean, 1991), which are often couched in general terms and, as generic propositions, have little value for application to specific contexts. Compounding this difficulty is the lack of strong analytic literature on INSET in South Africa. The Joint Education Trust held an important conference on the subject in 1996, and a few academics continue to address the problem facing the country (see Robinson, 2000, 2001). A recent study undertaken jointly by the Centre for Education Policy Development, the Human Sciences Research Council, the South African Institute for Distance Education and researchers at a number of universities (see Kruss, 2008) looked at case studies of teacher education. From these have come important overview texts such as *Getting Learning Right* (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999) that have pointed out the nature of the problem, drawing attention principally to the weakness of the teacher corps. Much work, however, remains to be done, as it is still unclear how the country should address the problems of inadequate support, overloads, demoralisation, under-preparedness and low levels of professionalism. The form these problems take in particular areas of difficulty for the education system, such as how to teach reading and numeracy, is a serious issue. Talking about the general INSET situation, Narsee contrasts the positions taken by Elmore and Green, both school improvement scholars. Elmore, she says, argues that teacher professional development must be focused on improved student learning, rather than driven by the preferences of individuals;

Green, on the other hand, argues that the challenge is to create the ‘the space, time and support for teachers to choose change’ (Narsee, 2002:2).

These debates have great significance for mathematics education in South Africa. There are two ways of dealing with the problem of learner performance: state-driven teacher improvement and the teacher’s own choices (see also Ball et al., 2005, on the problem elsewhere in the world). In South Africa, many of the problems, such as the excessive work-loads teachers have to carry, begin at the level of government but ultimately come to depend on the teachers in the classrooms, their capacity for self-reflection and their understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses when faced with the challenge of learner progress.

An in-service programme in South Africa therefore has to address three issues simultaneously: providing access, improving teachers’ skills in the current curriculum, and giving them an opportunity to re-skill themselves in new areas of the curriculum – which we will refer to as the triad. In each issue there is potentially a different audience. It also needs to take into account the expectation many teachers have that the ACE will allow them to move on to postgraduate studies and the difficulties institutions have encountered when using the ACE for access to the honours degree. The situation in mathematics education, it could be argued, is more complex (see Vithal, 2008). Davis et al. (2007:35) argue that it is ‘embedded in pedagogic practice ... there are multiple goals and at least two objects of attention: teaching and mathematics ... [t]hese two objectives are co-constitutive’. An ACE in Mathematics Education in South Africa therefore faces a considerable challenge, since the teachers themselves have a poor grasp of mathematics. The question is how to structure an ACE programme that can manage this complexity, especially when it is only a one-year programme?

Against this general introduction, this chapter focuses on the state of the ACE programmes in South Africa based on the outcomes of the National Review of professional programmes in education conducted by the HEQC. It considers how the ACE mathematics programmes are being conceptualised, designed and delivered, keeping in mind *the triad of purposes* (providing access, upskilling and re-skilling) and Davis et al.’s concept of *the two co-constitutive objectives* of in-service work (teaching and mathematics).

Programmes were selected for review on the basis of the requirement that they should have produced graduates and that they would have a sufficient number of students enrolled at the time of the Review. The initial decision of the HEQC Board was that the Review should prioritise Mathematics and Science Education, but because of the difficulties this would have posed, logistically and in terms of time, the Board chose to focus on the ACE in Mathematics Education. This decision also made sense considering the importance of this qualification in re-skilling and upgrading teachers. Of relevance too was the fact that, at the time of the Review, mathematics and science were priority areas in the school system and several projects were under way to deal with crucial issues in teacher education: how to provide sufficient numbers of teachers in the critical areas of mathematics and science, how to address the issues of the introduction of the National Curriculum Statement in the school system, and how to ensure that the teachers trained can improve the mathematics and science results at the matriculation level. To contextualise the selection of the programmes, it should be noted that because not all the HEIs in the country offered an ACE in Mathematics or Mathematics Education, the 23 ACE programmes chosen for review included Educational Management, Sports Science and Learners with Special Education Needs.¹ The discussion, however, focuses on the ACE in Mathematics Education, Mathematics and Mathematical Literacy.

This chapter is organised into eight sections. Section 6.2 that follows outlines the history of the ACE qualification in South Africa; Section 6.3 provides an overview of the ACE landscape;

1 A total of 215 ACE programmes were registered with the Department of Education (DoE).

Section 6.4 summarises the findings of the National Review; Section 6.5 looks at the ACE programme's administrative and design problems; Section 6.6 considers the design challenge; Section 6.7 discusses the relevance and appropriateness of the programme; and Section 6.8 concludes.

6.2 History of the ACE qualification in South Africa

In the post-apartheid period, the state initiated a major process of reform in its quest to achieve equity in education, while keeping in mind the skills deficit bequeathed to it by the apartheid regime. Not only was the country's performance in science and technology lagging behind that of similarly situated countries elsewhere in the world, but both the quantity and quality of teachers in a range of fields were inadequate. The history of mathematics education in South Africa showed that:

- there was a shortage of mathematics teachers, especially in particular provinces;
- South African students, and black students in particular, performed poorly in mathematics in bench-marked tests and in the Senior Certificate examinations; and
- there was a concomitant decline in the number of potential entrants to higher education in fields such as science engineering and technology and business, management and commerce programmes.

The state sought, as a result, to intervene at the INSET level, with the dual aim of redressing the inequities of the past and improving the current situation. With the help of NGO service providers, a whole suite of INSET programmes, from short courses to whole qualifications, was created. The Further Diploma in Education (FDE) was the state's first major intervention to give teachers the opportunity to re-skill or upgrade from their initial qualification in teaching. Teachers with a three-year teaching diploma were eligible to enrol. The FDE was designed to offer teachers the opportunity to:

- re-skill in areas such as Education Management² and Remedial Education, so as to find new career paths;
- change their teaching specialisation; and/or
- gain access to further degree study such as the BEd (Hons) qualification.

The FDE was introduced in the late 1980s and early 1990s by the old distance education colleges of education (SACTE, SACOL, Roggebaai) as a way of upgrading teachers to m+4 status (resulting in an extra salary notch). Some universities also began to offer the FDE in the early 1990s.

With the introduction of the national NSE (Norms and Standards for Educators, DoE, 2000) framework, the FDE was renamed the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE). The ACE's purposes were similar to those of the FDE and it soon became the multi-purpose qualification for teacher upgrading, re-skilling and access to higher level programmes. The NSE, moreover, consolidated the ACE's standing for these purposes. It stipulated that the ACE would be a 120 NQF credit, Level 6 qualification, describing it as:

further specialised subject/learning area/discipline/phase competence, or a new subject specialisation in one or more of the roles as an advanced study intended to 'cap' an initial or general teaching qualification.

It also stated that:

[t]hrough this qualification learners will be prepared to embark on a course of study at NQF Level 7. It must, therefore, include appropriate demands in terms of rigour.

2 This specialisation was a popular choice as far back as 1994.

This makes it clear the ACE is conceived not as a PRESET programme but as a form of continuing professional education designed to enable teachers to develop their competences or change their career path and adopt new teaching roles. The Report of the Standards Generating Body for Educators in Schooling (10 October 2001), elaborated this explanation as follows:

The ACE is a flexible Level 6 qualification aimed at providing educators with an opportunity of updating, enriching and supplementing their existing knowledge in a particular area of specialisation or of changing their area of specialisation. The former might become necessary due to new developments in an area of study while the latter may be a response to changing national needs or a need for a change in career path. Access to the ACE is open to candidates who are already in possession of an approved Level 6 qualification in the field of education and training, and it creates additional opportunities for further study at Level 7.

The key objectives of the ACE qualification are therefore:

- re-skilling for teachers who are unqualified or underqualified in specific subjects;
- the development of skills in specific learning areas that are newly introduced in the NCS;
- an upgrade opportunity for teachers with a three-year teaching qualification; and
- the provision of vertical access to higher level qualifications such as the BEd (Hons).

According to the NSE (2000) the ACE is required to produce the following competences (see Appendix 7 for a fuller description):

- *Practical competences.* The student is expected to demonstrate the ability ‘in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow and to perform the chosen action’.
- *Foundational competences.* The student is expected to demonstrate an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.
- *Reflexive competences.* These follow from the above and require the student to show the ‘ability to integrate performances and decision-making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions’. (NSE, 2000)

A close reading of the NSE document, however, makes it clear why institutions had difficulty in determining how to make use of the qualification. The document did not provide sufficient guidelines on what the areas of specialisation for the ACE should be. This, it can be suggested, laid open the field for the emergence of a multitude of programmes. When the HEQC was deciding which programmes the National Review would focus on, it became clear that there were 69 different kinds of ACEs in the country and that over 290 specialisations were being offered (see Appendix 8). It was noted from this list that some areas of specialisation did not sit comfortably with the stated purpose of the ACE qualification, which emphasised the lack of regulation in the system. Some institutions offered up to 15 different specialisations, which suggests that there remains a problem of inconsistency in terms of accreditation and registration of qualification processes. The institutions usually have a generic ACE qualification as well as several specialisations all of which will be accredited as one qualification. When reporting their programmes to the regulatory authorities, the institutions list only the generic ACE. This is one of the problems that preclude analysis of numbers of students in the programmes by specialisation.

As Table 6.1 shows, four different kinds of mathematics offerings emerged: Maths Literacy, Maths Education, Mathematics and Maths/Science. These originated from government, from provincial departments and from institutions themselves. In many instances programmes were started simply because funding was available. The historical problem that this situation precipitated was that ACEs evolved independently of any in-depth analysis of the country’s needs. It was insufficiently clear, and remains so, what the real needs of the schools and teachers

were, what content and pedagogical competences they brought to their jobs, and how responsive programmes ought to be designed and delivered.

To explain the kind of ACE programme that emerged for mathematics education in the country, its architecture, duration and mode of delivery, it is necessary to highlight the following factors that shaped the ACE in mathematics education:

- mathematics curriculum reforms;
- introduction of mathematical literacy;
- new requirements of the National Senior Certificate;
- detailed exposition of the roles of teachers as defined in the NSE (2000); and
- the requirement of teachers to make a paradigm shift from traditional models of teaching.

These factors were important in shaping the development of a number of INSET programmes targeting specifically the domains of Science, Mathematics and Technology. In these developments, provincial authorities, making judgements about their needs and their budgetary constraints, were possibly the most crucial players in terms of setting the agenda for the generic and the specialised ACE programmes. The institutions' self-evaluation reports (SERs), for example, provided much evidence, often presented as justification, of contractual agreements with provinces for the offering of particular specialisations. These reports revealed how tightly the expected content coverage was specified in these agreements. More research is required to ascertain whether the process by which provinces define the scope of learning required for the ACE programmes and the accompanying tender process have had a detrimental effect on the quality of provision. Evidence on the ground suggests that the tender process curtailed the power of the higher education institutions to plan appropriately, assess the cost of offering the various ACE programmes and deliver quality programmes that would address the needs of the system. The following selection of explanations the programme leaders provided in the SERs illustrates the general range of motivations for initiating ACE programmes. While it was clear that some institutions began their programmes as a result of strategic decisions, many did not:

- 'Market driven (competitiveness), responsiveness to national imperatives, expansion of offerings, funding opportunities, institutions' vision and mission.'
- 'Institutions want to make a difference in improving the quality of teaching.'
- 'Demand-driven (DoE, NGO, business).'
- 'Funding opportunities.'
- 'As the new millennium approached, so the realisation dawned that the Further Diploma in Education (Education Management) was not ideally suited to new challenges and did not reflect the latest thinking in the fields in which it was engaged.'
- 'The Further Diploma in Education qualification served its purpose of upgrading educators for an M+3 initial qualification to an M+4. Consequently the FDE was changed to an ACE.'
- 'When the opportunity arose in the early 1990s, an application was made for the registration of a Further Diploma in Education: Mathematics (FDE: Mathematics). This qualification was registered. The current Advanced Certificate in Education: Mathematics is a natural and historical extension and development of [earlier] initiatives.'

These historical perspectives on the origins and development of the ACE qualification in South Africa suggest that multiple drivers, originating in the DoE, the Provincial Departments of Education and the institutions of higher learning, influenced its conceptualisation and offering. In one respect this situation is not peculiar to South Africa. Research indicates that most countries, both developed and developing, have expressed concerns about the shortage of trained and qualified teachers in the fields of Mathematics and Science. Increasingly, evidence suggests that training teachers in these fields is a paramount priority in interventions similar to the ACE

qualification. Whether other countries have allowed their programmes to be developed in the same way as South Africa has, is a matter for further research.

6.3 An overview of the ACE landscape

This section discusses the size and character of the mathematics education field. It first describes, by category, the qualifications that were reviewed. It then discusses the programmes themselves and their curricula. It concludes with statistics showing the numbers of students in ACE programmes generally in the country.

6.3.1 ACE programmes under review

Table 6.1 shows that 24 ACE qualifications were reviewed. Of these, the 16 directly related to mathematics are the focus of the discussion in this chapter. While it was relatively easy to identify these 16 programmes, two distinct problems were noted. Firstly, there was a lack of uniformity in their areas of specialisation, especially in terms of nomenclature. This problem is closely linked to the NSE's failure to provide direction as to the areas of specialisation needed in the higher education system. Secondly, it was unclear whether the purposes of the qualifications matched the needs of the country. Section 6.3.2 on the following page discusses these problems, in the light of the institutions' own explanations of the purposes of their programmes.

Table 6.1: ACE qualifications that were reviewed

Specialisation	No.
Mathematical Literacy	4
Mathematics Education	4
Mathematics	6
Mathematics/Science	2
Science Education	1
Sport Development	1
Management & Administration	1
Education Management	3
Remedial Education	1
Special Educational Needs	1
Total	24

6.3.2 Objectives of Mathematics Education ACE programmes

This section summarises the objectives listed by the programme convenors themselves. (See Appendix 11 for more detail of the content of these programmes, listed by module title.)

The course descriptions for the programmes revealed that each had multiple purposes, sometimes stated in what appeared to be contradictory ways. One institution, for instance, described its programme as a capping programme but went on to say that its purpose was to enable teachers to further their studies on a postgraduate level. The questions of national priorities and undersupply of teachers in the areas of mathematics were mentioned a few times. The convenors of eight of the programmes raised the question of level, with most saying that their objective was to raise the level of the teachers' qualifications from Level 5 to Level 6. The convenors of two programmes spoke of raising the level from 6 to 7. These objectives were stated for the Mathematics, Mathematics Education and Mathematical Literacy and Mathematics/Science programmes. The three purposes of ACE programmes in general – providing access, upskilling and re-skilling, referred to in the introduction to this chapter as the triad – featured regularly, often as paraphrased versions of the NSE requirements for the qualification. In many cases

mathematics was mentioned only in passing, and only in a few cases was it recognised that the objectives of teaching and mathematics are co-constitutive (see introduction). More often raised was the necessity for increasing teachers' levels of proficiency in both dimensions of their work, but seldom in a way which addressed their interdependent relationship. The ideal of training teachers who were reflective was mentioned by the convenors of four programmes, and the objective of producing teachers who could affect learner performance was mentioned only once.

As Table 6.1 shows, six programmes fell into the Mathematics category, four into the Mathematics Education category, four into the Mathematics Literacy category and two into the Mathematics/Science category. It is important to note that, with the exception of the descriptor 'ACE: Mathematics', the titles of the programmes varied considerably:

- *ACE in Mathematics*: RU, UCT, UFH, UWC and UJ labelled this as 'ACE (Mathematics)', WSU as 'ACE: Mathematics', UNISA as 'ACE Mathematics (Intermediate and Senior Phase)', and UKZN as 'ACE (Mathematics GET)'.
- *ACE in Mathematics Education*: UL labelled this as 'ACE: Mathematics Education (ACEM)', and UFS as 'ACE (Mathematics Education) FET Phase'.
- *ACE in Mathematical Literacy*: CPUT labelled this as 'ACE (Mathematical Literacy)', NMMU as 'ACE: FET Mathematics Literacy', US as 'ACE in Mathematical Literacy', and TUT as 'ACE (Senior Phase and FET: Mathematical Literacy)'.

Their focuses also varied. UNISA said the purpose of its ACE was to provide specialised subject and phase competence; CPUT, NMMU, NWU (Potch), TUT, UZ and WSU said it was to update educators' knowledge of mathematical literacy and/or to deepen their knowledge in the area; RU said it was to improve the mathematical and pedagogical knowledge and skills of practicing teachers; UKZN said it was to provide specialised knowledge for Mathematics Teaching; and US, UFH and UCT stated their purpose more generally, saying it was to provide their qualifying students with advanced teacher education with a specialised focus (see Appendix 9 for details).

The overall point here is that the kinds of programmes that had come into being were described in a range of ways. While there were indeed recurring elements in the objectives, these commonalities were superficial. They appeared to be taken literally from the NSE document. The challenge of operating in the multi-purposed discursive framework of the triad, or the co-constituted orbit of Teaching and Mathematics, did not feature regularly in the institutions' outlines of their programmes. This did not mean, however, as the discussion of the design challenge in Section 6.6 below shows, that the designers of the programmes were unaware of the difficulties involved in designing and delivering an ACE in Mathematics, Mathematics Education or Mathematical Literacy.

6.3.3 Delivery of ACE mathematics programmes

A feature of the delivery of ACE programmes throughout the country is the involvement or use made of contracted staff or NGOs (see Appendix 10). Employment of permanent staff by institutions to resource the ACE programme was minimal. At least 7 of the 14 institutions offering the ACE Mathematics programme had centres or institutes dedicated to both teaching and research in the field. These institutes and centres were often large. One had 31 professional members of staff, another 17. All the programmes offered by institutions with centres or institutes received full accreditation, and the Review panels commented favourably on their learning materials, qualified staff and, in some cases, innovative features.

It is clear that where there was a dedicated unit with a specialised focus, there appeared to be stronger programmes. This does not mean that there were no problems in these programmes, such as too many different modules, but it does point to a careful and considered response from the academics concerned.

One reason for this phenomenon may be that ACEs in the fields of Mathematics/Science are offered almost exclusively on tender from a provincial department. As the tender processes are not synchronised with the university calendar, this makes it difficult for institutions to plan the deployment of their permanent staff. Invariably, the staff's regular programme commitments have to be prioritised. Centres and institutes with core dedicated academic staff are able to resource the programmes quite efficiently primarily because these are entities outside of the normal academic environment. Universities without such centres or institutes are forced to supply existing staff or contracted staff as the teaching load arrives, rather than as part of the normal schedule of qualifications to be offered in the year. This dynamic was clearly evident in the student enrolment patterns in the ACE programme. Where external funding is made available for students to do an ACE programme, student enrolments are relatively high.

When it comes to timetabling the ACE, programmes appeared to be offered in a relatively uniform way by most of the HEIs. The ACE programmes, as per design, are offered to practicing teachers who intend to upgrade their qualifications or re-skill in content and pedagogy. Hence, almost by default, most students are enrolled on a part-time basis. Institutions did, however, have on offer both full-time and part-time programme offerings.

The student numbers enrolled for ACEs were generally between 11 and 50, with some programmes, especially those that were sponsored or funded by external agencies, having more than 50. Most programmes were offered at a single site per institution, except where institutions had more than one campus and where student enrolment numbers were high. Some institutions have tuition centres in rural areas to cater for the needs of rural teachers. In responding to student demographics, student enrolment dynamics and the wide geographic spread of the ACE offerings, institutions can only reasonably offer the ACE programme using a mixed-mode delivery system, and this is what most of them do.

6.3.4 ACE enrolments

As explained in Chapter 1 in the section dealing with the limitations of the report, it was not possible to obtain precise figures for the number of students registered for the programmes that were reviewed because of the way the HEMIS data are collected. Figure 6.1 gives approximate numbers. Despite the inconsistency formats of the institutions' reports for HEMIS, this figure shows that headcount enrolments in the specialisation of Leadership/Management dominate, with lower numbers reported in the mathematics suite of qualifications.

Figure 6.1: ACE enrolments by discipline 2003 to 2006

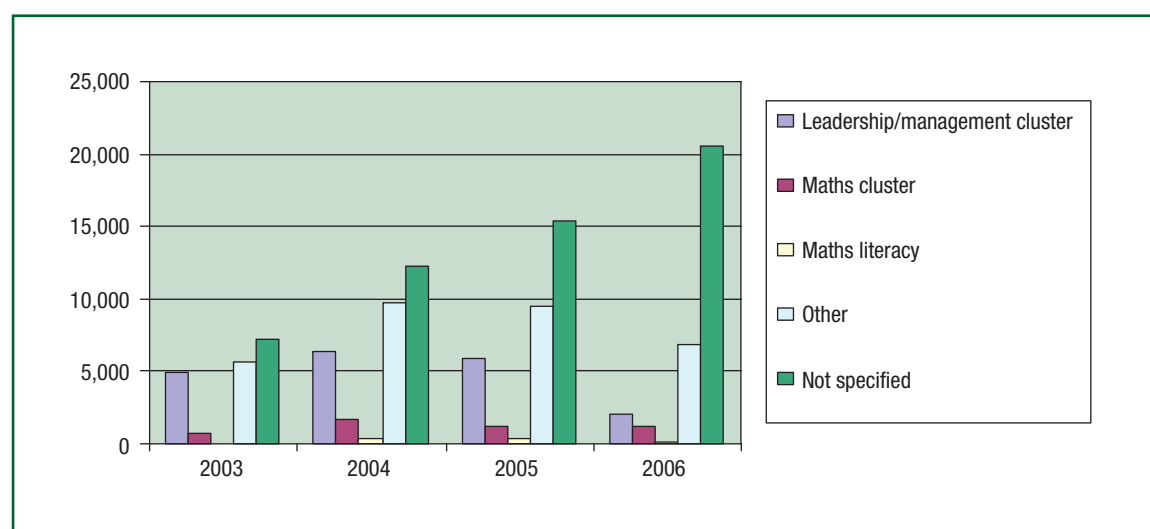


Figure 6.2 compares the figures for 2003 and 2006, showing the growth in enrolments. Data from the institutions confirm that the growth is bolstered by the Education Management numbers and the use of alternative modes of delivery. UNISA, NWU and UP have large numbers of students registered through distance education. NMMU is an interesting case in point. Its numbers are high because of contracts obtained from provinces outside the Eastern Cape.

Figure 6.2: ACE enrolments by institution: 2003 and 2006

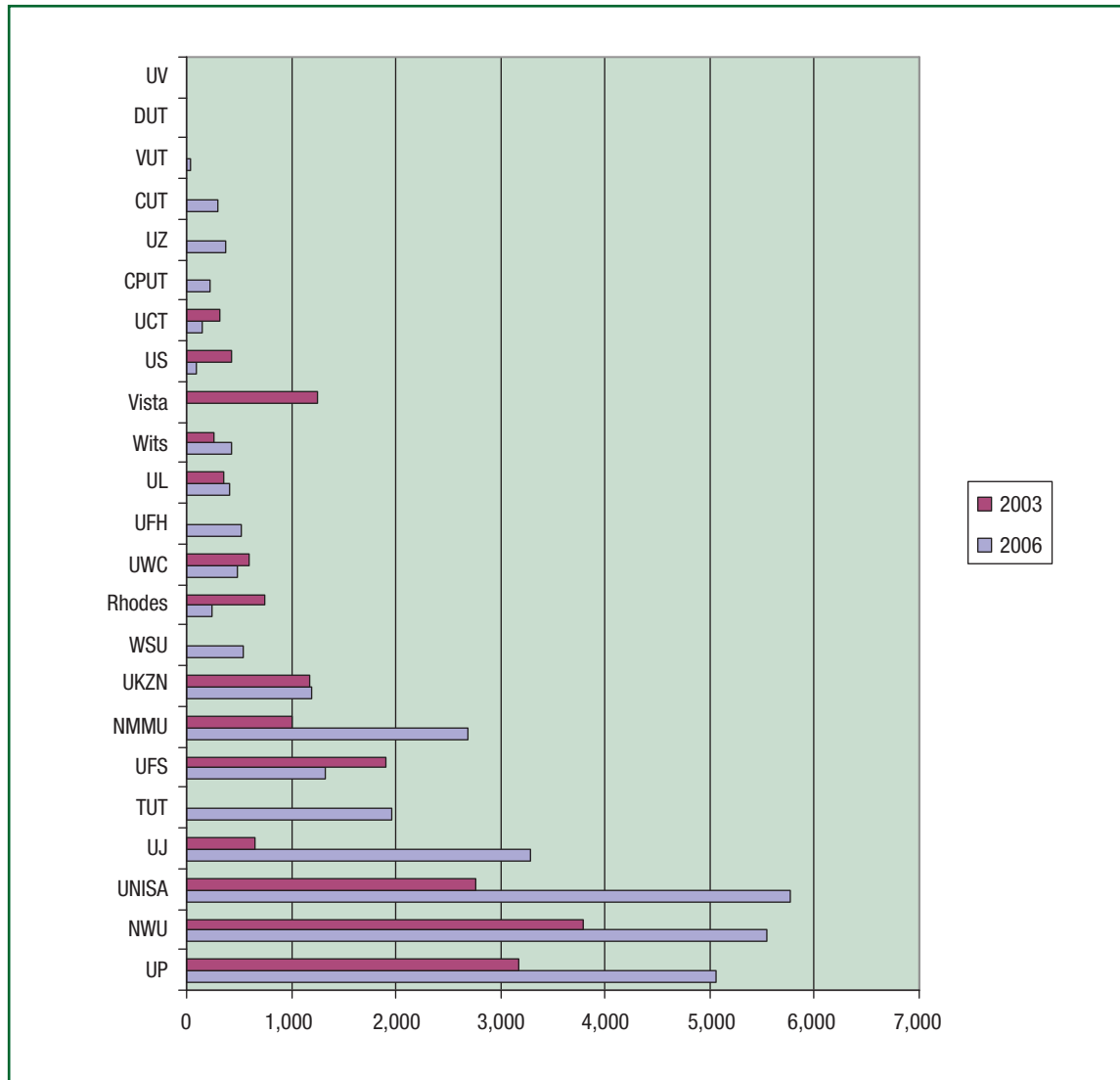
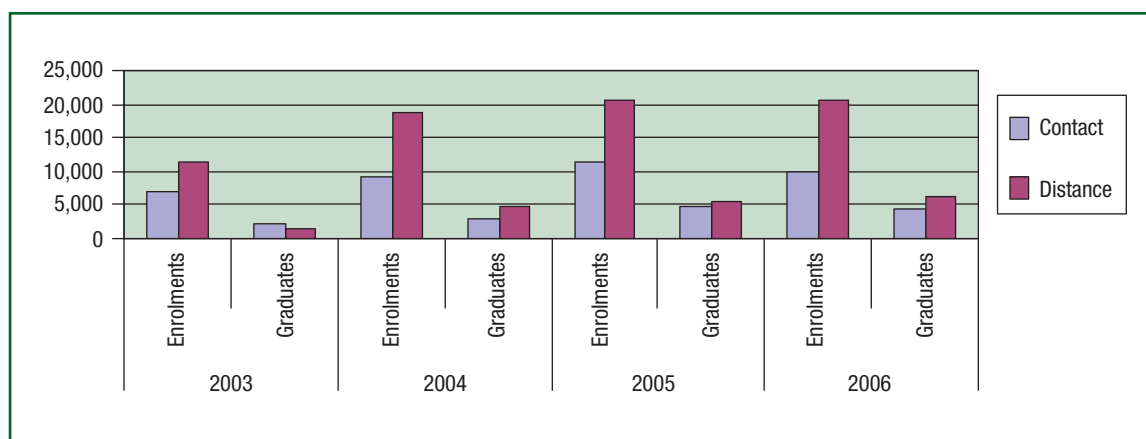


Figure 6.3 confirms that there has been a definite decline in students registered in contact programmes and a levelling off of numbers between 2005 and 2006. Growth is evident in distance education programmes.

Figure 6.3: ACE enrolments and graduates by delivery mode: 2003 to 2006



Figures 6.4 and 6.5 make clear that the majority of the students enrolled in and graduating from the programmes are between the ages of 30 and 45. It may be inferred from this that the ACE is reaching students who would have obtained their qualifications ten to 20 years ago.

Figure 6.4: ACE enrolments by age: 2003 to 2006

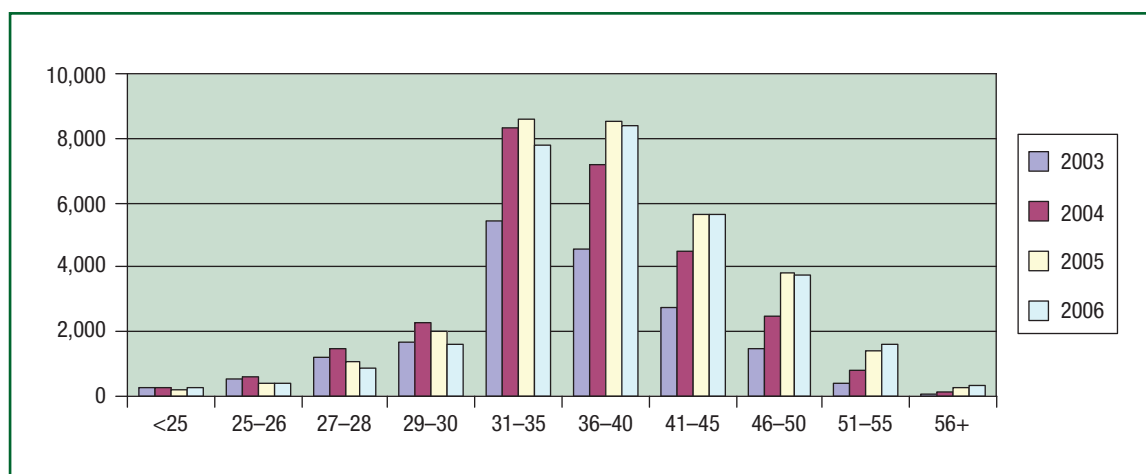
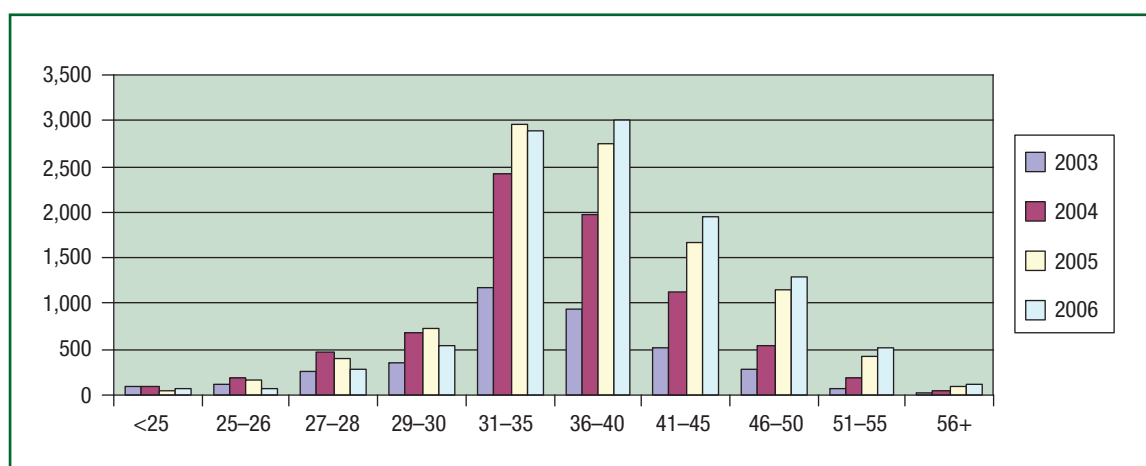


Figure 6.5: ACE graduates by age 2003 to 2006



Data on student demographics show that teachers from black, coloured and Indian population groups make up the majority of students enrolled for the ACE qualifications. Students registered within the ACE qualifications come from both urban and rural geographic settings.

Given that there are approximately 360,000 teachers in South Africa's educational system, it is clear from these statistics showing the numbers of ACE students that only a small percentage of the country's teachers are re-skilling or upgrading their qualifications, even if one takes into account that a large numbers of them have gone through the NPDE.

6.4 Findings

6.4.1 Accreditation status

Table 6.2 shows the accreditation decisions that were taken for the ACE programmes that were reviewed.

Table 6.2: Overall re-accreditation outcomes for the ACE programmes per institution

Institution	Programme	Accreditation status
CPUT	Mathematical Literacy	Accreditation with conditions
CUT	Sport Development	Full accreditation
CUT	Management & Administration	Accreditation with conditions (on notice of withdrawal)
NMMU	Maths Literacy (FET)	Full accreditation
NWU (Potchefstroom)	Science Education (FET)	Full accreditation
NWU (Potchefstroom and Namibia)	Education Leadership and Management	No accreditation
NWU (Mafikeng)	Science Education (FET)	Full accreditation
RU	Mathematics Education	Full accreditation
US	Mathematics Education	Full accreditation
UCT	Mathematics	Full accreditation
UWC	Mathematics	Full accreditation
TUT	Mathematics Literacy (Senior & FET)	Accreditation with conditions
UFH	Mathematics	Full accreditation
UJ	Mathematics Education	Accreditation with conditions
UKZN	Mathematics (GET)	Full accreditation
UL	Mathematics Education	Accreditation with conditions
UP	Education Leadership and Management	Accreditation with conditions (on notice of withdrawal)
UNISA	Mathematics Education	Full accreditation
UFS	Mathematics Education (FET)	Accreditation with conditions
UV	Remedial Education	Accreditation with conditions
UZ	Maths/Science (GET & Senior)	Accreditation with conditions
WITS	Special Needs	Full accreditation
WSU	Mathematics	Accreditation with conditions

Note:

- 12 programmes received full accreditation;
- 8 programmes received accreditation with conditions;
- 2 programmes were put on notice of withdrawal; and
- 1 programme received no accreditation.

Although Education Management is not the focus of this discussion, it needs to be noted that one of the programmes that was placed on notice of withdrawal was Education Leadership and Management, as was the one that received no accreditation, and the other programme that was placed on notice of withdrawal was in Management and Administration. It needs to be noted for the future registration of ACE qualifications that there is a problem with these programmes.

Table 6.3: Summary analysis of accreditation per category

Number of programmes	Full accreditation	Accreditation with conditions	Accreditations with conditions (programme on Notice of Withdrawal)	No accreditation
24	12	8	2	1

6.4.2 Short-term and long-term conditions

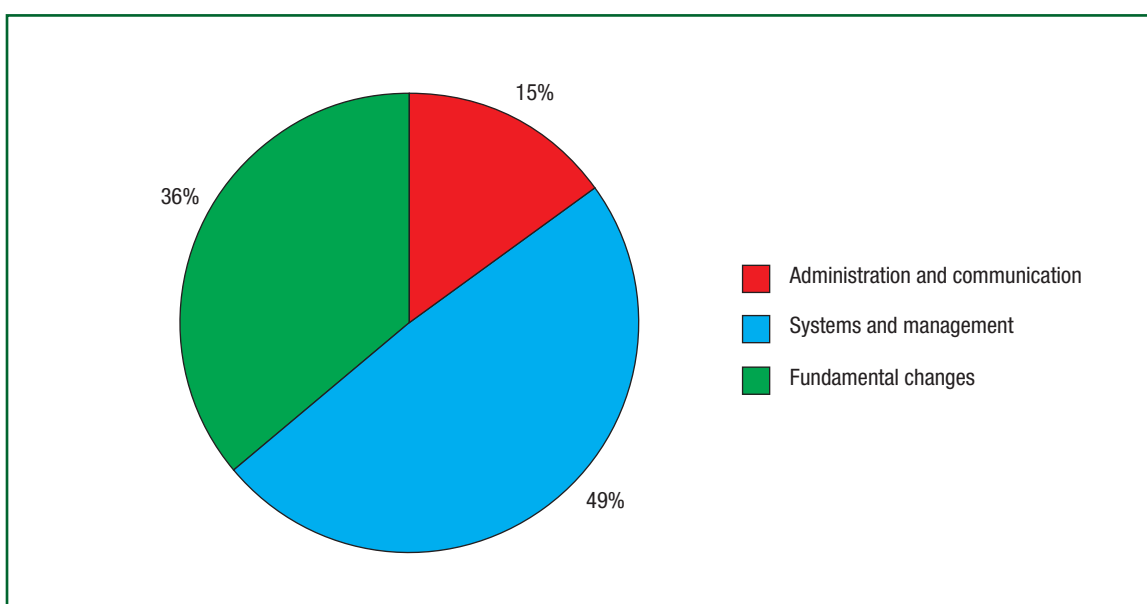
The conditions set for the ACE programmes were grouped into three distinct categories:

- 1) Systems and management of the programme
- 2) Administration and communication
- 3) Fundamental changes in programme design, curriculum, assessment and teaching and learning and staff productivity

To understand the significance of this section, it is important to bear in mind the point made above that the programmes that did not receive full accreditation were Education Management programmes. Only 12 of the 23 programmes received full accreditation. These were strongly drawn from the mathematics programmes. But even some of the mathematics programmes had conditions imposed on them.

In total, 107 conditions were set for the programmes that were awarded accreditation with conditions or put on notice of withdrawal. Almost half of these conditions fell into the category of systems and management, as Figure 6.6 shows.

Figure 6.6: ACE conditions per category (percentage)

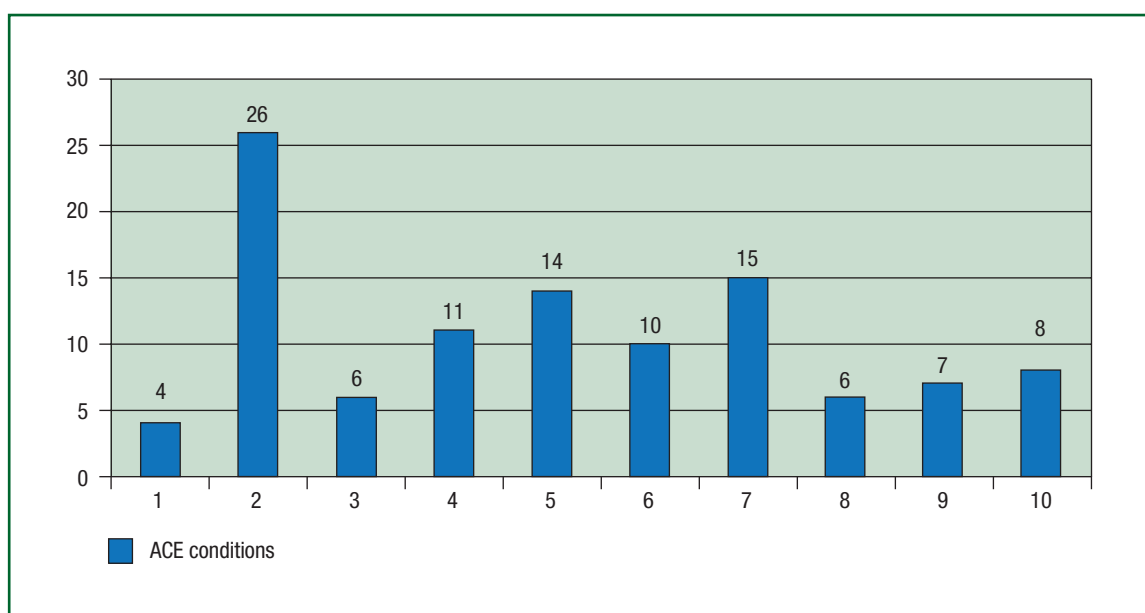


‘Systems and management’ broadly covers review criteria, such as collection, storing and management of information, effective workloads, management of part-time staff, programme coordination, review systems, and monitoring and managing work-based learning. ‘Administration and communication’ includes registration of programmes, information about the programme in marketing materials, communication with students, and making available information about funding opportunities. ‘Fundamental changes’ means programme design and curriculum, staff involvement in research and scholarly activities (the ‘culture of research’), the number of students academically supported in the programme, and support for ‘at-risk’ students.

Most of the programmes that received conditions under ‘systems and management’ were offered at institutions that were, strikingly, mainly from the university of technology sector and also from some historically disadvantaged institutions (HDIs). To some extent the deficiencies found in programme design in this area could be related to the enormous challenges and demands placed on institutions by the merger process, which affected mostly HDIs and ex-technikons. Moreover, mergers and incorporations also contributed to the absence of systems, policies and procedures and in some cases core full-time staff. The deficiencies could also be related to the fact that the technikon convenor model (where one technikon would take responsibility for designing the programme they would all offer) was not particularly efficient for developing institutional capacity in programme design across the sector.

An analysis of conditions per criterion, however, shows that the largest number of conditions were set for Criterion 2, Programme Design. Of the 107 conditions, 26 – more than for any other criterion – were set for this criterion (see Figure 6.7).

Figure 6.7: Conditions per criterion



Some of the conditions could easily be dealt with in the short term but there were also a large number of far-reaching conditions that called for extended reconstruction, especially in the key areas of Programme Design and Coordination, Teaching and Learning, and Assessment. Criteria 1, 3, 8, 9 and 10 dealt in the main with administrative and facility issues and were grouped together in a summary fashion. They comprised 30% of the total set of conditions. Criteria 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 made up 70% of the conditions and are dealt with separately in the following brief descriptions.

Conditions

Criterion 1: National, Institutional and Unit Context, 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection, 8: Infrastructure and Library Resources, 9: Student Retention and Throughput and 10: Programme Reviews.

The conditions here dealt mainly with correct nomenclature and registration, adjusting and specifying admission requirements, improving the use of library and ICT facilities, keeping better track of at-risk students, and explicit policies for internal and external review. It must be noted that Criterion 10 was used as a powerful measure to ensure that programmes were obliged to undergo external peer review processes.

Criterion 2: Programme Design and Coordination

The conditions here specified the need to review, redesign and reconceptualise the programmes. A specific trend in the mathematics specialisations was the need for a deeper disciplinary focus that would separate generic and specialist modules and increase mathematics content in an explicit manner.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Staffing conditions involved the need for better administrative support for academic staff, for academic staff to do teaching on the ACE courses rather than just supervising tutors, and for academic staff to become more research active.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

The conditions here specified the need to increase contact time, especially in Mathematical Literacy, to develop teaching and learning policies directed at good practice, to align teaching and learning with programme purpose and current policy, and to identify students at risk.

Criterion 6: Programme Coordination

These conditions pointed to the need to improve programme coordination and for clear lines of accountability to be drawn between academic and administrative functions of coordination.

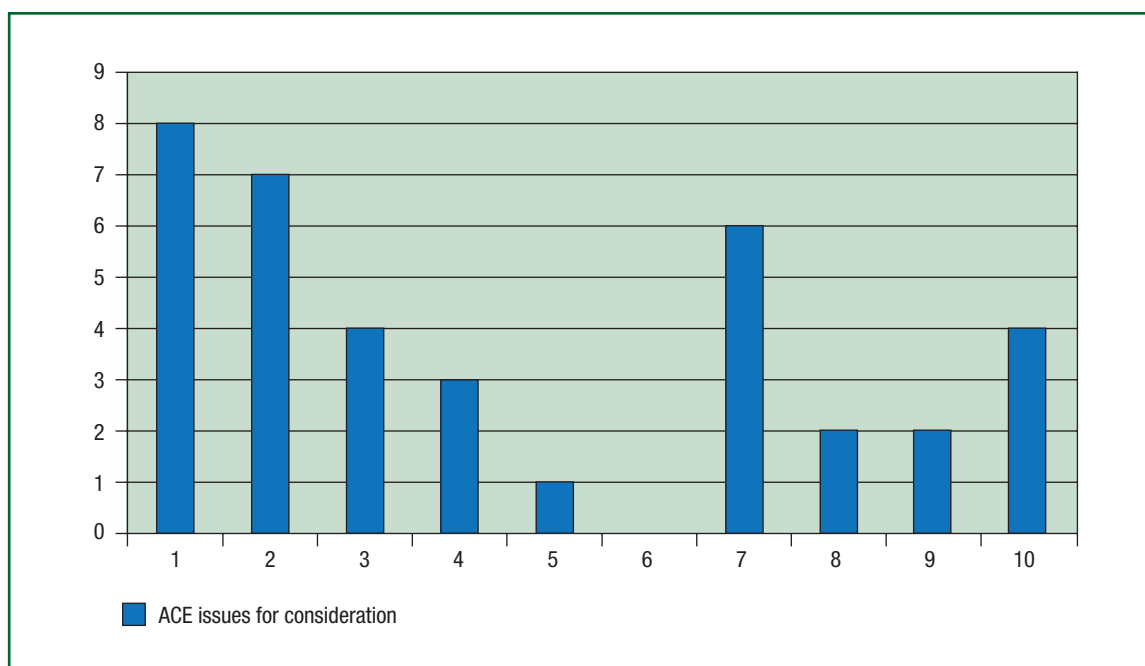
Criterion 7: Student Assessment

These conditions called for an improvement in assessment procedures to do with student feedback and external examining. There were also specific conditions directed at actual assessment practices, such as the need for more summative assessment, more consistent judgement, explicit links between outcomes and assessment, broadening assessment tasks, integrating theory and practice in assessment, and keeping focused on the specialisation rather than more generic issues.

The conditions applied mainly to the institutions that received accreditation with conditions. However, those that received full accreditation status were offered issues for consideration. Figure 6.8 shows the distribution of issues for consideration per criterion for these institutions.

An interesting observation here is that most of the issues that applied to the fully accredited institutions fell under Criterion 1 (eight issues), followed by Criterion 2 (seven issues) – see box below for a fuller description of the issues. There is a clear difference between the issues applied to this group of institutions and the conditions set for the group as a whole. The conditions, applied generally, called for radical design improvements, whereas the issues for consideration suggested changes that were more to do with administration. Even where the issues fell under Criterion 2, they were essentially about under-specification of outcomes, insufficient explicitness in the statement of outcomes and the need for stronger formalisation of procedures.

Figure 6.8: Issues for consideration for institutions with full accreditation



Issues for consideration

Criterion 1: National, Institutional and Unit Context

Institutions were requested to update their documentation, make the nomenclature of their qualification specific, and register and accredit their qualification according to the HEQF (Higher Education Qualifications Framework).

Criterion 2: Programme Design

Institutions were requested to make explicit their outcomes, module alignment and assessment practices, and to institute more formal procedures for staff and student involvement in curriculum development. In the case of mathematics in particular, institutions were requested to provide differential support for different mathematical competencies among students.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Institutions were requested to describe the specialisation accurately in the programme and calendar information documents, to ensure that marketing material was in line with university rules, and to broaden student access.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Institutions were asked to draw up an employment equity policy, to ensure that contract staff participated in orientation and staff development, and to develop workload formulas that included staff research and time to meet individual students.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

One institution was asked to look at ways of supporting at-risk students in the teaching and learning situation.

Criterion 6: Programme Coordination

No issues were noted.

Criterion 7: Assessment

Institutions were requested to ensure that summative assessment was in alignment with exit level outcomes. Assignments were to be returned in a reasonable time and practices put in place for student grievances. The need to improve external examination policies was pointed out.

Criterion 8: Infrastructure and Library Resources

Institutions were requested to ensure that ACE students were helped to acquire IT and library skills.

Criterion 9: Student Retention and Throughput

Plans were recommended to address student retention and throughput, especially for students at risk.

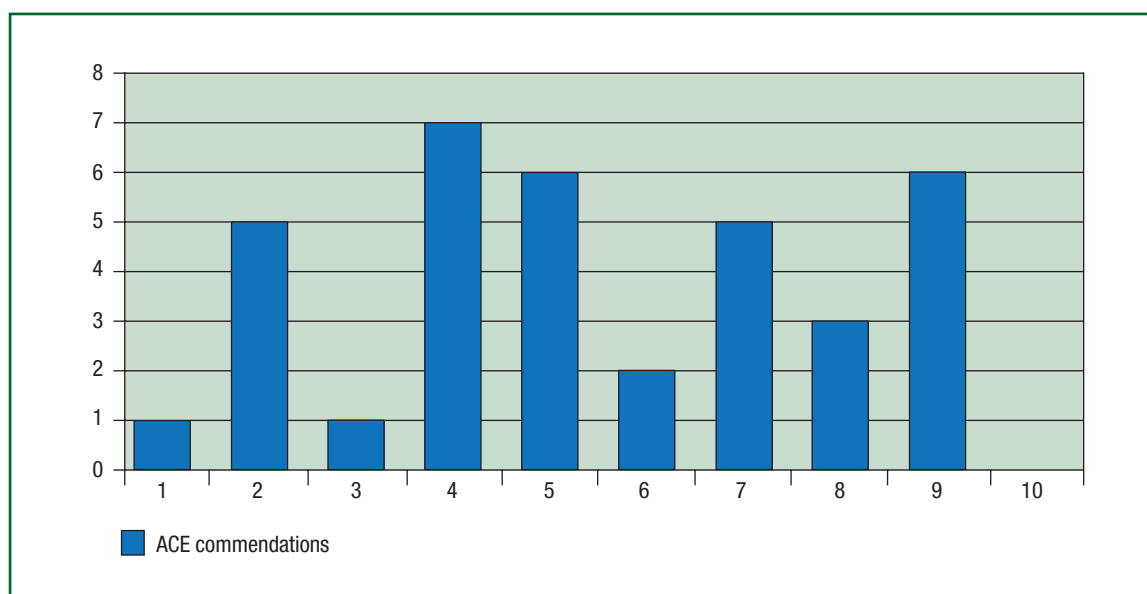
Criterion 10: Programme Review

It was suggested that a policy be developed for more effective internal and external programme review.

6.4.3 Commendations

There were 36 commendations in total. Of these, only six were for programmes falling into the ‘accreditation with conditions’ category. The other 30 commendations were for the 12 programmes that received full accreditation. Figure 6.9 presents the general picture. It is notable that Criteria 2, 4, 5, 7 and 9 are at a similar level.

Figure 6.9: Commendations per criterion



It was noticeable that as the overall evaluation of the institution improved, so the commendations for Programme Design, Staffing, Teaching and Learning, Assessment and Student Retention and Throughput increased. These were also, in the main, the criteria where poorly functioning programmes both did badly and were overrated in their own self-evaluation reports (SERs).

6.5 The ACE programme’s administrative and design problems

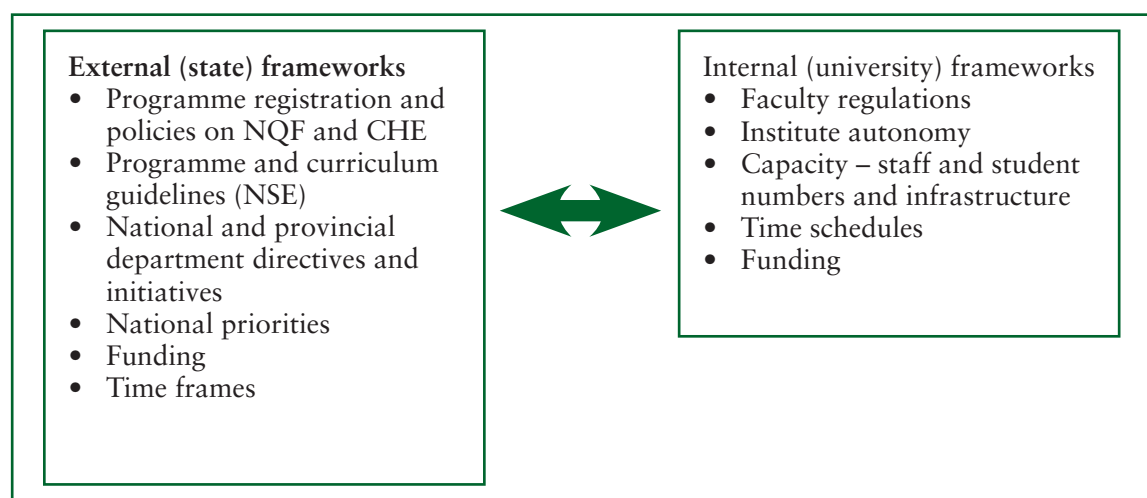
Analysing the conditions that were set and the distribution of commendations, it becomes clear that two areas of difficulty confront the ACE: administration and design. The administrative problems appear relatively easy to correct. Many of the conditions that were set had to do with

the need to update documentation, standardise and clarify the nomenclature of programmes and modules, and register programmes correctly. These are reviewed in Section 6.5.3 on page 130 (general issues). The design problem, i.e. the way the programmes were conceptualised, presented more of a challenge. Central here were the regulatory frameworks in which the ACE was set. The NSE emerged as a powerful but complex driver of the ACE. The analysis suggests that while both internal and external regulations were in place for holding the qualification in a state of coherence, these were not sufficiently clear or strong. The ACE presented itself as an uneven and variable qualification, and thus particularly vulnerable to the intense pressures brought to bear on it by particular role players. The rest of Section 6.5 discusses these problems.

6.5.1 External factors influencing the design of the ACE

All the ACE programmes were framed within regulatory frameworks that ideally should have facilitated the appropriate and relevant planning and delivery of these programmes. An analysis of the SERs, however, suggests that there were inconsistent and weak driving imperatives that often compromised the convenors' ability to hold to the requirements set externally and so maintain the quality of their programmes. They constantly found themselves obliged to take into consideration a range of other factors and interests. Figure 6.10 lists these factors and interests and illustrates the interlocking environment in which institutions find themselves. The arrows represent the way they are required to manoeuvre between these internal and external pressures – a necessarily difficult process. The roll-out of their programmes is thus often quite idiosyncratic. The following sections discuss these factors and interests.

Figure 6.10: Factors in the making of ACE programmes



6.5.1.1 Programme and curriculum guidelines

There is evidence from the SERs that most of the ACE programmes used the NSE and the NQF guidelines to frame the design of their curriculum. How they used these frameworks, however, differed from one institution to the next. While there was almost universal compliance with the spirit of the NSE document, in the sense that institutions stated that they were dependent on it for the design of their programmes, in reality the interpretation was very free. A clear example of this was the way many programmes explicitly foregrounded instructing teachers in 'the seven roles of the educator'³ as their guiding purpose, yet did not carry out this objective in the roll-out and implementation of their programmes. There was very little evidence from the materials scrutinised that programmes engaged critically with these roles, such as pastoral care, leadership and classroom management. They appeared simply to pay lip service to this framework.

3 <http://ace.schoolnet.org.za/cd/ukzncore2a/documents/core2a.7roles.htm>

Although all the ACE programmes reviewed complied with the specified 120 credits, there were large variations and inconsistencies in the credit allocations of individual modules in specific ACE programmes (see Appendix 11).

It was also observed that there was little uniformity across institutions in the allocated contact hours for the various programmes. The total varied from 120 to 200 contact hours annually. Although the mode of delivery was mostly contact, the courses were delivered variously on a weekly, weekend or concentrated weekly block basis. This was usually determined by contextual factors such as the geographical location of the students and the capacity of the university. The very nature of the ACE programme, and the fact that it was supposed to be offered to students in full-time employment as teachers, implied that the delivery model selected would be that of using holidays, weekends or after-hours. This caused problems in terms of sequencing of modules, independent learning and time that could be allocated to both theory and practice.

6.5.1.2 National and provincial department directives and initiatives

Most of the ACE programmes reviewed had been created in direct response to specific national and provincial initiatives. It was not always clear, however, whether provincial initiatives were aligned to national imperatives. It was suggested that provincial departments' inability to respond to national initiatives was often due to their financial and capacity constraints. This led to ad hoc and compromised frameworks for the planning and delivery of ACE courses, with detrimental effects on their design in terms of their purposes and outcomes.

6.5.1.3 National priorities

Many of the in-service national initiatives were also guided by identified priority areas, such as language, mathematics and science. This had an impact on the distribution and the proliferation of specific ACE programmes in South Africa. In their strategic planning, universities were often 'forced' to consider offering specific ACE programmes irrespective of their own capacity to offer them. This led to a proliferation of part-time and contract staff, which created its own difficulties, such as how to maintain coherence and continuity within and between ACE programmes.

6.5.1.4 Funding

The sustainability of most of the ACE programmes reviewed was dependent on external funding from such sources as state bursaries or private enterprise. It was mentioned during the review that teachers in general did not have the means to pay their ACE fees by themselves. However, many ACE programmes insisted that participating teachers pay a token amount to secure their 'buy-in' and ownership. Whether this was achieved or not was unclear. The possible impact that funding has on the design of the ACE programme is discussed in conjunction with the impact of internal regulatory frameworks in Section 6.5.2 below.

6.5.1.5 Time frames

A large number of ACE coordinators said the time frames imposed by departmental initiatives were often unrealistic and rushed. This caused uncertainty, necessitated ad hoc planning, and often compromised the design and implementation of the programmes.

6.5.2 Internal factors influencing the design of the ACE

While the ACE was expected to comply with a number of external requirements, at the same time it also had to comply with those of the host institution. To become accredited it had to fit into internal regulatory frameworks that were often not compatible with external imperatives and directives. All the ACE programmes were approved/accredited via their host institutions – mostly by the education faculty or otherwise by the faculty in which the school or department that facilitated the ACE was housed. This caused a number of problems.

6.5.2.1 *Institute autonomy*

A number of ACEs are located in autonomous or semi-autonomous institutes. Examples are the Rhodes University Mathematics Education Project (RUMEP) at RU, the Schools Development Unit (SDU) at UCT and the Institute of Mathematics and Science Teaching (IMSTUS) at US. These are mostly self-funded institutes or units with their own governing bodies, typically funded on a project-by-project basis by funding agencies such as Development Trusts, provincial and national government departments and private enterprise. Funding is sustained by securing tenders and initiating projects through individual proposals and/or collaborative consortiums. Often institutes compete against each other to secure tenders, though there is evidence that collaboration and cross fertilisation do take place. This is particularly the case when big tenders are released calling for a consortium of service providers.

Despite their relative autonomy, however, these institutes are integral to the parent faculty – generally the Faculty of Education. The ACE programmes at these institutes are, therefore, part of the faculty’s planning, organisational and quality assurance processes. This relationship with the parent faculty can be challenging. Although institutes claim to be autonomous, parent faculties often insist on rigorous accountability processes and even on delivering certain aspects of the programme themselves, such as the education component of the curriculum. The institutes are often seen as the providers of the professional and work-based dimension of the ACE, while the faculty provides the theoretical and conceptual support. This often generates tensions over power relations and accountability, which emerged during interviews. More serious are the tensions that arise between the different authorities to whom the unit is accountable: the funder on the one hand and the university on the other. Examples are particularly evident in curriculum design and course delivery. There was evidence that the institutional checks and balances are often threatened and compromised when externally funded initiatives are taken on board by universities. This particularly applied to situations where governmental projects were rushed through the institution’s internal approval processes.

The site visits showed that the advantage of having units with a degree of freedom to manage ACE programmes, however, is that, by their very nature, they are significantly more entrepreneurial in recruiting students and delivering their programmes than their university counterparts. Institutes are able to respond more quickly to tenders and to make decisions with regard to governmental needs and requests. This enables them to plan swiftly and to meet the immediate needs of national and provincial government, unlike their host, the university, which is governed by large, unwieldy and complex bureaucracies.

6.5.2.2 *Capacity – staff and student numbers and infrastructure*

Although, at first glance, the average rating that was given to Criterion 4 (Staffing) suggests that universities and institutes in general met minimum standards, analysis of the conditions set by the HEQC for the universities gives grounds for concern. There is strong evidence that academic staff on the ACE programmes engage more in administrative activities, such as supervising tutors and part-time staff, than in teaching. Further, the evidence suggests that staff on the ACE programmes only engage minimally with research activities. The ACE programmes are clearly demanding on human resources and require careful and strategic planning if the available cohort of well-qualified staff is to be used to its fullest capacity. This becomes difficult if the driving imperative for offering ACEs is one of supply and demand – i.e. push through as many teachers as possible to address the shortage of teachers in a particular field. It is not always easy for ACE service providers to reach a balance between sustaining the quality of programmes on the one hand, and responding to national imperatives on the other.

6.5.2.3 *Time schedules*

ACE course coordinators indicated that their internal regulatory frameworks were often not

compatible with external initiatives that demanded more flexible time schedules. Universities are governed by stringent timetables and cycles of registration. This incompatibility often meant that programmes were rushed through in haste, with the consequent compromise in programme design and, ultimately, delivery.

6.5.2.4 Funding

As mentioned in Section 6.5.1.4 on page 128, the implications of funding are manifold. The central point to make about funding, however, is that relying on external funding makes a host institution vulnerable. The difficulty of planning a long-term academic strategy in a capricious and uncertain climate means that institutions are unable to guarantee to deliver programmes of consistent quality over long periods of time. When funding is secure it is possible for institutions to employ both permanent and contract staff for fixed and viable periods of time. But when it is uncertain they have to keep reconstituting themselves afresh.

6.5.3 General issues

The absence of strong centrally driven guidelines for the ACE gives rise to a number of general issues. The overall issue is that the kind of ACE that has developed is uneven and variable in its structures, design and delivery. This unevenness is particularly evident in the mode of delivery of programmes, the kind of support material that has been developed, the resources that programmes have access to and, finally, the staffing of programmes. These are discussed individually.

- It was explained in Section 6.3.3 above that HEIs use the mixed-mode delivery system. While this approach is to be welcomed, the Review found, however, that it had inherent problems. Not only did the entire spectrum of possibilities of mixed-mode approaches manifest itself in programmes, but, more significantly, institutions struggled to find the right balance between contact teaching and learner support and to apportion these appropriately. Some institutions had extensive high-quality learner support materials and fairly substantial contact hours with students, while others met with students only occasionally and supported them with poorly developed learner support materials. In the absence of national norms or guidelines for how the programme could be mediated, institutions offered a variety of justifications for the balance they had settled on. These justifications possibly represented the institutions' awareness of the particular dynamics of their own environments, but their arrangements were more likely based on pragmatic reasons.
- Contact sessions across institutions varied in duration and timing. Some institutions convened their classes on a weekly basis while others held classes during the school holidays. Some institutions arranged meetings with students for a few hours at a time, while others had full-day sessions over a block period. Institutions argued that the duration and timing of contact sessions was based largely on students' accessibility and availability, but it was not clear that they took full cognisance of what made pedagogical sense.
- All ACE programmes were accommodated in adequately and suitably resourced teaching venues. The venues were appropriately secured through effective and efficient institutional planning mechanisms and most were spacious enough to accommodate the required student numbers. However, those courses that were oversubscribed often had difficulty securing big enough venues. One university warned that its ever-increasing ACE cohort would come to exert pressure on its venues in due course. Contingency plans in the form of expanding their campuses had been made by some universities. However, there was little evidence to suggest that class size was generally a problem. Most institutions appeared to have manageable ACE class sizes (in the order of 25 to 30 students).
- Although all ACE sites had a library, the holdings and support offered by those libraries varied significantly. Very few institutions had dedicated education libraries with librarians

who could offer dedicated and specialised education support and advice. Although support was provided to education students, this support formed part of the larger suite of services of the central library. Without exception, librarians commented that ACE students required specialised support. Their levels of academic literacy were generally very low and they lacked the experience with libraries to make full use of them. It is a general observation that ACE students in fact did not make sufficient and effective use of the library. The reasons for this are manifold. Alumni commented that they felt intimidated by university libraries – they preferred to use the local municipal library. They felt insufficiently orientated and inducted into the library machinery and were thus left feeling inadequate. They also commented that university libraries generally did not cater for part-time students. By their very nature, ACE courses are mostly run outside the mainstream university timetable and hence access to libraries and their support systems are not always guaranteed. This was frustrating and, according to the students, many developed a reluctance to frequent the library. The HEQC panels' visits to libraries revealed that those at established institutions generally offered an extensive collection of texts; others, however, were still building up their holdings.

- All ACE programmes had access to IT facilities, resources and support. Once again, the scope and quality of this support varied significantly across the different programmes. It appeared that all universities had functional computer laboratories that were available to the ACE students, giving them access to the internet and enabling them to complete online assignments and research tasks. Alumni, however, commented that, as with library facilities, they often found it difficult to use the labs effectively and efficiently as their timetables were not compatible with that of the mainstream campus, and either support was not available or access was very difficult. Hence the IT facilities were generally not used to their full potential by ACE students. It is also evident that the quality and extent of the orientation and induction programmes into IT resources varied considerably across the universities. Most ACE courses did not have a coherently integrated IT programme in their curriculum design. This is a problem, as it often tends to preclude students from a proactive and confident engagement with IT resources.
- A significant inconsistency across all ACE programmes was the varied use of external moderators or examiners. Some universities follow a vigorous policy of making effective use of external examiners, whereas others use them only superficially or use none at all. The former have systems in place where external examiners are changed on a regular basis (e.g. every three years), their credentials meet specific minimum standards, no former students are used, and different external examiners are used for different modules. The latter often use only one external examiner for all (or only some of) the modules. There is evidence that the engagement with and expectations of the external examiner also vary significantly from one university to the next. Some external examiners are required to write comprehensive reports, whereas others are not required to comment in any depth. Their feedback is used in a variety of ways. Although many reports appear not to be used to inform planning and practice, there is evidence that some are circulated to the staff concerned and action taken accordingly. One university, for example, insists that the external examiner visits the institution in person and interacts with the lecturers concerned with regard to student progress and curriculum planning.
- While the system requires skilled teachers who are expected to teach their newly acquired teaching specialisation, the Review found that there was little capacity in programmes to include work-based learning as part of their programme design.

6.6 The design challenge

Against these observations of the general issues that hamper the ability of institutions to deliver quality ACE programmes, this section examines the specificity of their design. The central

challenge for mathematics education in South Africa, to repeat the point made before, is to address the triadic demands of in-service work in a way that is aware of the co-constitutive nature of teaching and mathematics. Providing access, upskilling and re-skilling all have to be managed in a manner that demonstrates an awareness of how the teaching of mathematics is constituted. Designing an ACE in mathematics, it has to be acknowledged therefore, is a formidable challenge. Achieving success in this regard requires that its designers have not only a deep understanding of the complex relationship between mathematics and how it might be taught, but also, crucially, of how this might be done in the racially and socio-economically divided context of South Africa. Those who enter this arena are required to make hard choices. Do they offer a smorgasbord of courses that is policy compliant in broad terms or do they offer a focused and tightly conceived programme? The discussion below will make it clear that, while institutions were able to succeed in some elements of what they were doing, their weaknesses make it apparent that delivering a high-level ACE that appreciates the complexities of mathematics and its pedagogical demands, yet at the same time can cope with the contradictions of an unequal society in the throes of transition, is extremely difficult.

6.6.1 Coherence of programme design

The approach that was taken in reviewing the materials and the data from the Review was, essentially, to explore two interrelated aspects of programme conceptualisation. These were:

- 1) the link between programme purpose and programme design; and
- 2) the articulation of the ACE programme within the qualification structures of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Programmes needed to have identified the admission level competence for the ACE programme as being on a par with the exit level competence of a prior lower level qualification, extend or build on this competence level through the programme design, and allow the student to exit the programme with an exit competence level sufficient for vertical progression to a higher level qualification.

The question of level is, therefore, central in understanding the appropriateness of the programme. The ACE qualification needs to be appropriate to deliver on its purposes. In the South African context this is primarily an issue of upgrading and re-skilling.

To sum up the trajectory this chapter has taken, it is necessary to recapitulate the discussion. So far this chapter has come to the following conclusions.

While, on average, institutions rated themselves in their SERs as meeting minimum standards for Criterion 2 (Programme Design), the Review panels rated institutions, on average, as needing improvement. This suggests that institutions believed that their programme was coherent and that there was a clear alignment between the programme purposes and the programme design. The Review panels, however, found that substantial improvements, described as ‘conditions for accreditation’, were needed. In total, 26 conditions for accreditation were recorded under this criterion across all ACE programmes reviewed. The conditions relating to this criterion included requiring institutions to make explicit their outcomes, module alignment and assessment practices; the need to review, redesign and re-conceptualise the programme; and, more specifically to mathematics, to offer deeper disciplinary focus, increase the mathematics content, separate generic and specialist modules, and provide differential programme support for students’ different mathematical competencies.

The analysis makes it clear that the design of the programmes was routinely a matter of concern. HEIs, it is suggested, struggled with the content of their design. In attempting to resolve the inherent tension between the triadic purposes of the ACE programmes, invariably one of the purposes was privileged. In the process, the co-constitutive elements of a mathematics programme, namely, an emphasis on the NCS (teaching) and teaching mathematical principles and methodology were

not sufficiently attended to. This tension appeared to be exacerbated by the one-year nature of the programme where entrants brought to it varying levels of mathematical knowledge. This tension was made more intense, according to interviews conducted with academics during site visits, because most students on the programmes were intent on receiving a curriculum that focused on what they needed to teach at schools. They wanted help with teaching the new NCS. It was not a surprise during the analysis of the programmes, therefore, that there was an emphasis on ‘teaching to the NCS’. This raised, as many panel reports made clear, the critical question of what could be termed ‘the level devil’. Simply stated, if the programme focused on the NCS and was locked into the school curriculum, the ability to add on modules that would integrate this knowledge with an understanding of mathematical principles and the teaching of mathematics was constrained. Thus, the overriding focus on the school curriculum raised questions about whether the learning outcomes of the ACE qualification were equivalent to other Level 6 qualifications. The other question raised was about how the incongruence between teacher education reforms, such as the ACE, and the expectations of teachers, with their generally poor level of mathematical knowledge, could be reconciled. A related difficulty in many programmes, which created another facet of ‘the level devil’ problem, was that of designing a programme that could accommodate the different learning phases of the curriculum.

It was also apparent that there was, regularly, no clear alignment between the students’ entry level competence and a programme design that built upon or extended the entry level competence. To compound this, often to compensate for it, the attempt to achieve Level 6 entry level competence for the ACE qualification was largely restricted to modules on ‘Introduction to Research’ and ‘Pedagogy’. This implied that access to postgraduate studies in their field specialisation (e.g. Mathematics Education) or in Education Studies took priority over the upgrading or re-skilling in the area of specialisation.

6.6.1.1 The tension between the triadic purposes of ACE and programme design

Most of the institutions offering the ACE qualification indicated, as directed by the NSE (DoE, 2000), that the purposes of this qualification were threefold: (i) to upgrade teachers’ existing knowledge and pedagogy to keep up with developments in the subject/learning area; (ii) to provide access to the academic study of education, i.e. for students to access postgraduate degrees in education; and (iii) to re-skill teachers so that they will be able to teach subjects they either have not taught before (e.g. Mathematics Literacy as a new subject introduced in the new FET curriculum) or to provide content and pedagogical knowledge to teachers who are not qualified to teach subjects they are currently teaching (e.g. GET Mathematics). However, analysis of the institutions’ curricula showed there was strong evidence to suggest that most institutions offering the ACE (Mathematics) qualification integrated this triadic purpose into a single curriculum design without taking cognisance of the students’ intentions or entry competence or specifying clearly enough what they wanted as an outcome for the qualification as a whole. Students wanting to re-skill themselves were subjected to the same curriculum as those who wanted to upgrade their existing content and pedagogical competence. The curriculum design did not specifically allow for in-depth development related to the particular purposes espoused. For example, one institution conceptualised the ACE (Mathematics) as a programme for educators with primary and secondary teachers’ diplomas who want to update, enrich and supplement their existing knowledge and competence so as to improve their teaching whilst setting themselves on course for further studies at a university level. However, a review of that programme design indicated that one third of the programme was devoted to mathematics content (and this was at Level 4 and below, i.e. school content level) and the other two thirds of the programme focused on classroom practice (which was considered to be on Level 6). In this case the programme design did not cater adequately for updating, enriching and supplementing the teacher’s existing subject knowledge; rather, it focused on how the school subject content could be taught more proficiently.

What this suggests is that the purpose of the ACE qualification was not easily accommodated in the framework provided for it, especially in terms of the time available. The framework sought a simple and clear programme design reflected in a process through which a simple, and possibly single, purpose could be achieved.

6.6.1.2 Competence levels and programme design alignment

In terms of the NQF and the NSE, the ACE qualification is pegged at the same exit level competence as the Bachelor of Education (BEd) and the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). This means that it could be regarded as part of, or an extension of, an initial qualification in teaching focusing on the professionalising of a teacher. Further, this means that a major part of the module outcomes should be the same as or equivalent to the module outcomes of the BEd and PGCE programmes. The exit level outcomes of all three qualifications should also be very similar.

The ACEs reviewed, however, did not show any articulation with these two programmes. Institutions claimed that the ACE qualification largely provides access to the BEd (Hons) qualification (currently a Level 7 qualification on the NQF), but no mention was made of, or no evidence provided of, how the ACE modules articulated with the BEd modules or the PGCE modules. This suggested that the ACE qualifications were planned in isolation from the BEd and the PGCE. Some institutions indicated that staff who taught on the BEd and PGCE were involved in planning and teaching the ACE qualifications and articulation between these qualifications had been facilitated as a result of this incidental or contextual engagement.

This essential programme design flaw has serious implications for the competence of teachers graduating from each of these three programmes (ACE, BEd and PGCE). A teacher being re-skilled to teach a subject specialisation through the ACE programme is probably less well prepared than a teacher being developed to teach the same school subject through the BEd or PGCE programme. This can be seen, for example, by comparing the subject content level competence developed in the ACE programme, claimed by most institutions to be at Level 5 or below, with the subject content level competence expected of the BEd and PGCE, which is at Level 6 or higher.

The ACE programme, by design, is also expected to allow graduates to access postgraduate academic study in education through the BEd (Hons) qualification. This means that its programme design should include the means to achieve admission competence for this level of study. Institutions claimed that this competence had been facilitated largely through the Research Methodology module that was included in the programme design. However, they also claimed that the major part of the ACE programme at Level 6 was in the pedagogical content knowledge component. This implies that students wanting to pursue postgraduate academic studies in education in their disciplinary field would not have a sufficient knowledge base to do so. This issue adds to the concerns raised about the triadic purposes the ACE programme is expected to fulfil.

Articulation between students' admission level competence and programme design has also been a point of contention. The minimum requirement for admission to the ACE is a three-year teaching diploma, and most institutions included teaching experience as part of the admission requirements. This means that most students in the programme would have completed a recognised initial qualification in teaching and have some teaching experience.

Evidence from the ACE programme Review reports suggests that, while some students enrolled in the ACE programme would have had advanced qualifications in Education (e.g. BEd, PGCE, BEd (Hons)), most had only recently completed the NPDE – a programme introduced in South Africa to upgrade underqualified teachers to Level 5 status. The ACE qualification then became a space for the NPDE graduates to continue with their upgrading process. For example, at the

University of Venda, when the ACE programme started in 2001, it was offered in contact mode on a daily basis since most students lived within the vicinity of the university. In 2004, the first group of NPDE students graduated and the demand for the ACE increased tremendously. In 2003 there were 14 students, in 2004 there were five, in 2005 there were 177, and in 2006 the number had increased to 330.

The information provided in the SERs and the panel reports offered little evidence to suggest how the variations in student admission competence were taken into consideration in the programme design and delivery. The design did not appear to allow for students' choice. All the students had to do similar modules, and recognition of prior learning (RPL) did not feature at all with respect to their competence to do the module. Another example of poor articulation between students' admission competence and programme design is the way development of pedagogical knowledge dominates the ACE programme. Teachers entering the ACE programme with PGCE, BEd or BEd (Hons) qualifications were being offered the same pedagogical content knowledge at Level 6 as those coming in with a three-year diploma (pegged at Level 5).

It has to be concluded that the lack of flexibility in the programme design structure to allow for varying admission competence wastes curriculum opportunities and inhibits students' progress.

6.6.1.3 Programme differentiation

The term 'programme differentiation' is used to describe the way the programme design allows for fundamental learning associated with students' personal growth and development, core learning associated with the field of study, and related electives that allow for specialised or specific development within the study field. An ACE programme deemed to have a good programme differentiation would be one that has an appropriate mix of fundamental, core and elective learning relative to the programme purpose of the ACE qualification. For example, an ACE in Mathematical Literacy would be deemed to have a good programme differentiation when its design combines content and pedagogy related to teaching Mathematical Literacy as core learning. This core learning would then form the major component of the curriculum. The fundamental and elective components would be minimal or non-existent in such a programme design.

Criteria 2 and 5 of the programme evaluation relate to the purpose of the programme and therefore to programme differentiation. In both these criteria there is a marked difference between how the institution rated itself and how the Review panel rated it. For these two criteria, the differences between the two average ratings were 1 and 0.8 respectively. These criteria manifested the two largest gaps in the average rating difference across all evaluation criteria. The average rating across institutions' self-evaluation for Criterion 5 borders on 'meets minimum standards' (average rating of 1.8), while the average rating by the Review panels for this criterion sits on 'needs improvement' (average rating of 1). Clearly, institutions are convinced that their programme design and curriculum construction are appropriate for their intended purposes. Panel reviewers, however, raised serious concerns about how institutions conceptualised their ACE offerings. Some of the conditions imposed on institutions for accreditation relate to institutions needing to align their teaching and learning to programme purpose and these conditions were deemed to take more time and resources to fulfil than other conditions.

Further analysis of the curriculum revealed that, at some institutions, programme economy appeared to be a key driver of the range of ACE programme specialisations being offered. 'Programme economy' is the term used to describe attempts to rationalise programme offerings so as to achieve greater diversification by consolidating core components within a limited resource framework. This is considered further in the next section.

6.6.1.4 Programme integration

The NSE (DoE, 2000) indicates that the ACE qualification curriculum structure is determined by the institution. No specific direction is provided by the NSE except to indicate that the minimum credit value for this qualification should be 120 credits and that the qualification should be pegged at Level 6 on the NQF. Using these two guidelines, institutions are then expected to design a curriculum that they deem appropriate to meet the specific focus of the ACE qualification they want to offer. Analysis of SERs shows that most of the institutions offer a range of ACE programmes, with some offering up to 15 ACE qualifications.

Some institutions managed to integrate a range of ACE programmes offerings through common and specialised module packages. The common module packages were generic to all ACE programmes on offer at an institution, while the specialised module package defined the ACE specialisation. For example, an institution would offer Research Methodology and Education Studies modules as common modules across several ACE programmes, while the content and pedagogical modules in Mathematical Literacy would define an ACE in Mathematical Literacy.

There are two ways of looking at programme integration:

- 1) The programme integration principle allows institutions to achieve a comparable level of competence across all ACE programmes with respect to core learning, as the NSE framework expects. This can be seen as positive, as it can ensure that some of the exit level competence is achieved across all the ACE programmes offered by the institution.
- 2) On the other hand, the programme integration principle can compromise the specific intentions of an ACE programme. For example, in an ACE in Mathematics Education, which is for re-skilling a teacher who has not taught Mathematics before, a large proportion of the programme space may be consumed by core learning that may not be what this teacher needs. Programme economy may therefore be detrimental to the design of a specialised ACE programme.

The principle of programme integration therefore cannot be seen in isolation from the principles of programme coherence, programme differentiation and programme articulation. Good programme integration occurs when the programme design identifies the relationship between the purpose of the programme and how the modules are packaged together to achieve the intended purpose and takes into account the assumptions about the nature of the student, the levels of complexity and extent of programme diversity. To achieve the triadic purpose of the ACE programme (upgrading, re-skilling and providing access to a higher qualification), the modules must be packaged so as to provide spaces and sequences for the academic and professional growth of the student. This approach must also integrate these two requirements while building on the levels of complexity of engagement as the student progresses towards achieving the exit level competence expected of the ACE programme.

Analysis of the HEQC's evaluations shows that some ACE programmes have a design in which the various modules are well-integrated, but that some fall short of a well integrated programme. ACE programme packages all include modules on content and pedagogical knowledge related to a specialisation, modules on research methodology focusing on systematic enquiry in education, and modules or programme interventions on generic student development (e.g. computer literacy). However, there were quite stark differences in the way these were integrated in the programmes the HEQC reviewed. Some programmes, such as the ACE in Educational Management, simply packaged a relatively loose collection of modules related to the specialisation without explaining their relationship. In others, however, such as the ACE in Mathematics or Mathematics Education, the modules were much more coherently integrated and there were clearer rationales for their range and sequencing. As mentioned in the discussion in Section 6.4 about the differences between programmes that were and were not accredited, this coherence was found particularly in programmes that had a strong leadership and were well coordinated.

Another issue that affects programme integration is the fact that teachers are not expected to engage in any professional development activities during school hours. This means they have to enrol in the ACE programme on a part-time basis. Further, the students come from a widespread geographic area. These two factors compel the institutions to offer their ACE programmes over weekends and school holidays, which inevitably affects the way the modules are packaged and integrated.

Two conclusions can be drawn from the above discussion:

- 1) There is a direct link between programmes with good programme integration and appropriate leadership and programme coordination.
- 2) Contextual factors and delivery options can compromise good programme integration.

6.6.1.5 Conclusion

Although the HEIs are responding to national requirements, they are doing so at levels that are questionable. There remains a question about what is being taught. The desirable level of mathematics knowledge that will ensure that teachers know the discipline that they are teaching appears not to have been reached. This compliance is achieved in many Mathematics-related courses that are not about Mathematics. This is the most problematic element of many of the programmes under review.

6.7 The relevance and appropriateness of the ACE programme

This section considers how relevant the ACE qualification is to the South African education system and how appropriate it is as a way of meeting the demands of the South African society. The *purpose* of the qualification was central to understanding this relevance and appropriateness. Section 6.6 above discussed the ‘what’ of the ACE programme; this section now discusses the ‘how’. These cannot, however, be understood in isolation from each other. How the content of the ACE is mediated is a critical question.

6.7.1 Mathematics content knowledge

Content knowledge and subject proficiency embrace a number of skills and competencies. Kilpatrick suggests that mathematical proficiency includes *conceptual understanding*, *procedural fluency*, *strategic competence*, *adaptive reasoning* and *positive disposition*. These are intricately interwoven and should not be separated from each other. Although it is recognised that, in the context of mathematics education, mathematics content cannot be disentangled from mathematical pedagogy, it is, however, also strongly argued that in order to teach proficiently, teachers need to be mathematically proficient. The same applies, of course, to other specialist fields, such as Science, Technology and the Social Sciences. But it takes a particular form in mathematics, and the question is whether this is evident in the discourse of the programmes.

It can thus be argued that a relevant and appropriate ACE programme will be designed to focus on content knowledge at the appropriate level and be mediated in a way that is alert to the specificity of the subject. However, as the discussion below makes clear, there are significant differences of understanding with respect to these central issues of *NQF level content* and *mathematical proficiency* and *how the programme is mediated*.

6.7.1.1 NQF level content

There appears to be very little consensus amongst HEIs as to what constitutes a NQF Level 6 qualification with regard to mathematics content in the various mathematics ACE programmes. With the exception of one, none offered mathematics at Level 6. This was usually offset and justified by the fact that most of the other modules, such as pedagogy and research, are offered at Level 6. With respect to mathematics itself, many HEIs argued that the content for a GET

level ACE need not be pitched at Level 6. One university, for example, argued strongly that the mathematics content for an ACE with a GET focus did not need to go beyond Grade 9 school mathematics (i.e. Level 1 of the NQF). It was, furthermore, apparent that the mathematics content for most ACE programmes with an FET focus did not go beyond Levels 4 or 5.

There is little consensus in South Africa as to what the minimum NQF level of mathematical proficiency should be for either a GET or a FET mathematics teacher. Very few of the ACE programmes under review provided evidence that they engaged with this issue in any significant depth in their programme design. This problem is exacerbated by the lack of consensus as to the general purpose of an ACE qualification.

Very few ACEs are able to provide a clear statement of their broader purpose in terms of the triad of purposes (re-skilling, upgrading and providing access to a higher qualification). This is problematic when it comes to determining the level of mathematics content. It could be argued, for example, that an ACE whose sole purpose is to provide a route to a BEd (Hons) need not include a significant level. A mathematics re-skilling ACE, on the other hand, would require a more substantial and robust mathematics content. It is important that programme designers understand the general purpose of the ACE and take cognisance of it for future programmes. The mathematics content level must be articulated very clearly. This needs to be done on a broad national level in order to build consensus. Numerous opinions have been expressed. The mathematics education community in general believe the ACE mathematics content should be pegged at a level higher than school mathematics. Some feel that the mathematics content for an FET ACE should not be pegged below first-year university level (i.e. NQF Level 5) and for a GET ACE not below Matric level (i.e. NQF Level 4). It is, however, also strongly argued that it is not feasible to set these levels in stone, since teachers' current lack of mathematical proficiency is such that success in achieving the exit level outcomes for such an ACE would be seriously compromised.

There is evidence that some universities offer the GET and FET ACE as an integrated programme – i.e. the classes are composed of both GET and FET students. Alumni at several HEIs felt this was a problem and that it compromised the outcomes of both these ACEs. This tension once again raises the issue of purpose and how the programme can be made to fulfil its purposes. It appears that the current conflation of the three purposes in the triad has made it difficult to articulate clearly what the ACE is attempting to achieve.

Another aspect of this debate on what constitutes appropriate mathematical content for an ACE qualification is the question of scope and depth: whether an ACE should simply do more of the existing school mathematics curriculum or, if it is to extend its scope, how far it should go.

There is also little consensus among universities as to the appropriate ratio of mathematics content to mathematics pedagogy in the ACE programme. Many universities blurred the distinction between the two by adopting an integrated curriculum design approach. Some said that 33% of their curriculum was dedicated to mathematics content, while others said that four out of ten of their modules focused on mathematics content. Once again, to resolve this inconsistency requires a clear understanding of the purpose of the ACE. If the purpose is to upgrade mathematical content, then what is needed is a higher level of mathematics; if it is to re-skill pedagogical capacity (from a given content base), then what is needed is a broader engagement with this knowledge of content base.

The various ACE programmes offer a wide range of mathematical topics, each reflecting the phase level of the ACE. For example, one university said that its GET ACE covered Advanced Algebra, 3-D Geometry, Euclidean and Analytic Geometry, Differential Calculus, Enrichment Mathematics and Novel Mathematics. Another simply stated that its GET ACE mathematics topics were taken directly from the school curriculum.

It is apparent from the above that the ACE programme needs to be differentiated on two levels: by *purpose* and by *phase*. The purpose needs to be clear in terms of *re-skilling*, *upgrading* and *access*, and the phase level that a particular ACE targets need to be clearly articulated as either the GET phase or the FET phase.

6.7.1.2 Modes of delivery

The mode by which the ACE is delivered is crucial if it is to achieve its purpose. What happens during contact sessions and the quality of learner support that is provided to students through the learner support materials are extremely important. The HEQC panels' reports show that students were indeed exposed to a range of learning activities during the contact sessions. These included content delivery through lectures, seminars, discussions on assignments and modelling of pedagogic practices. The learner support materials ranged from content-driven materials to classroom-based activities and included journal articles, worksheets, learning activities and course notes. Some institutions had professional support in developing these learning materials, while at other institutions the teaching staff created these materials. However, these materials varied enormously from institution to institution in quality, appropriateness and standard.

A related issue was the students' contact with staff. All the institutions said provisions were made for students to communicate with academic staff outside of formal contact sessions, by phone, email or personal appointments. Academic staff and students acknowledged that these forms of communications were important and beneficial to students learning through the mixed mode delivery system. Institutions also said students had access to university resources and infrastructure outside of contact sessions. Library resources included publications that could be obtained electronically.

However, although these facilities were available to students, actual *use* of them was minimal. A programme intended to compensate for gaps in students' education should ensure that they are encouraged and helped as much as possible to take advantage of the extra facilities provided. However, this did not appear to be the case. Some institutions built the compensatory elements into their programmes by making attendance and participation compulsory; others made them optional. Again, the question has to be raised about whether the ACE is doing its job if the programmes are as variable as this. The unevenness of the use of the institutions' infrastructure is flagged as a concern in terms of developing a culture of academic engagement amongst students.

The mixed mode seems to be the most appropriate mode of delivery for the ACE programme, but the quality of institutions' provisioning for this varies. Institutions will be better served if more details and guidance are provided as national norms for mixed mode delivery. For example, national norms should be set to advise institutions on how to balance contact time and materials based support, and the minimum amount and frequency of contact times should be specified.

Although there is evidence that ACE students on the whole are provided with a range of learning materials, there is little evidence to suggest that there is a shared understanding among lecturers and programme designers as to the scope and depth of these materials. There is a contradiction between the commonplace understanding of HEIs that ACE students have weak academic literacy and the amount and quality of materials that they receive. While the Review was unable to look at how the students use, read and understand the materials and what support is offered to help them do this, it was apparent that there was significant variation in the nature and quality of the materials that were prescribed for the ACE programme. Many of the institutions were engaged in professional development of materials such as textbooks and other resources. These are commercially produced and undergo quality assurance processes of the marketplace.

Generally the calibre of these materials is high although many are driven by publisher imperatives, which are not necessarily commensurate with those of critical teacher education. Other institutions rely on photocopied materials and readers that are constructed by the

lecturers. There is abundant evidence at these institutions that these materials are kept up to date and reviewed regularly. It was not clear, however, how customised these materials were for the specific needs of the students.

6.7.1.3 Assessment

There is much evidence that not all institutions have comprehensive assessment policies to ensure that their assessment strategies are coherently aligned with the stated purpose of their ACE programmes. The average rating of Criterion 7 (Student Assessment) suggests that, overall, institutions rated themselves as having met the minimum standard for this criterion. The HEQC evaluation, however, suggests otherwise – its average rating indicated a level below the minimum. Closer analysis reveals a wide range of ratings, with some service providers being awarded a ‘commend’ and others as ‘needing improvement’.

All the ACE programmes used both formative and summative assessment strategies, in varying proportions. In one programme, for example, the balance was rigorously 50:50, while in another the formative assessment made up only 20%. Evidence suggests that continuous assessment is practised throughout – albeit in a variety of forms. There is little evidence of a consistent and collective understanding of continuous assessment, however. Some institutions foregrounded the regularity and frequency of the assessment programme (i.e. it is ‘ongoing’), whereas others emphasised its variety, multiplicity, diversity and holistic nature.

The match between assessment and purpose varied across institutions. Many institutions explicitly aligned their assessment strategy with the stated outcomes and objectives of the ACE in general and individual modules in particular. For many institutions the assessment activities were consonant with the exit level outcomes. This was particularly the case for universities that had clearly articulated assessment policies. There was evidence, however, that many institutions adopted a more ad hoc and laissez faire approach. Their assessment tasks often did not reflect the module content, or were not integrated into the programme. It appeared that many institutions were still coming to terms with the ramifications of a transformed curriculum and the way it transformed assessment practices. A further concern was the often encountered mismatch between the assessment of mathematics content modules and the required NQF Level 6. It was clear that there was very little consistency across the ACE programmes in the delivery of an NQF level in mathematics content. As mentioned in Section 6.7.1.1, the NQF levels addressed in the mathematics content modules varied from below Level 1 to Level 5. This inconsistency was manifested in assessment tasks that seldom required mathematical content beyond Level 2 or 3.

There is much diversity in the quality and quantity of student feedback across the ACE programmes. Although students in general received regular feedback, there was no consistency in how immediate this feedback was. Some alumni and current students expressed concern about the tardiness of the feedback, whereas others expressed satisfaction. The quality of feedback also varied considerably – some students receive comprehensive qualitative feedback, whereas others simply received a mark. Despite this inconsistency, however, there is evidence that nearly all universities had in place procedures for students to lodge grievances and settle assessment disputes. These took the form of formal protocols or informal interactions with lecturers concerned. An area of concern was the apparent lack of a consistent system for monitoring students – particularly those at risk across programmes. Students appeared to be monitored very informally, and for those who fell short of the assessment standards, the remedial procedures were vague. Some institutions indicated that students could resubmit assignments, while others simply made their lecturers available to students for consultations. Institutional Academic Development programmes appeared to offer a range of opportunities to students, both qualitatively and quantitatively, but ACE students as a rule did not make use of these opportunities as they were part-time students with severe time constraints, and the offerings often did not coincide with their contact sessions. Again, the issue of concern is if a programme

is to achieve its purposes is how well it understands and engages with the students' position. A programme cannot be responsive if it is remote from its students.

The conditions that were set by the HEQC are pertinent to recall here. They include the need for:

- improved assessment procedures to do with student feedback and external examining,
- a healthier balance between summative and formative assessment;
- more consistent judgement;
- explicit links between outcomes and assessment;
- broadening of assessment tasks;
- integrating theory and practice in assessment; and
- keeping focused on the specialisation and not more generic issues.

These convey a strong message about the necessity for programmes to understand *how* they use the materials and mediate the curriculum. While there were examples of good practice, such as that of RUMEP (Rhodes University Mathematics Education Project), most programmes were less thorough in their approach to these questions. The strength of RUMEP lies in its holistic assessment approach. It uses a multiplicity of tasks – a teaching portfolio, an action research project, assignments and tasks that emphasis reflection, examinations of all modules, evaluation of textbooks, conducting mathematics workshops, presentation of a conference paper – and supports and assesses students in their own school environments.

6.7.1.4 Staff capacity

Closely related to the issue of how programmes are mediated is the issue of teaching staff. In general, as mentioned in Section 6.5, above, human resource capacity to offer the ACE is adequate within higher education. Academically, the programmes are appropriately coordinated by qualified and experienced senior academics at the institutions who provide academic and administrative leadership in the conceptualising and organising the programme. But the actual delivery of the modules is largely done by contract and part-time staff appointed by the education unit offering the programme. This arrangement raises several issues, which include understanding how the module relates to the purposes and outcomes of the programme (i.e. the overall articulation of a particular module within the entire programme); the induction, monitoring and ongoing development of the staff teaching the module; the availability of contract and part-time staff for activities other than just teaching the module; engaging with students outside of contact sessions; and access to faculty resources.

It was noted that institutions had found different ways of dealing with these issues. Some had appropriate policies in place to guide the way they appointed and supported both contract and part-time staff, while others had effective programme coordinators who took a personal approach to managing these staff. The most difficult situation occurred when the ACE programme was offered as a joint responsibility between two or more units (departments, centres, schools, and so on). Lines of authority, reporting and ownership of responsibility were the three key issues that complicated the offering of the ACE programme. Another staffing difficulty occurred where institutions had to rely on part-time staff to teach modules of the ACE programme that were offered off-campus (usually where there was a long distance between the main campus and the site of delivery), which compromised communication, support and quality assurance. A further difficulty arising from the use of part-time and contract staff to offer the ACE was the matter of the time lines given by institutions to respond to donor needs. Often, institutions are asked to offer the ACE programmes within short time frames that do not allow sufficient time to do a needs assessment, sustainability analysis and impact analysis, which means that the institution is obliged to rely on temporary measures to satisfy the donor needs.

A final point is about staff research. There is evidence that not many ACE staff engage in other scholarly activities such as publishing research. This may be because of the high demands the ACE programmes make on staff capacity. Staff interviewed by the HEQC panels agreed that ACE staff are often overworked and under-supported by the administrative structures, particularly at those universities that do not rely on outside funded institutes. That research-driven and research-informed programmes should be offered is a widely accepted understanding in informed communities. Teaching programmes that operate outside of this awareness are risky and can be accused of having arbitrary foundations. It is a matter of concern that so little research is in evidence around the programmes.

6.8 Conclusion

The point that needs to be made in bringing this chapter to a close is that HEIs end up paying insufficient attention to the ACE Mathematics, and indeed to other ACEs, because the ACE is perceived as being the lowest of their priorities. In consequence, the institutions extensive capacity is often not placed at the disposal of the students. The most vulnerable students in the institution then come to be the recipients of the minimal amount of attention, time and support that the institution can provide.

It could be said that the HEIs are meeting the requirements for fulfilling the ACE's purpose only formally and in a spirit of compliance rather than substantially. While many ACE programmes are able to meet minimum standards and receive accreditation, they do so in ways that do not open up questions, or shed light on the particular problem or provide really novel answers to the problems facing the country.

The absence of a sustained plan that addresses the continuum of learning that is required, and in particular that addresses poor subject specialisation knowledge, is perhaps the greatest weakness of the ACE programmes. The training that has been driven by provincial requirements has obscured the need to understand how to produce practitioners who are both good teachers and have sufficient knowledge of their disciplines. The heavy emphasis on developing practical competences in the qualification relegates to the margins the reflexive competences required of good practice. Examining the extent to which the ACE is the appropriate qualification type for the stated purpose in terms of level, duration and mode of delivery was central to the National Review process.

- 1) The Review indicated that most ACE programmes, especially those with subject or discipline specialisations, had difficulty complying with the list of competencies specified by the NSE (2000). When considering the appropriateness of the ACE qualification, it can be argued that its critical objective is professional development and its link to education reform in the country. We need to ask whether a 120 credit qualification is the right tool for developing mathematics and science teachers. Evidence from site visits provides substantial grounds for arguing that curriculum congestion occurs and in the process institutions have to sacrifice something. Invariably, especially for mathematics, what is sacrificed is sustained attention to *what students need most: compensatory courses to make good their poor understanding of mathematics*.
- 2) The main tension for the ACE staff arose from the need to ensure that the qualification achieved the required level and breadth of coverage of curriculum content. Site visits, SERs and HEQC Board reports confirm that a major area of concern was the level of subject content and the amount that had to be covered in a short space of time. Achieving depth and breadth is a difficulty that appeared to bedevil most programmes, as emphasis on one would often be to the detriment of the other. Depth was often sacrificed to the need to cover areas prescribed by the National Curriculum Statement.

- 3) If all the ACE teachers are to be appropriately trained to promote the values of our transforming education system, this will require an integrated process of self-directed and state-directed intervention. This process was not generally in evidence.

This Review has shown how the difficulty of managing the tension between the various demands of the ACE leads to HEIs making pragmatic decisions. The single most obvious effect, largely caused by the provinces' demands for teachers who are nominally upgraded and certified, is the emphasis that is placed on practical competence. In taking this direction, however, the system gradually weakens its ability to make a difference even in the area of practical competence.

Debates about mathematics education for teachers are not confined to South Africa. It is helpful to consider the international scene. Ball et al. (2005:16), in addressing the American context, raise questions about the scope and nature of mathematical knowledge required by the teacher. They argue that the key imperatives in mathematics education are the following:

- teachers should study more mathematics, which would necessitate additional coursework and subject-matter majors;
- emphasis should be placed on practice-grounded approaches that prepare teachers for the mathematics they will use in their job; and
- recruits for mathematics teaching should be drawn from the discipline of mathematics.

While these American recommendations are clearly helpful, South Africa has first to deal with the more basic problem of shortage of teachers. To manage the supply and demand for mathematics and science teachers here, South Africa will have to perform a balancing act, since there is a limited pool of new entrants into the field. Those already in the system are themselves grappling with the curriculum reforms. The problem remains that while these realities are acknowledged, the problem is still that the system lacks the critical data that would enable it to say with any level of precision:

- what number of teachers is required; and
- what skills the teachers actually require.

To address these challenges it might be appropriate to reconsider the structure of the ACE qualification in its existing format. Three possible options are:

- 1) to introduce specific focus ACE type qualifications that meet generically identified needs and trends;
- 2) to use the existing mainstream teacher education programme (the BEd) for the needs of in-service teachers, through a process of RPL and multiple entry points into these mainstream programmes; and
- 3) to identify clear pathways that would situate the ACE at a point on a continuum of professional development with the specific aim of deepening subject knowledge.

A fourth option is to use the new CPTD rewards system of the new National Teacher Education Framework (DoE, 2007) and an appropriate RPL process to enable in-service teachers to upgrade, re-skill and access postgraduate education programmes.

Just before the publication of this report, the Department of Education conveyed to institutions decisions made by the Council of Education Ministers regarding policy for the offering of ACE programmes from 2009. Two types of ACE are proposed:

1) A subject/learning area/phase specialisation ACE

This will be an upgrading ACE designed for teachers who already have grounding in the area of specialisation. It is intended for teachers who have a three-year qualification (diploma or NPDE). It aims to restore the original purpose of the ACE, as envisaged by the NSE – to build on and develop an existing professional knowledge-base.

2) An advanced ‘extended role’ ACE

This will be a re-skilling ACE that will offer a broader range of areas than those specified for the upgrading ACE (e.g. education management, inclusive education). Teachers admitted to a re-skilling ACE must already have a 480 credit qualification in their area of specialisation, and this may include a specialised upgrading ACE. The distinction being made between the two types of ACEs is intended to emphasise the difference in purpose, content and outcomes between upgrading and re-training programmes, and to prevent the tendency of teachers to use the ACE as a pathway to REQV14 status without improving their competence in their area of teaching first.

While this innovation will not necessarily solve all the design and delivery problems described in this chapter, it is an important step towards addressing some of the major tensions of the current situation, and should help institutions deal with the often conflicting demands being made the ACE programmes as they are presently constituted.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusion

7.1. Introduction

In bringing this Review to a close, and having examined the MEd, the BEd, the PGCE and the ACE programmes separately, it is necessary to ask what the Review collectively says about the state of the field of teacher education in South Africa. Is it in a 'fit' state? Are the institutions offering programmes fit for their purpose? Is quality being demonstrated and is this quality informed by the country's needs?

A synthesis of the data collected during the Review and its analysis from a system level perspective need to take into account the distinctive nature of the different programmes assessed. While the four programmes focused on are seen as teacher education programmes and all of them fall in the field of education, there are clear differences in terms of nature and purpose between the MEd ELM programme and the ACE, BEd and PGCE. The MEd ELM is expected to fulfil the generic requirements associated with master's level study. Thus, the level at which the MEd ELM is offered, that is the pitching of teaching and learning at the master's level, is a central issue for this programme. The ACE, on the other hand, is distinct from the BEd and the PGCE in that it is an in-service programme. The BEd and the PGCE seek to arrive at the same outcomes but do so through different routes. It is for this reason that these programmes were assessed separately in this Review. Despite these differences, all the programmes reviewed have as their *raison d'être* the preparation of individuals who are able to generate, either as practitioners or as policymakers, appropriate high-level learning in the school setting. It is this that unites the suite of programmes under review. They are all focused on the school and the production of quality learning in the school. Their imperative is that of producing people who are able to engender learning in the school. This is what stands at the heart of teacher education.

How this central mission of teacher education is fulfilled is a matter of debate almost everywhere in the world. In the United States of America, where the most sustained research into the field of teacher education has taken place, recent commentaries express misgivings about what is happening in the preparation of teachers and make the assertion that the field is in a state of disarray 'reflect(ing) (its) historic confusion with regard to purpose' (Levine, 2006:35). The reason for this disarray in the United States, the literature suggests, is the lack of agreement about the curriculum and what it should produce. Similar challenges, it is argued here, confront teacher education in South Africa. While 'disarray' is possibly too emotive a word to describe the state of the field in South Africa, a conclusion that is hard to avoid is that the field is riddled with difficulties. These difficulties arise out of the same problem confronting programmes in the United States, what the appropriate skills and knowledge – the theory – have to be to ensure the kinds of practice that will promote deep classroom learning. Theory and practice, however, come together in different ways in the two countries. In the United States, because there is no centralised policy for teacher preparation, the saying 'let a hundred flowers bloom' has taken effect. Relativism, as Levine (2006:35) has said, is the rule. There is no consensus about

the duration of programmes, the number of methods focused on in a programme and where the preparation should take place. This aspect of the problem, can be characterised as a *how* problem. However, according to Levine (2006:35), in the USA, the preoccupation with the *how* of teacher education seems to have displaced in the focus on the *what*.

In the South African situation, by contrast, regulation (perceived, variously, as being too excessive or too minimal) is a feature of the programmes. In the Norms and Standards documents, the Department of Education and NQF guidelines suggest there is sufficient standardisation of structure and format to say that relativism is not the problem. The problem, it is suggested, is the opposite to that of the United States. The prescription of form and structure has led to an emphasis on the *what*, without understanding *how* the *what* might be mediated. The relationship between the *how* and the *what*, as a result, is central to the challenge of preparing high-quality teachers for deep learning in the classroom.

This Review has not yet mentioned the generalised academic challenges confronting South African learners. There is now irrefutable evidence (see Howie, 2001 and Moloi & Strauss, 2005) that South African learners perform significantly more weakly than their counterparts in a number of comparable countries in numeracy and literacy. There is also evidence that, in terms of existing benchmarks of performance per grade level, our learners are performing three grades below where they ought to be. Evidence such as this should focus the minds of the faculties and Schools of Education in the country. As responsible for imparting the *how* and the *what*, and the theory and the practice of teaching, they need to ask what needs to be done to improve learning at our schools.

Taking this fundamental challenge for the country in the context of the broader preoccupation about the relationship between theory and practice in teacher education programmes, what light has this review thrown on the nature of this relationship in South Africa's programmes of teacher education? In answering this question this conclusion provides first an overview of the accreditation results across the programmes reviewed. This is followed by an analysis of the manner in which the different programmes performed across the accreditation criteria. Finally, the challenges facing the leaders of programmes are grouped to focus on context and design as the two most important issues confronting the field of teacher education.

7.2. Summary decisions

The table below provides a summary of the state of quality in the field of teacher education.

Table 7.1: Summary decisions

DECISION	MEd	BEd	PGCE	ACE	TOTAL
Full Accreditation	14	6	7	12	39
Conditional Accreditation	1	5	8	8	22
Conditional Accreditation: On Notice of Withdrawal	3	4	5	2	13
No Accreditation: Teaching Out	4			1	5
TOTAL	22	15	22	23	81

The table indicates that 81 programmes were presented for review in the period 2005 to 2007. Almost half of the programmes under review received accreditation, with a further quarter receiving conditional accreditation, and less than a quarter of the total being placed in a 'danger' category. Read in quantitative terms, the suggestion may be made that the field of teacher education is performing satisfactorily, with almost three-quarters of its programmes deemed to be in compliance with the country's quality standards.

The first point to make in relation to Table 7.1 is that there is quality in the system. The Review led by the HEQC was extensive and assessed institutions comprehensively. The criteria probed the meaning of quality at a number of levels and found institutions to be, on the whole, adding value to the learning of their students. One might conclude, therefore, that the system of teacher education is in a reasonable state of health.

The second point, which needs to be made, is that the aggregated statistics obscure the uneven, inconsistent and differential distribution of quality in the system. It is argued below that a disaggregation of the statistics and finer grain analyses reveal challenges and difficulties in institutional contexts and in specific areas of performance.

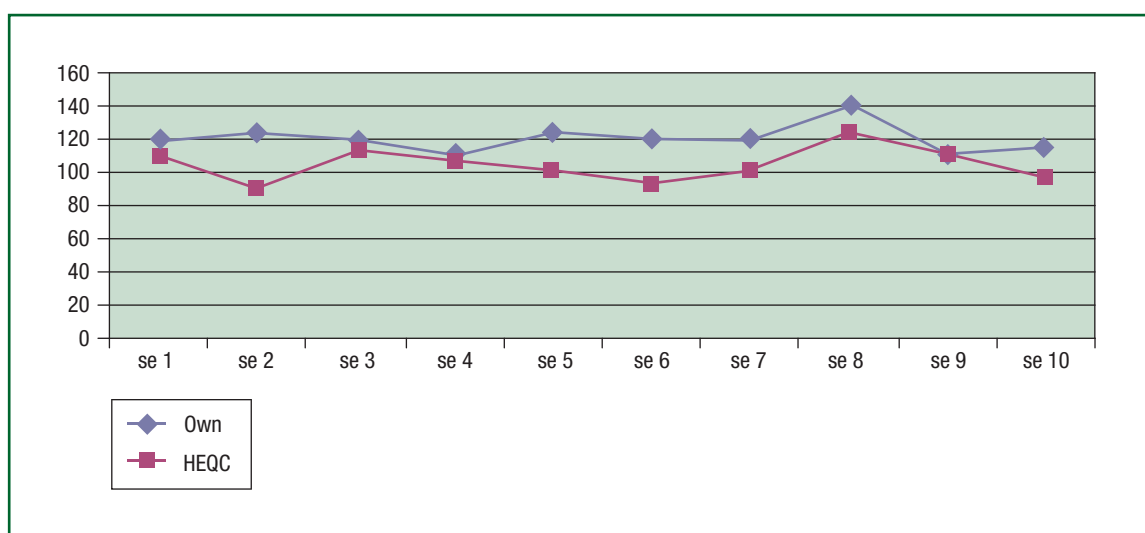
7.3. Composite analysis by criterion

This section presents an analysis of the judgements made for the ACE, BEd and the PGCE per comparable criterion in an aggregated form. It was not possible to include the MEd in the composite representations. The pertinent findings for the MEd, however, are brought into perspective where necessary.

The ten criteria that were used in the review fall broadly into two groups, one that relates to the technical and administrative or the contextual aspects of the programmes, and another that relates to teaching and learning. The first, which includes criteria dealing with issues such as the national/institutional context, approaches to student recruitment and admission, staffing, educational infrastructure, and throughput rates, is more amenable to measurement. The second group, which includes criteria dealing with issues such as programme design, teaching and learning, assessment and review, reflects the more complex choices that have been made in specific programmes and is less amenable to quantification.

Figure 7.1 shows the composite tally of the outcomes of the evaluation of programmes against the ten accreditation criteria as judged by the HEQC and the institutions themselves. The values indicated in the vertical column in this and the subsequent figures are based on adding the sum of the maximum scores for each criterion, namely 3. This amounts to 30.

Figure 7.1: Overall comparison between own and HEQC rating



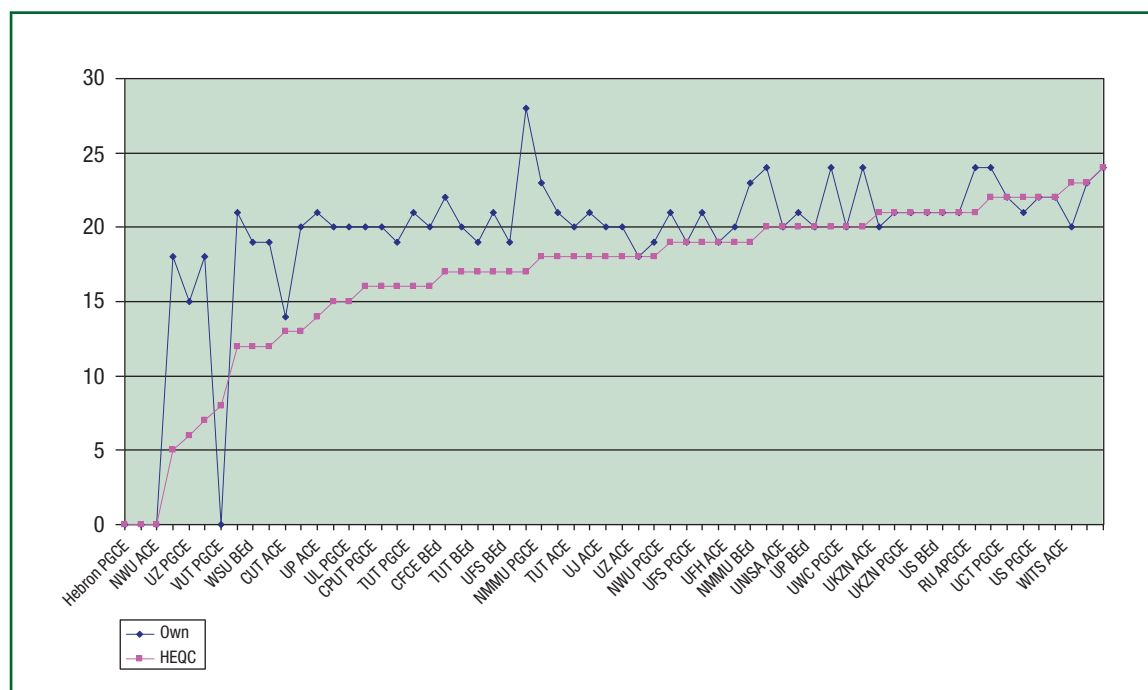
An analysis of Figure 7.1 shows that the greatest discrepancies between institutions' self-evaluation and the HEQC's assessment was in relation to Criteria 2, 5, 6, 7, 10 and in areas that are, arguably, most important for qualitative review, namely, Programme Design, Teaching and Learning, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, Assessment and Programme

Review. This was also the case with the MEd where Criterion 2, Programme Design, emerged as the most problematic area of assessment. Closer agreement was reached on those criteria that were easier to measure, such as Criteria 1 (National, Institutional and Unit Context), 3 (Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection), 4 (Staffing) and 9 (Throughput Rates). The criterion against which the highest scores were given in both the self-evaluation and HEQC's assessment was Infrastructure and Library Resources.

The overall picture is disconcerting. The combination of quality infrastructure and resources with poor programme design and coordination, weak practices in teaching and learning, and in assessment, and inadequate external review processes, points to an unhealthy state of affairs in these programme offerings. While institutions demonstrate capacity in relation to student recruitment and admission processes, problems in relation to staffing and throughput rates emphasise that resources by themselves do not guarantee the quality of teaching and learning. This is an important issue to which this conclusion will return.

A further point that needs to be mentioned is that programmes that were rated low by the HEQC usually overestimated their own performance. This occurred too in the MEd ELM evaluation, where programmes which came to be classified as being in need of improvement during the Review were regarded by their institutions as performing commendably.

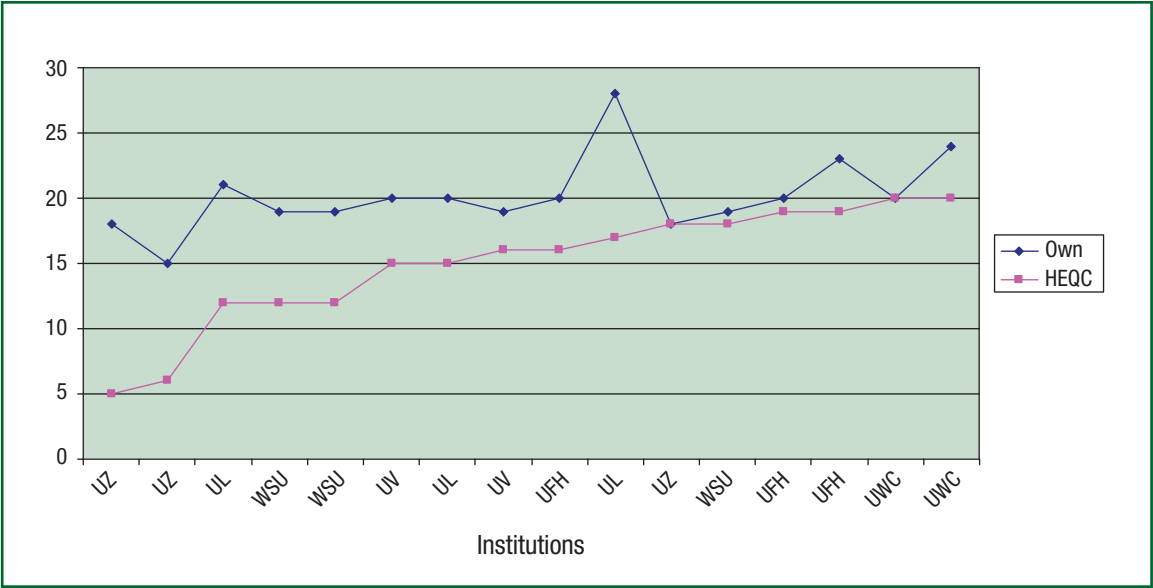
Figure 7.2: HEQC evaluation compared to SER



The reasons behind the tendency of institutions to rate themselves too highly are not self-evident. A disaggregated analysis of the programmes by institutional types (e.g. private providers, merged institutions, universities of technology, etc.) produced some evidence of existing patterns in the data. There were only two private institutions evaluated – Hebron and the Centre for Creative Education – not enough to make generalisations about the performance of private providers in this area. Hebron's PGCE accreditation was withdrawn and the CfCE was accredited with conditions.

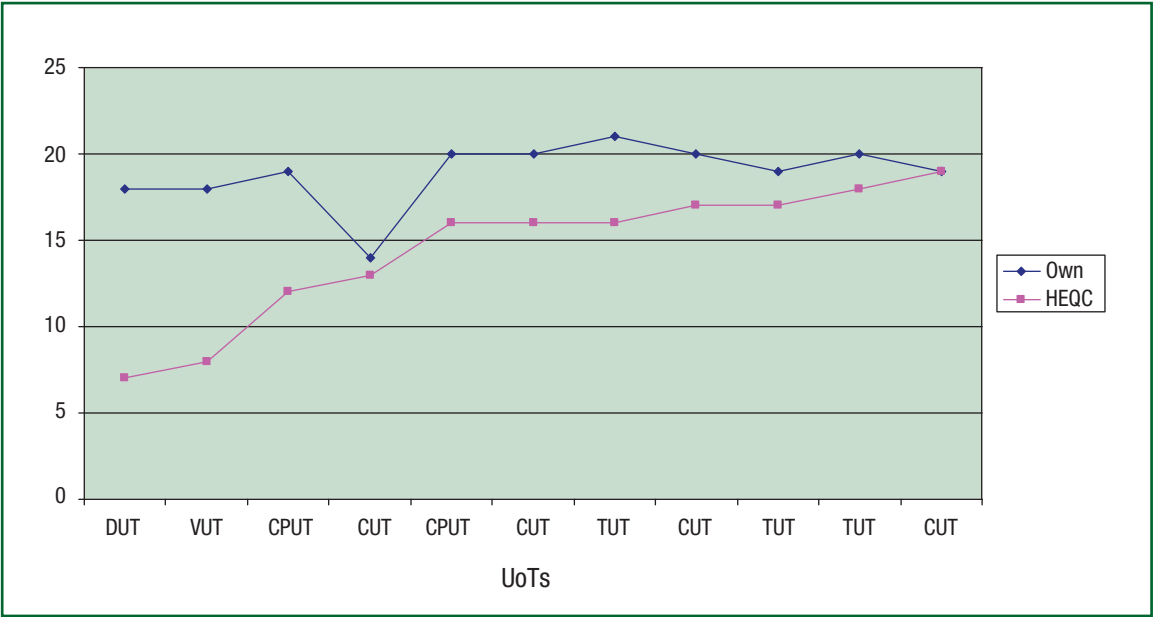
Historically disadvantaged universities (UZ, UL, WSU, UV, UFH) produced the following profile of self and HEQC evaluation:

Figure 7.3: HDI evaluations



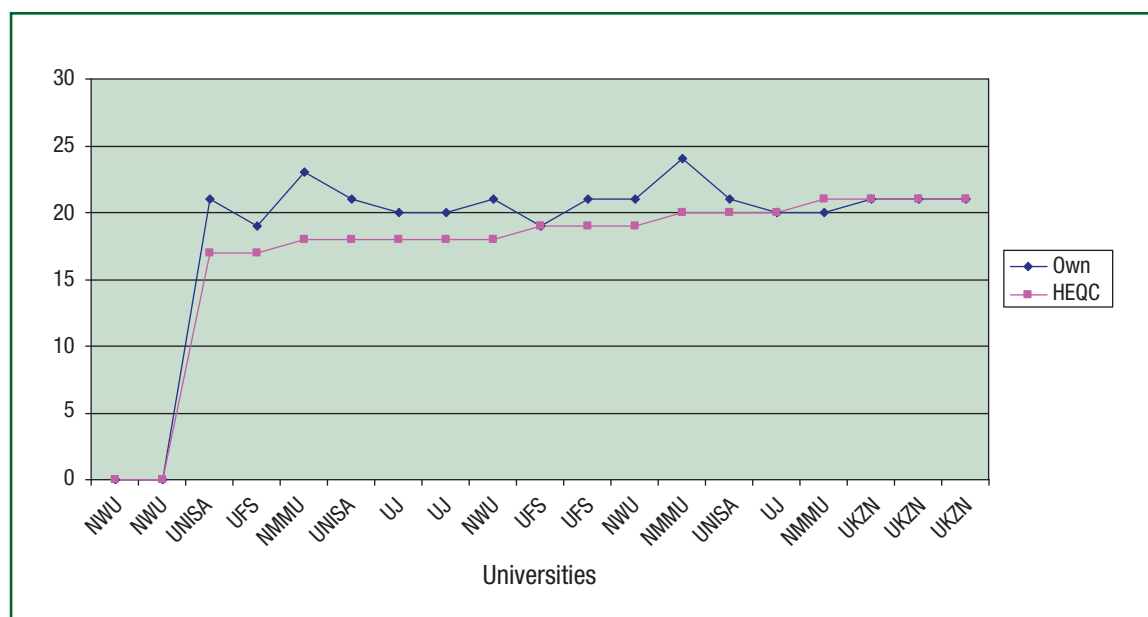
As can be seen in Figure 7.4, universities of technology (DUT, VUT, CUT, CPUT, TUT) produced the following profile (note that VUT did not submit programmes for evaluation and was given an average self evaluation for the sake of getting the general picture correct).

Figure 7.4: Universities of technology evaluations



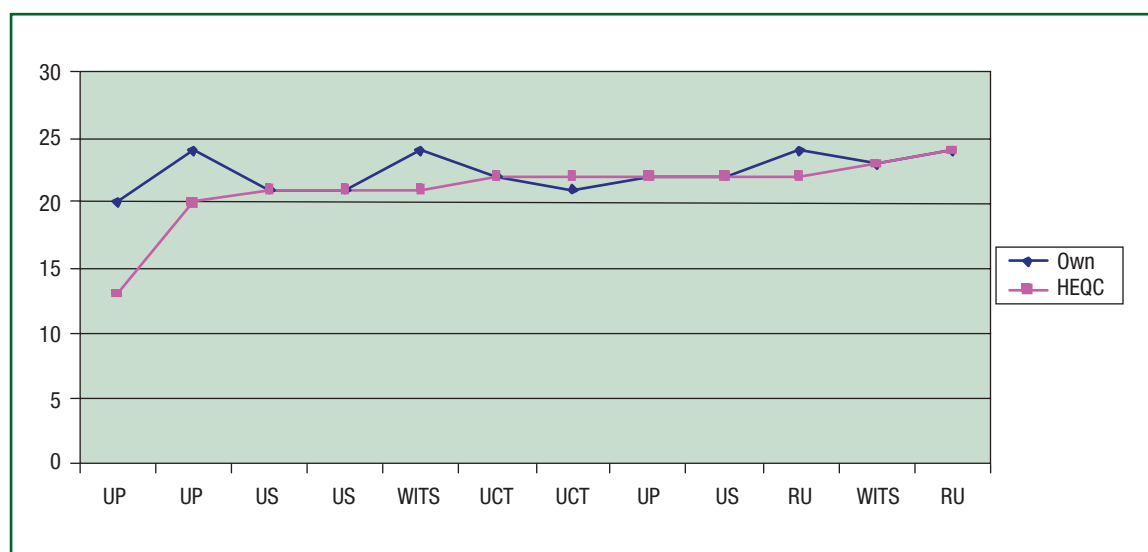
Universities that underwent mergers (NWU, UFS, UNISA, UJ, NMMU, UKZN) produced the profile shown in Figure.7.5.

Figure 7.5: Merged HAI evaluations



Historically advantaged universities, both Afrikaans and English and those who underwent relatively minor mergers (RU, WITS, UCT, US, UP) produced the profile shown in Figure 7.6. Notice the strong consonance between self and HEQC ratings, except for UP's ACE in Educational Management.

Figure 7.6: HAIs evaluations



It is interesting to note that the greatest discrepancies between institutions' self-analysis and that of the HEQC was among HDIs and UoTs, while the self-evaluation of merged universities and HAIs was closer to that of the HEQC.

Specifically, in relation to HDIs, the performance of these universities shows that they have capacity in the administrative and technical criteria (1 and 3), and, like their more advantaged counterparts, were generally found to be satisfactorily provided for in terms of Infrastructure and Library Resources (Criterion 8). Weakness is shown in the key pedagogic criteria of Programme Design, Teaching and Learning, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, Assessment and Programme review.

Figure 7.7: HDI compared to HEQC evaluations per criteria

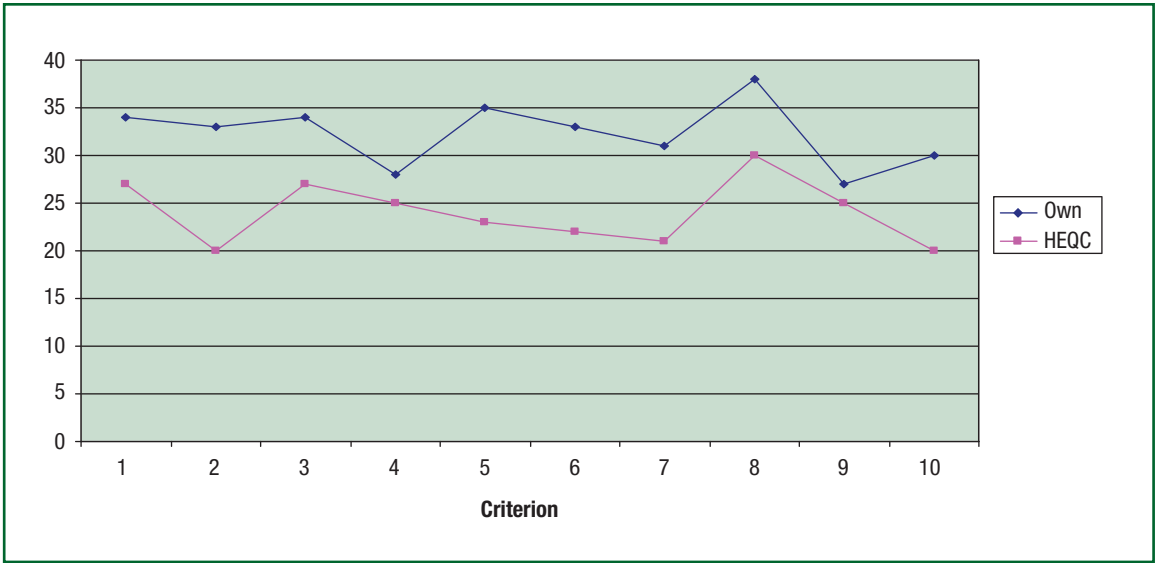


Figure 7.8: UoTs and HEQC evaluations per criteria



Figure 7.9: Merged HDIs compared to HEQC evaluation

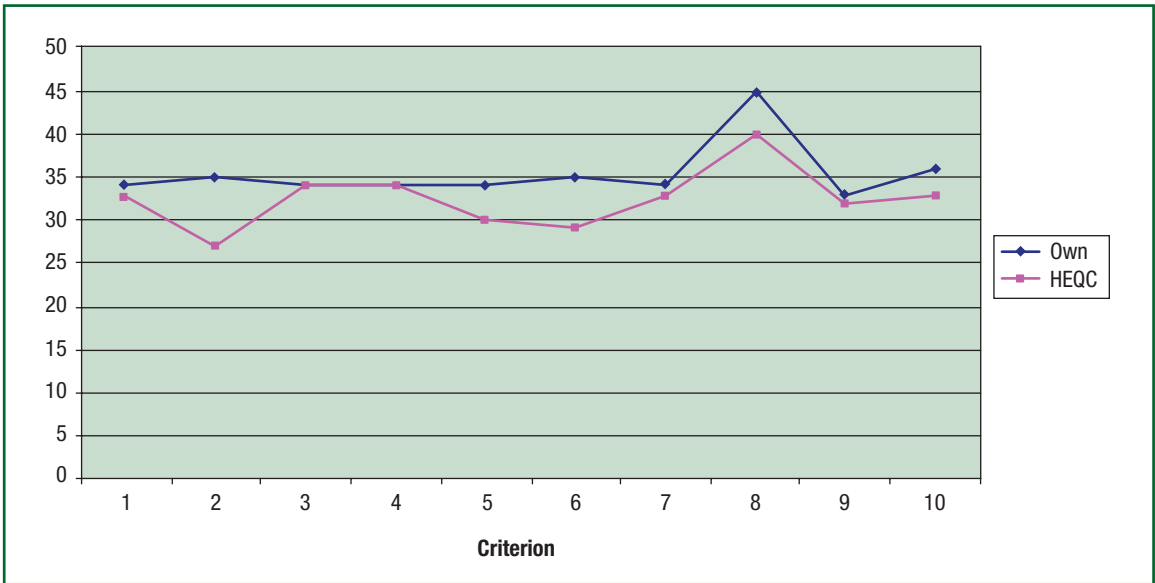
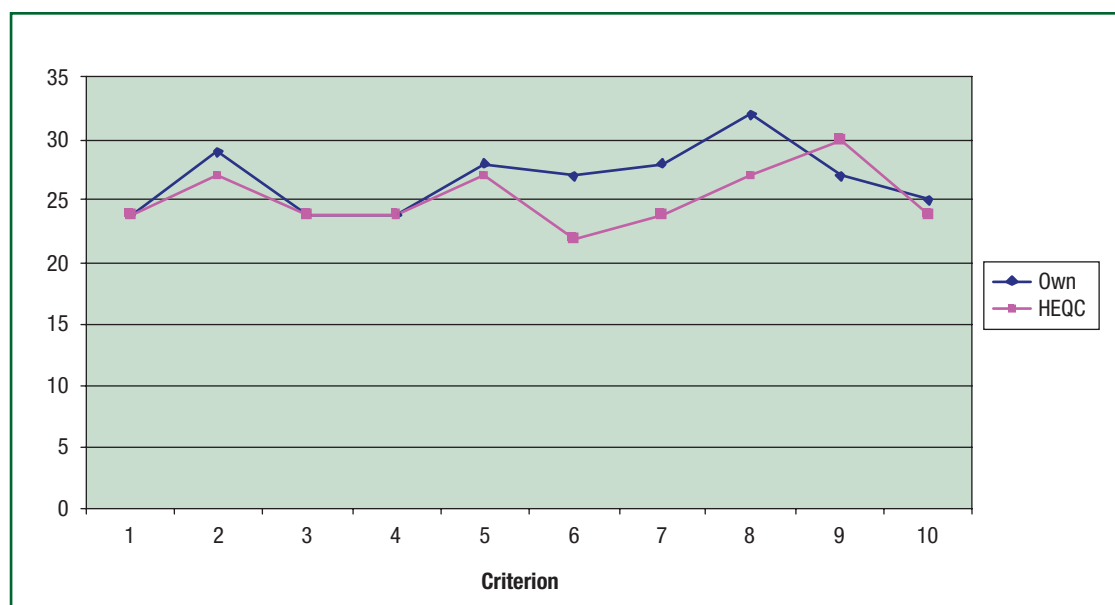


Figure 7.10: HAI compared to HEQC evaluation



HAIs scored particularly highly in the areas of Student Retention, Throughput Rates and Programme Impact (Figure 7.10). It is noteworthy that the next three high scoring criteria were Programme Design (2) and Teaching and Learning (5), along with Infrastructure and Library Resources (8). This points to high-quality programmes that are taught effectively and suggests why these programmes have high retention, throughput and impact rates. These trends also emerged clearly in relation to the review of the MEd programmes. It is interesting that an analysis of student enrolments shows that HAIs have the smallest number of students. Overall, the Review revealed that a large proportion of education students tend to be enrolled in less than satisfactory programmes.

7.4. Context and the challenge of design

From the analysis of the criteria above it is apparent that while institutional contexts can act as an added challenge to the programmes, the greatest difficulties were found in relation to programme design. However, curricula and programmes need to be understood against the contexts in which they are offered. In this regard, the role played by institutional context and historical legacy in the difficulties different programmes encounter to achieving acceptable levels of quality must not be minimised. The next section deals with these problems directly.

7.4.1. The challenge of context

Legacy and context are important elements in understanding differentiated performance across programmes and institutions. While institutional context had a prominent factor in the performance of all four programmes, this was particularly noticeable and complex in the MEd. Confirming this trend, the single criterion that attracted the largest number of conditions for accreditation was Criterion 1 (national and institutional context) with 17% of the conditions for the programme as a whole. This should not come as a surprise as compliance with regulatory frameworks was made more difficult by the demands of mergers and restructuring of institutions. The Review suggests that the frequent under-resourcing of the MEd in such a context often resulted in diminution of capacity in the programme.

The role of the institutional context was less obvious in the other programmes. Interestingly, contextual issues appeared to be less significant for the PGCE than they were for the other programmes. This could be ascribed to the fact that the PGCE was the programme least affected

by the structural and policy changes introduced in the country in the area of teacher education. While the PGCE had undergone a name change, from the HDE (PG), its basic rationale, form and purpose, was left intact. Institutions, therefore, were not required to accommodate a new programme. The ACE, similarly, appeared to have few difficulties in terms of compliance with policy and regulatory frameworks. The most common problems observed in the ACE programmes in this regard were difficulties in the nomenclature of programmes, adjusting and specifying the appropriate admission requirements into programmes and tracking students administratively. Consistent with this, recommendations for the improvement of ACE programmes focused on the improvement of administrative capacity for registering the ACE as a qualification.

In the BEd some of the greatest challenges were found in relation to the enrolment, recruitment and throughput of students. These difficulties have arisen directly from the shift in the location of students from the less-formal programmatic environment of the teacher training college to that of the university with its emphasis on credits and programmes. In assessing the BEd programmes it also emerged that there was insufficient administrative support; this seems to have had a negative impact on the robustness of the BEd's design. This conclusion will argue that the transfer of BEd programmes into the university sector, without overhauling and strengthening its support capacity, seem to have led to the replication of the college form and character of the programme in its new setting. This is particularly evident in the heavy teaching loads borne by staff members across the BEd programmes.

7.4.2. The challenge of design

The single largest difficulty faced by all programmes examined in this Review was the design (Criterion 2). None of the master's, BEd and ACE programmes assessed during the Review were commended for their design. While, as discussed in the previous section, Criterion 1 attracted the most conditions for accreditation for the MEd, Criterion 2 and its partner Criterion 5 (Teaching and Learning), yielded 14% of all the conditions imposed on programmes in this area. In the case of the BEd Criteria 2 (Programme Design) and 7 (Assessment), accounted for 32% of the conditions set for these programmes. For the PGCE, Criterion 2 (Programme Design) and Criterion 6 (Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning), its partner, contained 40% of all the conditions for the qualification, with Criteria 5 (Teaching and Learning) and 7 (Assessment), accounting for a further 30% of all conditions. No other area in the review approached this scale of difficulty.

In more detail, 13 (59%) of the PGCE programmes reviewed did not achieve HEQC minimum standards in Programme Design and in Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning. Nine (41%) PGCE programmes did not meet minimum standards for Teaching and Learning and seven (32%) did not achieve HEQC minimum standards in the area of Student Assessment. With respect to conditions set for the continued accreditation of these programmes, the areas of Programme Design and Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning received 40% of all conditions; the areas of Teaching and Learning, and Student Assessment received 30% of all conditions. Thus, 70% of all conditions set for continued accreditation concerned the four most central elements of practice for the development of competent teachers.

In the case of the ACE programmes, out of a total of 107 conditions set for re-accreditation, 26 conditions were set for programme design, and 15 for assessment. Overall, 38% of the total conditions set for the ACE programmes focused on issues of programme design.

Unsurprisingly, design was the aspect for which the fewest programmes were commended during the Review. In the case of the MEd programmes, there was only one commendation for programme design against six commendations for resources. In the PGCE review only three programmes received commendations for good design and for innovation, while among the ACEs only one programme received a straight commendation for design. In sum, the main problem

found during the Review was not just that most programmes did not meet minimum standards in the broad area of teaching and learning (Programme Design, Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning, Teaching and Learning, and Assessment), but also that these were the areas in which the greatest differences between the institutions' self-evaluation and the HEQC assessment emerged (see Table 7.2). This raises the issue of the extent to which academics responsible for these programmes understand the nature and purpose of each of them and how they are to respond to South Africa's specific needs in the area of teacher education. This conclusion cannot provide a definite answer as to why these issues arise; however, the analysis of the outcomes of the individual programmes and the interpretation of the data at system level suggest some tentative explanations for this phenomenon.

Table 7.2: Composite comparison of ratings

MASTER'S SERs										
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.5	1.5	1.5
HEQC										
1.4	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.2	1.2
Difference										
0.8	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.3
BEd										
SER										
2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.8	2.1	
HEQC										
1.7	1.3	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	
Difference										
0.3	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.2	0.3	
PGCE										
SER										
2.05	2.18	2.09	1.91	2.09	2.09	2.05	2.55	1.91	2.00	
HEQC										
1.86	1.41	1.86	1.82	1.64	1.41	1.68	2.23	1.91	1.68	
Difference										
0.19	0.77	0.23	0.09	0.45	0.68	0.37	0.32	0.0	0.32	
ACE										
SER										
2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.6	2.0	
HEQC										
2.0	1.0	2.0	1.6	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.0	
Difference										
0	1.0	0	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.2	0	1.0	
Average difference										
0.32	0.7	0.2	0.19	0.56	0.67	0.51	0.50	0.25	0.48	0.3

The design problems encountered in the different programmes were, to some extent, specific. For example, in the case of the MEd, and to a lesser extent in the BEd, a major area of difficulty was determining the level of the programme. Institutions consistently designed their programmes at too low a level in terms of the knowledge and competences expected from students. Lack

of sufficiently high-level knowledge and competence in the programme content resulted in low level outputs in the graduates, particularly noticeable in the research capabilities in the MEd. The central challenge in the BEd was the internal coherence of programmes and the intellectual credibility of the offerings. For the PGCE the major problems were found in relation to curriculum purpose and coherence, to the extent that many PGCEs require redesign. In this regard it is noteworthy that 17 of the conditions set for Criterion 2 in the PGCE required the redesign and rearticulation of the programme. Eleven of these (half of all programmes reviewed) required a fundamental overhaul and redesign of the programme; and a further six required ‘rearticulation’. An important part of the rearticulation was to develop a clear understanding of the location and the meaning of teaching practice in the programme. The main problem with the ACE programmes was the difficulty of delivering on all three purposes of the programme: upgrading, re-skilling and provision of access. Despite the differences in the specific problems facing each of these programmes, they all have in common a fundamental difficulty: the unsolved tension between the knowledge and practice contents of the programme. Necessarily, this tension manifests itself differently in the various stages of teacher education, yet it is the most common programme design problem found in this Review.

The Review found that, frequently, programme designers resort to the compliance with the Norms and Standards for Educators in order to determine the form and substance of programmes. This was particularly evident in the case of the ACE, BEd and some PGCE programmes. Interestingly, most review panels found that each time programmes invoked in their rationale compliance with the Norms and Standards, they were found wanting in terms of design. In the ACE, for example, the panel reports provided overwhelming evidence that the majority of the programmes conflated the upgrading, provision of access and re-skilling intentions of the ACE without understanding the levels of competence students brought to the programmes. As a result of this conflation, the majority of the ACEs could not provide appropriate levels of training for the practice that was required by their students. In the case of the MEd, although with some exceptions, programmes were more focused on the technical competence of their students than on the development of higher levels of analytical capacity.

This report has advanced the notion that, to a large extent, the difficulties that institutions find in designing appropriate programmes is related to the country’s historical legacy. However, this does not explain why all institutions participating in the Review performed poorly in the area of programme design.

A partial answer to this question might be found in examining institutions’ performance in the cognate areas to Programme Design (Criterion 2). In this respect, the criteria dealing with Staffing and Teaching and Learning (Criteria 4 and 5) are most relevant. Once again, we found a marked discrepancy between the ways in which institutions evaluate themselves in these areas and the HEQC’s evaluation of the same criteria. In the case of the MEd it was interesting to observe that, for example, institutions whose statistics showed that they were not meeting national benchmarks for research publications presented themselves as research-strong institutions. An analysis of the evidence made it clear that only a handful of institutions were able to articulate a clear research agenda for themselves. These were institutions in which staff members attached particular importance to their identity as scholars. In institutions which had difficulty, on the whole, in articulating a research agenda, there appeared to be a stronger disposition towards compliance with national policy.

The trend to replace engagement with the purposes of the programme with compliance with national policy was most marked in the ACE and the BEd. In the ACE the tension between the three purposes of the programme was resolved through invocation of the Norms and Standards document. The complex and difficult debates around *what* to teach and *how* the material selected could be taught was generally neglected. Resolution of these problems effectively came down

to programme leaders deferring to the NCS. In the case of the BEd, the Norms and Standards documents served to displace the professional responsibility required of many academics to make their own judgements about what was in the best interests of their students. Unsurprisingly, the kinds of programmes that emerged, were frequently characterised by insufficient internal coherence and differentiation, suggesting that academic staff were struggling to come to terms with the specific needs of their students.

THE WHAT AND THE HOW

As was indicated at the beginning of this conclusion, the tension between *what* to teach and *how* to teach what has been placed in the curriculum is the focus of intense debate among those responsible for the education of teachers in different national contexts. In the four programmes that were the focus of this Review, this tension manifested itself differently depending on the nature, purpose and location of the programme, but in most cases it remained unresolved, causing difficulties with the design of programmes. Often, given the strong regulatory environment in the area of teacher education in South Africa, this tension has been solved in terms of compliance with the Norms and Standards for Educators. This compliance has, in most cases, disguised problems of programme design and appropriateness of the curriculum to the needs of students.

In the case of the MEd ELM, the disciplinary field itself was poorly theorised. The challenge of translating a field with a weak internal grammar into a landscape of practice as complex as that of South Africa has to be borne in mind as one of the explanations for the deficiencies of the MEd ELM. Despite these difficulties, the Review has also shown that institutions with a clear sense of their academic identity and research direction were able to present programmes that were more appropriate. But even institutions that sought to project their programmes around a tight internal logic continued to have difficulty in determining *how* this logic could be mediated. In addition, even those institutions that had strong logics or understandings of their disciplinary fields struggled to bring practice out in the design of their programmes.

Several issues raised in the review of the MEd ELM programmes are relevant to other programmes at the master's level and in some cases speak specifically to curriculum design issues and the appropriateness of the programmes. Programme design at master's level needs to be revisited in order to ensure that programmes do justice to their area of specialisation and develop the necessary research skills for the dissertation not to be the bottle-neck point of the qualification. The tension between the professional and the academic in the master's qualification is evident even in qualifications like the M Psychology. It is a contention of this Review that this tension could be used productively in the formation of a professional/academic that meets the requirements of a master's degree. The coursework master's creates significant challenges in developing sufficient research competence to allow for articulation into PhD and produce active researchers in the field of education. The Review found evidence of a drift from coursework to research master's degrees among institutions based purely on subsidy calculations. This is a matter for concern as it has implications for the workload and the quality of research outputs. The underfunding of Schools and Faculties of Education suggests that institutions will have to explore meaningful ways of re-directing subsidies and taking education as a discipline out of its Cinderella status if teacher education is going to be adequately mapped into universities missions. A final point in relation to the review of MEd programmes is that Faculties and Schools of Education need to undertake audits of their staff's qualifications and reflect seriously whether these are adequate, given the profile of the qualifications offered. The Review has shown that at least 17 institutions are not producing significant amounts of research within Faculties of Education that are offering programmes at master's level. It is strongly recommended that the Deans Forum discusses the possibility of designing a concerted career-pathing plan in order ensure that staff have academic the qualifications and experience necessary to teach at master's level.

The tension between the *what* and the *how* in the case of the BEd and the PGCE was most acutely expressed in the lack of consensus around teaching practice. While teaching practice was tightly regulated in some institutions, in others it was relatively unstructured. Few institutions could articulate the attributes they sought to develop in their students through teacher practice. In some institutions, the Norms and Standards for Educators were relied upon to crystallise and determine what was to be taught. The simple assertion of this policy was deemed sufficient to define teaching practice. In other institutions much clearer rubrics were established for teaching practice.

Most candidates for PGCE do not have any time dedicated to classroom observation. In other countries a short period of classroom observation/practice is a pre-requisite for a PGCE candidate. There are a few institutions in South Africa that have made initial observation mandatory as it allows the potential student to have some prior experience of the classroom and the school environment. There is a need for universities to be more active in recruiting PGCE in the early stages of the first degree to ensure that they will meet the teaching subject pre-requisites for the programme.

The main concerns about the BEd revolve around curriculum congestion and onerous regulatory requirements. The Review has found that there is a need for clearly stipulated purposes for the programme and for the modules and choices available in the programme to be suitable to, and consistent with, the purpose of the programme. One of the problems that need to be solved is the weight of teacher practice in the BEd. The fact that other professional courses, like engineering, nursing or pharmacy, have a clear idea as to how many hours of work-based learning are required in a programme, suggests that consensus on this matter is possible. Over and above this, teaching practice in BEd programmes needs to be clearly conceptualised and linked to the curriculum; more clarity is also required in relation to the amount of scaffolding to be provided to support teacher practice, its specific outcomes and the manner in which these will be assessed. Importantly, these questions need to be posed differently for programmes offered in the distance mode.

As a highly intensive teaching commitment is required from the faculty members involved in the BEd, there is a need for reconciling quality practice, teaching demands and the resources available to a faculty for adequate teaching and assessment. Key questions will have to take into account financial implications and effects on other demands such as research outputs.

One of the minimum standards for the BEd refers to the need for students to experience diverse school contexts. This raises the question of ‘who is preparing whom and for which schools’? Do diverse contexts imply a range of schools that offer different quality of education and mentoring? Dysfunctional schools and functional schools, language diversity and income diversity as well as location pose challenges for institutions to ensure the safety of students and yet comply with the need for diverse teaching experiences. The school experience is often marred by the absence of coordinated school-based mentors.

The quality of teacher education and the quality of teaching in our schools are reciprocally affected. On the one hand, the competence of students admitted into schools and Faculties of Education to become teachers has an impact on the quality of teaching at schools. On the other hand the conditions under which teaching is conducted at many of our schools make the effective application of sound teacher education very difficult to demonstrate or manifest.

In the case of the ACE programmes, the relationship between theory and practice was at its most inarticulate. The main concern about this programme was how it could contain the three imperatives of the qualification. However, this concern remained a discussion amongst a small number of academics. Interestingly, the design of the ACEs where these discussions were taking place received much higher ratings than in those where deference to the Norms and Standards documents held sway. The critical question raised by the Review in relation to the ACE is whether a one-year programme is an adequate vehicle for addressing the backlog of learning-area specialists. The Review has found that the challenge of focusing simultaneously on a learning

area, a phase and on pedagogy result in bloated programmes with insufficient depth or attention paid to subject or disciplinary depth. The problem of inadequate subject disciplinary knowledge at the commencement of the programme and the necessary programme compensation for this lack leads to compromises. The practice of ‘provincial government push and institution responds’ has resulted in little or no control over the number of ACEs and the specialisations to be offered, the time-lines for implementation and constant changing priorities. This inhibits careful planning and forecasting for institutions, which results in the reliance on part-time staff and quickly cobbled-together curricula. In many instances, HEIs do not have full control over the selection of students, whose skills are very diverse and whose ability to attend lectures is constrained by the demands made of practising teachers. All of this reinforces the concerns about the suitability of a one-year full-time (in practice, part-time) programme to address multiple purposes. The insistence on teaching the ACE to the school curriculum instead of teaching the subject matter at higher education level dumbs down the demands for a higher education qualification at Level 6. Thus the question that needs to be answered is, how can the ACE be a higher education qualification and at the same time fulfil its purpose to be a career pathway, a re-skilling course and a way of responding to provincial government priorities in relation to the provision of teachers?

The final point to be made in bringing this report to a close is that, while the challenges that have emerged in the South African education system are by no means unique, they assume a particular character here. The difficulties that academics in teacher education encounter relate to misunderstanding the nature of this education landscape.

What is needed now in the teacher education community is:

- a sustained period of reflection and debate in which the major issues that characterise teaching and learning, the pedagogical and the sociological, and the dynamics that emanate from their combined influence, are examined;
- a systematic evaluation of the major teaching and learning innovations that have been carried out in the last 15 years; and
- a national programme of intervention in both pre- and in-service teacher education, based on the outcomes of the work suggested above.

WHAT IS REQUIRED IN THE SYSTEM IS:

- a sustained period of stability in higher education institutions as the effects of the incorporations and mergers settle;
- teacher education qualification policy to create a balance between prescription and flexibility, allowing institutions to adapt resource allocations to the programme design and contextual needs;
- a structured conversation among the academic fraternity on the academic appropriateness and national relevance of the qualifications;
- generation of data that will enable institutions to forecast and predict supply/demand issues;
- coherent planning to avoid looking backward and responding reactively to supply-demand (this will require a conversation about the teacher of tomorrow: the kind of teacher, the needs of the system, changes in the school sector and new knowledge or learning areas);
- a concerted campaign by all relevant stakeholders to attract the best possible candidates for the profession; and
- stability in relation to the school curriculum, governance, support structures and material conditions in schools.

In order to truly respond to the country’s needs, South Africa’s teacher education needs to be geared to simultaneously deal with the legacies from our past and the challenges to develop teachers for 21st century schools.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The table below sets out a composite picture of the criteria used in the national review, summarising next to each criterion the conditions that programmes awarded ‘Accreditation with Conditions’ (both categories) were required to meet in order to achieve the status of ‘Full Accreditation’.

The following table is the complete set of criteria used in each review, including minimum standards.

Table A1: Summary of conditions per criterion for the PGCE

Criteria	Criterion descriptor	Conditions	Count
Criterion 1	The National, Institutional and Unit Context	Correct registration (2); Alignment across sites; Plan finance and HR allocations (2); Documentation requires accurate information and terminology (2); Clarify terminology; Develop policies related to QA; T&L and assessment are developed	9
Criterion 2	Programme Design	Review and redesign programme (11); Recurriculate (6); Redesign WBL (5); Contact time aligned to credit structure (4); Alignment across sites; Student input required (2); Curriculum overload due to multiple phases (2); Integrate theory and practice	32
Criterion 3	Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection	Policies and procedures need revision; Student information needs improvement (4); Selection criteria for specialisations need revision; Include programme in recruitment material	7
Criterion 4	Staffing	Staff contributions need to be reflected in workload (4); Research activity of staff needs encouragement (4); Admin support needs to be provided (particularly for WBL) (3); Senior staff need to be deployed; Part-time staff trained; Staff resourcing insufficient; Part-time staff require resources and included in planning	15
Criterion 5	Teaching and Learning	Engagement with educational research and theory required (8); Develop T&L policies (3); Align T&L policies with programme purpose (3); Develop mechanisms for identifying and supporting learners at risk (3); HIV/AIDS to be addressed/improved in curriculum (2); Improve T&L; Alignment across sites; Revise learning materials; Alignment of curriculum with RNCS	23

(continued)

Criteria	Criterion descriptor	Conditions	Count
Criterion 6	Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning	Mentor identification and training requires introduction or improvement (7); Better guidelines produced; Improved communication with schools (4); Placement of students requires revision (4); Redesign management of WBL (3); WBL credit weighting requires adjustment (3); Clarify role of coordinator (2); Alignment across sites; Procedures for coordination developed; Organisational structure must be reviewed; Period of placement requires extension; Academic leadership requires strengthening	29
Criterion 7	Student Assessment	External examiners need to be appointed, appropriate and provide feedback (6); Alignment between assessment and programme T&L strategy (5); Assessment of WBL redesigned (4); Integrated assessment task required (3); Integrated assessment must be externally examined; Alignment across sites; Alignment with university wide assessment policy; Assessment needs to reflect NQF level; Part-time markers trained	23
Criterion 8	Infrastructure and Library Resources	Library resources improved (2); Physical infrastructure requires improvement	3
Criterion 9	Student Retention, Throughput Rates and Programme Impact	Throughput must be monitored (2); Take account of part-time needs; Part-time student retention must be improved; Promote diversity; Dropout rate needs monitoring; Improve data; Provide student support	8
Criterion 10	Programme Reviews	Procedures for review established (4)	4

National Review of the Advanced Certificate in Education – 2006

The Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) is a 120 NQF credit, Level 6 qualification. Introduced by the Norms and Standards for Educators (February, 2000) as a replacement for the Further Diploma in Education, the ACE develops:

further specialized subject/learning area/discipline/phase competence, or a new subject specialization in one or more of the roles as an advanced study intended to ‘cap’ an initial or general teaching qualification. Through this qualification learners will be prepared to embark on a course of study at NQF Level 7. It must, therefore, include appropriate demands in terms of rigour.

The ACE does not qualify candidates as professional educators in schooling, as admission to this programme requires applicants already to have a professional qualification. It is conceived of as a form of continuing professional education with the purpose of enabling educators to develop their competences and/or to change their career path and adopt new educator roles. The Report of the Standards Generating Body for Educators in Schooling (10 October 2001), describes the ACE as:

The ACE is a flexible Level 6 qualification aimed at providing educators with an opportunity of either updating, enriching and supplementing their existing knowledge in a particular area of specialisation or of changing their area of specialisation. The former might become necessary due to new developments in an area of study while the latter may be a response to changing national needs or a need for a change in career path. Access to the ACE is open to candidates who are already in possession of an approved Level 6 qualification in the field of education and training, and it creates additional opportunities for further study at Level 7.

Criterion 1: The National, Institutional and Unit Context¹

The programme is an integral part of the offerings of the higher education institution at which it is located and it complies with all the national policies and regulations regarding the provision of higher education qualifications in South Africa. The unit offering the ACE has goals, objectives and forms of internal organisation to support the programme.

Minimum standards

- i. Public Providers: The programme is part of the institution’s programme and qualification mix (PQM), as approved by the DoE, and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education;
- ii. Private Providers: The provider is registered with the DoE in terms of the requirements of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) and the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, 2002 and of the Annexures to the

1 ‘Unit’ refers to the operational organisational structure offering the programme. In most cases this will be a department or school.

Regulations (Regulation No. 1564 of Government Gazette No. 24143, 13 December 2002) and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education.

- iii. The qualification complies with the minimum credit value of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Gazette No. 20844, 4 February 2000) and the purpose of the qualification and its phase/subject specialism(s) are clearly stated. The programme meets national requirements pertaining to programmes which are at present being developed within the context of the NQF (refer to National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 as amended by Education Laws Amendment Act No. 100 of 1997 and No. 48 of 1999).
- iv. The qualification and all specialisations are registered by SAQA on the NQF.
- v. The programme is accredited by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (AUT), SAQA, or the HEQC.
- vi. ACE specialisations and programme outcomes take cognisance of national/regional professional priorities and are congruent with the national Norms and Standards for Educators, the relevant national curriculum (RNCS and/or the new FET curriculum), and the professional dispositions of the SACE Code of Ethics.²
- vii. The programme is part of the institution's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process.
- viii. The unit³ offering the ACE has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance.
- ix. Franchising arrangements for programme delivery are not permissible.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The provider and programme management team can provide a rationale for the use of distance education for the delivery of the programme/course to the intended target learners.

Criterion 2: Programme Design

It is a fundamental requirement that programme design reflects the necessary and enabling features for an ACE to achieve its purpose. The curriculum is suited to its purpose, internally coherent, and mindful of the needs of the students.

Minimum standards

- i. Programme design is internally coherent and in alignment with the prescribed level and purpose of an ACE.
- ii. The programme is located within a conception of teacher education as a continuum ranging from the initial professional education of teachers through to continuing professional development.
- iii. In cases where this is appropriate to programme purpose, the programme includes consideration of teachers' conditions of service and national policy, particularly as these pertain to issues such as safety in schools and learner conduct.
- iv. Programme design offers career and learning pathways, e.g. a pathway into BEd (Hons), and opportunities for articulation with other programmes within and across institutions, where appropriate.

² In particular, appropriate professional dispositions include commitment to learners' personal development and welfare as both individuals and citizens.

³ All minimum standards apply to additional sites of delivery and tuition centres.

- v. Timetable design provides for one year of full-time study or two years of part-time study during which it enables a coherent development of the programme's specialised focus consistent with selected aspects of the roles specified for 'educators' in the Norms and Standards for Educators. The number of contact hours is explicitly stated and justified/supported in the programme outline.
- vi. The purpose of the programme informs the statement of applied competence. The curriculum is explicit with respect to exit-level outcomes and related assessment criteria, content, level, credits, rules of combination and relative weight.
- vii. Curriculum design is coherent, reflecting alignment of explicit outcomes, curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, assessment, and modes of delivery.
- viii. Curriculum design ensures sufficient depth of content knowledge and theory to serve a productive relationship between learning area or disciplinary content, pedagogical content knowledge, and practice.
- ix. Curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, modes of delivery and learning materials cater for the learning needs of the target student intake. Opportunities are provided for learner input.
- x. Relevant forms of learner support have been incorporated into the programme design.
- xi. Mechanisms and processes are in place to ensure that all conditions for programme delivery are met, and that there is equivalence of provision in the case of a programme offered by different modes of delivery and/or at different sites. In such cases, the arrangements are institutionally approved and supported. In cases where decentralised tutor-based learner support systems are in place, these are properly managed and quality assured by the provider.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xii. An adequate level of investment has been made in quality programme development, course design and course material.
- xiii. The provider has explicitly designed systems for administering and teaching learners at a distance and has planned for contingencies in order to meet its stated aims in terms of academic quality and standards.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Recruitment, access and selection procedures and documents are clear and accurate, attentive to diversity, current legislation and national needs in education, and apt for the particular specialist programme purpose. The number of students selected takes into account the programme's intended learning outcomes and its capacity to offer good quality education.

Minimum standards

- i. Appropriate policies, procedures and regulations are in place for student admission, selection and assessment. These are communicated to all ACE students, and academic and administrative staff, and implemented consistently across the institution and programme.
- ii. Admission and selection criteria and processes are clearly documented. Prospectuses and other recruitment documents are clear, accurate and informative about the programme, its areas of specialisation, formal admission requirements, academic standards and completion requirements, and mode of delivery.
- iii. Marketing and advertising are consistent with DoE and SAQA regulations.
- iv. Selection criteria are commensurate with the programme's academic and professional requirements, within a framework of widened access and equity.

- v. The number of students selected takes account of the programme's intended learning outcomes, its capacity to offer sound professional preparation in the selected areas of specialisation, and the needs of schools and other relevant parts of the education system.
- vi. Enrolment practices include provision of accurate, helpful information – including information about funding opportunities – as well as efficient handling of finance and registration information.
- vii. While the general admission requirement of a PGCE/BEEd or equivalent relevant NQF Level 6 qualification is generally applied, provision is made for a flexible RPL entry route within the framework of national guidelines for higher education institutions. Admission through an RPL route may not exceed 10% of the total number of students on any programme.⁴

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- viii. Detailed and up-to-date information is available regarding the demands of the mode of delivery and the support services available. Provision is made for a potentially diverse and geographically widely distributed student body.
- ix. The provider has developed detailed learner profiles that identify the characteristics and situation of learners and this is used to inform teaching and learning strategy.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Policy and procedures for staff appointments, promotion and development are legitimate and fair, promote the achievement of equity plans, and encourage a staff complement that exemplifies best professional practice in teaching, assessment, inquiry and professional service. The academic and support staff complement is of sufficient size and seniority for the programme. The institution and/or other recognised agencies contracted by the institution provide opportunities for staff development.

Minimum standards

- i. Recruitment and employment of staff adhere to the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act, 1996, Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act, 2002, and the Employment Equity Act, 1998. Appropriate administrative procedures are in place for the selection, appointment, induction and payment of staff members.
- ii. Where applicable, relevant labour legislation and regulations on health and safety in the workplace are observed.
- iii. Policies and procedures for academic staff appointments, promotions and development enable and encourage a competent, committed teaching staff who:
 - have an understanding of their specialist fields as well as of the conditions of education in South Africa;
 - can interpret and develop learning materials and courses;
 - apply the institution's assessment policies in the context of the ACE programme; and
 - use an appropriate range of formative and summative assessment approaches at the exit level of the programme.
- iv. All academic and professional staff teaching on the ACE have recognised, relevant qualifications (a degree plus teaching qualification or a qualification at least equivalent to the ACE), and appropriate professional experience. There are appropriately qualified senior staff to provide intellectual and professional leadership in the programme.

⁴ Exceptions are permissible in cases where RPL admission is consistent with the institution's policy and practice for RPL.

- v. The staffing on the programme is in line with the equity programme of the institution.
- vi. Staff composition is balanced and consonant with the specialisations offered in the programme and the numbers of students in each, as well as with the practical and theoretical components of the ACE.
- vii. Workloads allow sufficient time for the development of curricula and materials, marking of assessment, and the necessary learner support. Where decentralised learner support is offered, or where marking of assessment involves external people, there are appropriate resources in place for the recruitment, training, monitoring and payment of necessary part-time and contract staff.
- viii. There are clear procedures for assuring, acknowledging and developing the performance quality of associate, off-campus and part-time staff, and for promoting their understanding of and commitment to the programme and its purpose.
- ix. Through a variety of forums (e.g. informal meeting, research, conferences, formal learning) staff are able to reflect on matters concerning teacher education, national policy and teaching, and on learning and assessment issues pertaining to the programme. Staff responsible for students' academic development have opportunities to advance their disciplinary knowledge.
- x. Core academic and professional staff engage in scholarly activity and use research and/or other forms of structured inquiry to enhance their practice in the field of teacher education.
- xi. Programme faculty members have formal opportunities to provide input on issues affecting admissions, progress of students, resource allocation, curriculum design and evaluation, and research.
- xii. The institution provides orientation, induction and professional development opportunities for both new academic staff members and part-time staff.
- xiii. There are sufficient numbers of administrative, technical and academic development support staff for the effective running of the programme and its activities, both on campus and at various sites of practice.
- xiv. Support staff are adequately qualified for their duties, and have opportunities for staff development.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xv. Staff are trained, monitored and supported for the specialised distance education roles they perform, including the design, management and delivery of the programmes.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

The institution gives recognition to the importance of the promotion of student learning. Teaching and learning policies, strategies, methods and materials take account of the purpose of the ACE programme. In systematically enabling student learning and in developing students' capacity to enable others to learn, teaching and learning strategies are also appropriate for the institutional type (as reflected in its mission) and consonant with the mode(s) of delivery, student composition, and programme design. There are mechanisms to ensure the appropriateness of teaching and learning methods.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution's central operating policies, procedures and resource allocation recognise the importance of student learning and support the programme in enabling learning pertinent to the professional competence of teachers.

- ii. Programme-specific teaching and learning policies and strategies are consonant with the programme design, outcomes, mode(s) of delivery, learning materials, assessment criteria, and student profile.
 - iii. Students are provided with guidance on how the different components of the programme contribute to the learning outcomes of the programme. Assessment criteria and/or an explicit understanding of requirements are clearly communicated to students on commencement of their studies.
 - iv. Students are able to develop their specialist knowledge and professional dispositions by being provided with an appropriate mix of academic and experiential learning opportunities, in a variety of teaching and learning contexts.
 - v. Learning materials are aligned with the programme goals and underpinning philosophy, and are adequate in respect of content, level, purpose, and the linkage of assessment strategies to specific learning outcomes.
 - vi. Pedagogy contributes to transformation by developing the capabilities of individual students for personal enrichment as well as for academic and professional requirements.
 - vii. Where necessary, members of the academic staff are trained to develop learning materials.
 - viii. There is systematic curriculum development and revision of learning materials, and these processes are responsive to the needs of students and the profession.
 - ix. Where appropriate, curriculum initiatives include a focus on HIV/AIDS, in order to develop an informed understanding of the pandemic and its impact on schooling, and to develop the competences to cope responsibly with the effects of the pandemic in learning sites.
 - x. There are procedures for monitoring, evaluating and improving teaching and learning.
 - xi. There are mechanisms for identifying weak and 'at risk' students and for offering appropriate additional academic support.
 - xii. The quality requirements for programme delivery take into account all delivery modes.
- In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:
- xiii. The design of the programme encompasses the aims and intended learning outcomes, the scope of the learning materials, and the strategies for teaching at a distance.
 - xiv. The programme makes provision for the development of increasingly sophisticated levels of independent study from learning resources provided.
 - xv. The institution has proven systems and technologies for materials development and delivery for distance learning.
 - xvi. Learning materials, teaching and learning support strategies and modes of assessment are designed in order to give distance students a reasonable chance of achieving the intended learning outcomes.

Criterion 6: Programme Coordination

The programme is effectively coordinated in a way that facilitates the achievement of its purpose and intended outcomes, with due attention to models of delivery.

Minimum standards

- i. The ACE programme is suitably coordinated and defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system. An appropriately qualified senior academic with relevant experience manages the programme within the framework of an agreed-upon mandate.
- ii. The programme coordinator provides intellectual leadership and ensures that the academic coherence and professional integrity of the programme are maintained (e.g. through

- appropriate procedures for curriculum development and review; consultation with full-time and part-time staff, students, SACE and other professional bodies; systematic tracking of policy developments in areas such as the school curriculum and teacher development).
- iii. The programme coordinator contributes to the achievement of the programme purpose by effectively coordinating programme delivery and assessment, annual planning, and advising the institution on resource allocation and staffing needs.
 - iv. Opportunities are created for student input and participation in relevant aspects of programme coordination.
 - v. Programme coordination ensures that regular and effective communication takes place with the students. This includes providing reliable information on the various aspects of the programme.

Criterion 7: Student Assessment

Assessment policies and procedures are explicit and appropriate for the programme purpose, models of delivery and exit-level outcomes. There are clear, educationally sound policies for internal formative and summative assessment and the appointment and responsibilities of external examiners. There are mechanisms for monitoring of student progress; ensuring the validity and reliability of assessment practices; recording of assessment results; settling of disputes; maintaining the rigour and security of the assessment system; RPL; and for the development of staff competence in assessment.

Minimum standards

- i. Assessment is integral to the programme design, teaching and learning strategies, to student and staff development, and to the improvement of the curriculum and learning materials.
- ii. Assessment policies, procedures and practices match and support the programme purpose.
- iii. There are clear procedures for both formative and summative assessment; and the mix, balance, assessment criteria and weighting of assessment activities are consonant with the exit-level outcomes and selected aspects of the roles specified in the Norms and Standards for Educators and National Framework for Teacher Education). Such procedures are made explicit to staff and students.
- iv. Procedures exist and are followed to ensure that assignments/tests/projects are returned in sufficient time to allow students to profit from academic feedback.
- v. A range of appropriate assessment tasks (including at least one integrated assessment procedure and, when appropriate, RPL) is used effectively to measure students' attainment of the intended learning outcomes.
- vi. Assessment records are thorough, accurate and systematically used to generate data for grading, selecting and predicting, and review. A system is in operation for maximising the accuracy, consistency, fairness and credibility of results, including consistency of marking, and concurrence between assessors and external examiners on the nature and quality of the evidence of achievement of learning outcomes. Where more than one assessor is involved, internal moderation checks are undertaken to ensure the reliability of the assessment procedures.
- vii. The assessment of student learning achievements at the exit level of the qualification is subject to external examination by appropriately qualified academics. External examiners are properly informed about the course they examine (curriculum and assessment), and review in full 10% of the written work being assessed, and conduct a random check of a further 20%.

- viii. Completed external examiner reports are returned to the relevant academic member of staff and also to the programme coordinator. Problems are discussed with the lecturer concerned and the programme coordinator monitors the implementation of agreed improvements.
- ix. Measures are taken to ensure the security of the assessment system. Assessment results are recorded securely and reliably.
- x. Policies for ensuring the integrity of certification processes for the qualification obtained through the programme are effectively implemented.
- xi. There is a fair and effective procedure for settling student disputes regarding assessment results, and students are acquainted with this procedure. Breaches of assessment rules are dealt with effectively and timeously.
- xii. Student progress is monitored and appropriate action is taken, where applicable.
- xiii. Provision is made for the development of staff competence in assessment.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xiv. There are systems and processes in place to make possible individual academic support for learners by telephone, email, appointment, video-conferencing or online.

Criterion 8: Infrastructure and Library Resources

Suitable and sufficient venues, IT infrastructure and library resources are available for students and staff in the programme. Policies ensure the proper management and maintenance of library resources, including support and access for students and staff. Staff development of library staff takes place on a regular basis.

Minimum standards

- i. At all official sites of learning where the programme is offered, there are sufficient, suitable, properly equipped venues. Where appropriate, such venues include laboratories in addition to facilities for large class teaching and for small group seminars and tutorials.
- ii. Each member of the full-time academic staff has an office, a personal computer and access to printing facilities. Appropriate provision is made to accommodate part-time staff.
- iii. Suitable and sufficient IT facilities, equipment and support are available at all sites of learning. This includes functionally appropriate hardware (computers and printers), software (programmes) and databases, and IT staff to provide training and support for the effective use of the facilities for teacher education.
- iv. Administrative/technical staff have suitable working space and adequate systems of technology and communication in order to support the programme.
- v. Relevant, properly maintained and regularly updated library resources are available to support effective teaching, learning, curriculum development and research in teacher education.
- vi. Appropriate use of the library and other locally accessible curriculum resources is built into the programme design and teaching and learning strategies. A library or resource centre education specialist supports and encourages appropriate library use. Resources complement the curriculum and make provision for independent student learning related to their fields of specialisation.
- vii. Orientation workshops are presented to ensure that students are enabled to access all library resources, including IT infrastructure and web-based resources.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- viii. All services offered to the learners are designed and efficient taking into account the location of the learners and the needs of the programme.

Criterion 9: Student Retention, Throughput Rates and Programme Impact

Student retention and throughput rates in the programme are monitored, especially in terms of race and gender equity, and remedial measures are taken, where necessary. The programme has taken steps to enhance the employability of students and to alleviate shortages of expertise in relevant fields, in cases where these are the desired outcomes of the programme.

Minimum standards

- i. Sixty-six per cent of full-time students who enter the programme complete it successfully within one year (part-time students complete it within three years).
- ii. Over the past three years, the unit offering the programme has had access to, and has monitored and guided the analysis of, information on retention and throughput rates of students.
- iii. Planning includes mechanisms (at faculty or departmental level) for improving retention and throughput rates, and for attaining appropriate demographic diversity and responding to patterns of supply and demand with respect to skills and competences.
- iv. Students who complete the programme successfully have attained the required level of professional competence.

Criterion 10: Programme Reviews

Insights and recommendations arising from regular programme reviews and impact studies are used to improve the programme's design, delivery and resourcing, and for staff development and student support, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution has procedures and appropriate guidelines for periodic programme reviews, with accountability to Faculty Board and/or Senate.
- ii. User surveys are undertaken at regular intervals for feedback from academics involved in the programme, graduates, peers, external examiners, SACE and other professional bodies and employers, where applicable, to ascertain whether the programme is attaining its intended outcomes.
- iii. On an annual basis, the programme coordinator or the unit undertakes (in collaboration with programme staff) a systematic, focused review of pertinent aspects of the programme in order to monitor its success in enabling students to achieve the required exit-level outcomes and professional commitment.
- iv. Reviews form the basis of a feasible development and improvement plan, and the plan is systematically implemented.

National Review of the Bachelor of Education – 2006

The BEd is a 480 NQF credit, Level 6 qualification. The Norms and Standards for Educators (February, 2000) specifies that:

The learner will have strong practical and foundational competence with the reflexive competence to make judgements in a wide context. The qualification is intended for candidates seeking a focused teaching degree with strong subject and educational theory competence.

The BEd is thus an initial qualification for educators in schools. Teachers are members of a profession whose definitive aim is to enable systematic learning. In order to prepare prospective teachers for this comprehensive role, a BEd programme should:

- Develop and consolidate both subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge.
- Cultivate a practical understanding of teaching and learning in a diverse range of South African schools, in relation to educational theory, phase and/or subject specialisation, practice and policy.
- Foster self-reflexivity and self-understanding among prospective teachers.
- Nurture commitment to the ideals of the teaching profession and an understanding of teaching as a profession.
- Develop the professional dispositions and self-identity of students as teachers.
- Develop students as active citizens and enable them to develop the dispositions of citizenship in their learners.
- Promote and develop the dispositions and competences to organise learning among a diverse range of learners in diverse contexts.

It is assumed that students who achieve the exit-level outcomes will be competent *novice* teachers who will still need time, experience and appropriate support to develop as fully-fledged extended professionals.

Criterion 1: The National, Institutional and Unit Context¹

The programme is an integral part of the offerings of the higher education institution at which it is located and it complies with all the national policies and regulations regarding the provision of higher education qualifications in South Africa. The unit offering the BEd has goals, objectives and forms of internal organisation to support the programme.

1 'Unit' refers to the operational organisational structure offering the programme. In most cases this will be a department or school.

Minimum standards

- i. Public Providers: The programme is part of the institution's programme and qualification mix (PQM), as approved by the DoE, and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education;
- ii. Private Providers: The provider is registered with the DoE in terms of the requirements of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) and the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, 2002 and the Annexures to the Regulations (Regulation No. 1564 of Government Gazette No. 24143, 13 December 2002) and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education.
- iii. The qualification complies with the minimum credit value of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Gazette No. 20844, 4 February 2000) and the purpose of the qualification and its phase/subject specialism(s) are clearly stated. The programme meets national requirements pertaining to programmes which are at present being developed within the context of the NQF (refer to National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 as amended by Education Laws Amendment Act No. 100 of 1997 and No. 48 of 1999).
- iv. The qualification and all specialisations are registered by SAQA on the NQF.
- v. The programme is accredited by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (AUT), SAQA, or the HEQC.
- vi. BEd phase/subject specialisations and programme outcomes take cognisance of national/regional professional priorities and are congruent with the national Norms and Standards for Educators, the relevant national curriculum (RNCS and/or the new FET curriculum), and the professional dispositions of the SACE Code of Ethics.²
- vii. The programme is part of the institution's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process.
- viii. The unit³ offering the BEd has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance.
- ix. Franchising arrangements for programme delivery are not permissible.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The provider and programme management team can provide a rationale for the use of distance education for the delivery of the programme/course to the intended target learners.

Criterion 2: Programme Design

It is a fundamental requirement that programme design reflects the necessary and enabling features for a BEd to achieve its purpose. The curriculum is suited to its purpose, internally coherent, and mindful of the needs of the students.

Minimum standards

- i. Programme design is internally coherent and in alignment with the prescribed level and purpose of a BEd.

2 In particular, appropriate professional dispositions include commitment to learners' personal development and welfare as both individuals and citizens.

3 All minimum standards apply to additional sites of delivery and tuition centres.

- ii. The programme is located within a conception of teacher education as a continuum ranging from the initial professional education of teachers through to continuing professional development.
- iii. The programme includes consideration of teachers' conditions of service and national policy, particularly as these pertain to issues such as safety in schools and learner conduct.
- iv. The design provides opportunities for articulation with other programmes within and across institutions or relevant disciplinary areas.
- v. Timetable design provides for four years of full-time study or eight years of part-time study during which it enables an appropriate mix of academic learning and school experience to serve a productive relationship between learning area or disciplinary content, pedagogical content knowledge, and practice in the relevant phase/subject specialist area. The number of contact hours is explicitly stated and justified/supported in the programme outline.
- vi. The purpose of the programme informs the statement of applied competence. The curriculum is explicit with respect to exit-level outcomes and related assessment criteria, content, level, credits, rules of combination and relative weight.
- vii. Curriculum design is coherent, reflecting alignment of explicit outcomes, curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, assessment, and modes of delivery.
- viii. The programme has intellectual credibility in terms of the relation between theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge. Curriculum design makes provision for the development and consolidation of knowledge of the subject/s relevant to the applicable specialist areas. In each case, this knowledge meets and goes beyond the immediate demands of the school curriculum.
- ix. Curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, modes of delivery and learning materials cater for the learning needs of the target student intake. Opportunities are provided for learner input.
- x. Relevant forms of learner support have been incorporated into the programme design.
- xi. Mechanisms and processes are in place to ensure that all conditions for programme delivery are met, and that there is equivalence of provision in the case of a programme offered by different modes of delivery and/or at different sites. In such cases, the arrangements are institutionally approved and supported. In cases where decentralised tutor-based learner support systems are in place, these are properly managed and quality assured by the provider.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xii. An adequate level of investment has been made in quality programme development, course design and course material.
- xiii. The provider has explicitly designed systems for administering and teaching learners at a distance and has planned for contingencies in order to meet its stated aims in terms of academic quality and standards.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Recruitment, access and selection procedures and documents are clear and accurate, attentive to diversity, current legislation and national needs in education, and apt for a programme whose main purpose is to develop the academic and professional competence of undergraduates who are aspirant teachers. The number of students selected takes into account the programme's intended learning outcomes and its capacity to offer good quality education.

Minimum standards

- i. Appropriate policies, procedures and regulations are in place for student admission, selection and assessment. These are communicated to all BEd students, and academic and administrative staff, and implemented consistently across the institution and programme.
- ii. Admission and selection criteria and processes are clearly documented. Prospectuses and other recruitment documents are clear, accurate and informative about the programme, its areas of specialisation, formal admission requirements, academic standards and completion requirements, and mode of delivery.
- iii. Marketing and advertising are consistent with DoE and SAQA regulations.
- iv. Recruitment strategy endeavours to attract a diverse range of suitable candidates for the profession.
- v. Selection criteria are commensurate with the programme's academic and professional requirements, within a framework of widened access and equity.
- vi. The number of students selected takes account of the programme's intended learning outcomes, its capacity to offer sound professional preparation in the selected areas of specialisation, and the needs of schools and other relevant parts of the education system.
- vii. Enrolment practices include provision of accurate, helpful information – including information about funding opportunities – as well as efficient handling of finance and registration information.
- viii. While the general admission requirements for university entrance are applied, provision is made for a flexible RPL entry route within the framework of national guidelines for higher education institutions. Admission through an RPL route may not exceed 10% of the total number of students on any programme.⁴

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- ix. Detailed and up-to-date information is available regarding the demands of the mode of delivery and the support services available. Provision is made for a potentially diverse and geographically widely distributed student body.
- x. The provider has developed detailed learner profiles that identify the characteristics and situation of learners and this is used to inform teaching and learning strategy.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Policy and procedures for staff appointments, promotion and development are legitimate and fair, promote the achievement of equity plans, and encourage a staff complement that exemplifies best professional practice in teaching, assessment, inquiry and professional service. The academic and support staff complement is of sufficient size and seniority for the programme. The institution and/or other recognised agencies contracted by the institution provide opportunities for staff development.

Minimum standards

- i. Recruitment and employment of staff adhere to the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act, 1996, Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act, 2002, and the Employment Equity Act, 1998. Appropriate administrative procedures are in place for the selection, appointment, induction and payment of staff members.
- ii. Where applicable, relevant labour legislation and regulations on health and safety in the workplace are observed.

⁴ Exceptions are permissible in cases where RPL admission is consistent with the institution's policy and practice for RPL.

- iii. Policies and procedures for academic staff appointments, promotions and development enable and encourage a competent, committed teaching staff who:
 - have an understanding of their specialist fields as well as of the conditions of education in South Africa;
 - can interpret and develop learning materials and courses;
 - apply the institution's assessment policies in the context of the BEd programme; and
 - use an appropriate range of formative and summative assessment approaches at the exit level of the programme.
- iv. All core academic and professional staff teaching on the BEd have recognised, relevant qualifications to NQF Level 7 or higher, and appropriate professional experience. There are appropriately qualified senior staff to provide intellectual and professional leadership in the programme.
- v. The staffing on the programme is in line with the equity programme of the institution.
- vi. Staff composition is balanced and consonant with the range of disciplinary fields and phase/subject specialisations offered in the programme and the numbers of students in each, as well as with the practical and theoretical components of the BEd.
- vii. Workloads allow sufficient time for the development of curricula and materials, marking of assessment and the necessary learner support. Where decentralised learner support is offered, or where marking of assessment involves external people, there are appropriate resources in place for the recruitment, training, monitoring and payment of necessary part-time and contract staff.
- viii. There are clear procedures for assuring, acknowledging and developing the performance quality of associate, off-campus and part-time staff, and for promoting their understanding of and commitment to the programme and its purpose.
- ix. Through a variety of forums (e.g. informal meetings, research, conferences, formal learning) staff responsible for professional aspects of the programme are able to reflect on matters concerning teacher education, national policy and teaching, and on learning and assessment issues pertaining to the programme. Staff responsible for students' academic development have opportunities to advance their disciplinary knowledge.
- x. Core academic and professional staff engage in scholarly activity and use research and/or other forms of structured inquiry to enhance their practice in the field of teacher education.
- xi. Programme faculty members have formal opportunities to provide input on issues affecting admissions, progress of students, resource allocation, curriculum design and evaluation, and research.
- xii. The institution provides orientation, induction and professional development opportunities for both new academic staff members and part-time staff.
- xiii. Where possible and appropriate, the programme offers professional development opportunities to associate teachers involved in school experience.
- xiv. There are sufficient numbers of administrative, technical and academic development support staff for the effective running of the programme and its activities, both on campus and at various sites of practice (such as school experience).
- xv. Support staff are adequately qualified for their duties, and have opportunities for staff development.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xvi. Staff are trained, monitored and supported for the specialised distance education roles they perform, including the design, management and delivery of the programmes.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

The institution gives recognition to the importance of the promotion of student learning. Teaching and learning policies, strategies, methods and materials take account of the purpose of the BEd programme being that of preparing competent teachers who will themselves be involved in teaching. In systematically enabling student learning and in developing students' capacity to enable others to learn, teaching and learning strategies are also appropriate for the institutional type (as reflected in its mission) and consonant with the mode(s) of delivery, student composition, and programme design. There are mechanisms to ensure the appropriateness of teaching and learning methods.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution's central operating policies, procedures and resource allocation recognise the importance of student learning and support the programme in enabling learning pertinent to the professional competence of teachers.
- ii. Programme-specific teaching and learning policies and strategies are consonant with the programme design, outcomes, mode(s) of delivery, learning materials, assessment criteria, and student profile.
- iii. Students are provided with guidance on how the different components of the programme (theory and practice in particular, but also, for example, subjects, courses and/or modules, and their learning guides) contribute to the learning outcomes of the programme.
- iv. Programme teaching and learning strategies support the professional imperative to ensure that prospective teachers can enable systematic learning for others, under diverse conditions. For example:
 - The range of teaching methods (including, where appropriate, instructional technology) and the learning material are congruent with the relevant practical, foundational and reflexive competences for teachers, and exemplify the qualities of the 'envisaged learners'.
 - Students are able to develop their specialist knowledge and professional dispositions by being provided with an appropriate mix of academic and experiential learning opportunities, in a variety of teaching and learning contexts.
 - Within the stipulated time for the programme, the mix and balance of student learning opportunities and contexts support the development of identity as a teacher (dispositions, values, commitment).
 - Pedagogy contributes to transformation by developing the capabilities of individual students for personal enrichment as well as for academic and professional requirements.
- v. There is systematic curriculum development and revision of learning materials, and these processes are responsive to the needs of students and the profession. Curriculum development at programme and course levels includes strategies for developing the literacy, numeracy, cognitive skills and pedagogical content knowledge necessary for the students to become competent teachers.
- vi. Appropriate curriculum initiatives include a focus on HIV/AIDS, in order to develop an informed understanding of the pandemic and its impact on schooling, and to develop the competences to cope responsibly with the effects of the pandemic in learning sites.
- vii. There are procedures for monitoring, evaluating and improving teaching and learning.
- viii. There are mechanisms for identifying weak and 'at risk' students and for offering appropriate additional academic support.
- ix. The quality requirements for programme delivery take into account all delivery modes.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The design of the programme encompasses the aims and intended learning outcomes, the scope of the learning materials, and the strategies for teaching at a distance.
- xi. The programme makes provision for the development of increasingly sophisticated levels of independent study from learning resources provided.
- xii. The institution has proven systems and technologies for materials development and delivery for distance learning.
- xiii. Learning materials, teaching and learning support strategies and modes of assessment are designed in order to give distance students a reasonable chance of achieving the intended learning outcomes.

Criterion 6: Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning⁵

The programme is effectively coordinated in a way that facilitates the achievement of its purpose and intended outcomes, with due attention to models of delivery and school-based activities. The programme provides students with systematic, well-supported opportunities to experience and demonstrate integrated competence in an authentic setting.

Minimum standards

With regard to the programme generally:

- i. The BEd programme is suitably coordinated and defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system. An appropriately qualified senior academic with relevant experience manages the programme within the framework of an agreed-upon mandate.
- ii. The programme coordinator provides intellectual leadership and ensures that the academic coherence and professional integrity of the programme are maintained (e.g. through appropriate procedures for curriculum development and review; consultation with staff, associated teachers, students, SACE and other professional bodies; systematic tracking of policy developments in areas such as the school curriculum and teacher development).
- iii. The programme coordinator contributes to the achievement of the programme purpose by effectively coordinating programme delivery and assessment, annual planning, and advising the institution on resource allocation and staffing needs.
- iv. Opportunities are created for student input and participation in relevant aspects of programme coordination.
- v. Programme coordination ensures that regular and effective communication takes place with the students. This includes providing reliable information on the various aspects of the programme.

With regard to work-based learning specifically:

- vi. The institution, the student and the school have entered into a formal agreement that includes clear guidelines on ethical and educational considerations. Each party (the school, the student, and the provider) is informed through explicit guiding instructions of its role and responsibilities.
- vii. The design, duration and the learning outcomes of work-based learning are aligned with the Norms and Standards for Educators.
- viii. Students are placed in appropriate learning environments.

⁵ The term ‘work-based learning’ is synonymous with what is variously known as ‘school experience’, ‘teaching practice’, or simply ‘TP’.

- ix. Regular and effective communication takes place between the institution, students, and the school.
- x. A mentoring system enables the student to experience a variety of well-structured teaching practices.
- xi. University staff engage with the relevant persons at schools to generate a common understanding of the roles and responsibilities of all those who are involved with student teachers' school experience.
- xii. The school experience component of the PGCE contains an appropriate mix of assessment opportunities to enable the student to recognise strengths and weaknesses in his/her work.
- xiii. School experience is effectively monitored.
- xiv. The coordination, the infrastructure and the mentoring system promote professionalism.

Criterion 7: Student Assessment

Assessment policies and procedures are explicit and appropriate for the programme purpose, mode(s) of delivery, exit-level outcomes and integrated professional competence. There are clear, educationally sound policies for internal formative and summative assessment; co-assessment of practical competence in schools or other learning sites, and the appointment and responsibilities of external examiners. There are mechanisms for the monitoring of student progress; ensuring the validity and reliability of assessment practices; recording of assessment results; settling of disputes; maintaining the rigour and security of the assessment system; RPL; and for the development of staff competence in assessment.

Minimum standards

- i. Assessment is integral to the programme design, teaching and learning strategies, to student and staff development, and to the improvement of the curriculum and learning materials.
- ii. Assessment policies, procedures and practices match and support the programme purpose, and are thus responsive to the fact that students are themselves learning to become competent assessors.
- iii. There are clear procedures for both formative and summative assessment; and in the case of the professional component, the mix, balance, assessment criteria and weighting of assessment activities are consonant with the exit-level outcomes and integrated professional competence (as required by the Norms and Standards for Educators and National Framework for Teacher Education). Such procedures are made explicit to staff and students.
- iv. A range of appropriate assessment tasks (including at least one integrated assessment procedure and, when appropriate, RPL) is used effectively to measure students' attainment of the intended learning outcomes in the professional component of the programme.
- v. Procedures exist and are followed to ensure that assignments/tests/projects are returned in sufficient time to allow students to benefit from academic feedback.
- vi. The practical professional competence of students in the selected area/s of specialisation is assessed in an authentic setting and there are clear procedures for experienced teachers in associate schools to serve as co-assessors.
- vii. Assessment records are thorough, accurate and systematically used to generate data for grading, selecting and predicting, and review. A system is in operation for maximising the accuracy, consistency, fairness and credibility of results, including consistency of marking, and concurrence between assessors and external examiners on the nature and quality of the evidence of achievement of learning outcomes. Where more than one assessor is involved, internal moderation checks are undertaken to ensure the reliability of the assessment procedures.

- viii. The assessment of student learning achievements at the exit level of the qualification is subject to external examination by appropriately qualified academics. External examiners are properly informed about the course they examine (curriculum and assessment), and review in full 10% of the written work being assessed, and conduct a random check of a further 20%.
- ix. Completed external examiner reports are returned to the relevant academic member of staff and also to the programme coordinator. Problems are discussed with the lecturer concerned and the programme coordinator monitors the implementation of agreed improvements.
- x. Measures are taken to ensure the security of the assessment system. Assessment results are recorded securely and reliably.
- xi. Policies for ensuring the integrity of certification processes for the qualification obtained through the programme are effectively implemented.
- xii. There is a fair and effective procedure for settling student disputes regarding assessment results, and students are acquainted with this procedure. Breaches of assessment rules are dealt with effectively and timeously.
- xiii. Student progress is monitored and appropriate action is taken, where applicable.
- xiv. Provision is made for the development of staff competence in assessment.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xv. There are systems and processes in place to make possible individual academic support for learners by telephone, email, appointment, video-conferencing or online.

Criterion 8: Infrastructure and Library Resources

The programme has the facilities and resources to support disciplinary learning in the relevant range of subject areas represented in the school curriculum as well as for preparing competent, literate teachers who are able to use information technology, library and locally accessible curricular resources to support learning and deepen their own pedagogical content knowledge. Policies ensure the proper management and maintenance of library resources, including support and access for students and staff. Staff development of library staff takes place on a regular basis.

Minimum standards

- i. At all official sites of learning where the programme is offered, there are sufficient, suitable, properly equipped venues. Where appropriate, such venues include laboratories in addition to facilities for large class teaching and for small group seminars and tutorials.
- ii. Codes for laboratory practice and safety exist, where appropriate.
- iii. Each member of the full-time academic staff has an office, a personal computer and access to printing facilities. Appropriate provision is made to accommodate associate and part-time staff.
- iv. Suitable and sufficient IT facilities, equipment and support are available at all sites of learning. This includes functionally appropriate hardware (computers and printers), software (programmes) and databases, and IT staff to provide training and support for the effective use of the facilities for teacher education.
- v. Administrative/technical staff have suitable working space and adequate systems of technology and communication in order to support the programme.
- vi. Relevant, properly maintained and regularly updated library resources are available to support effective teaching, learning, curriculum development and research in teacher education.

- vii. Appropriate use of the library and other locally accessible curriculum resources is built into the programme design and teaching and learning strategies. A library or resource centre education specialist supports and encourages appropriate library use. Resources complement the curriculum and make provision for independent student learning related to their fields of specialisation.
- viii. Orientation workshops are presented to ensure that students are enabled to access all library resources, including IT infrastructure and web-based resources.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- ix. All services offered to the learners are designed and efficient taking into account the location of the learners and the needs of the programme.

Criterion 9: Student Retention, Throughput Rates and Programme Impact

Student retention and throughput rates in the programme are monitored and analysed with a view to improving the programme and achieving its professional purpose in preparing competent teachers for South African schools. Students who complete the programme are employable in public or independent schools and are able to fulfil their responsibilities as novice teachers in their specialist phase and learning areas/ or subject/s.

Minimum standards

- i. Sixty-six per cent of full-time students who enter the programme complete it successfully within five years.
- ii. Over the past three years, the unit offering the programme has had access to, and has monitored and guided the analysis of information on retention and throughput rates of students.
- iii. Planning includes mechanisms (at faculty or departmental level) for improving retention and throughput rates, and for attaining appropriate demographic diversity and responding to patterns of teacher supply and demand.
- iv. Students who complete the programme successfully have attained the required level of professional competence to fulfil their responsibilities as novice teachers in the schools in which they have been employed.

Criterion 10: Programme Reviews

Insights and recommendations arising from regular programme reviews and impact studies are used to improve the programme's design, delivery and resourcing, and for staff development and student support, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution has procedures and appropriate guidelines for periodic programme reviews, with accountability to Faculty Board and/or Senate.
- ii. User surveys are undertaken at regular intervals for feedback from academics involved in the programme, graduates, peers, external examiners, SACE and other professional bodies and employers, where applicable, to ascertain whether the programme is attaining its intended outcomes.

- iii. On an annual basis, the programme coordinator or the unit undertakes (in collaboration with programme staff) a systematic, focused review of pertinent aspects of the programme in order to monitor its success in enabling students to achieve the required exit-level outcomes and professional commitment.
- iv. Reviews form the basis of a feasible development and improvement plan, and the plan is systematically implemented.

National Review of Master of Education Programmes by Dissertation – 2006

Criterion 1: The National, Institutional and Unit Context¹

The programme is an integral part of the offerings of the higher education institution at which it is located and it complies with all the national policies and regulations regarding the provision of higher education qualifications in South Africa. The unit offering the master's degree by dissertation has goals, objectives and forms of internal organisation to support the programme.

Minimum standards

- i. Public Providers: The programme is part of the institution's programme and qualification mix (PQM), as approved by the DoE, and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education;
- ii. Private Providers: The provider is registered with the DoE in terms of the requirements of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) and the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, 2002 and Annexures to the Regulations (Regulation No 1564 of Government Gazette No 24143, 13 December 2002).
- iii. The qualification complies with the minimum credit value of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Gazette No. 20844, 4 February 2000) and the purpose of the qualification is clearly stated. The programme meets national requirements pertaining to programmes which are at present being developed within the context of the NQF (refer to National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 as amended by Education Laws Amendment Act No. 100 of 1997 and No. 48 of 1999).
- iv. The qualification is registered by SAQA on the NQF.
- v. The programme is accredited by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (AUT), or the HEQC.
- vi. The programme is part of the institution's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process.
- vii. The unit offering the MEd has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance.
- viii. Franchising arrangements for programme delivery are not permissible.

¹ 'Unit' refers to the operational organisational structure offering the programme. In most cases this will be a department or school.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- ix. The provider and programme management team can provide a rationale for the use of distance education for the delivery of the programme to the intended target learners.

Criterion 2: Programme Strategy and Coordination

There is a strategy to induct novice researchers into independent research and to support their research projects through to completion. Such strategy may consist of the provision of non-credit bearing learning experiences (seminars, courses) that support students in the production of dissertations that meet the minimum standards of an NQF Level 8 master's degree. The implementation of such a strategy necessitates an enterprising, effective coordinating structure to facilitate attainment of the intended purpose and outcomes of the programme.²

Minimum standards

- i. The dissertation is conceptualised and presented as a substantial piece of academic work at a suitably advanced level commensurate with NQF Level 8. (See also Criterion 6, minimum standard iii.)
- ii. The design provides opportunities for articulation with other programmes within and across institutions or relevant disciplinary areas.
- iii. Procedures are in place to locate students' independent projects within a broad but coherent focus representing the mission and aims of the academic unit as well as the research strengths of academic staff.
- iv. There is a strategy comprising appropriate principles and/or procedures for inducting students into research and for supporting their projects through to completion.
- v. Procedures and responsibilities for giving effect to the research design are defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system.
- vi. The MEd programme is suitably coordinated and defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system. An academic with research and postgraduate supervision experience manages the programme within the framework of an agreed-upon mandate and defined procedures and responsibilities which include:
 - programme coordination;
 - monitoring the progress of students;
 - overseeing assessment procedures; and
 - ensuring that quality assurance measures are in place.
- vii. The activities and learning experiences made available to students are fit for purpose, coherent, and sequenced in a way that meets the aims of the programme.
- viii. Regular and effective communication takes place with the students. This includes providing reliable information on procedures and activities associated with the development of student competence in research.

2 It is a fundamental assumption that BEd (Hons) graduates are not yet adequately prepared to begin functioning as fully-fledged independent researchers at master's level. The term 'design strategy' represents an attempt to establish a standard that goes beyond acceptance of no more than 'one to one' individual supervisory arrangements. It also implies a measure of diversity and flexibility in terms of activities involving students. Such activities may, for example, involve students in: workshops on ways of developing a research question into a research design; presenting research proposals to faculty staff; attending lectures by a visiting authority in a relevant field; presenting seminars on work in progress; working in the field alongside established researchers; participating in research seminars presented by staff.

- ix. Opportunities are created for student input and participation in relevant aspects of programme procedures and activities.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. An appropriate level of investment has been made in quality programme development.
- xi. Relevant forms of learner support have been incorporated into the programme design.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Recruitment documentation informs potential students of the programme accurately and sufficiently, and admission adheres to current legislation. Admission and selection of students are commensurate with the programme's academic requirements, within a framework of widened access and equity. The number of students selected takes into account the programme's intended learning outcomes and the capacity of the academic unit to offer good quality research support.

Minimum standards

- i. Appropriate policies, procedures and regulations are in place for student admission, selection and assessment. These are communicated to all students, and academic and administrative staff, and implemented consistently across the institution and programme.
- ii. Admission criteria and processes are clearly documented. Prospectuses and other documents adequately describe the programme in terms of the academic calendar, admission policies, academic standards and completion requirements.
- iii. Marketing and advertising are consistent with DoE and SAQA regulations.
- iv. Advertising and promotional materials contain accurate and sufficient information with regard to admission policies, academic standards and completion requirements.
- v. Students are given information on areas of research focus encouraged and supported by the programme.
- vi. Selection criteria are geared towards widening access and attaining equity.
- vii. The institution provides access to information about funding opportunities for students wishing to enrol for the programme.
- viii. While the general admission requirement of a BEd (Hons) or equivalent relevant NQF Level 7 qualification is generally applied, provision is made for a flexible RPL entry route. Measures are in place to ensure that incoming students have the required level of understanding of the topic area in which they intend to embark on research.
- ix. Admission through an RPL route may not exceed 10% of the total number of students on any programme.³
- x. The number of students selected for the programme does not exceed the available capacity for offering good quality research training and support in the focus areas made available.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xi. Detailed and up-to-date information is available regarding the demands of the mode of delivery and the support services available. Provision is made for a potentially diverse and geographically widely distributed student body.

³ Exceptions are permissible in cases where RPL admission is consistent with the institution's policy and practice for RPL.

- xii. The provider has developed detailed learner profiles that identify the characteristics and situation of learners and this is used to inform curriculum issues.
- xiii. The enrolment practices include provision of accurate, helpful information to prospective learners as well as efficient handling of finance and registration information.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Academic staff responsible for the programme are suitably qualified, have sufficient relevant experience and teaching competence, and their assessment competence and research profiles are adequate for the nature and level of the programme. The institution and/or other recognised agencies contracted by the institution provide opportunities for academic staff to enhance their competences and to support their professional growth and development.

Minimum standards

- i. Recruitment and employment of staff adhere to the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act, 1996, the Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act, 2002, and the Employment Equity Act, 1998, and appropriate administrative procedures are in place for the selection, appointment, induction and payment of staff members.
- ii. Responsibility for research training and student supervision rests with core, permanent staff to a greater extent than with temporary/part-time personnel.⁴
- iii. Core, permanent academic staff teaching on the programme have relevant academic qualifications at least on the MEd level.
- iv. A minimum of 50% of the core, permanent academic staff teaching on the programme have a doctoral degree or an equivalent qualification in a field appropriate to that of the students' research, and have supervised at least three completed major dissertations (or five minor dissertations) in the past five years.
- v. Programme faculty members have formal opportunities to provide input on issues affecting admissions, progress of students, resource allocation, programme design strategy and activities, evaluation and research.
- vi. Academic staff are competent to apply the student supervision policies of the institution.
- vii. The staffing on the programme is in line with the equity programme of the institution.
- viii. The institution provides orientation, induction and professional development opportunities for both new academic staff members as well as part-time staff.
- ix. Opportunities exist for academic staff to update their knowledge and skills.
- x. Sufficient administrative staff dedicated to the programme are available, where appropriate.
- xi. Administrative, technical and academic development support staff are adequately qualified for their duties, and have opportunities for staff development.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- i. Staff are trained, monitored and supported for the specialised distance education roles they perform in supporting independent student research.
- ii. Workloads allow sufficient time for the development of the necessary learner support at a distance. Where decentralised support is offered, there are appropriate systems in place for the recruitment, training, monitoring and payment of necessary part-time and contract staff.

4 Outsourcing of delivery is not permitted.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

Given the nature of the master's by research, relevant minimum standards with respect to teaching and learning have been subsumed under Criterion 7, Supervision of Research Dissertation.

Criterion 6: Research

The programme is actively focused on research. Both staff and students contribute to the knowledge base in education through their research production.

Minimum standards

- i. The academic unit (institution) has clear and efficient mechanisms to manage research functions and processes in ways that are consistent with accepted ethical standards and that enhance quality as well as increase research participation, productivity and research funding.
- ii. The unit has effective strategies for research development, including capacity development for new researchers.
- iii. Students' dissertations demonstrate competence in: conducting literature reviews; applying appropriate research methodologies; interpreting and analysing information; developing and formulating arguments; critically reflecting on research methodologies as well as on theories relevant to the particular field of study; communicating research results in a scholarly form. (See also Criterion 2, minimum standard i.)
- iv. Faculty members teaching on the programme are active in research (i.e. 0.3 publications per year per full-time academic).
- v. The unit has plans to meet the national benchmark of one publication per year per full-time academic.

Criterion 7: Supervision of Research Dissertation

The institution gives recognition to the importance of the promotion of student learning. Suitably qualified staff support students' independent work by offering guidance on all aspects of the research process and on keeping to an achievable time schedule for their projects. Supervisors are accessible, within reason; keep records of decisions agreed upon; offer timeous feedback on student work; and support and encourage the student through to completion.

Minimum standards

- i. The importance of the promotion of student learning is reflected in the institution's central operating policies and procedures, including resource allocation, provision of support services, and appointments and promotions.
- ii. An explicit understanding of the required standard of research achievement is clearly communicated to students on commencement of their studies.
- iii. Students are given guidance and support in all aspects of the research process, starting with the design of an acceptable research proposal, and ending with the writing up of the research dissertation as a final product.
- iv. There is a procedure for approving research proposals before students embark on their projects.
- v. A procedure exists to determine the appointment of the supervisors, taking due consideration of the field of expertise of the academic, the existing workload of the supervisor, and the compatibility with the student.

- vi. The appointed supervisor has an appropriate research record of accomplishment, as well as experience, expertise and peer recognition in the field of study. In the case of inexperienced or new supervisors, there is ongoing staff development and support, and joint supervision is formalised where appropriate.
- vii. Explicit guidelines exist on the roles and responsibilities of supervisors and students regarding, amongst others, the following aspects: the periodicity of contact between student and supervisor; the nature, format and 'turnaround time' for submitted work; the form of feedback to the student; regulations on plagiarism; and examination and qualification requirements.
- viii. The requirements for supervision take into account all delivery modes.
- ix. There is a balance and mix of supervisory techniques and methods appropriate to the learning needs of individual students.
- x. Where necessary, students are afforded access to specialist expertise and resources, e.g. statistical packages and procedures.
- xi. Academic support is provided in language, writing and numeracy skills, where required.
- xii. There are systems in place to deal with under-performing or inactive students.
- xiii. Monitoring and review of the supervision process takes place regularly and includes student feedback on the quality of the supervision.
- xiv. Open, fair and formal procedures are in place for hearing and adjudicating student complaints about the quality of supervision and support provision.

Criterion 8: Student Assessment

There are policies and procedures for monitoring student progress and for providing judgements and advice with respect to the quality of ongoing student research work in relation to established standards. There is an appropriate policy for the internal and external examination of dissertations and this is implemented in a manner that ensures the reliability, rigour and security of the assessment system.

Minimum standards

- i. Assessment criteria for the guidance of supervisors and examiners are of a suitably high standard for a master's degree by research and are aligned with the learning outcomes at programme and module level.
- ii. Procedures are in place and followed to receive, record, review and return student work within a specified time that allows students to benefit from feedback prior to the next stage of their work.
- iii. Student progress is monitored.
- iv. Suitably qualified external examiners are appointed in terms of clear criteria and administrative procedures and conduct their responsibilities in terms of clear guidelines. These criteria and procedures are consistent with the institution's policy.
- v. Research is properly assessed, which includes the following:
 - At least one examiner external to the institution is appointed per dissertation/thesis;
 - Without undermining the principle of assessment based on academic judgement, assessment decisions are made transparently and students are afforded reasonable access to information (e.g. examiners' reports or summaries of reports); and
 - Higher degree committees or similar structures consider examiners' reports and make considered decisions about examination outcomes.

- vi. Measures are taken to ensure the reliability, rigour and security of the assessment system. Assessment results are recorded securely and reliably.
- vii. Policies for ensuring the integrity of certification processes for the qualification obtained are effectively implemented.
- viii. There is a fair and effective procedure for settling student disputes regarding the results of the examination of their dissertations.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- ix. There should be sufficient formative assessment to ensure that the student is given a reasonable chance of success and to identify problem areas before completion of any formal summative assessment for the programme.
- x. There are systems and processes in place to make possible individual academic support for learners by telephone, email, appointment, video-conferencing or online.

Criterion 9: Infrastructure and Library Resources

Suitable and sufficient venues, IT infrastructure and library resources are available for students and staff in the programme. Policies ensure the proper management and maintenance of library resources, including support and access for students and staff. Staff development of library staff takes place on a regular basis.

Minimum standards

- i. Suitable and sufficient venues are available at all official sites of learning where the programme is offered.
- ii. A well-trained librarian is available to serve students on the programme and to assist students in carrying out literature searches in education.
- iii. Suitable and sufficient IT infrastructure is available to all students on the programme. This includes appropriate hardware, software and databases for literature searches in the fields of specialisation.
- iv. Suitable, sufficient and current library resources exist in the form of ready access to an extensive national and international journal collection and an appropriate book collection in fields of specialisation and research methodology.
- v. Orientation and training workshops are presented to ensure that students are enabled to access all library resources, including IT infrastructure and web-based resources.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- vi. All services offered to the learners are designed and efficient taking into account the location of the learners and the needs of their particular fields of study.

Criterion 10: Student Retention and Throughput Rates

Student retention and throughput rates in the programme are monitored, especially in terms of race and gender equity, and remedial measures are taken, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The majority of part-time students who enter the programme complete it successfully within four years (full-time students complete within two years).

- ii. The profile of the qualifying class in terms of race and gender increasingly resembles that of the entering cohort.
- iii. Retention and throughput rates are monitored regularly, and appropriate action is taken where necessary.
- iv. The unit has plans and strategies in order to meet the national benchmark graduation rate of 33% (contact) and 25% (distance).

Criterion 11: Programme Reviews

User surveys, reviews and impact studies on the effectiveness of the programme are undertaken at regular intervals. Results are used to improve the design strategy, delivery and resourcing, and for staff development and student support, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The unit offering the programme undertakes systematic reviews of its activities to determine its effectiveness in achieving its goals and objectives.
- ii. Programme delivery is responsive to feedback from students.
- iii. User surveys are undertaken at regular intervals for feedback from academics involved in the programme, graduates, peers, external moderators, professional bodies and employers, where applicable, to ascertain whether the programme is attaining its intended outcomes.
- iv. There are regular reviews of the effectiveness of benchmarking in the programme against equivalent national and international reference points, with a view to goal-setting and continuous self-improvement in the programme.
- v. Results of user surveys, reviews and impact studies are utilised in a regular evaluation of all programme aspects and to develop improvement plans.

National Review of the Structured Master of Education Programmes

Criterion 1: The National, Institutional and Unit Context¹

The programme is an integral part of the offerings of the higher education institution at which it is located and it complies with all the national policies and regulations regarding the provision of higher education qualifications in South Africa. The unit offering the MEd has goals, objectives and forms of internal organisation to support the programme.

Minimum standards

- i. Public Providers: The programme is part of the institution's programme and qualification mix (PQM), as approved by the DoE, and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education;
- ii. Private Providers: The provider is registered with the DoE in terms of the requirements of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) and the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, 2002 and Annexures to the Regulations (Regulation No. 1564 of Government Gazette No. 24143, 13 December 2002).
- iii. The qualification complies with the minimum credit value of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Gazette No. 20844, 4 February 2000) and the purpose of the qualification and its specialism/s are clearly stated. The programme meets national requirements pertaining to programmes which are at present being developed within the context of the NQF (refer to National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 as amended by Education Laws Amendment Act No. 100 of 1997 and No. 48 of 1999).
- iv. The qualification and all specialisations are registered by SAQA on the NQF.
- v. The programme is accredited by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (AUT), or the HEQC.
- vi. The programme is part of the institution's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process.
- vii. MEd specialisations and programme outcomes take cognisance of national/regional professional priorities and needs.
- viii. The unit offering the MEd has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance.
- ix. Franchising arrangements for programme delivery are not permissible.

¹ 'Unit' refers to the operational organisational structure offering the programme. In most cases this will be a department or school.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The provider and programme management team can provide a rationale for the use of distance education for the delivery of the programme/course to the intended target learners.

Criterion 2: Programme Design and Coordination

The learning programme has a clear structure leading to the MEd or to the designated areas of specialisation at MEd level. As a postgraduate degree, the MEd must correspond to the generally accepted minimum standards of an NQF Level 8 master's degree. The programme is effectively coordinated in a way that facilitates attainment of its intended purpose and outcomes.

Minimum standards

- i. The purpose of the programme (see Criterion 1, minimum standard iii) informs the statement of applied competence, curriculum design and assessment strategy.
- ii. Learning outcomes, degree of curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, modes of delivery, learning materials and expected completion time cater for the learning needs of the target student intake.
- iii. The design provides opportunities for articulation with other programmes within and across institutions or relevant disciplinary areas.
- iv. Modules represent an appropriate balance between the advanced study of a specialised field in education and the development of research competence in that field. The specialisation coursework component of the degree carries a minimum of 50% of the total mark (or credit point weighting) for the MEd.
- v. Programme design reflects the production of student research in a specialised field as an integral component of the MEd. The student's research report/dissertation carries at least 33% of the total mark (or credit point weighting) for the MEd.² (See Criterion 6 for further detail on research.)
- vi. The design maintains an appropriate balance of theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge and skills. It has sufficient disciplinary content and theoretical depth at the appropriate level to serve its educational purposes.³
- vii. Measures are in place to ensure the academic coherence of the programme. Modules cohere and are sequenced in a way that meets the aims of the programme. This is reflected in appropriate specification of content, level, credits, purpose, outcomes, relative weight and delivery.
- viii. Mechanisms and processes are in place to ensure that all conditions for programme delivery are met, and that there is equivalence of provision in the case of a programme offered by different modes of delivery and/or at different sites. In cases where decentralised tutor-based learner support systems are in place, these are properly managed and quality assured by the provider.
- ix. The MEd programme is suitably coordinated and defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system. An academic with research and postgraduate supervision experience manages the programme within the framework of an agreed-upon mandate and defined procedures and responsibilities which include:

2 The figure of 33% does not include research training.

3 The MEd reflects appropriate roles of the educator specified in the Norms and Standards for Educators. Specialisations take into account the relevant educator roles and are underpinned by educational theory and practice relating to the field of specialisation.

- programme coordination;
 - monitoring the progress of students;
 - overseeing assessment procedures; and
 - responsibility for ensuring that quality assurance measures are in place.
- x. Opportunities are created for student input and participation in relevant aspects of programme coordination.
- xi. Regular and effective communication takes place with the students. This includes providing reliable information on the various aspects of the programme.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xii. An appropriate level of investment has been made in quality programme development, course design and course material.
- xiii. The provider has explicitly designed systems for administering and teaching learners at a distance and has planned for contingencies in order to meet its stated aims in terms of academic quality and standards.
- xiv. Relevant forms of learner support have been incorporated into the programme design.
- xv. The development of course material is linked closely to the required learning outcomes, appropriateness of the teaching and learning approach and its relevance for the target learners.
- xvi. The suitability of learning outcomes is constantly evaluated with opportunities provided for learner input.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Recruitment documentation informs potential students of the programme accurately and sufficiently, and admission adheres to current legislation. Admission and selection of students are commensurate with the programme's academic requirements, within a framework of widened access and equity. The number of students selected takes into account the programme's intended learning outcomes, its capacity to offer good quality education, and the needs of the particular profession (in the case of professional programmes).

Minimum standards

- i. Appropriate policies, procedures and regulations are in place for student admission, selection and assessment. These are communicated to all MEd students, and academic and administrative staff, and implemented consistently across the institution and programme.
- ii. Admission criteria and processes are clearly documented. Prospectuses and other documents adequately describe the programme in terms of the academic calendar, admission policies, academic standards and completion requirements.
- iii. Marketing and advertising are consistent with DoE and SAQA regulations.
- iv. Advertising and promotional materials contain accurate and sufficient information with regard to admission policies, academic standards and completion requirements.
- v. Selection criteria are geared towards widening access and attaining equity.
- vi. The institution provides access to information about funding opportunities for students wishing to enrol for the programme.
- vii. While the general admission requirement of a BEd (Hons) or equivalent relevant NQF Level 7 qualification is generally applied, provision is made for a flexible RPL entry route. Measures are in place to ensure that incoming students have the required level of

understanding to embark on advanced study in the particular field of specialisation.

viii. Admission through an RPL route may not exceed 10% of the total number of students on any programme.⁴

ix. The number of students selected for the programme does not exceed the available capacity for offering good quality education.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

x. Detailed and up-to-date information is available regarding the demands of the mode of delivery and the support services available. Provision is made for a potentially diverse and geographically widely distributed student body.

xi. The provider has developed detailed learner profiles that identify the characteristics and situation of learners and this is used to inform curriculum issues.

xii. The enrolment practices include provision of accurate, helpful information to prospective learners as well as efficient handling of finance and registration information.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Academic staff responsible for the programme are suitably qualified, have sufficient relevant experience and teaching competence, and their assessment competence and research profiles are adequate for the nature and level of the programme. The institution and/or other recognised agencies contracted by the institution provide opportunities for academic staff to enhance their competences and to support their professional growth and development.

Minimum standards

i. Recruitment and employment of staff adhere to the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act, 1996, Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act, 2002 and the Employment Equity Act, 1998, and appropriate administrative procedures are in place for the selection, appointment, induction and payment of staff members.

ii. Where applicable, relevant labour legislation and regulations on health and safety in the workplace are observed.

iii. Academic staff has research experience gained through their own research and/or studies towards higher education qualifications. The research profile of the staff includes recognised research outputs.

iv. Responsibility for teaching and supervision rests with core, permanent staff to a greater extent than with temporary/part-time personnel.⁵

v. Core, permanent academic staff teaching on the programme have relevant academic qualifications at least on the MEd level.

vi. A minimum of 50% of the core, permanent academic staff teaching on the programme have a doctoral degree or an equivalent qualification in a field relevant to the study programme and have at least five years of teaching experience in a recognised higher education institution.

vii. Programme faculty members have formal opportunities to provide input on issues affecting admissions, progress of students, resource allocation, curriculum design and evaluation, and research.

viii. Academic staff is competent to apply the assessment policies of the institution.

4 Exceptions are permissible in cases where RPL admission is consistent with the institution's policy and practice for RPL.

5 Outsourcing of delivery is not permitted.

- ix. The staffing on the programme is in line with the equity programme of the institution.
- x. The institution provides orientation, induction and professional development opportunities for both new academic staff members and part-time staff.
- xi. Opportunities exist for academic staff to update their knowledge and skills.
- xii. Sufficient administrative staff dedicated to the programme are available, where appropriate.
- xiii. Administrative, technical and academic development support staff are adequately qualified for their duties, and have opportunities for staff development.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xiv. Staff are trained, monitored and supported for the specialised distance education roles they perform, including the design, management and delivery of the programmes.
- xv. Workloads allow sufficient time for the development of curricula and materials, marking of assessment and the necessary learner support. Where decentralised learner support is offered, or where marking of assessment involves external people, there are appropriate systems in place for the recruitment, training, monitoring and payment of necessary part-time and contract staff.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

The institution gives recognition to the importance of the promotion of student learning. The teaching and learning strategy is appropriate for the institutional type (as reflected in its mission), mode(s) of delivery and student composition, contains mechanisms to ensure the appropriateness of teaching and learning methods, and makes provision for staff to improve their teaching. Effective teaching and learning methods and suitable learning materials and learning opportunities facilitate the achievement of the purposes and outcomes of the programme. The programme ensures that each student displays an understanding of the areas of knowledge which are fundamental for an MEd, and acquires skills and competencies which are relevant to the academic and professional world of education.

Minimum standards

- i. The importance of the promotion of student learning is reflected in the institution's central operating policies and procedures, including resource allocation, provision of support services, and appointments and promotions.
- ii. The teaching and learning strategy is appropriate for the institutional type as reflected in its mode of delivery and student composition.
- iii. Assessment criteria and/or an explicit understanding of coursework requirements and the standard of research achievement required are clearly communicated to students on commencement of their studies.
- iv. There is a balance and mix of different teaching and learning methods appropriate to the learning needs of the students.
- v. Academic support is provided in language, writing and numeracy skills, where required.
- vi. There are systems in place to deal with under-performing or inactive students in the programme.
- vii. The strategy is geared towards providing opportunities for the realisation of the programme outcomes, within the specified programme time.
- viii. Pedagogy contributes to transformation in the sense that it develops the capabilities of individual learners for personal enrichment as well as for the requirements of social development, and economic and employment growth.

- ix. The institution provides staff development opportunities for staff wishing to improve their teaching.
- x. The quality requirements for programme delivery take into account all delivery modes.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xi. The design of the programme ensures the aims and intended learning outcomes, the scope of the learning materials and the strategies for teaching at a distance.
- xii. The programme makes provision for the development of increasingly sophisticated levels of independent study from learning resources provided.
- xiii. The institution has tested systems and technologies for materials development and delivery for distance learning.
- xiv. Learning materials, teaching and learning support strategies and modes of assessment are designed in order to give distance students a reasonable chance of achieving the intended learning outcomes.
- xv. Training and development opportunities are provided for staff to be able to design, deliver and review programmes offered in a distance mode.
- xvi. Systems are in place to identify inactive students timeously.

Criterion 6: Research

The programme is directed towards developing student capacity to engage research issues and to produce research. Both staff and students contribute to the knowledge base through their research production.

Minimum standards

- i. The academic unit (institution) has clear and efficient mechanisms to manage research functions and processes in ways that are consistent with accepted ethical standards and that enhance quality as well as increase research participation, productivity and research funding.
- ii. The unit has effective strategies for research development, including capacity development for new researchers.
- iii. Students' dissertations show that graduates are competent in: conducting literature reviews; applying appropriate research methodologies; interpreting information; developing and formulating arguments; communicating research results in a scholarly form. (See also Criterion 2, minimum standard v.)
- iv. Faculty members teaching on the programme are active in research (i.e. 0.3 publications per year per full-time academic).
- v. The unit has plans to meet the national benchmark of one publication per year per full-time academic.

Criterion 7: Supervision of Research Dissertation

Suitably qualified staff supports students' independent work by offering guidance on all aspects of the research process and on keeping to an achievable time schedule for their projects. Supervisors are accessible, within reason; keep records of decisions agreed upon; offer timeous feedback on student work; and support and encourage the student through to completion.

Minimum standards

- i. There is a procedure for approving research proposals before students embark on their projects.

- ii. A procedure exists to determine the appointment of the supervisors, taking due consideration of the field of expertise of the academic, the existing workload of the supervisor, and the compatibility with the student.
- iii. The appointed supervisor has an appropriate research record of accomplishment, as well as experience, expertise and peer recognition in the field of study. In the case of inexperienced or new supervisors, there is ongoing staff development and support, and joint supervision is explored as an option.
- iv. Students are given guidance and support in all aspects of the research process, starting with the design of an acceptable research proposal, and ending with the writing up of the research dissertation as a final product.
- v. Explicit guidelines exist on the roles and responsibilities of supervisors and students regarding, amongst others, the following aspects: the periodicity of contact between student and supervisor; the nature, format and 'turnaround time' for submitted work; the form of feedback to the student; regulations on plagiarism; and examination and qualification requirements.
- vi. Students are acquainted with the criteria used to assess the research dissertation.
- vii. Monitoring and review of the supervision process takes place regularly and includes student feedback on the quality of the supervision.
- viii. Open, fair and formal procedures are in place for hearing and adjudicating student complaints about the quality of supervision and support provision.

Criterion 8: Student Assessment

The different modes of delivery of the programme have appropriate policies and procedures for internal assessment; internal and external moderation; monitoring of student progress; explicitness, validity and reliability of assessment practices; recording of assessment results; settling of disputes; the rigour and security of the assessment system; RPL; and for the development of staff competence in assessment. The programme has effective assessment practices that include internal (or external) assessment, as well as internal and external moderation. The programme has taken measures to ensure the reliability, rigour and security of the assessment system.

Minimum standards

- i. Assessment is used to generate data for grading, selecting and predicting, and to provide timely feedback to inform teaching and learning and to improve the curriculum.
- ii. Assessment criteria are of a suitably high standard for an MEd programme and are aligned with the learning outcomes at programme and module level.
- iii. Procedures are in place and followed to receive, record, process and return assignments within a specified time that allows students to benefit from feedback prior to the submission of further assessment tasks.
- iv. Student progress is monitored.
- v. For summative assessment, where more than one assessor is involved, internal moderation checks are undertaken to ensure the reliability of the assessment procedures.
- vi. The assessment of student learning achievements by academic staff responsible for a teaching module/course is subject to external moderation by appropriately qualified academics.
- vii. Suitably qualified external moderators/examiners are appointed in terms of clear criteria and administrative procedures and conduct their responsibilities in terms of clear guidelines. These criteria and procedures are consistent with the institution's policy.

- viii. Research is properly assessed, which includes the following:
- At least one examiner external to the institution is appointed per dissertation/thesis;
 - Without undermining the principle of assessment based on academic judgement, assessment decisions are made transparently and students are afforded reasonable access to information (e.g. examiners' reports or summaries of reports); and
 - Higher degree committees or similar structures consider examiners' reports and make considered decisions about examination outcomes.
- ix. Measures are taken to ensure the reliability, rigour and security of the assessment system. Assessment results are recorded securely and reliably.
- x. Policies for ensuring the integrity of certification processes for the qualification obtained through the programme are effectively implemented.
- xi. Completed external moderator reports are returned to the relevant academic member of staff and also to the programme coordinator. Problems are discussed with the lecturer concerned and the programme co-coordinator monitors the implementation of agreed improvements.
- xii. There is a fair and effective procedure for settling student disputes regarding assessment results, and students are acquainted with this procedure. Breaches of assessment rules are dealt with effectively and timeously.
- xiii. Provision is made for the development of staff competence in assessment.
- In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:
- xiv. There should be sufficient formative assessment to ensure that the student is given a reasonable chance of success and to identify problem areas before completion of any formal summative assessment for the programme.
- xv. There are systems and processes in place to make possible individual academic support for learners by telephone, email, appointment, video-conferencing or online.

Criterion 9: Infrastructure and Library Resources

Suitable and sufficient venues, IT infrastructure and library resources are available for students and staff in the programme. Policies ensure the proper management and maintenance of library resources, including support and access for students and staff. Staff development of library staff takes place on a regular basis.

Minimum standards

- i. Suitable and sufficient venues are available at all official sites of learning where the programme is offered.
- ii. A well-trained librarian is available to serve students on the programme and to assist students in carrying out literature searches in education.
- iii. Suitable and sufficient IT infrastructure is available to all students on the programme. This includes appropriate hardware, software and databases for literature searches in the fields of specialisation.
- iv. Suitable, sufficient and current library resources exist in the form of ready access to an extensive national and international journal collection and an appropriate book collection in fields of specialisation and research methodology.
- v. Orientation and training workshops are presented to ensure that students are enabled to access all library resources, including IT infrastructure and web-based resources.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- vi. All services offered to the learners are designed and efficient taking into account the location of the learners and the needs of the programme.

Criterion 10: Student Retention and Throughput Rates

Student retention and throughput rates in the programme are monitored, especially in terms of race and gender equity, and remedial measures are taken, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The majority of part-time students who enter the programme complete it successfully within four years (full-time students complete within two years).
- ii. The profile of the qualifying class in terms of race and gender increasingly resembles that of the entering class.
- iii. Retention and throughput rates are monitored regularly, and appropriate action is taken where necessary.
- iv. The unit has plans and strategies in order to meet the national benchmark graduation rate of 33% (contact) and 25% (distance).

Criterion 11: Programme Reviews

User surveys, reviews and impact studies on the effectiveness of the programme are undertaken at regular intervals. Results are used to improve the programme's design, delivery and resourcing, and for staff development and student support, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The unit offering the programme undertakes systematic reviews of its activities to determine its effectiveness in achieving its goals and objectives.
- ii. Programme delivery is responsive to feedback from students.
- iii. User surveys are undertaken at regular intervals for feedback from academics involved in the programme, graduates, peers, external moderators, professional bodies and employers, where applicable, to ascertain whether the programme is attaining its intended outcomes.
- iv. There are regular reviews of the effectiveness of benchmarking in the programme against equivalent national and international reference points, with a view to goal-setting and continuous self-improvement in the programme.
- v. Impact studies are undertaken to measure and evaluate the impact of the programme and its graduates, on the employability of students and in alleviating shortages of expertise in relevant fields, where these are the desired outcomes of the programme. Impact studies could also ascertain the degree of acknowledgement of the programme in the community, by other institutions and in the workplace, where applicable.
- vi. Results of user surveys, reviews and impact studies are utilised in a regular evaluation of all programme aspects and to develop improvement plans.

National Review of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education – 2006

The PGCE is as a 120 NQF credit, Level 6 qualification. The Norms and Standards for Educators (February, 2000) defines the PGCE as:

a generalist educator's qualification that 'caps' an undergraduate qualification. As an access requirement candidates are required to have appropriate prior learning which leads to general foundational and reflexive competence. The qualification focuses mainly on developing practical competence reflexively grounded in educational theory.

Students entering the programme are thus assumed to have acquired the appropriate level of subject content knowledge in the bachelor's degree. In order to prepare competent teachers within the limited period of one year of full-time or two years of part-time study, a PGCE programme should:

- Consolidate subject knowledge and develop appropriate pedagogical content knowledge.
- Cultivate a practical understanding of teaching and learning in a diverse range of South African schools, in relation to educational theory, phase and/or subject specialisation, practice and policy.
- Foster self-reflexivity and self-understanding among prospective teachers.
- Nurture commitment to the ideals of the teaching profession and an understanding of teaching as a profession.
- Develop the professional dispositions and self-identity of students as teachers.
- Develop students as active citizens and enable them to develop the dispositions of citizenship in their learners.
- Promote and develop the dispositions and competences to organise learning among a diverse range of learners in diverse contexts.

It is assumed that students who achieve the exit-level outcomes will be competent *novice* teachers who will still need time, experience and appropriate support to develop as fully-fledged extended professionals.

Criterion 1: The National, Institutional and Unit Context¹

The programme is an integral part of the offerings of the higher education institution at which it is located and it complies with all the national policies and regulations regarding the provision of higher education qualifications in South Africa. The unit offering the PGCE has goals, objectives and forms of internal organisation to support the programme.

1 'Unit' refers to the operational organisational structure offering the programme. In most cases this will be a department or school.

Minimum standards

- i. Public Providers: The programme is part of the institution's programme and qualification mix (PQM), as approved by the DoE, and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education;
- ii. Private Providers: The provider is registered with the DoE in terms of the requirements of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) and the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, 2002 and Annexures to the Regulations (Regulation No. 1564 of Government Gazette No. 24143, 13 December 2002) and meets the criteria laid down in the Criteria for the Recognition and Evaluation of Qualifications for Employment in Education.
- iii. The qualification complies with the minimum credit value of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Gazette No. 20844, 4 February 2000) and the purpose of the qualification and its phase/subject specialism(s) are clearly stated. The programme meets national requirements pertaining to programmes which are at present being developed within the context of the NQF (refer to National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 as amended by Education Laws Amendment Act No. 100 of 1997 and No. 48 of 1999).
- iv. The qualification and all specialisations are registered by SAQA on the NQF.
- v. The programme is accredited by the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (AUT), SAQA, or the HEQC.
- vi. PGCE phase/subject specialisations and programme outcomes take cognizance of national/regional professional priorities and are congruent with the national Norms and Standards for Educators, the relevant national curriculum (RNCS and/or the new FET curriculum), and the professional dispositions of the SACE Code of Ethics.²
- vii. The programme is part of the institution's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process.
- viii. The unit³ offering the PGCE has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance.
- ix. Franchising arrangements for programme delivery are not permissible.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The provider and programme management team can provide a rationale for the use of distance education for the delivery of the programme/course to the intended target learners.

Criterion 2: Programme Design

It is a fundamental requirement that programme design reflects the necessary and enabling features for a PGCE to achieve its purpose. The curriculum is suited to its purpose, internally coherent, and mindful of the needs of students.

Minimum standards

- i. Programme design is internally coherent and in alignment with the prescribed level and purpose of a PGCE.
- ii. The programme is located within a conception of teacher education as a continuum ranging

2 In particular, appropriate professional dispositions include commitment to learners' personal development and welfare as both individuals and citizens.

3 All minimum standards apply to additional sites of delivery and tuition centres.

from the initial professional education of teachers through to continuing professional development.

- iii. The programme includes consideration of teachers' conditions of service and national policy, particularly as these pertain to issues such as safety in schools and learner conduct.
- iv. Timetable design provides for one year full-time study or two years of part-time study during which it enables an appropriate mix between academic learning and school experience to serve a productive relationship between learning area or disciplinary content, pedagogical content knowledge, and practice in the relevant phase/subject specialist area. The number of contact hours is explicitly stated and justified/supported in the programme outline.
- v. The purpose of the programme informs the statement of applied competence. The curriculum is explicit with respect to exit-level outcomes and related assessment criteria, content, level, credits, rules of combination and relative weight.
- vi. Curriculum design is coherent, reflecting alignment of explicit outcomes, curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, assessment, and modes of delivery.
- vii. The programme has intellectual credibility in terms of the relation between theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge.
- viii. Curriculum choice, teaching and learning methods, modes of delivery and learning materials cater for the learning needs of the target student intake. Opportunities are provided for learner input.
- ix. Relevant forms of learner support have been incorporated into the programme design.
- x. Mechanisms and processes are in place to ensure that all conditions for programme delivery are met, and that there is equivalence of provision in the case of a programme offered by different modes of delivery and/or at different sites. In such cases, the arrangements are institutionally approved and supported. In cases where decentralised tutor-based learner support systems are in place, these are properly managed and quality assured by the provider.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xi. An adequate level of investment has been made in quality programme development, course design and course material.
- xii. The provider has explicitly designed systems for administering and teaching learners at a distance and has planned for contingencies in order to meet its stated aims in terms of academic quality and standards.

Criterion 3: Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection

Recruitment, access and selection procedures and documents are clear and accurate, attentive to diversity, current legislation and national needs in education, and apt for a programme whose main purpose is to develop professional competence and commitment among graduates intending to become teachers. The number of students selected takes into account the programme's intended learning outcomes and its capacity to offer good quality education.

Minimum standards

- i. Appropriate policies, procedures and regulations are in place for student admission, selection and assessment. These are communicated to all PGCE students, and academic and administrative staff, and implemented consistently across the institution and programme.
- ii. Admission and selection criteria and processes are clearly documented. Prospectuses and other recruitment documents are clear, accurate and informative about the programme, its

areas of specialisation, formal admission requirements, academic standards and completion requirements, and mode of delivery.

- iii. Marketing and advertising are consistent with DoE and SAQA regulations.
- iv. Recruitment strategy endeavours to attract a diverse range of suitable candidates for the profession.
- v. Selection criteria are commensurate with the programme's academic and professional requirements, within a framework of widened access and equity.
- vi. The number of students selected takes account of the programme's intended learning outcomes, its capacity to offer sound professional preparation in the selected areas of specialisation, and the needs of schools and other relevant parts of the education system.
- vii. Enrolment practices include provision of accurate, helpful information – including information about funding opportunities – and efficient handling of finance and registration information.
- viii. While the general admission requirement of a national first degree or equivalent qualification is applied, provision is made for a flexible RPL entry route within the framework of national guidelines for higher education institutions. Admission through an RPL route may not exceed 10% of the total number of students on any programme.⁴

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- ix. Detailed and up-to-date information is available regarding the demands of the mode of delivery and the support services available. Provision is made for a potentially diverse and geographically widely distributed student body.
- x. The provider has developed detailed learner profiles that identify the characteristics and situation of learners and this is used to inform teaching and learning strategy.

Criterion 4: Staffing

Policy and procedures for staff appointments, promotion and development are legitimate and fair, promote the achievement of equity plans, and encourage a staff complement that exemplifies best professional practice in teaching, assessment, inquiry and professional service. The academic and support staff complement is of sufficient size and seniority for the programme. The institution and/or other recognised agencies contracted by the institution provide opportunities for staff development.

Minimum standards

- i. Recruitment and employment of staff adhere to the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act, 1996, Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act, 2002, and the Employment Equity Act, 1998. Appropriate administrative procedures are in place for the selection, appointment, induction and payment of staff members.
- ii. Where applicable, relevant labour legislation and regulations on health and safety in the workplace are observed.
- iii. Policies and procedures for academic staff appointments, promotions and development enable and encourage a competent, committed teaching staff who:
 - have an understanding of their specialist fields as well as of the conditions of education in South Africa;

⁴ Exceptions are permissible in cases where RPL admission is consistent with the institution's policy and practice for RPL.

- can interpret and develop learning materials and courses;
 - apply the institution's assessment policies in the context of the PGCE programme; and
 - use an appropriate range of formative and summative assessment approaches at the exit level of the programme.
- iv. All core permanent academic and professional staff teaching on the PGCE have recognised relevant qualifications at NQF Level 7 or higher, and appropriate professional experience. There are appropriately qualified senior staff to provide intellectual and professional leadership in the programme.
 - v. The staffing on the programme is in line with the equity programme of the institution.
 - vi. Staff composition is balanced and consonant with the range of phase and subject specialisations offered in the programme and the numbers of students in each, as well as with the practical and theoretical components of the PGCE.
 - vii. Workloads allow sufficient time for the development of curricula and materials, marking of assessment and the necessary learner support. Where decentralised learner support is offered, or where marking of assessment involves external people, there are appropriate resources in place for the recruitment, training, monitoring and payment of necessary part-time and contract staff.
 - viii. There are clear procedures for assuring, acknowledging and developing the performance quality of associate, off-campus and part-time staff, and for promoting their understanding of and commitment to the programme and its purpose.
 - ix. Through a variety of forums (e.g. informal meetings, research, conferences, formal learning) staff are able to reflect on matters concerning teacher education, national policy and teaching, and on learning and assessment issues pertaining to the programme. Staff responsible for students' academic development have opportunities to advance their disciplinary knowledge.
 - x. Core academic and professional staff engage in scholarly activity and use research and/or other forms of structured inquiry to enhance their practice in the field of teacher education.
 - xi. Programme faculty members have formal opportunities to provide input on issues affecting admissions, progress of students, resource allocation, curriculum design and evaluation, and research.
 - xii. The institution provides orientation, induction and professional development opportunities for both new academic staff members and part-time staff.
 - xiii. Where possible and appropriate, the programme offers professional development opportunities to associate teachers involved in school experience.
 - xiv. There are sufficient numbers of administrative, technical and academic development support staff for the effective running of the programme and its activities, both on campus and at various sites of practice (such as school experience).
 - xv. Support staff are adequately qualified for their duties, and have opportunities for staff development.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xvi. Staff are trained, monitored and supported for the specialised distance education roles they perform, including the design, management and delivery of the programmes.

Criterion 5: Teaching and Learning

The institution gives recognition to the importance of the promotion of student learning. Teaching and learning policies, strategies, methods and materials take account of the purpose of the PGCE programme being that of preparing competent teachers who will themselves be

involved in teaching. In systematically enabling student learning and in developing students' capacity to enable others to learn, teaching and learning strategies are also appropriate for the institutional type (as reflected in its mission) and consonant with the mode(s) of delivery, student composition, and programme design. There are mechanisms to ensure the appropriateness of teaching and learning methods.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution's central operating policies, procedures and resource allocation recognise the importance of student learning and support the programme in enabling learning pertinent to the professional competence of teachers.
- ii. Programme-specific teaching and learning policies and strategies are consonant with the programme design, outcomes, mode(s) of delivery, learning materials, assessment criteria and student profile.
- iii. Students are provided with guidance on how the different components of the programme (theory and practice in particular, but also, for example, subjects, courses and/or modules, and their learning guides) contribute to the learning outcomes of the programme.
- iv. Programme teaching and learning strategies support the professional imperative to ensure that prospective teachers can enable systematic learning for others, under diverse conditions. For example:
 - The range of teaching methods (including, where appropriate, instructional technology) and the learning material are congruent with the relevant practical, foundational and reflexive competences for teachers, and exemplify the qualities of the 'envisaged learners'.
 - Students are able to develop their specialist knowledge and professional dispositions by being provided with an appropriate mix of academic and experiential learning opportunities, in a variety of teaching and learning contexts.
 - Within the stipulated time for the programme, the mix and balance of student learning opportunities and contexts support the development of identity as a teacher (dispositions, values, commitment).
 - Pedagogy contributes to transformation by developing the capabilities of individual students for personal enrichment as well as for academic and professional requirements.
- v. There is systematic curriculum development and revision of learning materials, and these processes are responsive to the needs of students and the profession. Curriculum development at programme and course levels includes strategies for developing the literacy, numeracy, cognitive skills and pedagogical content knowledge necessary for the students to become competent teachers.
- vi. Appropriate curriculum initiatives include a focus on HIV/AIDS, in order to develop an informed understanding of the pandemic and its impact on schooling, and to develop the competences to cope responsibly with the effects of the pandemic in learning sites.
- vii. There are procedures for monitoring, evaluating and improving teaching and learning.
- viii. There are mechanisms for identifying weak and 'at risk' students and for offering appropriate additional academic support.
- ix. The quality requirements for programme delivery take into account all delivery modes.

In addition, the following minimum standards apply in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- x. The design of the programme encompasses the aims and intended learning outcomes, the scope of the learning materials, and the strategies for teaching at a distance.

- xi. The programme makes provision for the development of increasingly sophisticated levels of independent study from learning resources provided.
- xii. The institution has proven systems and technologies for materials development and delivery for distance learning.
- xiii. Learning materials, teaching and learning support strategies and modes of assessment are designed in order to give distance students a reasonable chance of achieving the intended learning outcomes.

Criterion 6: Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning⁵

The programme is effectively coordinated in a way that facilitates the achievement of its purpose and intended outcomes, with due attention to models of delivery and school-based activities. The programme provides students with systematic, well-supported opportunities to experience and demonstrate integrated competence in an authentic setting.

Minimum standards

With regard to the programme generally:

- i. The PGCE programme is suitably coordinated and defined within the faculty/departmental and institutional system. An appropriately qualified senior academic with relevant experience manages the programme within the framework of an agreed-upon mandate.
- ii. The programme coordinator provides intellectual leadership and ensures that the academic coherence and professional integrity of the programme are maintained (e.g. through appropriate procedures for curriculum development and review; consultation with staff, associated teachers, students, SACE and other professional bodies; systematic tracking of policy developments in areas such as the school curriculum and teacher development).
- iii. The programme coordinator contributes to the achievement of the programme purpose by effectively coordinating programme delivery and assessment, annual planning, and advising the institution on resource allocation and staffing needs.
- iv. Opportunities are created for student input and participation in relevant aspects of programme coordination.
- v. Programme coordination ensures that regular and effective communication takes place with the students. This includes providing reliable information on the various aspects of the programme.

With regard to work-based learning specifically:

- vi. The institution, the student and the school have entered into a formal agreement that includes clear guidelines on ethical and educational considerations. Each party (the school, the student, and the provider) is informed through explicit guiding instructions of its role and responsibilities.
- vii. The design, duration and the learning outcomes of work-based learning are aligned with the Norms and Standards for Educators.
- viii. Students are placed in appropriate learning environments.
- ix. Regular and effective communication takes place between the institution, students, and the school.
- x. A mentoring system enables the student to experience a variety of well-structured teaching practices.

⁵ The term 'work-based learning' is synonymous with what is variously known as 'school experience', 'teaching practice', or simply 'TP'.

- xi. University staff engage with the relevant persons at schools to generate a common understanding of the roles and responsibilities of all those who are involved with student teachers' school experience.
- xii. The school experience component of the PGCE contains an appropriate mix of assessment opportunities to enable the student to recognise strengths and weaknesses in his/her work.
- xiii. School experience is effectively monitored.
- xiv. The coordination, the infrastructure and the mentoring system promote professionalism.

Criterion 7: Student Assessment

Assessment policies and procedures are explicit and appropriate for the programme purpose, mode(s) of delivery, exit-level outcomes and integrated professional competence. There are clear, educationally sound policies for internal formative and summative assessment; co-assessment of practical competence in schools or other learning sites, and the appointment and responsibilities of external examiners. There are mechanisms for the monitoring of student progress; ensuring the validity and reliability of assessment practices; recording of assessment results; settling of disputes; maintaining the rigour and security of the assessment system; RPL; and for the development of staff competence in assessment.

Minimum standards

- i. Assessment is integral to the programme design, teaching and learning strategies, to student and staff development, and to the improvement of the curriculum and learning materials.
- ii. Assessment policies, procedures and practices match and support the programme purpose, and are thus responsive to the fact that students are themselves learning to become competent assessors.
- iii. There are clear procedures for both formative and summative assessment; and the mix, balance, assessment criteria and weighting of assessment activities are consonant with the exit-level outcomes and integrated professional competence (as required by the Norms and Standards for Educators and National Framework for Teacher Education). Such procedures are made explicit to staff and students.
- iv. A range of appropriate assessment tasks (including at least one integrated assessment procedure and, when appropriate, RPL) is used effectively to measure students' attainment of the intended learning outcomes.
- v. Procedures exist and are followed to ensure that assignments/tests/projects are returned in sufficient time to allow students to benefit from academic feedback.
- vi. The practical competence of students in the selected area/s of specialisation is assessed in an authentic setting and there are clear procedures for experienced teachers in associate schools to serve as co-assessors.
- vii. Assessment records are thorough, accurate and systematically used to generate data for grading, selecting and predicting, and review. A system is in operation for maximising the accuracy, consistency, fairness and credibility of results, including consistency of marking, and concurrence between assessors and external examiners on the nature and quality of the evidence of achievement of learning outcomes. Where more than one assessor is involved, internal moderation checks are undertaken to ensure the reliability of the assessment procedures.
- viii. The assessment of student learning achievements at the exit level of the qualification is subject to external examination by appropriately qualified academics. External examiners are properly informed about the course they examine (curriculum and assessment), and

review in full 10% of the written work being assessed, and conduct a random check of a further 20%.

- ix. Completed external examiner reports are returned to the relevant academic member of staff and also to the programme coordinator. Problems are discussed with the lecturer concerned and the programme coordinator monitors the implementation of agreed improvements.
- x. Measures are taken to ensure the security of the assessment system. Assessment results are recorded securely and reliably.
- xi. Policies for ensuring the integrity of certification processes for the qualification obtained through the programme are effectively implemented.
- xii. There is a fair and effective procedure for settling student disputes regarding assessment results, and students are acquainted with this procedure. Breaches of assessment rules are dealt with effectively and timeously.
- xiii. Student progress is monitored and appropriate action is taken, where applicable.
- xiv. Provision is made for the development of staff competence in assessment.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- xv. There are systems and processes in place to make possible individual academic support for learners by telephone, email, appointment, video-conferencing or online.

Criterion 8: Infrastructure and Library Resources

The programme has the facilities and resources for preparing competent, literate teachers who are able to use information technology, library and locally accessible curricular resources to support learning and deepen their own pedagogical content knowledge. Policies ensure the proper management and maintenance of library resources, including support and access for students and staff. Staff development of library staff takes place on a regular basis.

Minimum standards

- i. At all official sites of learning where the programme is offered, there are sufficient, suitable, properly equipped venues. Where appropriate, such venues include laboratories in addition to facilities for large class teaching and for small group seminars and tutorials.
- ii. Each member of the full-time academic staff has an office, a personal computer and access to printing facilities. Appropriate provision is made to accommodate associate and part-time staff.
- iii. Suitable and sufficient IT facilities, equipment and support are available at all sites of learning. This includes functionally appropriate hardware (computers and printers), software (programmes) and databases, and IT staff to provide training and support for the effective use of the facilities for teacher education.
- iv. Administrative/technical staff have suitable working space and adequate systems of technology and communication in order to support the programme.
- v. Relevant, properly maintained and regularly updated library resources are available to support effective teaching, learning, curriculum development and research in teacher education.
- vi. Appropriate use of the library and other locally accessible curriculum resources is built into the programme design and teaching and learning strategies. A library or resource centre education specialist supports and encourages appropriate library use. Resources complement the curriculum and make provision for independent student learning related to their fields of specialisation.

- vii. Orientation workshops are presented to ensure that students are enabled to access all library resources, including IT infrastructure and web-based resources.

In addition, the following minimum standard applies in the case of programmes offered through distance education:

- viii. All services offered to the learners are designed and efficient taking into account the location of the learners and the needs of the programme.

Criterion 9: Student Retention, Throughput Rates and Programme Impact

Student retention and throughput rates in the programme are monitored and analysed with a view to improving the programme and achieving its professional purpose in preparing competent teachers for South African schools. Students who complete the programme are employable in public or independent schools and are able to fulfil their responsibilities as novice teachers in their specialist phase and learning areas/ or subject/s.

Minimum standards

- i. Seventy-five per cent of full-time students who enter the programme complete it successfully within 1 year (part-time students complete within 3 years).
- ii. Over the past three years, the unit offering the programme has had access to, and has monitored and guided the analysis of information on retention and throughput rates of students.
- iii. Planning includes mechanisms (at faculty or departmental level) for improving retention and throughput rates, and for attaining appropriate demographic diversity and responding to patterns of teacher supply and demand.
- iv. Students who complete the programme successfully have attained the required level of professional competence to fulfil their responsibilities as novice teachers in the schools in which they have been employed.

Criterion 10: Programme Reviews

Insights and recommendations arising from regular programme reviews and impact studies are used to improve the programme's design, delivery and resourcing, and for staff development and student support, where necessary.

Minimum standards

- i. The institution has procedures and appropriate guidelines for periodic programme reviews, with accountability to Faculty Board and/or Senate.
- ii. User surveys are undertaken at regular intervals for feedback from academics involved in the programme, graduates, peers, external examiners, SACE and other professional bodies and employers, where applicable, to ascertain whether the programme is attaining its intended outcomes.
- iii. On an annual basis, the programme coordinator or the unit undertakes (in collaboration with programme staff) a systematic, focused review of pertinent aspects of the programme in order to monitor its success in enabling students to achieve the required exit-level outcomes and professional commitment.
- iv. Reviews form the basis of a feasible development and improvement plan, and the plan is systematically implemented.

Appendix 2

The table below summarises areas of commendation. The majority of these came from institutions that received full accreditation, but in some cases even institutions in difficult circumstances had commendable practices.

Table A2: Summary of commendations per criterion

Criteria	Criterion descriptor	Commendation
Criterion 1	The National, Institutional and Unit Context	Inclusion of ITE in institutional strategic plan
Criterion 2	Programme Design and Coordination	Innovative programme design (3); Clear rationale for programme; Innovative features
Criterion 3	Student Recruitment, Admission and Selection	
Criterion 4	Staffing	Staff commitment (4)
Criterion 5	Teaching and Learning	Innovative curriculum; Excellent student support (2); Curriculum research driven
Criterion 6	Programme Coordination and Work-based Learning	Staff commitment (3); Role of coordinators commendable; Diverse WBL exposure; Good communication with schools, mentors, principals (2)

Appendix 3

Table A3: Colleges and enrolments

Date	Numbers of colleges in existence	Enrolment	Jurisdiction
1930	Circa 30		Missionary institutions era
1935	Circa 26	3,540	
1948	38	6,000	
1956		7,543	
26 Colleges of Education closed by Department of Bantu Education			
1958	39		The apartheid state era
1961	33	3,697	
1965		4,548	
1970		7,548	
1975		15,563	
1979	36	14,551	
1980	24	14,422	
1984	40		
1988	30		
1994	Circa 111		

Compiled from selected Department of Bantu Education and DET Annual Reports; South African Institute of Race Relations Annual Surveys; Horrell (1960) *A Decade of Bantu Education* (Johannesburg: SAIRR), and Horrell (1965) *Bantu Education to 1965* (Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations).

Appendix 4

Table A4: Qualifications of African teachers

Professionally qualified with:	Number	%
Standard Six	9, 593	13.17
Junior Certificate	38,472	52.80
Technical Certificate	56	0.08
Matriculation or Senior Certificate and Primary Teacher's Certificate	6,708	9.21
Matriculation or Senior Certificate and Secondary Teacher's Certificate	2,764	3.79
Incomplete Degree	1,126	1.55
Degree	1,524	2.09
Special Teacher's Certificate	280	0.38
TOTAL	60,523	83.06

No professional qualification but:		
Junior Certificate or lower	9,753	13.39
Technical Certificate	189	0.26
Matriculation or Senior Certificate	2,030	2.79
Incomplete Degree	131	0.18
Degree	238	0.33
TOTAL	12, 341	16.94

TOTAL	72,864	100
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From: SAIRR, 1980:472

Appendix 5

Table A5: Objectives for MEd ELM

	Primary purpose of programme
CPUT	Attainment of advanced knowledge in modules and professional skills and applied competence
CUT	Advanced & specialised professional or academic knowledge. Display intellectual independence
NWU	Applied competence. To equip leaders with scientific skills, ability to synthesise information, theory and practice build capacity
RU	Circle and tree symbols. Focus on concepts and practice
UCT	To produce graduates who have an interest in the process of change in education and who are able to both understand and apply policy with respect to this change. The course rationale is that education systems require policymakers who have a broad and critical understanding of the complexities involved in the choice, design, implementation and evaluation of education policy
UFH diss. only	Undertake well-founded and independent enquiry
UJ	To provide qualifying learners with professional, research and technical skills that are necessary for them to become highly competent education managers and leaders and to enable learners to develop intellectual and theoretical knowledge of and insight into theories, concepts and practices in education management. Its purpose is further to ensure that learners will be able to employ various skills and strategies that will assist them to reflect critically on and evaluate their experience, performance and progress and will be able to transfer and apply skills and knowledge to different contexts
UKZN	Continuing professional development and research experience and training ... develop professionally relevant knowledge, skills and understanding ... and understanding of theoretical issues impacting on education in general and their specialist areas in particular. 12 specialisations in the programme
UL	Purpose of MEd is to provide managers with opportunities to improve their management knowledge and skills and research skills through intensive reading in education management literature and scientific fieldwork in education institutions
UP	To develop specialised managerial expertise in terms of theory, techniques and to qualify as specialist education management practitioners

(continued)

	Primary purpose of programme
US	Make independent analyses of policy issues related to curriculum formation, including education, education governance, school admin and management according to local, national and international perspectives. To critically reflect, attain critical understanding of education policy, enhance educators' skills
UV	Prepare functional administrators/managers able to transform their institutions
UWC	To encourage critical reflection, discussion and systematic research on education leadership, management and administration of schools and other education institutions
WITS (generic MEd) modules relate to ELM	Extend and deepen professional competence and to develop professionals' knowledge and expertise in research to serve public and private sector needs in education To consolidate an academic foundation
WSU	Understanding curriculum issues affecting system of education

Appendix 6

Table A6: Institutional descriptions of programme objectives

Training of specialist teachers	Addressing teacher shortage	The broad educational context	Personal development
Develop Foundation Phase educators who can function effectively and efficiently in the teaching and learning environment	Address an imminent shortage of new teachers	Provide knowledge enabling an understanding of the changing educational situation	Enable students to develop as persons, increase employability and continue with lifelong learning
Provide professional educator knowledge, specific skills and applied competences in the Foundation Phase	Provide teachers in a 'scarce subject'	Provide a cadre of school educators and prospective leaders to enhance professionalism	
Provide beginner teachers with the practical, foundational and reflexive competence needed to function as competent novice teachers within the diverse South African school system	Broaden the base of competent teachers to ensure a quality school environment		
Accredit teachers with an initial qualification in Early Child Development and the Foundation Phase			
Equip students with knowledge, skills and values to enable Senior Phase learning			
Prepare and produce competent educators in any two [FET] school subjects			

Appendix 7

Table A7: Learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist

Practical competences
<i>(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow and to perform the chosen action)</i>
Adapting general educational principles to the phase/subject/learning area
Selecting, sequencing and pacing content in a manner appropriate to the phase/subject/learning area; the needs of the learners and the context
Selecting methodologies appropriate to learners and contexts
Integrating subjects into broader learning areas and learning areas into learning programmes
Teaching concepts in a manner that allows learners to transfer this knowledge and use it in different context
Foundational competences
<i>(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking that underpins the actions taken)</i>
Understanding the assumptions underlying the descriptions of competence in a particular discipline/subject/learning area
Understanding the ways of thinking and doing involved in a particular discipline/subject/learning area and how these may be taught
Knowing and understanding the content knowledge of the discipline/subject/learning area
Knowing of and understanding the content and skills prescribed by the national curriculum
Understanding the difficulties and benefits of integrating this subject into a broader learning area
Understanding the role that a particular discipline/subject/learning area plays in the work and life of citizens in South African society – particularly with regard to human rights and the environment
Reflexive competences
<i>(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision-making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions)</i>
Reflecting on and assessing own practice
Analysing lesson plans, learning programmes and assessment tasks and demonstrating an understanding of appropriate selection, sequencing and pacing of content
Identifying and critically evaluating what counts as undisputed knowledge, necessary skills and important values
Making educational judgements on educational issues arising from real practice or from authentic case study exercises
Researching real educational problems and demonstrating an understanding of the implications of this research
Reflecting on the relations between subjects/disciplines and making judgements on the possibilities of integrating them

From: Norms and Standards for Educators, 2000

Appendix 8

ACE programmes – areas of specialisation
1. Accounting Education
2. Adult and Continuing Education/Adult Basic Education/Adult Basic Education/Basic Adult Education/Educators of Adults
3. Afrikaans/Afrikaanse Taal-en Teksbegeleiding
4. Agriculture
5. Art Education/Arts and Culture
6. Assessment in Learning
7. Barriers to Learning
8. Biological Sciences/Biology/Biology Education/Biology Teaching
9. Cognitive Studies
10. Computer Education/Computer Studies/Computer-integrated Education/Computer Literacy
11. Curriculum and Professional Development/Curriculum Management/Curriculum Studies
12. Drama and Theatre in Education
13. Early Childhood Development/Early Childhood Development and Education/Grade R Education/Reception Year
14. Economic and Management Science Education/Economic Sciences/Economics and Management Sciences
15. Education
16. Education Administration, Management & Development/Education Management/Education Management and Leadership Development School Leadership/Education Management and Leadership Principalship/Education Management Leadership Development Principalship/Education Management, Administration and Policy/Educational Leadership and Management/Educational Management/Management and Administration/Principalship/School Governance and Management/School Management/School Management and Leadership
17. Educational Computing
18. Educational Law
19. Educational Management
20. Educational Resource Management
21. Educators of Health Workers
22. English Education/English Language Learning and Teaching/English Language Teaching/English/Language in Education English
23. Environmental Education
24. Family life and Sexuality Education
25. Foundation Phase
26. Gender in Education
27. General
28. Geography/Geography Education

(continued)

ACE programmes – areas of specialisation
29. Hearing Impairment
30. History Education/History Teaching
31. HIV/AIDS Education and Counselling/HIV/AIDS in Teaching
32. Hotelkeeping and Catering
33. Human Movement Education
34. Inclusive Education
35. Information and Communication Technology/ITC Integration
36. Intermediate and Senior Phase
37. Intermediate Phase
38. Language Education/Language in Learning and Teaching/Language Teaching/Language, Literacy and Communication in Primary Schools
39. Life Orientation/Life Orientation and Guidance/Life Skills/Life Skills and Health Promotion/Life Skills and Sex Education
40. Mathematical Literacy/Mathematical Science/Mathematics/Mathematics Teaching/Mathematics Education
41. Multi-grade/-age Teaching
42. Multilingual Education
43. Music
44. Natural Science and Mathematics Education/Natural Science and Technology Education/Natural Science/Physical Science/Natural Science
45. OBE Primary School/Outcomes-based Assessment and Quality Assurance/Outcomes-Based Education
46. Physical Science/Physical Science Education
47. Physiology
48. Primary School Competences
49. Professional Education Development
50. Project Management in Education
51. Psychology/Psychology of Education Support Teaching
52. Religious and Values Education
53. Remedial Education
54. School Library Development and Management
55. Science/Science Education
56. Senior Phase
57. Senior Phase, Foundation and Intermediate Phase with specialisations
58. Setswana Education
59. Social Equity and Inclusion
60. Social Sciences
61. Special Education Needs
62. Sport Development
63. Technical, Civil, Mechanical, Electrical
64. Technology/Technology and Mathematics Education/Technology and Science/Technology Education/Technology Education Primary/Technology Education
65. Tourism Travel and Tourism
66. Values/Values and Human Rights/Values and Human Rights in Education
67. Visual Arts
68. Whole Brain Teaching and Learning
69. Whole School Development

Appendix 9

Table A9: Synopsis of the stated purposes of programmes reviewed

Name of institution	Name of programme	Purpose
CPUT	ACE (Mathematical Literacy)	<p>The purpose of the qualification is to update educators' knowledge in terms of new development in the mathematical literacy specialisation, and/or enrich, deepen and extend their knowledge in this area.</p> <p>The ACE is conceived of as a form of continuing professional development, which has the purpose of enabling educators to develop their competencies and/or to change their career path and adopt new educator roles.</p>
NMMU	ACE: FET Mathematics Literacy	<p>The ACE (ML) programme was developed with the purpose of providing a suitable in-service programme for mathematical literacy as an FET band. It also provides teachers with an opportunity to further their professional development in the area of mathematical literacy and, in the process, provides them with the necessary knowledge and skills to improve learner performance in ML. The ACE ML reflects the core purpose of this particular qualification, which has been specified as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide training in a new area of study, viz., mathematical literacy • To provide an opportunity for educators to update, enrich and/or supplement their existing knowledge and competence in their area of study • To provide South African schools with educators who can engage in reflective practice in order to gain a growing understanding of their diverse needs of South African citizens • To provide, in certain circumstances, the opportunity for educators to upgrade from NQF Level 5 to NQF Level 6

(continued)

NWU (Mafikeng)	ACE (Mathematics/ Science Education)	The ACE (Mathematics/Science) Programme was designed to improve the competences of students in fundamental learning, core learning and elective learning. The content of each specialisation includes sufficient opportunity for the teacher-students to equip themselves with the applied skills necessary for effective teaching and to prepare them for further studies at NQF Level 7. All outcomes are related to the basic purpose of the programme, ¹ which is, equipping learners with knowledge and skills necessary for demonstrating competencies required by any NQF Level 6 programme. The criteria for assessment are developed in such a way as to assist students to demonstrate their acquired knowledge and skills. For example, if the module outcome expects a learner to ‘demonstrate competence in the development of practical skills and techniques required for effective functioning within his/her field of study’, the specific outcome may require him/her to ‘demonstrate an understanding of the basic techniques used in research work in his/her area of study’. This can be demonstrated by showing competent knowledge of the basic techniques of research in the specialised field, and making meaningful presentations to colleagues and supervisors about research conducted.
NWU (Potchefstroom)	ACE Science Education (FET)	The NWU takes cognisance of national and regional priorities. The science education specialisation contributes specifically to resolve the undersupply of teachers in the scarce skill areas. The science education programme also addresses the need to upgrade the knowledge, competencies and skills of underqualified educators recognised in the National Strategy For Mathematics, Science and Technology Education In General and Further Education and Training. The outcomes of the science education programme focus on subject-specific content and the enhancement of conceptual understanding.
RU	ACE (Mathematics)	The primary purpose of the ACE (M) is to improve the mathematical and pedagogical knowledge and skills of practicing teachers to teach mathematics more confidently. However, the ACE also serves as a route through which students with 3-year diplomas may continue with further studies in education.

(continued)

1 Calendar for School of Continuing Education 2007 page 11 (available on site)

TUT	ACE (Senior Phase and FET: Mathematical Literacy)	<p>The primary purpose of the ACE is to provide for training in a new area of study such as subject specialisation as well as to enable educators to update, enrich and/or supplement their existing knowledge and competence in an area of study which, although previously studied at a more basic level, does not yet qualify educators to continue that specialisation area in a qualification at NQF Level 7.</p> <p>The qualifying learner/educator will be competent in facilitating teaching and learning within an elected area of specialisation in the General and Further Education and Training Band.</p> <p>The qualifying learner/educator will be competent in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitating learning (Facilitator) • Interpreting and designing learning programmes and materials • Fulfilling administrative roles (leader and manager) • Promoting a critical and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards the community (Citizenship and pastoral role) assessment (Assessor) • Facilitating learning within a specific area of specialisation • Pursuing reflective study and research (scholar and lifelong learner)
UCT	ACE (Mathematics)	<p>The ACE (Mathematics), in keeping with the description with its purpose in the norms and standards for educators and the educators in schooling qualification, was designed with 2 groups of teachers in mind: those who were interested in changing their area of specialisation in response mainly to the demand for qualified mathematics educators who wish to update their existing knowledge in response to the challenges of new content in curriculum 2005 as well as pedagogical demands in classroom practice. The former group included Foundation Phase teachers who wanted to teach in the intermediate and senior phases.</p>
UFH	ACE (Mathematics)	<p>The purpose of the qualification is specified in the Faculty Prospectus as follows: 'The ACE (Mathematics) aims to improve the theoretical understanding and professional practice of educators in Mathematics' (2006:34). This is in line with the purpose of the ACE as specified in the Government Gazette of August, 2001 (D2.iii).</p>
UFS	ACE (Mathematics Education) FET Phase	<p>The purpose of the ACE programme in mathematics education is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide training to students in a new field of study • Update, enrich and/or supplement students' existing knowledge and competence within an field of study • Empower students to embark on further studies by means of horizontal or vertical articulation

(continued)

UKZN	ACE (Mathematics GET)	<p>The Mathematics (GET) ACE programme is internally coherent and in alignment with the prescribed level and purpose of the ACE as defined in policy. The combination of modules within the programme does not lead to a professional qualification, but is rather designed to develop specialised knowledge for Mathematics Teaching in the Senior Phase of the GET (Grades 7–9). The programme comprises 8 modules of 16 credit points each to make up a total of 128 credits. These are offered over 2 years of part-time study. The modules within the programme fit in with the purpose of the ACE, which is to enable educators to update and supplement existing knowledge which allows them to be upgraded from NQF Level 5 to NQF Level 6</p>
UJ	ACE (Mathematics)	<p>The purpose of the programme is articulated in the SAQA submission and is as follows: ‘The primary aim of the ACE: Mathematics Education is to enable school educators/teachers currently in possession of an NQF Level 5 qualification to upgrade their qualification to NQF 6 and their educator status to REQV 14. The ACE can therefore be regarded as a form of continuing professional education that will empower educator learners in the area of Mathematics Education.’</p> <p>The purpose perhaps neglects to explicate that the qualification is not only geared at subject content, but also applied competence as is espoused by the module Subject Didactics Mathematics Education.</p> <p>The ACE: Mathematics Education is further in alignment with the prescribed level and purpose of ACE programmes as these requirements have been set out in the Norms and Standards for Teacher Education (2000). It is a 128 credit, NQF Level 6 qualification as required, and it enables school teachers in possession of an NQF Level 5 qualification to upgrade their qualification to NQF Level 6 and their teacher status to REQV14, or alternatively to update and enrich their existing knowledge (compare SGB for Educators in Schooling, 2001). To ensure that the subject content is in alignment with expected norms and levels, examination papers are peer reviewed by external examiners</p>
UL	ACE: Mathematics Education (ACEM)	<p>Through the programme, DMSTE undertakes to develop in participants the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to develop an exemplary mathematics teaching practice, relevant to participants’ personal background and context, in accordance with government requirements and modern understandings of effective mathematics teaching and learning. Thus the success of the programme rests squarely on two pillars: firstly a deep understanding of mathematics teachers in provinces with predominantly rural schools, their background and context; secondly, a thorough contextual knowledge and understanding of mathematics education in all its aspects.</p>

(continued)

UNISA	ACE Mathematics (Intermediate and Senior Phase)	<p>The primary purpose of this capping qualification is to provide South African school teachers with further knowledge, skills and applied competences to enable them to have a better understanding of and ability to address particular educational needs in the country. The qualification aims at providing further: specialised subject (learning area/discipline) and phase competence and competence in applying the roles of education practitioners in the area of specialisation.</p> <p>The qualification is pitched at NQF Level 6 and therefore includes appropriate demands in terms of academic and practical rigour. The qualification thus aims to enable qualifiers to develop as persons, to increase their employability and to further their studies on a postgraduate level.</p>
US	ACE in Mathematical Literacy	<p>The ACE programme at US reflects the central purpose of this particular qualification, which is specified as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The first purpose of this qualification is to provide qualifiers with advanced professional teacher education with a specialised focus. • The second purpose is to provide schools with professional educators with specialised skills/competence. • The third purpose of the qualification is to provide South African schools with school educators who can engage in reflective practice in order to gain a growing understanding of the diverse needs of South African learners.
UWC	ACE (Mathematics)	<p>The ACE: Mathematics at the University of the Western Cape examines in an integrated way the core elements of Mathematics prescribed for the GET and the FET Band viz., to think abstractly, to analyse, hypothesise, engage in critical thinking and reflect in the contexts of the 4 learning outcomes of the Mathematics Learning area as articulated by the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) and thereafter the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). Since outcomes-based education forms the foundation of the new curriculum and informs the grade-specific learning outcomes and assessment standards to be achieved by the individual learner, UWC is committed to developing educators in a manner that would best serve the policies and prescriptions of the New Curriculum statement and is committed to the sentiments expressed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), which provides the basis for curriculum transformation and development in South Africa.</p> <p>The course is designed to meet the mathematical needs of teachers who are planning to teach or are currently teaching in the GET (Intermediate, Senior Phase) and the FET phase (Mathematics and Mathematical Literacy).</p>

(continued)

UZ	ACE (Mathematics and Science Education (GET and Senior Phase)	<p>The purpose of the ACE programme is to provide already qualified educators with an opportunity to upgrade their content knowledge as well as pedagogical skills in their areas of specialisation, and to prepare them for the ever-changing circumstances in schools. ACE is the sphere of elective competences at NQF Level 6 and the programme is, generally, open to candidates in possession of approved NQF Level 6 qualifications. In the case of scarce subjects, ACE can be used for upgrading from NQF Level 5 to NQF Level 6. Since students enrolled for our ACE qualifications are in possession of an approved qualification at NQF Level 5, e.g. NPDE or a 3-year qualification, our ACE qualifications ensure that core and fundamental competences of professional qualifications at NQF Level 6 are catered for.</p>
WSU	ACE: Mathematics	<p>The primary purpose of the programme is to address the acute qualitative and quantitative shortage of Mathematics teachers by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • re-skilling teachers of Mathematics whose knowledge and skills are outdated • upgrade the qualifications of those Mathematics teachers who are underqualified in relation to the levels of the classes they teach • redirect teachers with elementary mathematical knowledge and skills some of whom may not necessarily be teaching the subject but would like to develop themselves as Mathematics teachers

Appendix 10

Table A10: How institutions developed their offerings leading to the ACE qualification (institution perspective)

Institution	Staff	Centre abbreviation	Year formed	Structure
NMMU	All academic and professional staff teaching on the ACE have recognised relevant qualifications (3) Of the fourteen lecturers in the original team, eight are male and six female	SMATE	2003	The ACE: ML programme is offered by the Department of Science, Mathematics and Technology Education in the School for Specialised Studies in Education of the Faculty of Education. The school and the department are headed, respectively, by a Director and a Head of Department. The organisational structure of the faculty allows for a division between academic and administrative roles related to the programme. The academic responsibilities reside with the Programme Coordinator (who must be a full-time academic in the faculty) and the Programme Administrator (a full-time administrator) supports the programme in terms of its administrative needs.
NWU (Potchefstroom)	Academic staff for off-campus programmes at the SCTE (31)	SCTE	2006	The Management Committee (Dean and school directors) of the faculty determines that the School of Continuing Teachers' Education is responsible for the planning, implementation and quality assurance of off-campus programmes and qualifications. The organisational structure of the unit that offers the programme, the SCTE (School of Continuing Teachers' Education), is designed in such a way that attaining the vision, goals and objectives of the ACE qualification programme is enhanced.
RU	Academic staff members (8) The composition of teaching staff is balanced, with three members being female and four being male	RUMEP	1993	The programme is integral to Rhodes University's planning, approval, resource allocation and quality assurance process. RUMEP is an independent funded project linked to the University. The organisational structure of the unit comprises of a Board of Control (BOC). The members of the BOC include the RUMEP Director, various members of the university and members from outside the university consisting of representatives at local, provincial and national level.

Institution	Staff	Centre abbreviation	Year formed	Structure
UCT	All are professional members of staff (17)	SDU	2000	Many functions previously controlled by the centre were devolved to the faculties under executive deans when the faculty restructuring took place. The relationship of the school to the faculty is, thus, a central one, which underlines the benefits that have accrued to the school since 2000.
UNISA	Academic and professional staff teaching on the ACE have recognised, relevant qualifications (4)	SACE	2004	The unit offering the ACE has an organisational structure that enhances the fulfilment of its stated mission, goals and objectives and provides for the effective participation of faculty and learners in matters of importance. The matrix structure of the School has been set out in the Introduction. The interaction between programme committees which focus on cross-cutting programme issues in an integrated way and interest groups which ensure disciplinary coherence and progression is seen as the most efficient and effective organisational structure for the current education scenario of outcomes-based education.
US	8	IMSTUS	1978	Part of US planning approval resource allocation and quality assurance process. The units responsible for the managements and administration in the Institute for Mathematics and Science Teaching. The Director for IMSTUS accepts full responsibility for the academic management of all the ACE programmes.
UWC	Academic staff members teaching the programme in 2005 (4)	SSME	1994	ACE Mathematics resort under the School of Science and Mathematics Education under the aegis of a Director. Organisationally the ACE resorts under the Professional Programmes Committee of the faculty.

Appendix 11

Table A11: ACE modules offered

Institution	Modules and credit weights							
CPUT ACE (Mathematical Literacy) NQF 6 Total credits: 136	Education IV 35 CR Level 6	Research Methodology 10 CR Level 6	Specific Subject Didactics 28 CR Level 6	Maths Literacy 1 28 CR Level 5	Maths Literacy 2 35 CR Level 5			
NMMU ACE: FET Mathematics Literacy NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Mathematical Literacy for the self-managing person 30 CR	Mathematical Literacy in the workplace 30 CR	Mathematical Literacy for the concerned citizen 30 CR	Developing Mathematic Skills in context 30 CR				
NWU (Mafikeng) ACE (Mathematics/ Science Education) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Basic Classroom Research 12 CR	Principles of Learning Maths/Sc 12 CR	Teaching & Learning Strategy for Maths/Sc 24 CR	Computers in Maths/Sc 24 CR	Content Speciality (Maths/Sc) 24 CR	Practical School Project 24 CR		
NWU (Potchefstroom) ACE Science Education (FET) NQF 6 Total credits: 128	Chemistry for Sc Ed A 16 CR	Physics for Sc Ed A 16 CR	Computer Technology in Ed 8 CR	Teaching & Learning A 8 CR	Foundation Studies in Ed & Teaching 8 CR	Chemistry for Sc Ed B 16 CR	Physics for Sc Ed B 16 CR	Computer Principles in Ed 8 CR
RU ACE (Mathematics) NQF 6 Total credits: 132	Literacy & Numeracy 12 CR	Maths Ed 24 CR	Curr Studies in Maths 1 24 CR	Teaching, Learning & Research 24 CR	Education Environment 12 CR	Curr Studies in Maths 2 24 CR	Technology Ed (SP and FET only) 12 CR	

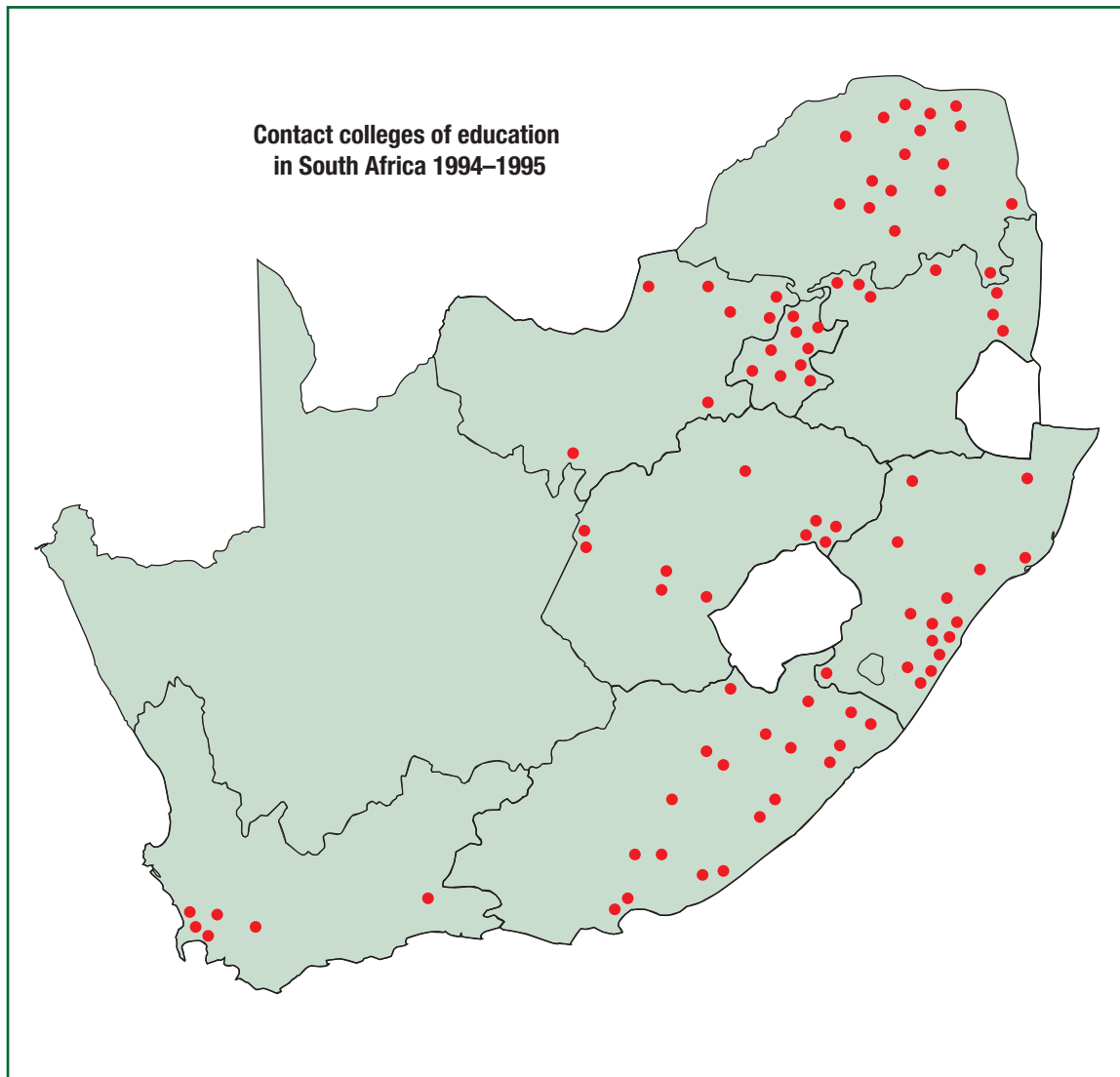
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Institution	Modules and credit weights							
TUT ACE (Senior Phase and FET: Mathematical Literacy) NQF 6 Total credits: 36	Maths Literacy 1 28 CR Level 5	Maths Literacy 2 35 CR Level 5	Specific Subject Didactics IV 28 CR Level 6	Education IV 35 CR Level 6	Research Methodology 10 CR Level 6			
UCT ACE (Mathematics) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	GET Maths: Curric A 12 CR	GET Maths: Curr B 12	GET Maths: Number 24 CR	GET Maths Algebra 24 CR	GET Maths: Shape & Measurement 24 CR	GET Maths: Data Handling 24 CR	Computer Literacy 0 CR	
UFH ACE (Mathematics) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Literacy & Numeracy Level 5 12 CR	The Education Environment Level 6 12 CR	Maths Ed 1 Level 6 28 CR	Maths Ed 2 Level 6 28 CR	Curric Studies in Maths 1 Level 6 20 CR	Curric Studies in Maths 2 Level 6 20 CR		
UFS ACE (Mathematics Education) FET Phase NQF 6 Total credits: 128	SA Educ Systems 8 CR	Phil of Ed 8 CR	Psych of Ed 8 CR	Curric Science 8 CR	Content, Methods, Media in Maths Ed 8 CR	Learning Theories & Strategies in Maths Ed 8 CR	Classroom Management 8 CR	Assessment in Maths 8 CR
UJ ACE (Mathematics) NQF 6 Total credits: 128	Maths 1 32 CR	Maths 2 32 CR	Computers for Educators 32 CR	Subject Didactics Maths 32 CR				
UKZN ACE (Mathematics GET) NQF 6 Total credits: 128	Curric Studies in Maths 1A 16 CR	Curric Studies in Maths 1B 16 CR	Curric Studies in Maths 2 A 16 CR	Curric Studies in Maths 2B 16 CR	Maths Ed 1A 16 CR	Maths Ed 1B 16 CR	Education Policy & Professionalism 16 CR	Learning & Teaching 16 CR
UL ACE: Mathematics Education (ACEM) NQF Levels 5 and 6 Total credits: 120	Computer Literacy 10 CR Level 5	Education 20 CR Level 6 (core) 10 CR Level 6 (elective)	Mathematics 20 CR Level 5 (core) 40 CR Level 6 (core) 10 CR Level 6 (electives)	Natural Sciences/ Technology 10 CR Level 5				

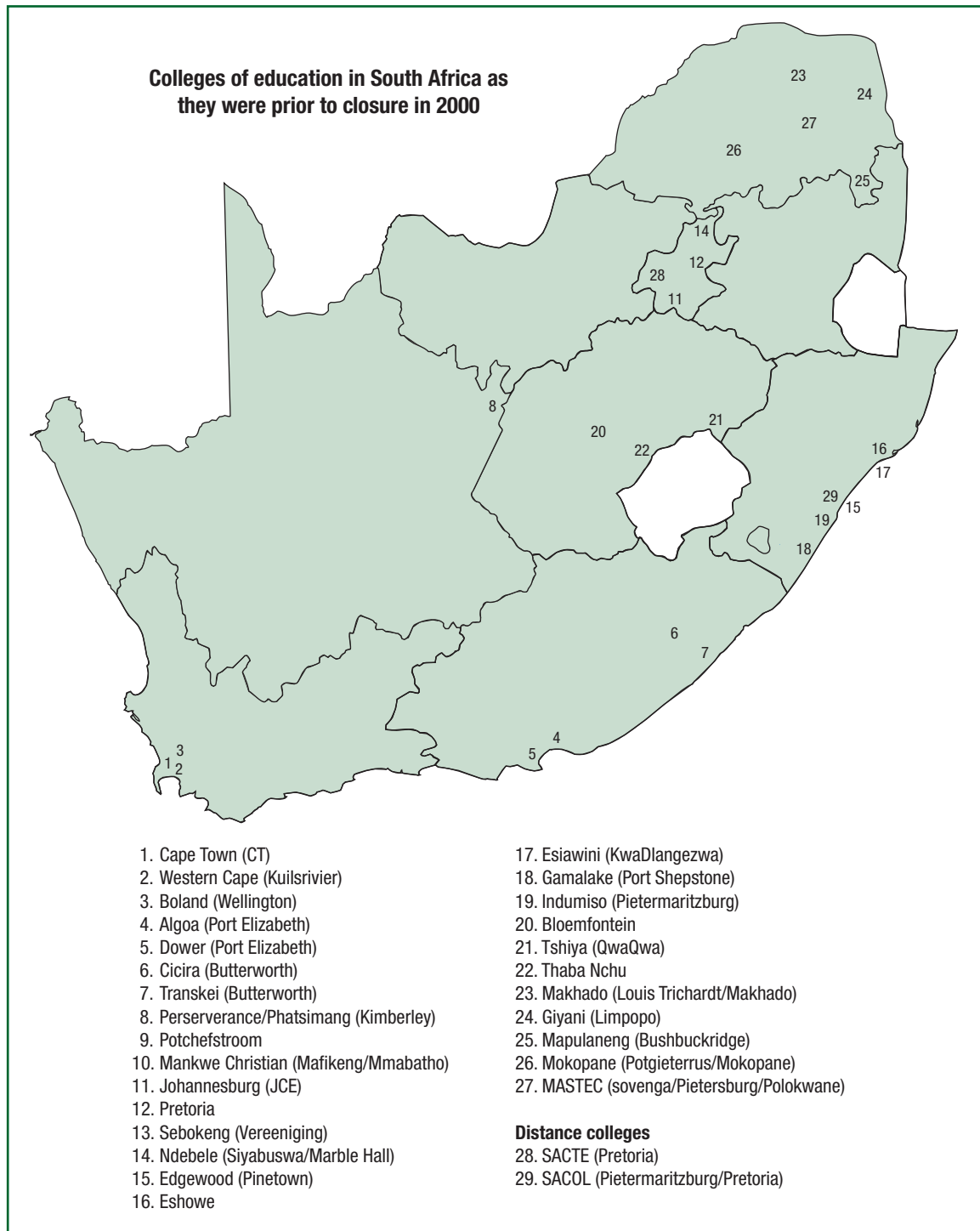
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Institution	Modules and credit weights							
UNISA ACE Mathematics (Intermediate and Senior Phase) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Learning and Teaching of Intermediate & Senior Phase Maths 24 CR	Algebra for Intermediate & Senior Phase Teachers 24 CR	Spatial Development for Intermediate & Senior Phase Teachers 24 CR	Mathematical Practices for Intermediate & Senior Phase Teachers 24 CR	Mathematical Practices for Intermediate & Senior Phase Teachers 24 CR	Statistics Education & Basic Financial Maths in the Intermediate & Senior Phase 24 CR		
US ACE in Mathematical Literacy NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Maths (Sec Ed) 172 24 CR	Applied Maths (Sec Ed) 172 14 CR	Statistical Methods (Sec Ed) 173 10 CR	Subject Didactics Maths (Sec Ed) 172 8 CR	Perspectives on Education 172 4 CR	Maths (Sec Ed) 182 24 CR	Maths (Sec Ed) 183 14 CR	Statistical Methods (Sec Ed) 183 10 CR
UWC ACE (Mathematics) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Maths for Teaching 113 12 CR	Maths for Teaching 114 12 CR	Maths Ed 117 12 CR	Computer Science 110 12 CR	Elective Module 1 12 CR	Maths for Teaching 115 12 CR	Maths for Teaching 116 12 CR	Maths Ed 121 12 CR
UZ ACE (Mathematics and Science Education (GET and Senior Phase) NQF 6 Total credits: 120	Communication & Presentation skills 12 CR	Information Literacy 12 CR	Chemistry & Life 12 CR	Everyday Physics 12 CR	Science for the living 12 CR	Assessment & Evaluation 12 CR	Geometry 12 CR	Algebra 12 CR
WSU ACE Mathematics NQF 6 Total credits: 120 NB Students register for 7 Modules	Organisational Communication 12 CR	Communication Skills & Professional Dev 18 CR	Advanced Algebra 18 CR	Dimensional Geometry 18 CR	Euclidean & Analytical Geometry 18 CR	Enrichment Maths Elective 18 CR	Maths Methodology 18 CR	Elements of Technology 18 CR

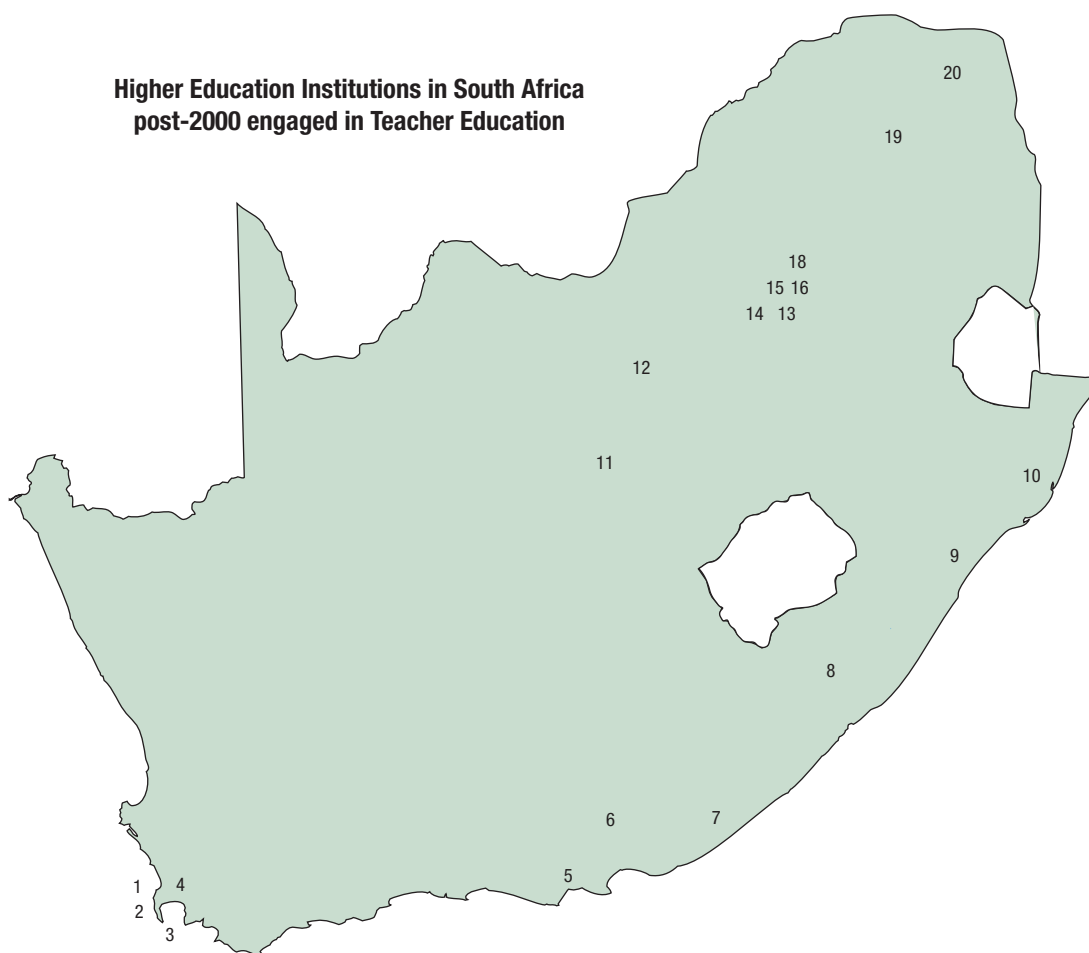
Appendix 12



Appendix 13



Higher Education Institutions in South Africa post-2000 engaged in Teacher Education



- | | |
|---------|-----------|
| 1. UCT | 11. UFS |
| 2. CPUT | 12. NWU |
| 3. UWC | 13. WITS |
| 4. US | 14. UJ |
| 5. NMMU | 15. UP |
| 6. RU | 16. UNISA |
| 7. UFH | 17. CUT |
| 8. WSU | 18. TUT |
| 9. UKZN | 19. UL |
| 10. UZ | 20. UV |

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